Chapter 2

Review of Literature on Teaching-Learning Materials

2.1 Introduction

Teaching and learning, especially language teaching and learning, are complex processes of an education system that involve the interaction of various variables. While for a learner, the basic necessity for learning is the awareness of ‘what to learn,’ for a teacher, teaching is governed by ‘what to teach.’ The previous chapter summed up with a concluding remark that even if the internal factors including motivation, cognition and hemispheric dominance; and external factors such as teacher instruction and curriculum fall short in their effectiveness, the loss can be overcome by an effectual and well structured teaching-learning material.

Materials are a set of tools that facilitate learning by providing required input that meet the objectives. Teaching-learning material (TLM) consists of a variety of resources that are used by a teacher to teach the concepts outlined in the curriculum, and by learner in learning and deriving knowledge out of the course. TLMs exploit the concepts that a learner is familiar with, and at the same time reflect upon and introduce a new and complex theory to raise the graph of learning.

TLMs include books, handbooks, guided readers, eLearning and other technological resources. They work as representatives of the entire planned educational system in a nutshell and contribute to effective teaching. A good material contains within itself relevant questions to activate the learners’ schemata, meaningful activities to put the prior understanding into practical use and well structured and explanatory text to enhance the knowledge. TLMs include realia accompanied with illustrations, media and graphic organisers to strengthen the bond between knowledge and the learners. Acknowledging the importance of materials in teaching-learning process, this chapter intends to discuss what materials are, their types and importance, principles that play their part behind the designing of teaching-learning material and other relevant theories.
2.2 Defining Teaching-Learning Materials

Silva and Infante include the definition of teaching-learning materials in their work “The Role of Digital Libraries in Teaching Materials Science and Engineering” as “a spectrum of educational materials that teachers use in the classroom to support specific learning objectives, as set out in lesson plans” (210). Some of the examples to TLMs acknowledged by scholars are story books, blocks, samples of student writing, videos and flash cards which form an important tool for a teacher that aids in the uncomplicated explanation of the lesson. Collins English e-dictionary supports the theory and defines teaching material as “any device, object, or machine used by a teacher to clarify or enliven a subject.”

Brian Tomlinson defines teaching-learning materials in his work “Material Development” written in 2001 and elaborates on the aforementioned theory from the point of view of learner rather than teacher. He puts in writing that materials “include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD or the internet” (66).

Brown in his book The Elements of Language Curriculum: A Systematic Approach to Program Development written in 1995 prefers to describe material as “any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be used in classroom teaching” (139). Brown’s definition of materials reflects upon the extensive time and efforts that are involved in designing and organising a successful teaching-learning material. TLMs are not any random collection of chapters and activities; rather, they are derived skilfully to meet the demands and requirements of the learning process.

Szendrei in 1996 wrote an article “Concrete Materials in the Classroom” where she acclaims that teaching and learning materials are tangible materials that are inspired by real-life and “commonly used in out-of-school” settings (418). These materials comprise of those educational materials that are envisioned and produced artificially for the purpose of education. Szendrei asserts that teaching and learning materials provide learners and the teacher with opportunities to involve in a substantial discussion.
This view of Szendrei is further strengthened by Richards and Renandya as
the introduction of their book *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of
Current Practice* written in 2002 claims that “instructional materials generally serve
as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and language practice that
occurs in the classroom” (65-66). In their manual *Primary Teachers’ Use of Learning
Materials*, Baxen and Green claim that “learning materials facilitate the learning
process and encompass more than merely textbooks. They can be created or designed
from a variety of sources which can be derived from print, combinative, electronic
and physical sources” (6).

Allwright believes that TLMs teach learners how to learn. They function as
“resource books for ideas and activities for instruction/learning, and . . . give teachers
rationales for what they do” (qtd. in Kitao and Kitao). In one of his articles “What Do
We Want Teaching Materials For?” written in 1981, Allwright talks about the two
approaches on the role of teaching material. While one of the approaches,
“Deficiency view” claims that materials serve as covering sheet to hide the
deficiencies of a teacher and provides with guidance to cover the prescribed syllabus;
another approach i.e. “Difference view” avows that experts, not classroom teachers,
can produce the best possible material for teaching as the two fields require different
kinds of expertise (6). Allwright, however, claims that “materials should be related to
the conception of the whole of language teaching and learning as the cooperative
management of language learning” (16).

Sindhu, in her manual *Teaching Strategies and Material Development* written
in 2007, recognizes that “Learning aids make learning meaningful and easier” (4).
Over the time, various researches have indicated that effective use of teaching-
learning materials enhance learners’ creativity and practical thinking. Theorists claim
that humans learn and retain better when their senses are involved in the learning
process. Of all the five senses, humans learn best by seeing, hearing or touching
things. Teaching-learning materials that invoke to the visual, auditory and
kinaesthetic senses of the learner may lead to reinforced learning as learners
remember those ideas that are presented in the manner which suits their cognitive
style.
Maduna discusses Mkhtashwa’s point of view where the latter shares that the use of TLMs not only helps in making the lesson more understandable; in fact it further imprints the information on the minds of the learner (12). Schain and Polner advocate in their book *Using Effective Discipline For Better Class Control* written in 1966 that the introduction of material, which is both visually interesting as well as challenging to the learners, motivates in their learning process. Therefore, the teaching-learning materials should be designed in a manner so as to meet the cognitive styles of the learners. TLMs can play the role of forming a bridge between learner and the things to be learnt.

Lee, Zuze and Ross in their work found that students in better physically resourced schools achieved higher. Katharina Michaelowa, in her work “Primary Education Quality in Francophone Sub-Saharan Africa: Determinants of Learning Achievement and Efficiency Considerations” in 2001 analysed the “Program on the Analysis of Education Systems” (PASEC), data on primary education in five Francophone Sub-Saharan African countries Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Madagascar and Senegal. It was found that there existed “a strongly significant and positive impact of the availability of students’ textbooks (BOOKS) on learning achievement” (17).

Velez, Schiefelbein and Valenzuela in their article “Factors Affecting Achievements in Primary Education: A Review of the Literature for Latin America and Caribbean” published in 1993 “reviewed 18 empirical quantitative studies at the primary level conducted in Latin America and the Caribbean mainly in the 1980s and identified that access to textbooks and other instructional materials were related positively to academic achievement” (qtd. in Shahzadi, Shaheen and Shah 186). “The Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project” conducted by Department for International Development (DFID) in 2003 concluded that “The impact of textbooks is greatest in the poorest countries where teacher quality may be low and where facilities and resources are scarce and generally of poor quality.” Boissiere’s paper “Determinants of Primary Education Outcomes in Developing Countries” written in 2004 further confirms that in developing countries textbooks and writing materials are main providers of effectiveness at the primary level.
Hence, teaching-learning materials are the assistants in teaching as well as learning situation that give direction to the learning through its sequential and progressive arrangements of the topics to be covered. Teachers as well as learners depend largely on TLMs for their success in the academic programme. Relevantly edited and appropriately graded materials are most effective in their functioning. With intensive research done in the area and wide range of materials, especially language learning materials, readily available in the market and on internet, it has become feasible to have access to opportunities to better acquisition of language.

2.3 Need to Have Teaching-Learning Materials

Küçükahmet and Leyla, in the book “Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri” written in 1995 point out certain important purposes served by the materials in an educational programme. Seven and Engin in their paper “The Importance and Effect of Using Aid Materials in Foreign Language Teaching” quotes Küçükahmet and Leyla, as they mention following roles played by materials in the language learning system-

- Materials help in economical use of time and speech.
- Good materials enhance the quality of the course.
- Effective material makes the course simple as it presents abstract concepts in a concrete manner.
- Materials assist in making the course attractive and easy to comprehend.
- Materials held in boosting students’ interest and motivation, and create the desire for more learning.
- Ideal materials provide appropriate chances for practice.

2.4 Types of Materials

Teaching-learning materials include within their parameters more than mere textbooks. While some materials are in the printed form, others are available in the electronic form to explore knowledge. Materials can be classified into different categories on the basis of different considerations.

