CHAPTER- 3

Review of Related Literature

3.0 Significance of Review

Review of related literature is a systematic identification, location, analysis and report of documents containing information related to the research topic. Review is thus one of the significant aspects of research. It enables the researcher to get acquainted with the work done in the concerned areas. It develops insights into the methodological aspects of the research.

3.1 Objectives of Review of Related Literature

The following were the objectives of the review of related literature undertaken by the researcher.

- ➢ To understand various aspects and scope of the research;
- ➢ To study the research studies that have already been done before the current research;
- ➢ To form hypotheses, decide objectives and methodology of the research;
- ➢ To have evidence about studies in the same field as the research on hand;
- ➢ To have direction and guidelines to implement the practical work;
- ➢ To avoid repetition of the research done;
- ➢ To broaden the researcher's horizon of knowledge;
- ➢ To find out the novelty of the present research.

In the present study the researcher reviewed various books, doctoral dissertations, research articles in journals and web sites. This chapter focuses on the past and prevailing trends of ELT.

3.2 Approaches and Methods in English Language Teaching

In 1963, an American linguist Edward Anthony formulated a framework to describe various language teaching methods, which consisted of three levels: approach, method, and technique. According to Anthony, "The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach." According to him, approach was of a set of principles or ideas about the nature of language learning which would be consistent over time: 'an approach is axiomatic'.

His method was more procedural: "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach."

Finally, his concept of technique referred to the actual implementation in the language classroom: "a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective."

Richards and Rogers' (1982) approach expanded on Anthony's three-level framework. However, instead of approach, method and technique, they chose the terms approach, design, and procedure. Their concept of approach was similar to Anthony's, but their design and procedure were of broader scope than Anthony's method and technique. Their design referred to all major practical implications in the classroom, such as syllabus design, types of activities to be used in the classroom, and student and teacher roles. The procedure referred to different behaviours, practices and techniques observed in the classroom. These new terms were intended to address limitations in Anthony's framework, and also gave them specific criteria by which they could evaluate different 'methods'. This evaluation process was a key way that their formulation differed from Anthony's, as Anthony's framework was intended as purely descriptive.

Despite Richards and Rogers' efforts to clearly define approach, design, and procedure, their framework has been criticized by Brown (1980) questioning the suitability of Richards and Rogers' term design. He points out that in English teaching design is usually used to refer specifically to curriculum design, rather than the broad definition Richards and Rogers used.

According to Anthony's proposed theory, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified, method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described.

Following Anthony, approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serves as the source theoretical views of language of practices and principles in language teaching. At least three different theoretical views of language and the nature of language proficiency explicitly or implicitly inform current approaches and methods in language teaching.

The first and the most traditional of the three, is the structural view, the view that language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. It includes the Grammar–Translation method which instructs students in grammar, and the objective is that by the time

they leave college, learners gain control over the tools of the language which are vocabulary, grammar and orthography, to be able to read, understand and write texts in various contexts. The target of language learning is seen to be the mastery of elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of phonological units (e.g. phonemes), grammatical units (e.g. clauses, phrases, and sentences), grammatical operations (e.g. adding, shifting, joining or transforming elements) and lexical items (e.g. function words and structure words). The Audio-lingual, Total Physical Responses and the Silent Way methods embody this particular view.

The second view of language is the functional view. According to this view, language is a vehicle for expression of functional meaning. The communicative movement in language teaching subscribes to this view of language teaching. This theory emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language and leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar. Willkin's 'National Syllabuses' (1976) is an attempt to spell out the implications of this view of language for syllabus design. A notional syllabus would include not only elements of grammar and lexis but also specify the topics, notions and concepts the learner needs to communicate about. The English for specific purpose (ESP) movement likewise begins not from a structural theory of language but from a functional account of learner needs.

The third view of language can be called the interactional view. It sees language as a vehicle for realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Areas of inquiry being drawn on in the development of interactional approaches to language teaching include interaction analysis, conversation analysis and ethno-methodology. Interactional theories focus on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. Language teaching content, according to this view, may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction or may be left unspecified, to be shaped by the inclinations of learners as interactants.

Although specific theories of the nature of language may provide the basis for a particular teaching method, other methods derive primarily from a theory of language learning. A theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions:

i. What are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning?

ii. What are the conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated?

Learning theories associated with a method at the level of approach may emphasize either one or both of these dimensions. Process oriented theories build on learning processes, such as habit formation, induction, inference drawing, hypothesis testing and generalization. Condition-oriented theories emphasize the nature of human and physical context in which language learning takes place.

At the level of approach, one is concerned with theoretical principles. In language theory, one is concerned with a model of language competence and an account of the basic features of linguistic organization and language use. In a learning theory, one is concerned with an account of the central process of learning and an account of the conditions believed to promote successful language learning. These principles may or may not lead to a method. Teachers may develop their own teaching procedures informed by a particular view of language and a particular theory of learning. The teacher may constantly revise, vary and modify teaching/learning procedures on the basis of the performance of the learners and their reactions to instructional practice. An approach does not specify procedure. Theory does not dictate a particular set of techniques and activities. What links theory with practice is called 'design'? In order for an approach to lead to a method, it is necessary to develop a design for an instructional system.

Design is the level of method analysis in which one considers:

i. What are the objectives of a method?

ii. How is language content selected and organized within the method?

iii. The type of learning tasks and teaching activities the method advocates

iv. The role of learners

v. The role of teachers

vi. The role of instructional materials

Different theories of language and language learning influence the focus of a method. In direct method the instruction was done in the target language only. In situational language teaching, only skill is emphasized. In Audio-lingual method the language skills are taught in

the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Communicative language, teaching emphasizes 'communicative competence' may vary from method to method.

3.3 Content Choice and Organization: The Syllabus

'The syllabus' is making a decision concerning the selection of language items that are to be used within a program. Decisions about the choice of language content relate both to subject matter and linguistic matter. In short, one makes decisions about what to talk about (subject matter) and how to talk about it (linguistic matter). ESP courses are necessarily subject-matter focused. Structurally based methods, such as Situational Language Teaching and the Audio-lingual Method are linguistically focused.

Traditionally the term syllabus was used refer to the form in which linguistic content was specified in a course or method. The term has been more closely associated with methods that are product centered rather than those that are process centered.. The syllabus underlying the situational and audio-lingual methods consists of a list of grammatical items and constructions, often together with an associated list of vocabulary items (Fries and Fries 1961, Alexander et al. 1975). Notional-functional syllabuses specify the communicative content of a course in terms of functions, notions, topics, grammar and vocabulary. Such syllabuses are usually determined in advance before actual teaching begins and therefore are called 'apriori syllabi'.

The term syllabus, however, is less frequently used in process-based methods, in which, considerations of language content are often secondary. Counselling-learning, for example, has no language syllabus as such. Neither linguistic matter nor subject matter is specified in advance. Learners select content for themselves by choosing topics they want to talk about. These are then translated into the target language and used as the basis for interaction and language practice. To find out what linguistic content had been generated and practiced during a program organized, it would be necessary to record the lessons. This would be a 'posterior approach' to syllabus specification that means, the syllabus would be determined from examining lesson protocols.

Before the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the late 1970's it was widely accepted that the syllabus should focus upon linguistic knowledge and concentrate on the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing usually in that order. In 1970's, research

in the social and conversational use of language, coupled with growing dissatisfaction with learners' apparent failure to use the linguistic knowledge outside the classroom which they had gained within it, initiated a major change in syllabus design. Applied linguistics advocated a focus upon 'language use' rather than the formal aspects of language (Council of Europe; Wilkins 1976, Brumfit and Johnson 1979). The initial phase of transition was exemplified in the development of functional syllabuses focusing upon particular purpose of language and how these would be expressed linguistically. At the same time in response to the particular needs of certain groups of learners' special purpose syllabus and teaching materials were quickly developed focusing upon language knowledge and skills needed for academic study or specific occupations.

In early 1980's this functional movement in syllabus design was challenged from two directions. The teaching of a repertoire of functions or special purpose language was considered by some as limiting the learners' potential to certain fixed communicative situations or fixed social and occupational roles.

The second challenge echoed earlier doubts expressed about formal syllabuses. Both types of syllabus could be seen as 'synthetic' in that learners were expected gradually to accumulate separated bits of knowledge, be they forms or functions, largely through de-contextualised language - focused activities before applying such knowledge as typically synthesized in real communication. Such competence entailed orchestrating language forms, the conventions for the social use of language and the interpretation and expression of meanings as a unified activity (Breen and Candlin 1980, Canale and Swain 1980).