Carlos Mayora, in his presentation on “Language Teaching Materials,” published in 2013, classifies materials on the basis of the following three broad categories.
2.4.1 On the basis of their purpose

Teaching-learning materials can be defined on the basis of the purpose they meet in the language teaching and learning programme. Carlos prefers to categorise them as given below.

2.4.1.1 Instructional Material

The Great Soviet Encyclopaedia defines instructional material as “educational resources used to improve students’ knowledge abilities, and skills, to monitor their assimilation of information, and to contribute to their overall development and upbringing.” In other words, instructional materials are the resources that govern the learning process and assist in transferring the knowledge from one to another. They are fixed in their content and oriented towards one subject. As the name suggests, instructional materials ‘instruct’ and direct the learners in their course of learning. Instructional materials act as the stimulus in the learning process, help in organizing the teaching-learning process and provides the models of appropriate language use. “The Legislative Council’s Digest” defines instructional materials as the following:

[Instructional materials] are designed for use by pupils and their teachers as a learning resource and help pupils to acquire facts, skills, or opinions to develop cognitive process. Instructional materials may be printed or non-printed, and may include textbooks, technology-based materials, other educational materials and texts.

2.4.1.2 Authentic Material

Nunan and Miller in their book New Ways in Teaching Listening in 1995, define authentic materials as “those which were not created or edited expressly for language learners. This means that most everyday objects in the target language qualify as authentic materials” (qtd. in Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene 94). Wallace elaborates on the view on authentic materials in her book Reading and describes them as “. . . real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes” (145). On the other hand, in the words of Little, Devitt and Singleton, authentic materials can be explained as “. . . materials that have been produced to fulfil some social purpose in the language
community” (qtd. in Peacock 146). The list of authentic materials include items such as train schedules, pictures of road signs, business cards, labels, menus, brochures, receipts, literature, newspapers, television programs, radio broadcasts, films, internet websites and much more.

Authentic materials expose the learners to the real language and help in realising that there exists a language community in the real world which uses the particular structure, vocabulary and grammar. It, in turn, promotes language learning and motivates the learners in learning the language to be able to use it in the real life situations.

2.4.2 On the basis of their format

Apart from the purposes for which the material is produced, the format in which these materials are available forms an important criterion of distinction of material types. Different materials designed on different formats meet diverse needs of varied learners. In the opinion of Carlos, the teaching-learning materials are majorly divided into three categories on the basis of their format.

2.4.2.1 Printed Material

Printed material is the term used to describe the materials which are available to the learners in the printed form for future reference. Books, textbooks, magazines, newspapers, journals, brochures etc are different materials that can be included in the above mentioned category. The hard copies of these printed materials are available for those learners who learn better through visual senses.

2.4.2.2 Audio-visual Material

Audio-visual materials, as the name suggests, refer to the materials which evoke the auditory and visual senses of the learners. These materials involve visual recordings along with sounds. Psychologists recognize the importance of illustration for concrete learning. Pooja Mondal in her article “The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Teaching,” claims that audio-visual aids “stimulate the imagination and develop the mental imagery of the pupils,” “facilitate the understanding of the pupils” and “provide incentive for action.”
2.4.2.3 Electronic Material

An insight to electronic media can be traced out from the words of Kim Miller where electronic materials are defined as the following:

[Electronic materials are the] materials that are distributed digitally and can be accessed via a computer, the Internet, or a portable device such as an e-book reader. Types of electronic materials include e-books and downloadable electronic video and audio files. Electronic Materials packaged together as a unit and checked out as a unit are counted as one unit.

Unlike printed materials, which are stored in the form of books and are expensive in nature, electronic materials are readily accessible and easily available for all.

Electronic materials can be broadly divided into two categories—online e-resources that include webpages, e-books, e-journals and e-libraries; and offline resources that take in CD Rom based e-resources, MS Office applications etc. These electronic resources are comprehensive in nature and do not occupy much physical space for their storage. However, electronic resources require installation of electronic devices such as computers, overhead projectors etc, which can prove to be expensive for any institution.

2.4.3 On the basis of their creator

Teaching-learning materials can be created by expert material developers in collaboration with publishers and distributors for wide circulation in the commercial market, or by teacher independently keeping in mind the needs of local-individual classes. Based on their creators, on a broad scale, Carlos divides the TLMs into the following two types.

2.4.3.1 Commercial Material

In this day and age, there is abundance of teaching-learning materials available in the markets. These materials are designed by the experts following the standards of the world. These materials are called commercial materials. They serve the purpose of enhancing the teachers’ instructions in the classroom. Commercial
materials are produced by big publication houses based on an analysis of market needs, and are equipped with latest methodological details to attract their buyers. On one side while such materials may prove to “provide structure and a syllabus” for a teaching-learning programme and “standardize instructions,” on the other side they can be far from the needs of the learners in a particular situation as they are framed on general methodological grounds. There materials, though are useful aid to the teacher, may sometimes lead to reducing the role of a teacher to a “technician whose primarily function is to present materials prepared by others” (Richards and Renandya 67).

2.4.3.2 In-house Material

Often TLMs are specially developed by the teachers to cater the needs of their learners. Such materials are called as in-house materials. Gardner and Miller in their book *Establishing Self Access: From Theory to Practice* written in 1999 suggest that such locally-produced in-house materials are more effective than the commercial materials available in the markets because these materials cater to the individual and more specific learning goals and needs. Hence, the teacher can even modify these materials according to their lesson objectives. The in-house materials are more likely to be up to date as well as cheaper as compared to commercial materials. Among all these pros of such materials, certain cons may rise as well. It is evident that material production is a skilful and time consuming activity. Before opting to consider developing their own in-house material, the teachers should be well trained in the process, or else it may result into a failure.

2.5 An Insight into the History of ELT Materials

As discussed in sections above, TLM forms an integrated part of any learning program. Over the ages, there has never been an insufficiency in the availability of English language teaching materials. Still challenges in the path of English language learning could never be met successfully. It has raised the concerns of the educators, and it has become the need of the hour to look for the reasons behind the problem. In the review of Howatt’s book *A History of English Language Teaching*, Tickoo quotes Gatenby’s words that “. . . language teaching suffers for want of awareness of what has been established in earlier generations” (103). Gatenby’s statement does carry a valid argument. It cannot be denied that every discovery or theory, failure or blessing, contributes positively to the forthcoming ones. Howatt in 1984 gave the first
comprehensive history of English Language teaching covering more than a few centuries in his thoughtful study. Keeping *A History of English Language Teaching* as the primary source of information, this section provides a detailed look at the history of how materials for English language teaching have evolved over the years.

### 2.5.1 Early History (Late 15th Century to Late 16th Century)

In Europe, in the late fifteenth century, an interest for learning the English language was observed in the mercantile community, especially among the Flanders. As a result to it, ‘double-manuals' were published that were set in the *maniere* tradition. The French word ‘*maniere*’ means ‘method or style.’ These manuals were bilingual, written in the two languages; a dialogue of French followed by its English translation. Aiming to teach English to French speakers and vice versa, the majority of the customers of these manuals were found to be French merchants, as they realized the fact that even a little use of customer’s language can create wonders in business. First of such manuals was prepared by William Caxton in 1483. The title page of this book has been lost but it is referred to by its sub heading *Tres bonne doctrine pour apprendre briefment fransoys et engloys* or *Right good lernyng for to lerne shortly frenssh and englyssh.* Designed for the commercial needs, this manual was purely practical in its aim and gave no linguistic information of either of the two languages. The manual was later followed by another manual *A Lytell tretyse for me to learne Englesshe and Frensshe* published by Caxton’s assistant Wynken de Worde in 1498.

In the early sixteenth century, other visible signs of growing interest for learning English were observed within the continent. During the time of Renaissance, polygot dictionaries and phrase books were published to equip the inhabitants with the survival knowledge of language of Europe—French, Italian and Latin. English found its place in these guides along with these classical languages.