During 1980s, therefore, the wider development of CLT evolved in two new directions. Both reflected a shift in the kind of research on which they were based. As we have seen, formal and functional syllabus had been based on how linguists 'described language', and the latter were motivated by an extended awareness of the nature of language use in social situations. The two new directions for syllabus design were oriented towards psycholinguistic and educational accounts of how language learning is actually undertaken by the learner. Such an orientation led to task-based and process types.

Task based syllabuses had their origin in research on second language acquisition (SLA) during 1980s. Building upon discoveries from first language (L1) acquisition and Krashen's view that language was best acquired through the learner's focus upon meaning in the input

provided to the learner (Krashen, 1985), researchers began to focus upon how learners interacted in order to negotiate meaning both inside and outside the classroom (Hatch 1978; Long 1981). From this perspective, a learner's use of the formal and social conventions governing language was seen to serve the struggle for meaning during interaction. The goal of the syllabus designer or teacher therefore, because the provisions of suitable tasks to encourage interaction and, through it, negotiation for meaning. In essence, a learner's expression and interpretation of meaning during appropriate tasks would enable the acquisition and refinement of linguistic knowledge and its social use. Some researchers and practitioners therefore proposed that 'task' should be the key unit within the syllabus rather than aspects of language, be these formally or functionally identified (Breen et al 1979; Long 1985; Candlin and Murphy 1987; Long and Crookes 1992).

Also focusing upon how language learning is undertaken specifically in the context of the broader curriculum and the classroom - a second proposal for syllabus design in 1980s was derived from educational perspectives on curriculum design and the teaching - learning process. A key argument was that 'what' learners have to learn and 'how' teaching and learning are done are inter-related. Content, teaching methodology and learning constantly interact and influence each other during classroom work so that the teaching and learning process is itself a highly significant part of the content of language lessons (Postman and Weingartner 1969; Stenhouse 1975; Breen and Candlin 1980). These ideas coincided with innovations in teaching methodologies which provided alternatives to grammar translation, audio-lingual and other teacher modelling and feedback methodologies that had typified the use of formal syllabuses in particular (Stevick 1976; 1980).

3.4 Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

The objective of a method, whether defined primarily in terms of product or process is attained through the instructional process, through the organized and directed interaction of teachers, learners and materials in the classroom. Differences among methods at the level of approach manifest themselves in the choice of different kinds of learning and teaching activities in the classroom. Teaching activities that focus on grammatical accuracy may be quite different from those that focus on communicative skills. Activities designed to focus on the development of specific psycholinguistic processes in language acquisition will differ from those directed towards mastery of particular features of grammar. In communicative

language teaching theoreticians have advocated the use of tasks that involve an 'information gap'; that is, learners work on the same task, but each learner has different information needed to complete the task.

Different philosophies at the level of approach may be reflected both in the use of different kinds of activities and in different uses for particular activity types. For example, interactive games are often used in audio-lingual courses for motivation and to provide a change of pace from pattern- practice drills. In communicative language teaching, the same games may be used to introduce or provide practice for particular types of interactive exchanges. Differences in activity types in methods may also involve different arrangements and grouping of learners. A method that stresses oral chorus drilling will require different grouping of learners in the classroom from a method that uses problem solving/ information-exchange activities involving pair work. Activity types in methods thus include the primary categories of learning and teaching activity the method advocates, such as dialogue, responding to commands, group problem solving, information-exchange activities, improvisations, question and answer or dills.

Because of the different assumptions they make about learning processes, syllabi and learning activities, methods also attribute different roles and functions to teachers, learners, and instructional materials within the instructional process. These constitute the following three components of design in method analysis.

3.5 Learner Roles

The design of an instructional system is influenced by how learners are regarded. A method reflects explicit or implicit responses to questions concerning the learners' contribution to the learning process. This is seen in the types of activities learners carry out, the degree of control learners have over the content of learning, the pattern of learner grouping adopted, the degree to which learners influence the learning of others, and the view of the learner as processor, performer, initiator, problem solver.

Audio-lingualism was criticized because of the very limited roles available to learners in audio-lingual methodology. Learners were seen as stimulus - response mechanisms whose learning was a direct result of repetitive practice. Newer methodologies customarily exhibit more concern for learner roles and for variation among learners. Johnson and Paulson (1976)

spell out learner roles in an individualized approach to language learning in the following terms:

i. Learners plan their own learning program and thus ultimately assume responsibility for what they do in the classroom.

ii. Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress.

iii. Learners are members of a group and learn by interacting with others.

iv. Learners tutor other learners.

v. Learners learn from the teacher, from other students, and from other teaching sources.