Double manuals were being written in England as well as in the entire continent. Howatt claims that the manuals written in the other parts of the continent, like France, proved better guide in providing practice for English as a foreign language. Among the early examples of double manuals written specifically to teach English is *A Treatise for All to Learn to Speak French and English* written by Gabriel Meurier in 1553. This manual contained the format for writing letters, sample
dialogues for making pacts and obligations, quittances and other important samples of use of language by merchants.

Among the last such manuals to teach English to foreigners until more serious attempts were made was *A Very Profitable Book to Learn the Manner of Reading, Writing and Speaking English and Spanish* written in 1554. This manual was written to catch Spanish customers who were expected to visit London to attend the wedding of Phillip II of Spain and Mary I. The critics criticize this manual to be a work of haste. The manual was translation of a Flemish-Latin manual of 1551 and signs of haste were clearly evident. The vocabulary provided at the end of the manual was originally arranged in alphabetical order in Flemish-Latin manual, but when translated into English-Spanish, the alphabetical order was disturbed and left unarranged. Moreover the dialogues were set in Flemish and Latin situational background and contexts which remained unaltered in the translation as well.

The mid of fifteenth century witnessed a few orthographical reforms with John Hart’s work. His three studies are “The Opening of the Unreasonable Writing of Our English Tongue” in 1551, “An Orthography containing the due order and reason, how to write or paint the image of man’s voice, most like to the life of nature” in 1569 and “A Method or comfortable beginning for all unlearned, whereby they may be taught to read English in a very short time, with pleasure” in 1570. In his works he wrote his reasons of taking up spelling reforms, he gave a description of English pronunciation, and he criticized the failure of modern orthography in representing the phonetic system of language adequately. He patronized the notion of ‘one word-one sound.’ He devised a few new symbols to represent the sounds like *j*-sound in ‘jump’ and distinguished between *v* and *u* sounds. Eventually after much oppositions and differences, the consonant letter ‘*j*’ and ‘*v*’ were accepted entirely into the 26 letters of English alphabets in Lowth’s *Grammar* in 1762. Other modifications proposed by him included the proposal to use a small diacritic dot to indicate vowel length. He presented his letters in a table, carefully grading from simple to complex for reading practice. Each letter in his table was accompanied by a picture and a keyword underneath. At first, it looked like ‘A for apple’ kind of technique. But Hart followed a different methodology to teach. He asked his learners not to pronounce the given letter with a vowel sound before it, like ‘el’ of the letter ‘L,’ rather with the sound as used in the picture like ‘L-ion’ to give phonetic practice.
2.5.2 From Late 16th Century to Early 17th Century

In the later part of the sixteenth century, the Reformation movement in Europe gained momentum. Under the leadership of Phillip II of Spain, smaller countries such as Flanders were selected for the typical show of power against Reformation, and were asked to choose between exile and fight. The young Flemings elected to flee. That time the friendly countries such as England volunteered to give refuge to these Flemings. Later they were joined by their co-religionists—French Huguenot and other protestant refugees from Spain, Italy and Flanders in 1570s and 1580s. Majority of these refugees were craftsmen, artisans, dyers, dyers, smiths, diamond cutters etc; and there were some with intellectual middle class teachers.

Among the refugees, some gave their contributions in teaching of languages in London and other major English cities. Jacques Bellot and John Florio were among the finest refugee-teachers who devoted themselves to the teaching of English language to refugees. They employed their reflexive imagination to be able to view the language they were teaching from the point of view of learners of that language. The materials used by these refugee teachers were bilingual, following the pattern of earlier manuals.

It was observed that refugees were picking up the common language of England, i.e. English by merely listening to the local people around them in their social community. While some of these struggled with the correct sounds and often got confused with the words, others could only get hold of the basic language and lacked literary skills. Also because these refugees acquired language informally by listening to it, they lacked the reading and writing skills. Jacques Bellot, then produced two teaching materials in the form of manuals—The English Schoolmaster in 1580 and Familiar Dialogues in 1586. These manuals were designed specifically to teach English as a foreign language. Bellot’s The English Schoolmaster, unlike other double manuals being produced at that time, was accompanied with a detailed description of English alphabets and pronunciation to help those who had picked up the language by merely listening to it. He conferred some common sets of homophones like hole-whole, bear-bare etc; few common ambiguities or confusing words such as right-straight; common minimal pairs such as ship-sheep etc. English language till that period had not been provided with a proper detailed grammar.
Therefore, Bellot discussed some difficult words and provided a few odd grammar points. In his second book *Familiar Dialogues* written in 1586, Bellot’s focus was to provide small French-English dialogues to French Huguenots. These dialogues had a domestic setting and used vocabulary as well as situations of everyday life like ‘visiting a fishmonger,’ ‘conversation with a butcher’ and ‘seeing off the children to school’ etc.

In 1586, William Bullokar also published *A Pamphlet for Grammar* which provided a brief sketch of the language in the form of common-everyday dialogues. It was designed on the pattern of long-established tradition of Latin-teaching dialogues called ‘colloquy.’ It consisted of series of questions and answers on topics related with day-to-day life, set in the pattern for accurate learning. Here learners had to do all the rote-learning and teachers had to merely give prompts by asking questions.

John Florio, another refugee teacher, gave his contribution to English language teaching in the form of his two books—*First Fruits* in 1578 and *Second Fruits* in 1591. Florio’s *First Fruits* unlike other manuals of the times included brief linguistic points, with more focus on English spellings and pronunciation written in Italian language. Long and discursive dialogues dealt with artistic and intellectual topics and no commercial text was included within the book, though everyday phrases and practical language were given some place within the manuals. He even included some dialogues on different modes of addressing such as talking to a gentleman, lady, servant, merchant etc. However, in his *Second Fruits*, he skipped the linguistic notes and attached a lengthy list of six thousand proverbs in Italian instead. His books aimed at high-ranking aristocrat readers. The book contained scenes of tennis, riding, golf and other aristocrats’ activities. They were full of gossips and rhyming couplets on love and beauty of women. Nevertheless, there were some useful dialogues also which provided the necessary language for touring Italy.

Among the royal French men, George Mason produced a small manual called *Grammaire Angloise* in 1622. However, it was criticized to contain oddly chosen pronunciation problems, followed by lengthy grammatical pattern and few dialogues at the end on the topics majorly written for female readership. Though criticized for its unskilled structure, it was successful in gaining teachers’ interest because of the prominence it gave to verb form which is now called as ‘progressive or continuous
form.’ Although he failed to give ‘be + -ing’ a special label, he identified it clearly as a distinct verbal unit.

2.5.3 Late 17th Century

The late seventeenth century witnessed the raise in the standards of teaching English as a second language with the coming of Guy Miege’s *Nouvelle Methode pour apprendre l’Anglois* (*New Method of Learning English*) in 1685. This manual was concerned with the teaching of English to French readers. In 1688, Miege translated this book in English and titled it *The English Grammar*. In his book, Miege emphasised on the ‘presentation’ aspect of material and believed that the material should not look over-crowded, and it should contain some free spaces and pictures. Braces and columns occupied an important place in Guy’s material as they assisted in making the material look presentable and understandable. His book contained within the grammar of the English language, a compact dictionary and a dialogue manual. His grammar section dealt with English orthography and pronunciation, along with basic concepts and word forms. Miege, studying English from the eyes of a phonetician, concluded that to overcome the problems of English spellings, one needs to master complexities of sounds of English. He was against the teaching of the language without its grammar. He dealt with forms of the verb and tenses. He encouraged the learners to learn the text by heart first before learning the rules of grammar, if they wanted, so that they could enjoy the process.

2.5.4 The 18th Century

In eighteenth century, various English schools were established in competition with the traditional Latin schools. Therefore, grammarians themselves underwent a shift in the interest to meet the needs. Although, among British, new textbooks to teach the English language did not come up until the late eighteenth century, it did not decrease the interest of learning English abroad. English language teaching in non-native countries began with England’s neighbouring countries like France, Netherland, Denmark and Germany. These countries had a pre-existing locally produced grammar even in the sixteenth century.