Counselling learning views learners as having roles that change developmentally, and Curran (1976) uses an ontogenetic metaphor to suggest this development. He divides the development process into five stages, extending from total dependency on the teacher in stage 1 to total independence in stage 5. These learner stages Curran sees as parallel to the growth of a child from embryo to independent adulthood passing through childhood and adolescence. In communicative method learners are the most active ones. They are the performers, informer passers/seekers, negotiators, problem solvers and role-players.

3.6 Teacher Roles

Teacher roles are related both to assumptions about language and language learning at the level of approach. Some methods are totally dependent on the teacher as a source of knowledge and direction. Others see the teacher's role as a catalyst, consultant, guide and model for learning. Teacher and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristics of classrooms in which a particular method is being used.

Teacher roles in methods are related to the following issues:

i. The types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill

ii. The degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place

iii. The degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught

iv. The interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners

In the classical Audio-lingual method, the teacher is regarded as the primary source of language and of language learning. But less teacher-directed learning may still demand very

specific and sometimes even more demanding roles for the teacher. The role of the teacher in the silent way, for example, depends upon through training and methodological initiation. Communicative method demands a teacher to be counsellor, facilitator. Teacher, here is a guide, a negotiator, a companion, a motivator and an evaluator. A traditional method is autocratic, while communicative method is democratic. Only teachers who are thoroughly sure of their role and the concomitant learner's role will risk departure from the security of traditional textbook - oriented teaching. Counselling - learning sees the teacher's role as that of psychological counsellor, the effectiveness of the teacher's role being a measure of counselling skills and attributes warmth, sensitivity and acceptance.

As the above examples indicate, the potential role relationships of learner and teacher are varied. The role of the teacher ultimately reflects both the objectives of method and the learning theory on which the method is predicated, since the success of a method may depend on the degree to which the teacher can provide the content or create the conditions for successful language learning.
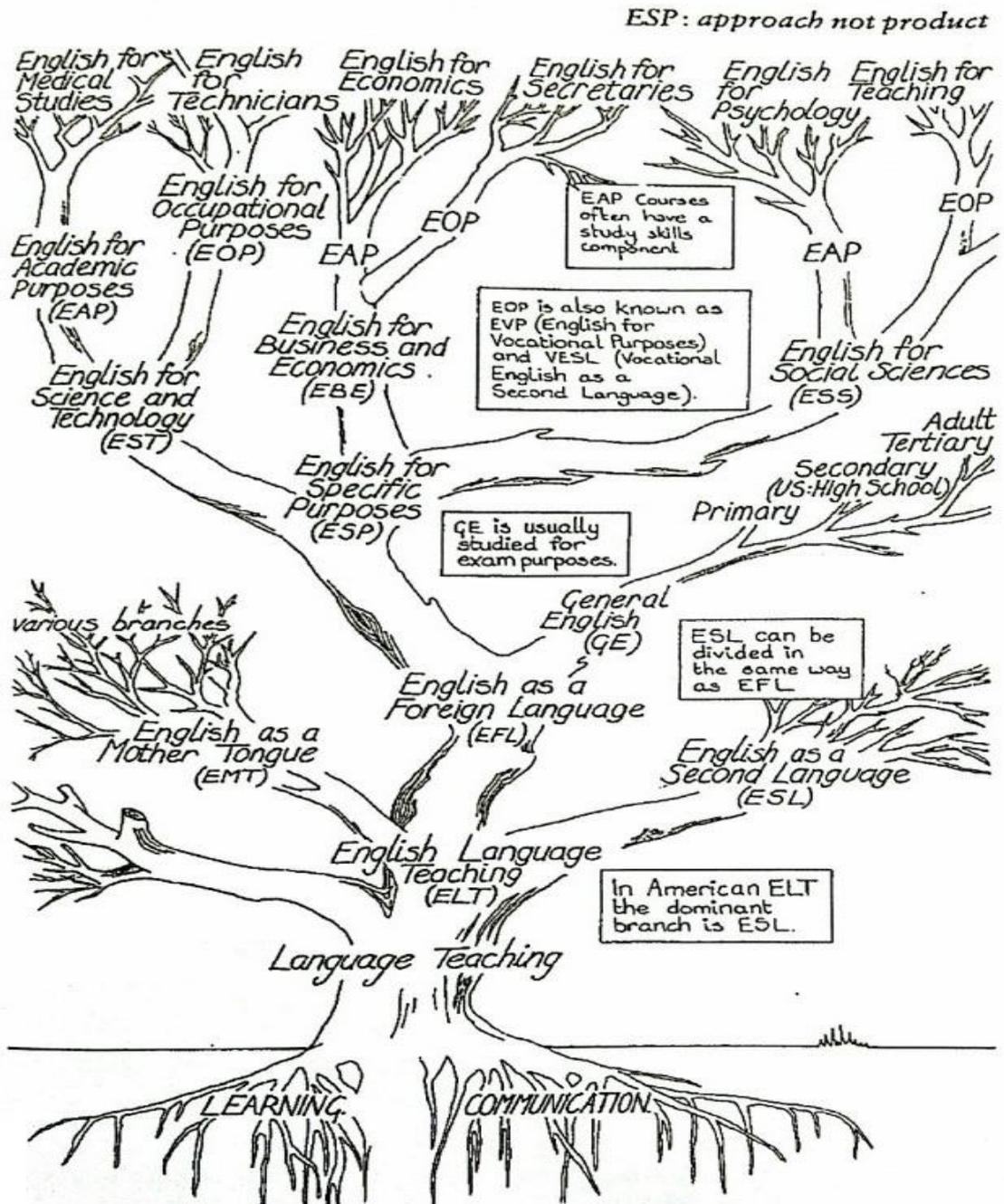
Types of ESP

In order to prepare materials for an ESP program, it is mandatory to learn for whom the materials of the program is being prepared. David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP:

i.   English as a restricted language: The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language.

ii. English for Academic and Occupational Purposes: In the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians' whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do note that there is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP: "People can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job." This explains Carter's rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP

under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter is implying that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one and the same: employment.

Figure 3.1: ESP Tree

ESP: approach not product

English for Medical Studies / English for Technicians / English for Economics / English for Secretaries / English for Psychology / English for Teaching

English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) — EOP

EAP

EAP Courses often have a study skills component

EOP

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

EOP is also known as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language).

EAP

English for Business and Economics (EBE)

English for Science and Technology (EST)

English for Social Sciences (ESS)

English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Adult
Tertiary
Secondary (US:High School)
Primary

GE is usually studied for exam purposes.

General English (GE)

various branches

ESL can be divided in the same way as EFL

English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

English as a Mother Tongue (EMT)

English as a Second Language (ESL)

English Language Teaching (ELT)

In American ELT the dominant branch is ESL.

Language Teaching

LEARNING   COMMUNICATION

Source: Hutchinson, Tom and Waters, Alan, 1991

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English with specific topics

Carter notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs. For example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language in target workplace settings. Therefore, the materials for an ESP program should be prepared accordingly prioritizing the needs analysis of the learners.

3.7 Instructional Materials

What is specified with respect to objectives, content (i.e. the syllabus), learning activities and learner and teacher roles suggests the function for materials within the system. The syllabus defines linguistic content in terms of language elements-structures, topics, notions, functions or in some cases in terms of learning tasks (Johnson 1982, Prabhu 1983). It also defines the goals for language learning in terms of speaking, listening, reading, or writing skills. The instructional materials in their turn further specify subject matter content, even where no syllabus items, allocating the amount of time, attention, and detail particular syllabus items or tasks required. Instructional materials also define or imply the day-to-day learning objectives that collectively constitute the goals of the syllabus. Materials designed on the assumption that learning is initiated and monitored by the teacher must meet quite different requirements from those designed for student self-instruction or for peer tutoring. Some assume teacher-proof materials that even poorly trained teachers with imperfect control of the target language can teach with. Some materials require specially trained teachers with near-native competence in the target language. Some materials dictate various interactional patterns in the classroom; others inhabit classroom interaction; still others are noncommittal about interaction between teacher and learner and learner and learner.

The role of instructional materials within a method or instructional system reflects decision concerning the primary goal of materials (e.g. to present content, to practice content, to facilitate communication between learners, or to enable learners to practice content without the teacher's help), the form of materials to other sources of input(i.e. whether they serve as

the major source of input or only as a minor component of it), and the ability of teachers (e.g. their competence in the language or degree of training and experience)

A particular design for an instructional system may imply a particular set of roles for materials in support of syllabus and the teachers and learners. For example, the role of instructional materials within a functional/communicative methodology might be specified in the following terms:

i. Materials will focus on communicative abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation.
ii. Materials will focus on understandable, relevant, and interesting exchange of information, rather than on the presentation of grammatical form.
iii. Materials will involve different kinds of texts and different media, which the learners' can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks.