Among the early works of Germans were Johnn Konig’s (also known as John King) *Volkommener Englischer Wegweiser fur Hoch-Teutsche*. This book was later
translated to Danish and Swedish, and hence, it served the purpose of being the English language teaching course book in Scandinavia. It was practical guide to teaching language including everyday dialogues and sample letters. Apart from this book, another book which gained popularity during the eighteenth century was Theodor Arnold’s *Grammatica Anglicana Concentrata, oder Kurz-gefasste englische Grammatik* (Summary of English Grammar) written in 1718. The biggest step in learning English in Germany was taken towards the end of the century when Shakespeare’s drama, and different other works of English literature began to gain popularity outside England. Inspired by English literature’s lyricism, Germans developed a passion for learning English phonology and prosody. As a result, in 1792, Eber published his book *Englische Sparachlehre fur die Deutschen* with the subtitle ‘following Sheridan’s and Walker’s basic rules,’ and devoted even more works on English stress and rhythm.

In Italy, the first grammar book was noticed to be published in 1728 by Ferdinando Altieri titled *Gramatica Inglese per gl’italiani* for his aristocrat readers. Another Italian teacher who wrote English language teaching textbook was Evangelista Palermo who followed the grammar-translation method in his material. In his book *The Amusing Practice of the Italian Language*, he provided well explained grammar notes in the first part, and Italian to English translation practice in the second part. Most of his dialogues revolved around adventures of travelling; whereas, most of his students belonged to the well-bred families who never took up such hobbies. Among the most successful English courses in Italy was Eduardo Barker’s dialogue textbook titled *Nuova e Facile Grammatica della Lingua Inglese* (New and Easy English Course) written in 1766.

Besides, Portuguese, Scandinavians, Danish and Russians also showed interests in English language teaching as a result of which various textbooks, original and translated versions kept coming up across the century. Some significant ones among these were *Et Kort och Tydeligt Begrep af en Engelsk Grammatica* (A Short and Clear Outline of an English Grammar) written by Lorents Jul. Kullin in 1744, *Essay on a Methodical English Grammar for the Swedes* written by Ifvar Kraak in 1748, and Carl Bertram’s *Rudimenta Grammaticae Anglicanae* in 1749 and *Royal English-Danish Grammar* in 1753.
In 1766, English began to be looked upon as an essential skill to have in the naval affairs, and the earliest book in that year was translated from English work for the naval cadets by Mikahail Premskii under the title *Prakticheskaya Angliskaya Grammatika* (Practical English Grammar), followed by Prokhov Ivanovich Zhdanov’s *Angliska Grammatica* in 1772. The book contained everyday dialogues and common phrases accompanied with specific descriptions. Later Vasilii Stepanovich Kryazhev came with a more scholarly approach in his two textbooks— *Rukovodstvo k anglinskому yazyku* (Handbook of English Grammar) in 1791 and *Anglinskaya Grammatika* (English Grammar) in 1795. These books followed a catechistic or question-answer approach.

The interest spread beyond the continent and as a result of it, the first non-European English language teaching material was produced in Serampore, India in 1797. Written by John Miller, *The Tutor* was the first English teaching textbook written in the Third World. Aiming to teach English to the Indians, it taught pronunciation and gave phonetic practice to the readers. The book contained an extensive list of phonetically contrastive minimal pairs such as car-bar-tar-jar etc. Miller focused on phonetic properties of English unlike his contemporaries who focused on its orthographic properties. He dropped all the unnecessary difficult vocabulary, and chose to use the modern and practical vocabulary to teach. The list of words was arranged in the alphabetical order, and each word was accompanied by its Bengali equivalent. He presented his grammar points under the titles such as “Verbs Neuter” such as “to me, to you, to him, to us...” and “Active Verbs” like “past tense of be” as pointed out in Howatt’s *A History of English Teaching* (68). At the end of the book, Miller provided the book with some writing practice as well.

The eighteenth century was the era of rise of Grammar-Translation method (GTM) in the field of language teaching. The method was also known as Prussian method in United States. It was devised for the teaching of language in secondary schools. The term GTM should not be confused with the practice of teaching language by grammar and translation. The main feature of the GTM was to replace the traditional text, where the knowledge of reading foreign languages was acquired by learning the grammar of the language separately and then applying this knowledge to interpret the text, with sentences that serve the purpose of laying examples for
understanding. First English language teaching material that was structured around the GTM was written by Johann Christian Flick in 1793 under the title Praktische englische Sprachlehre fur Deutsche beiderlei Geschlechts, nach der in Meidinger's französische Grammatik befolgten Methode (Practical English Course for Germans of both sexes, following the method of Meidinger's French Grammar). The word ‘practical,’ as it appeared in almost every book structured around GTM, in the eighteenth century meant ‘one that requires practice.’ The texts were, hence, exercise of various kinds, specifically sentence translation into and out of the foreign language. Such exercises were termed as ‘drills.’ The reason behind such drills was the importance of correct language structures. The materials following GTM were majorly structured around writing and reading skills, and hence, listening and speaking skills suffered neglect. The vocabulary in the materials was provided in the form of a bilingual list which learners were expected to memorize. The vocabulary list was accompanied by the rules of the language for translation practice. The medium of instruction followed in the GTM was the mother tongue of the learner so as to explain the rules of the two languages.

2.5.5 The 19th Century

America, which was once a British colony, took the task of raising its stature, and in the extreme late part of the eighteenth century, decided to seek an alternative standard suited to its own purpose. Noah Webster was one of the pioneers whose works distinguished the American English from that of British English. He reformed his own system of spellings in his popular book An American Spelling Book popularly known as ‘Bluebacked Speller’ which Webster published in three parts. In 1789, Webster published An Essay on a Reformed Mode of Spellings as a postscript to his collection of papers called Dissertations on the English Language. Through these papers, he suggested three major changes to the existing system. First suggestion was to omit all unnecessary and silent letters like ‘hed’ in place of ‘head’ and ‘frend’ in place of ‘friend.’ Secondly, he suggested an alternative spelling for the same sounds. Example for long vowel sound /i:/ he suggested to use ‘ee’ in every word that carries this sound, such as ‘speek, bileev, greef’ etc. Lastly, he suggested the use of diacritic marks to represent the characteristics of the same letter, like soft and hard sound. In 1804, Webster integrated these ideas in his new edition of ‘Bluebacked Speller’ and dropped unnecessary final ‘-k’ from words like energetick to make it ‘energetic’ and
‘-u-’ from words like ‘colour’ to make it ‘color.’ In 1806, Webster published his first dictionary *A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language* in which he proposed many spelling reforms, some of which were incorporated in the main language, while others were dropped. Later in 1828, Webster concluded his work with another dictionary *American Dictionary of English Language* with the belief that Americans should have their own national dictionary. In this dictionary, he retained the spelling reforms which were widely accepted by then, dropped some and gave two alternative spellings of some words as well.

William Cobbett represents the transition of focus of English language teaching materials from linguistic properties, rhetoric style and elegance in language to a tradition of full grammar of the language. Cobbett believed that when literacy is combined with correct grammar, it becomes a powerful tool to express ourselves and to get our way around a matter. He analysed speeches of politicians, bishops and even kings and collected examples of errors they might have made in terms of grammar and language style. Making these findings the basis of his study, in 1819, he published *A Grammar of the English Language, in a Series of Letters*. Cobbett put great emphasis on the correct grammar which paved way for the developments to follow. In 1852, Peter Mark Roget appeared with his *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* comprising of useful everyday phrases and synonyms of words.