By comparison, the role of instructional materials within an individualized instructional system might include the following specifications:

i. Materials will allow learners to progress at their own rates of learning.
ii. Materials will allow for different style of learning.
iii. Materials will provide opportunities for independent study and use.
iv. Materials will provide opportunities for self evaluation and progress in learning.

3.8 The Purpose of Materials in ESP

Materials play a crucial role in ESP and have received considerable attention in the literature of the subject. Materials connect the interface between teaching and learning, or the points at which the course needs, objectives and syllabuses are made tangible to both learners and teachers. Materials are used to stimulate and support language instruction and their design and adaptation is an important element of ESP teaching practice. Since the objective of ESP materials is to expose learners to real language as it is used in a range of professional or academic settings, they are to be closely related to learners' target needs.

The importance of materials provided to learners is meant to support their evolving control of different texts and engage them in thinking about and using the language. Well-selected and designed materials give learners a chance to get acquainted with a variety of language

samples that do not follow a rigid format, but provide an opportunity to discuss, write, analyze and manipulate language salient structures and/or vocabulary. When graded according to the learners' proficiency level and well-matched to their current learning needs, materials offer constructive feedback on individual linguistic development. Materials also serve as models since they provide representative samples of correct language use in various work and/or study situations. They illustrate particular language features, structures or functions. Using them, learners are provided with an opportunity to examine various possible examples of a genre with a view to indentifying their structure and understanding how meanings are expressed in them.

The best materials in ESP are the task-based materials in which learners after practicing a given interaction model are requested to play different roles basing their role-plays on various scenarios of professional interactions. They are thus immersed in a typical field-specific problem situation that provides stimuli for professional communication and requires them to respond to the emerging issues adequately.

3.9 Requirement of Specific Materials and Methods for an ESP Program

Since ESP focuses on specific, purposeful uses of language, it is common practice that materials designed for teaching ESP are directly targeted at a particular learner group and/or related to their reality. For that reason, it is necessary that the materials developer determine particular features of the target language that should be taught to a particular learner or learner group. Alongside the course specialization, there are also some additional factors that need to be taken into consideration as they are likely to influence the design and use of ESP materials.

Factors such as type of institution, context (e.g. ESL or EFL educational context), classroom setting, the use of information technology, learner qualities, teacher qualities, expertise in the specific content area, etc. need to be considered as part of needs analysis before needs-specific materials are selected, designed and used. Accordingly, the course designer has to take into account whether the target group has enough time for regular classes or whether particular learners will have to rely on a mix of traditional classes, self-study and reference materials.

Methods and tools available to the ESP teacher are the ones that are used in general ELT and draw on the following approaches:

i. Activity-oriented approach, which stresses the interdependence of language and context.

ii. Skill-oriented approach, the objective of which is the development of receptive and/or productive skills.

iii. Genre-oriented approach, where language learning focuses on texts representing different genres.

iv. Task-oriented approach, in which learners perform tasks inspired by real-life communicative activities in professional settings.

Referring to these approaches, ESP teachers can construct their own individual, context-specific frameworks that allow them to select and combine compatible procedures and materials in systematic ways for a given local context. These general methodological frameworks may be affected by specialized knowledge that ESP students bring to the classroom as well as learning processes from their specific content areas. Drawing on these, teachers attempt to develop learners' needs-specific competences harnessing task-based or problem-based learning.

3.10 Developing ESP Materials

Do ESP textbooks really exist? This is a central question that Johns (1990) addresses. One of the core dilemmas he presents is that "ESP teachers find themselves in a situation where they are expected to produce a course that exactly matches the needs of a group of learners, but are expected to do so with no, or very limited, preparation time." The question how specific the course should be in terms of the target participants is one of the key issues pertaining to the choice of ESP materials and program development. The focus of this concept is to understand the needs of the participants. It is referred to as needs analysis. This involves a research into the objective and subjective needs of the participant group and several other factors related to the planning of an ESP program, such as information about the environment in which and for whom it is to be run.

When it comes to supplying participants with needs-specific texts, exercises, activities and tasks, ESP teachers can adapt materials originally designed for other purposes and/or edit

published materials for their particular teaching contexts. Discussing the issue of teacher-generated material, Hutchinson and Waters (2010) propose a materials design model, which provides a coherent framework for the integration of various aspects of learning: input, content, language and task.

'Materials' include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of language. They can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD or the internet. They can be instructional in that they inform learners about the language, they can be experimental in that they stimulate language use, or they can be exploratory in that they seek discoveries about language use.

Producing teacher-generated materials, one has to remember that ESP programs tend to be constrained by a limited time period, during which the course objectives are to be realized. Owing to that, materials provided to learners cannot be expected to cover a wide array of target situations typical of a given workplace. Instead, an ESP course needs to partly focus on teaching individual strategies and thus make learners more autonomous and able to use acquired competence in the future.

3.10.1 Materials Development

Studies of materials development are a recent phenomenon. Until recently materials development was treated as a sub-section of methodology, in which materials were usually introduced as examples of methods in action rather than as a means to explore the principles and procedures of their development. Books for teachers included examples of materials in each section or separately at the end of a book, usually with pertinent comments (Dubin and Olshtain 1986, 1989; Richards and Rodgers 1986; Stevick 1986, 1989; Nunan 1988; Richards 1990), but materials development was not their main concern. A few books appeared in 1980s dealing specially with aspects of materials development (Cunningsworth 1984; Sheldon 1987) and some articles drew attention to such aspects of materials development as evaluation and exploitation (Candlin and Breen 1979; Allwright 1981; O'Neil 1982; Kennedy 1983; Mariani 1983; Williams 1983; Sheldon 1988). However, it was not until 1990s, when courses started to give more prominence to the study of materials development, that books on the principles and procedures of materials development started to be published (McDonough and Shaw 1993; Hidalgo et al. 1995; Tomlinson 1998).

3.10.2 Principles of Materials Development

There are certain principles that Tomlinson (1998) summarizes as the basic principles of materials development for the teaching of languages.

These principles are briefly outlined as follows.

  i.   Materials should achieve impact.
 ii.   Materials should help learners to feel at ease.
iii.   Materials should help learners to develop confidence**.**
 iv.   What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.
  v.   Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.
 vi.   Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.
vii.   Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.
viii. The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input.
 ix.   Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.
  x.   Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

3.10.3 Issues in Developing Materials

The following are some issues and controversies in developing ESP materials.

i. Abilities Required for developing Successful Communicative Materials

Cummins (1979) theorized a dichotomy between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). The former refers to the language skills used in the everyday informal language used with friends, family and co-workers. The latter refers to a language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language. Situations in which individuals use BICS are characterized by contexts that provide relatively easy access to meaning. However, CALP use occurs in contexts that offer fewer contextual clues.

There are three abilities necessary for successful communication to take place. The first ability required in order to successfully communicate in an occupational setting is the ability to use the particular jargon characteristic of that specific occupational context. The second is the ability to use a more generalized set of academic skills, such as conducting research and

responding to memoranda. The third is the ability to use the language of everyday informal talk to communicate effectively, regardless of occupational context. Examples of this include chatting over coffee with a colleague or responding to an informal email message.

The task for the ESP material developer is to ensure that all three of these abilities are integrated into the program. This is a difficult task. ESP requires comprehensive needs analysis because the learning-centered program is not static, it is impossible to expect that the developer is in a position to identify the perfect balance of the abilities noted above for any particular group of participants. Instructors are in the best position to identify changing participants' needs and to ensure that all participants receive a balanced diet of language.

ii. Content Language Acquisition and General Language Acquisition

One of the central questions for the material developers is that, how much time would be devoted to vocabulary and content knowledge acquisition, as opposed to the time spent developing general and academic language skills. A tentative balance ought to be drafted in order to maintain the framework of the program that can cover all the major aspects of the language. Therefore, the developers should maintain a balance between Content Language Acquisition and General Language Acquisition while creating communicative materials so that the participants are offered ample opportunity to integrate and practice the restricted repertoire acquired in content language and the everyday language acquisition.

iii. Heterogeneous Learner Group and Homogeneous Learner Group

Participants attending an ESP program have a mixture heterogeneous learners and homogeneous learners. For instance, a participant of a business program wants learn both the language and the content. This particular participant can be at a disadvantage because, when the other participants in the group are doctors and dentists. The business program participant has no prior education or work experience in health science. Therefore, faces a problem in learning with such a group. Another participant is an arts student who possesses a very low level of language proficiency. Either case would have been frustrating for any material designer. Hence, the designers have to be attentive and alert while organizing an ESP program.