Fascinated by the technique with which children acquire chunks of language and develop an understanding to the language by observing what people do, their looks and expressions, Thomas Pendergast wrote his mastery system in 1864 under the title of a manual *The Mastery of Languages, or the art of speaking foreign languages idiomatically*. He concluded that efficient foreign language learning takes place when sentences are memorized and practiced so much that they can be recalled instantly. His methods of rote-learning provide a glimpse of Behaviourism and Structuralism of the twentieth century. He constructed lengthy sentences containing as many basic-rules of language as possible to learn in order to reduce the number of sentences to be learnt.

By the end of the nineteenth century, acquiring spoken language became a bigger priority than reading knowledge. With Paul Passy’s establishment of Phonetic Teachers’ Association, which later became International Phonetic Alphabet, a new
insight was drawn into teaching of spoken English in 1882. In 1886, hence, International Phonetic Alphabets (IPA) was devised. Transcription marked the significant characteristics of English language teaching materials of the nineteenth century. Another significant feature in materials during this era included the collaboration of psychological theories in language learning. The importance was given to the notion of association in the text. It was argued that disconnected words and sentences cannot form a bond of association in mind, and hence, they cannot be learnt. Use of interlinear translation within the text was discouraged towards the end of the century as it was argued that it could lead to the formation of cross-association, and hence, it can pose problems in the learning process. The materials comprised conversational dialogues in order to expose the learner with useful phrases and idioms. The materials also began teaching grammar inductively in place of deductive teaching. That is, language use outlined grammatical rules rather than using language to exemplify the rules that have been taught.

Henry Sweet made a significant contribution in the field of language teaching during the last decade of the nineteenth century with his book titled *A New English Grammar* in 1898 and *The Practical Study of Language* in 1899. Sweet included all the four skill in his materials and introduced the gradation from simple to complex in his materials, moving from descriptive text to narrative to dialogues.

### 2.5.6 20th Century Onwards

During the first half of the twentieth century, the teaching of English as a foreign language emerged as an independent profession due to the fusion of Direct Method and Reform Movement, which had begun in the previous century. Daniel Jones published books such as *The Pronunciation of English* in 1909, *The English Pronouncing Dictionary* in 1917 and *The Outline of English Phonetics* in 1918. These books served as the source books for teachers of English.

Applying the principles of Oral Method, Palmer published his books under the names of *English through Action* in 1925, *Systematic Exercises in English Sentence Building* in 1923. He had equipped these books with oral drills and exercises based on question-answer technique of Direct Method. *The Oxford English Course* published in 1930 established the ‘course package’ pattern consisting of language books, reading books, supplementary readers consisting of vocabulary list, reading cards and
a picture dictionary. The course packages were followed by C. E. Eckersley’s *Essential English for Foreign Students* in the form of a course consisting of samples of everyday English dialogues and language required to talk about English. It was later overtaken by a more situational course by L.G. Alexender under the title *First Things First* in 1967. In this book, new structural patterns were presented in the dialogues, accompanied with visual cartoon strips beside them. Apart from that audio-recording and radio served as essential language teaching aids in the mid of the twentieth century. In the later part of the century, audio-visual aids began to be used for language teaching.

In 1970s, the English for Specific Purpose (ESP) made its place in society. For the spread of ESP, English course books and readers began to be replaced with other materials for this purpose. One such material was *A Modern Course in Business English* by A. P. R. Howatt, Web and Knight in 1963/66 which used authentic listening text. The structural method paved way to Audio Lingual Method, and hence, teaching materials began to be developed accordingly with considerable amount of listening and speaking activities. After 1970s, the Communicative Approach took hold over teaching methodologies. The materials designed are woven around the communicative activities and skills that could help in preparing learners for the practical communication. The communicative materials are carefully structured around the systematic development of all four skills of the language. These materials emphasise on pronunciation and vocabulary learning, along with providing practice for authentic listening and reading texts.

Over the years, as the theories of language learning and teaching along with approaches to teach language evolve, amendments are made in the teaching-learning materials to meet the required aim of a learning situation. In the present era of the twenty first century, textbooks form the most common teaching-learning materials in the classrooms. These textbooks provide descriptions of rules of language, and exercises based on the application of these rules.

2.6 Material Evaluation

The term ‘evaluation’ is often misapprehended to be synonymous to ‘analysis.’ The two terms, especially when it comes to material development, differ wide apart from each other. Linguists argue that material evaluation assesses the
material from the point of view of its users and its credibility. On the contrary, material analysis scrutinizes the material of what it contains and what it aims to achieve.

In the words of Brian Tomlinson, written in *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*, “evaluation focuses on the users of the materials”; whereas, the “analysis focuses on the materials” (16). Material evaluation is a subjective field of study, and hence, an evaluative question such as ‘Are the activities prescribed likely to arouse interest of the learners?’ is met with degree of variations in responses by different learners, ranging from ‘very likely’ to ‘very unlikely.’ On the other hand, material analysis is an objective in its approach, and it can be answered factually unlike evaluative questions. Analytical questions such as ‘Are the listening activities followed by a transcription of the text?’ can be answered in either ‘yes’ or ‘no,’ and as a result of it, concrete opinion of what the material contains and what it lacks is framed.

Strengthening further the subjectivity of evaluation, Dickenson claims in his book that “no two evaluations can be the same, as the needs, objectives, backgrounds and preferred styles of participants differ from context to context” (15). Tomlinson defines the term material evaluation as “a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgments about the effect of the materials on the people using them . . .” He reflects more on material evaluation and recommends that material evaluation is a subjective process and is not just an assessment of the “credibility,” “validity” and “reliability” of the material towards the learners; rather, it also accesses how “flexible” the material is to be “adapted” by the teacher, and the “assistance” it can prove to be for the teacher while “preparation,” “delivery” and “assessment” of a component (15).

In 1987, Hutchinson claimed in his work “What’s Underneath?: An Interactive View of Materials Evaluation” that material evaluation provides a strength and guidance to the teachers as it “can and should be a two-way process which enables teachers not just to select a textbook, but also to develop their awareness of their own teaching/learning situation” (qtd. in Balachandran 75). In the same year, Hutchinson further co-authored a book with Water titled *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-Centred Approach* where they reached to a conclusion that
Material evaluation is a process to match the needs to the solutions available. Hutchinson and Water laid down four steps for the process of material evaluation: “Defining criteria,” “Subjective analysis,” “Objective analysis” and “Matching” (qtd. in Mahfoodh and Bhanegaonkar 2).

Mahfoodh and Bhanegaonkar in their research paper “New Approach for Evaluating EFLM (An Eclectic Developed Checklist)” claim that “textbook evaluation is a matter of examining and checking the ready-written in hand material/textbook to know the appropriateness or otherwise of this textbook for a particular context” (3). According to them, the process of evaluation follows the following four stages.

i. Laying down the criteria on which the material has been designed, along with the situation and students for whom the material is applicable.

ii. Defining the criteria for evaluating the material and providing with the checklist for the same.

iii. Matching the criterion using a validity and reliability instrument such as questionnaire.

iv. Calculating the usability of the material with the findings achieved.

2.6.1 Types of Material Evaluation

Material evaluation serves the purpose of evaluating the needs of a particular learning situation. It accesses how effective material is in its actual use by the teachers and students in a particular learning context. The process of material evaluation is stimulated by the need to select relevant as well as appropriate material for a particular group of learners. Sundayana, in her presentation under the title “Materials Evaluation,” concludes that material evaluation leads to identification of “specific aspects of the materials that require adaptation.” Material evaluation can be conducted at different stages during the course of study. On the basis of when the evaluation has to be conducted, scholars talk about three kinds of material evaluation.

2.6.1.1 Pre-use Evaluation

The pre-use evaluation is conducted before the commencement of a course when textbooks and course-books are selected on the basis of their contents and objectives. The pre-use evaluation serves the purpose of helping the teachers by
judging the potential of the material to be used, thereby helping a teacher to prepare lessons accordingly. Balachandran in her paper “Criteria-based Post-use Evaluation of English Textbooks” asserts that the pre-use evaluation, though helpful, often prove to be “impressionistic” (76). Ellis calls the pre-use evaluation as “predictive” evaluation where evaluators majorly concern themselves in judging whether the course-book is likely of any use to the particular context or not (qtd. in McGrath 52).

2.6.1.2 Whilst-use Evaluation

In a whilst-use evaluation process, the potential of a textbook or study material is accessed during the use of the material in a teaching-learning situation. The evaluation is conducted by observing the material, students’ response towards the material, and its effect on the learning. The whilst-use evaluation is more reliable than the pre-use material as this evaluation is more proof-accompanied and objective. However, the whilst-use material evaluation has its own limitations. The whilst-use evaluation is solely dependent on observations that are made during a class, and hence, factors that are skipped from observing during a session are skipped from evaluation forever.

2.6.1.3 Post-use Evaluation

The post-use evaluation, as the name suggests, is conducted after the completion of the lesson. Since this evaluation is conducted at the end of the lesson, it measures the actual effect the material had on the learning situation. The data achieved through the post-use evaluation is considered to be more reliable in making decisions concerning the materials. Scholars like Balachandran argue that post-use evaluation “should be administered by the teachers to find out whether the textbooks they use meet the learner and learning needs and to propose suggestions for additions and deletions to enhance the relevance and utility of the textbooks for the targeted group of learners” (77). Tomlinson in his book Material Development in Language Teaching suggests techniques of post-use evaluation of which “examination,” “interviews,” “questionnaire” and “post-course diaries” are some significant ones (qtd. in Balachandran 77). The post-use evaluation, though most efficient, is extremely time consuming and requires great skills for reliable evaluation.
2.6.2 Criteria for Material Evaluation

Over the time, various scholars have given their checklists and list of criteria for evaluating the teaching materials to help the stakeholders in the evaluation process. David Williams in the article “Developing Criteria for Textbook Evaluation” based his scheme for evaluation on four assumptions—“Up-to-date methodology of L2 teaching,” “Guidance for non-native speakers of English,” “Needs of learners” and “Relevance of socio-cultural environments” (252). Leslie E. Sheldon in the research paper “Evaluating ELT Textbooks and Materials” suggests a seventeen factor based “Textbook evaluation sheet” according to which “rationale,” “availability,” “layout/graphics,” “selection/grading,” “appropriacy” and “flexibility” are some significant factors while assessing the usability of the materials (242). Within the framework of these features, Sheldon brings up some relevant evaluative questions some of which include—“Are the objectives spelt out?,” “Is there a clear specification of the target age range, culture, assumed background, probable learning preferences, and educational expectations?,” “Is there a discernible system at work in the selection and grading of these items (e.g. on the basis of frequency counts, or on the basis of useful comparisons between the learner’s mother tongue and English)?” and “Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of learners?” (243-44).

In his article “Material Development for Language Learning and Teaching,” Tomlinson accredits Tucker who put forward a four-component scheme for evaluating materials in the research paper titled “Evaluating Beginning Textbooks.” Similarly, Daoud and Celce-Murcia provided a checklist of criteria that can be employed in evaluating course books in their article “Selecting and Evaluating a Textbook.” In 2005, Miekley Joshua developed a checklist for evaluating reading textbooks after a comprehensive research and study of previously based checklists. He even went further to explain how to use this textbook so as to attain a more reliable and valid evaluation. Among his other criteria, “content,” “vocabulary and grammar,” “exercises and activities” and “attractiveness of the text and physical make-up” are important criteria to be assessed by a teacher before selecting a textbook for reading.
There is an inexhaustible list of scholars and such checklists developed with the aim of helping teachers in the process of evaluating materials. However, at the other side of the coin, there are scholars who claim that no checklist is too ideal to be used by all the teachers in all the contexts. Mukundan and Ahour in their work “A Review of Textbook Evaluation Checklists Across Four Decades (1970-2008)” analyzed forty eight checklists and concluded that “framework for generating clear, concise and flexible criteria would be more useful than detailed and inflexible checklists . . .” (qtd. in Tomlinson 148). Tomlinson in his work “Material Evaluation” recommended adopting the process for generating one’s own principled criteria in place of using an idealistic and impractical set of criteria.

2.6.3 Principles Involved in Developing Criteria for Material Evaluation

An insight into the working of the types of evaluation suggests that most of the evaluations end up being impressionistic and subjective, and hence unreliable to serve the purpose. Brian Tomlinson in his book Developing Material for Language Teaching argues that the principles which govern the material evaluation should be well defined prior to the commencement of evaluation to ensure greater validity and reliability in the results of evaluation. He claims that every teacher’s teaching is governed by a theory that is formulated consciously or even subconsciously. When aware of these theories, the areas of inclination become explicit for an educator, and thereby, it becomes feasible to set the criteria for evaluation without being prejudiced. Tomlinson elaborates some of his own learning theories in his book, of which some are outlined below.

- Positive and enjoyable experience while learning a language leads to successful language learning.
- Most successful language teaching is achieved when language teachers enjoy their role as well as the materials they use for the purpose.
- Each class has a heterogeneous group of learners. These learners may differ in terms of their “personality, motivation, attitude, aptitude, prior experience, interests, needs, wants and preferred learning style” (18).
- At the individual level of each learner, everyone “varies from day to day in terms of motivation, attitude, mood, perceived needs and wants, enthusiasm and energy” (18).
• In language classrooms, high level of energy and involvement leads to successful learning. This energy is initially generated by the teacher and maintained, or even increased further, by a good material.

• Effective materials engage learners emotionally. Materials evoking emotions like “laughter, joy, excitement, sorrow and anger can promote learning. Neutrality, numbness and nullity cannot” (18).

• Materials addressing the learner in an informal and personal voice are more effective in facilitating learning as compared to materials that use a more formal and passive voice.

• TLMs that include more examples and anecdotes, and those which are not over-burdened with an unintelligible academic language, are more likely to achieve positive impact on learners’ comprehensions.

Having laid his theories of learning, Tomlinson confesses that not all theories can be valid for all educators. It is essential for users to material to evaluate their ideologies and frame their own theories. These theories can be exploited to formulate the criteria for material evaluation. Some criteria he exemplifies in his book are given below.

• “To what extent are the materials related to the wants of the learners?

• To what extent do the materials help the learners to achieve connections with their own lives?

• To what extent are the materials likely to stimulate emotional engagement?” (20)

Once the material is evaluated following the above stated lines of criteria, it becomes more valid and reliable in meeting the laid goals of the learning program. Apart from Tomlinson, other linguists also have added more to the list of evaluative questions, some of the valuable evaluative questions are stated below.

• “Is task design appropriate for the aims and goals of the syllabus?

• Do students find the tasks and texts interesting and relevant for them?

• Is there variety in the types of tasks?
• Are the tasks authentic, simulate real-life situations, or are they too contrived?

• Are the objectives clearly stated for each task, so students know why they engage in a given task?” (qtd. in Tsiplakides 762).

It must be noted that material evaluation can be tedious and time-taking initially. However, eventually the evaluator can develop a habit of conducting quick and efficient evaluations. Ability to evaluate the material principally and systematically can result not only into a more efficient learning, but it can also assist a material developer to create appropriate material from the point of view of the criteria that needs to be satisfied.

2.7 Material Adaptation

In most of the institutions across the world, teachers are provided with the ‘ready-made textbooks’ beforehand, and they are expected to follow it through the curriculum and achieve expected results. Although there are other institutions that give freedom to the teachers to select their textbooks, it is observed that it is not always possible to have a teaching material that perfectly meets all the academic as well as psychological needs of the class and the learners. In every classroom, teachers generally are the ones who know their students, and they have a realization of what their students can do and what they need. They can access any learning situation, including the materials, and derive what their students need.

Under such circumstances, when materials set a barrier to the learning, teachers and educators often adapt materials like course books, audio-visuals, charts and textbooks to meet the needs of particular learning situation more closely and allow a more positive learning. Material adaptation gives a clearer insight into the functioning of a classroom. It assists in closer analysis of different types of texts, and hence, it leads to more explanatory classes.

Sinan Misirli in the article “Materials in TEFL: A Discussion of What Lies Behind Them and Implications” defines material analysis as “changing the level, context or additions of an activity in order to cover the needs of the learners in an improved way.” A similar kind of definition comes from Tanvir Shameem, who
writes in his web article that “Material adaptation means matching materials with the learner's needs, the teacher’s demands and administration’s purpose.” Tomlinson presents a simpler and explicable definition of course book adaptation as he writes “changing existing course books in order to make them more suitable for learners, teachers or situation” (qtd in Trang).

Material adaptation can be grouped into the following three categories.

- **Macro adaptation**

  Macro adaptation is done prior to the commencement of a language program. The teacher compares the prescribed material and its contents with the syllabus and its objectives, and drops the redundant or unnecessary feature from the course. It helps in avoiding the wastage of time and energy of the teacher and the learners as well. Adaptation at such a large scale before beginning the course helps in foreseeing what needs to be supplemented or omitted keeping in mind the requirement of the course.

- **Adapting a unit**

  While adapting a unit, the teachers can reorder or rearrange the prescribed activities, or opt for deleting or addition of required activity to the text within the unit. Adaptation at the level of a unit is slightly more specific as compared to macro adaptation, and hence, it tends to be more focused towards achieving the requisite goal of the course.

- **Adapting a specific activity**

  A narrower and focused adaptation is observed when the teacher adapts a specific activity for the teaching of a definite point. It is often observed that the format of an activity may be highly beneficial for the classroom, but it is presented in a non-feasible or incomprehensible manner. Under such situations, the teacher can opt to adapt the activity by modifying it.

**2.7.1 Why to Adapt?**

Material adaptation has become one of the inevitable practices in a successful language classroom. Once the potential as well as limitations of the material are
evaluated, and needs of learners and preferences of the teacher are assessed, a good teacher adapts the material and activities within the texts to meet the requirements to achieve lesson objectives. In words of Madsen and Bowen, a teacher adapts the material “when he adds an example not found in the book . . . He adapts when he refers to an exercise referred to earlier . . .” (qtd. in McDonough and Shaw).

McGrath in *Material Evaluation and Design for Language Learning* sums up the rationale met by the process of material adaptation. He writes that adaptation makes the material more suitable for the needs of the learners. He quotes McDonough and Shaw from their book *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher’s Guide* as they claim that the purpose of adapting material is “to maximize the appropriacy of teaching materials in context, by changing some of the internal characteristics of a coursebook to suit our particular circumstances better” (85). Adaptation is required to deal with materials which are linguistically inaccurate and outdated, as well as those materials which do not provide sufficient exposure and variety in the use of language. McGrath asserts that by increasing the appropriacy, “we can hope to stimulate motivation, which in turn will lead to ‘a classroom atmosphere more conductive to learning’” (qtd. in McGrath 62).

### 2.7.2 When to Adapt Material?

Different teachers in different learning situations adapt their resources or teaching-learning materials for innumerous reasons, some of the common ones of which are mentioned below.

- If the existing material has insufficient grammar coverage.
- If the material fails to provide sufficient language practice.
- If the material in hand is inappropriate for the level or age of learners being taught.
- If the material provides an imbalanced exposure to various skills of language.
- If the existing material follows outdated methodology and lacks growth intellectually.
- If the material encompasses examples that are culturally inappropriate.
• If the existing material is confusing and misleading in its content or organization.
• If the material is of inappropriate length i.e. too long or too short.

The above mentioned list contains just a few of the many reasons why an educator feels the need to adapt a material or supplementary resources that can aid in harmonizing materials with the learners’ needs, the teachers’ demands.

2.7.3 Principles for Material Adaptation

Ian McGrath in his book *Teaching Materials and the Roles of EFL/ESL Teachers: Practice and Theory* writes certain principles which govern and justify the changes made in the material during the process of adaptation. Some of the principles which McGrath has referred to are discussed below.

2.7.3.1 Localization

Much literature has been seen to be suggesting that teachers take material-related decisions once they have assessed the needs of the learners. Localization thus is the principle of material adaptation that regulates the use of only those materials or parts of these materials which may carry certain relevance in the language learning. Under this principle, materials which carry a systematic practice of grammar points, vocabulary and pronunciation etc are selected while others which are considered irrelevant are dropped. Not only linguistically, materials are judged from the point of view of their cultural relevance as well.

2.7.3.2 Modernization

Apart from being linguistically and culturally relevant, teaching-learning materials ought to be up-to-date as well. Principle of modernization governs the validity and appropriacy of the materials in the modern scenario. While adapting material under the principle of modernization, teachers assess the two aspects of material—language and content. If any of the two is found to be outdated and of no current usage for the learners, the material lacks the virtue of serving as a model for learners in future production of language. Such materials or parts of these materials can be replaced with other practically appropriate ones.
2.7.3.3 Individualization

Individualization as defined by McDonough and Shaw in *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher’s Guide* in 1993 refers to “addressing the learning styles both of individuals and of the members of a class working together” (87). The principle of individualization in material adaptation tends to regulate the use of a variety of strategies like individual work; working in pairs; group work etc while using a material or part of a material to ensure that different learners who have different learning styles meet the required learning objectives.

2.7.3.4 Personalization

Ian McGrath remarks in the book *Teaching Materials and the Roles of EFL/ESL Teachers: Practice and Theory* “personalization enables students to draw their own experience in order to express ideas in the target language” (68). Learning is most effective when learners are able to relate what they learn with their own experiences. While adapting the text or part of the text, personalizing the material with students’ lives enables the teachers to encourage the learners to engage with the material at a more individual and personal level. It can be done by adapting the examples to relate the text with the practical situation, modifying the activities etc.

2.7.3.5 Humanizing

Humanizing the TLM is about adjusting the material so that learners can make a connection with the material. Brian Tomlinson’s article “Humanizing the Coursebook” forms a section of his book *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*. In this article, he has laid his ideas of humanizing the material, some of which include making a learner draw a picture on the basis of his comprehension of the text, asking learners to write a monologue as a part of inner-speech for any character etc. Such adaptations to the text and its activities allow the learners to connect more with the more intrinsic details within the text, which in turn strengthens learning.

2.7.3.6 Simplification/ Complexification / Differentiation

Simplification allows the teacher or educator to change the text or nature of the activities within the material relatively simpler for its users. Language of the texts,
especially drama in literature, are often paraphrased into smaller texts with simpler vocabulary to help learners comprehend the message. However, linguists like Tomlinson, McDonough, Shaw and Darian raised their concerns against the negative impact of such adaptation. They fear that such practices may deprive the learners of the flavor of the language and essence of message that part which has been omitted or replaced carries.

Complexification, on the other hand, refers to the increase in the level of difficulty of the material. This principle allows the teacher to adapt and modify the material according to the level of the learner. The teacher, realizing the level of the learners, can choose to adapt the group work activities into individual tasks to make the material suit to the required level of difficulty for learners. Too simple texts and material can even lead to degradation in the learning.

Differentiation in material adaptation is a combination of simplification and complexification from time to time, depending upon the needs of the learning situation. Some learners may be above average level in one skill or micro-skill of language, and they might need assistance in other skills at the same time. Therefore, in accordance to the progression of the class, materials can be adapted to meet the required outcome.

2.7.3.7 Variety

The behaviorists support the repetition of text or an activity to strengthen learning. The learner may develop a sense of familiarity with the topic being covered or the exercise being done. However, other linguists and psychologists strongly express their opinion against this practice, and they claim that if the material will be presented in the similar manner repeatedly, it may lead to boredom and disinterest among the learners towards learning. The principle of variety in material adaptation advocates the use of different activities evoking to different skills at different instances in order to retain the interest and motivation of the learners thereby ensuring positive learning.

2.7.4 How to Adapt Materials?

McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara in their book *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher’s Guide* suggest tools for adapting material according to the varied
need of the circumstances. These tools can be applied in any part or feature of the materials, and are listed below.

2.7.4.1 Adding

To add refers to supplement. Addition while adapting materials is done by supplying more content along with the existing content or by expanding. For example, supplementing activities for more language skills’ practice and providing with more appropriate materials. While adding, the educator tends to move beyond to use a better alternative.

2.7.4.2 Deleting

Deleting, on the other hand, is the tool for adapting where certain parts of some material or all of it are omitted or removed from the content. For example, when a teacher accesses that learners are able to respond effectively certain activities within an exercise, such activities can be skipped and the teacher can move ahead with other activities to utilize time more effectively.

2.7.4.3 Modifying

Modifying the material refers to rewriting or restructuring the contents within the TLM so as to obtain a material which suits the specific needs and context better. Teachers may decide to shorten or extend a particular activity according to the needs of their learners in order to make it more meaningful and communicative.

2.7.4.4 Simplifying

Sometimes, teachers may find a text or any related activity too difficult for the level of their learners. Under such circumstances, they may opt to provide their learners with a simpler version of the text, or an activity involving relatively lower order thinking, in order to ensure that their learners’ learning takes place in a regular progression and that a too difficult text may not lead to inhibition or demotivation among these learners.

2.7.4.5 Reordering

Reordering may refer to proper gradation of the texts and related activities within the text. At times, teachers who know the cognitive level of their classroom
may prefer to rearrange the activities and contents of a material accordingly. They can opt for presenting certain grammar point prior to the reading or writing activity, in order to make sure that learners grasp the concrete meaning out of the material. Reordering can prove to be helpful tool for adaptation for any level of learners.

The study provides evidences of inclination of various linguists and educators towards material adaptation. The teachers can either elect to replace their teaching materials with the other more appropriate ones altogether, or they can choose to adopt theories of other theorists in adapting materials by drafting minor elementary alterations in the texts or methodology to deal with the text. Evidently, it is teachers who have the access to the needs and wants of the learners, and who can best decide the materials for their learners. However, it is recommended to evaluate the material following a well defined criterion rather than making a very subjective and opinion-based judgment about the materials.

2.8 Material Gradation

Once the material is well evaluated following the suitable criteria and adapted accordingly, it is always advised to grade the material appropriately. Mohammad Naeem in his work “General Principles in Teaching” defines material gradation as “placing the language items in order.” Gradation of language materials involves the grouping of language items according to “system of language” and “language structure.” Gradation of material involves putting the language items in the groups such as phonetics, lexical or grammatical items, and then arranging or sequencing these items across the teaching material in an order from simple to complex. A. R. Rather writes in his book Essentials of Instructional Technology that “by gradation, we mean that which item will come at serial No. 1 which item after that and which item at the end” (20).

For an instance, in a textbook simple sentence structures like ‘This is a book’ shall be placed in the earlier chapters, followed by chapters that teach how to combine two simple sentences to form compound sentences like ‘This is a book but it does not have what I need.’ Therefore, different structures are exposed to the learner gradually at different levels of learning. The material gradation is done to ensure reinforced learning. It should be noted that different language items taught at different stages in a material should be logically connected with each other.
Material is graded broadly either on the basis of ordering of the linguistic items or on the basis of the linguistic categories to be ordered. The following part of the chapter differentiates between the two categories.

2.8.1 On the Basis of Ordering of the Linguistic Items

There are several factors which determine the effectiveness of material gradation. Repetition forms an important aspect of material gradation. Based on the repetition criteria of the material, gradation can be divided into the following two types.

2.8.1.1 Linear Gradation

Linear gradation, as the name suggests, is the technique of grading teaching-learning material in the linear or progressive manner. Here, the simplest language item is introduced at first moving towards the complex one. The language item once taught is practiced well and the program moves forward without returning to that point again. As quoted in *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages* by Theo et al., “Each item is discussed in detail, and the aim is to attain complete command of the item before proceeding to the next item” (227).

2.8.1.2 Cyclic Gradation

Bosco and DiPietro in their work “Instructional Strategies: Their Psychological and Linguistic Bases” define cyclic gradation as “presentation of a point in a way leading to gradual familiarization by returning to it at different intervals in the course of instructions” (15). In cyclic gradation, the language items are laid across the syllabus in the manner that every time a new item is introduced, some older items are revised simultaneously. Cyclic gradation ensures more positive learning as compared to the linear gradation as it assists in continuous revision, and therefore, it reinforces learning. While designing the TLMs, the text or language item such as vocabulary or grammar rules can be laid in the cyclic manner so as to provide a continuous learning and revision process.
2.8.2 On the Basis of the Linguistic Categories to be Graded

Apart from the ordering in which linguistic components of the course are presented, material gradation is also done according to the linguistic items of the course. Such material gradation is broadly of the following three types.

2.8.2.1 Grammatical Gradation

The language course items, under grammatical gradation, are arranged primarily on the basis of their structural characteristics. The theory that supports grammatical gradation argues that for an effective communication it is necessary to attain a command over morpho-syntactic rules of that language. Therefore, in the grammatically graded language course, the unit is developed around the morpho-syntactic rules of the language.

2.8.2.2 Situational Gradation

The situational approach to language teaching forms the foundation stone for situational gradation of material. It was observed that grammatically ordered courses could not yield to practical usability by the learners in real life situations. As a result to the failure of grammatical gradation, it was suggested that situations in which learners will have to use language, constitute the important consideration while grading the material. Factors such as physical environment in which the learner has to use the language; the social and psychological roles the speaker plays in the conversation; and the goal that the speaker wishes to achieve through a conversation, play the decisive role in situational gradation of material.

2.8.2.3 Functional-notional Gradation

Wilkins contributed to the theories of language teaching and learning through his functional-notional approach. Focusing on the purpose for which language is used, functional approach emphasizes on the communicative purpose of the language. These purposes include greeting someone, taking a leave, acknowledging an introduction etc. The functional-notional gradation refers to the ordering of these purposes from general to specific. The gradation helps in equipping the learners with relevant and appropriate language for communicative purpose.
Material gradation is an effective as well as essential tool in developing the material and designing curriculum. Materials which lack proper gradation serve as the road block and hamper the learning process. Psychologists argue that in order to make sure effective learning, a new item must be reproduced in proper graded manner. If an extremely new item is introduced at the very beginning of the program, it may develop a sense of apprehension among the learner which may in turn result to be a negative impact on learning. Also presenting easy and familiar component all throughout the learning program in turn would lead to no learning. Therefore, it becomes essential for the material designers to develop a deep understanding about their learners before developing the material.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter provides an insight into the teaching-learning materials—how scholars define TLMs and what roles these TLMs play into the teaching-learning situations. The chapter also discusses the features that make a material good teaching-learning material. Covering the area of material evaluation, the chapter also talks about the types of material evaluation. It provides an insight into how to evaluate a material as well. The current theoretical chapter also delves into the theory of material adaptation, its significance in the teaching-learning process and ways to adapt the material for maximum learning. Discussing briefly about material gradation, the current chapter highlights the importance it plays in the process of material production.

Along with these theories, the chapter also investigates deep into the history of English language-teaching materials from late fifteenth century till date. It gives an insight into the changes that underwent in shaping materials from their then-existing form to what is seen now. However, apart from the materials that have been discussed and that is used in most language classrooms presently, there is another kind of material that has marked its place in the academics. Emerging in the last two decades of twentieth century, this material was meant to teach learners who, due to reasons like time constraints or financial constraints, could not enjoy the benefit of being taught in a classroom via instructions of a teacher. These teaching-learning materials were designed specifically in an elaborative and explanatory manner so as to assist
the learners in self learning. Such materials are called as self-learning materials and form the backbone of ‘open and distance learning.’

The present study aims to incorporate the self-learning mode of materials in the regular curriculum in order to ensure more learning. For the same, the study provides a detailed look at the characteristics and function of self-learning materials, theory of which has been laid in the next chapter.
Works Cited


Hutchinson, Tom. “What’s Underneath? An Interactive View of Material Evaluation.” *ELT Textbooks and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and