3.10.4 Trends in Materials Production

Change is the most constant thing in the world. Teachers producing learning materials for an ESP program have also found a sea change in the learning through the demands of the present generation. For instance, if before students were taught to read (the way it used to be done in the 1980's) using texts extracted from various sources (newspapers, magazines, books, etc), today students request 'other types' of texts (genres) to read, for example: academic and research articles, academic textbooks, dissertations and thesis, reviews, abstracts. Also they request the teachers to help them to develop reading skills to search for support materials on the internet and even to read texts to be used in their academic field. Consequently, differently from what teachers have been doing in their ESP reading courses, now they have to think about these needs and probably design and implement programs that concentrate on them. In other words, it means a change in their reading courses, i.e. from 'general ESP reading programs' to 'academic reading programs'.

3.11 Procedures to Develop Materials

The last level of conceptualization and organization within a method is referred to as procedure. This encompasses the actual moment to moment techniques, practices and behaviours that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. It is the level at which a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behaviour. At the level of design, a method will advocate the use of certain types of teaching activities as a consequence of its theoretical assumption about language and learning.

The procedure of materials development includes the design, implementation, and evaluation of language teaching materials which has to be implemented as well in order to produce more accurate learning materials. The steps include the formulation of the first draft of the learning materials which have considered the syllabus, the target needs, the choice of the suitable nature of learning materials, and the principles of developing learning materials. Having the complete draft of the learning materials, a teacher has to implement the materials on the target participants in the real teaching-learning situation. Any weaknesses found in the try-out or in the implementation of the materials have to be considered to revise the learning materials. This is the evaluation step in the materials development.

It can be strongly suggested that a teacher should develop his/her own teaching materials for his/her own specific target learners. If a teacher has to use a textbook for some reason, still s/he has to adjust it with the target participants. There may be some parts of the textbook which are not exactly suitable for the target learners. A teacher is somewhere in the middle where s/he uses a textbook for his/her learners to learn but there is also some space for individual teachers to contribute. In short, there will never be perfect teaching/learning materials that can be used anywhere, anytime for the same level of students.

At the level of procedure, one is concerned with how the exercises, tasks and activities will be integrated into lessons or units and used as the basis for teaching and learning. There are three dimensions to a method at the level of procedure:

i.   The use of teaching activities(drills, dialogues, information gap activities etc) to present new language and to clarify and demonstrate formal, communicative, or other aspects of the target language
ii.   The ways in which particular teaching activities are used for practicing language
iii. The procedures and techniques used in giving feedback to learners concerning the form or content of their utterances or sentences

3.12 Review of Research Studies

The researcher studied reports of the earlier researches in ESP. A huge amount of research is done in this field. Therefore, the researcher studied the following works with a view to developing insights into materials design, production as well as their implementation in the classroom. This helped the researcher to frame a program to enhance oral competence in potential immigrants.

Bhatt Smita (2013) conducted a study on **Construction and Tryout of Remedial Courses in English at the Undergraduate Level.** The study was an attempt to enable students to construct or frame sentences in correct English. The context was developing a given topic into a paragraph. Need-based remedial materials were designed to study the effectiveness of the remedial course in English at the undergraduate level. The researcher focused on different types of language teaching methods like grammar translation method, direct method and linguistic method.

The aim of the researcher was to evaluate the problems of the learners in learning grammar. It was found that students made many mistakes in the written examination of the first- year and thus they cost marks. Hence, apart from providing them theoretical or analytical knowledge, they ought to be motivated to hear and read more English which is only possible if they are motivated to use English outside the classroom.

Dabhi Samir John (2015) conducted a research on **Teaching Language and Communication Skills in English: The Role of Modern Media Solutions.** The research tends to view the variations of effects of the present modern electronic media solutions on the teaching and learning of language communication skills in English. It focuses on teaching and learning of English and communication skills through all available means of electronic mass media at the undergraduate level in the state of Gujarat. Further, there is a comparison of learning between learners at colleges in rural areas and those in urban areas. The focus is on language skills and grammar.

Desai Sonalde (2002) conducted a study on **An Investigation into the Preparation and Tryout of a Package of ELT Materials to Develop Communicative Competence at the F.Y.B. Sc. Level.** This research is based on the materials prepared in the form of various tasks in order to develop communicative skills of the students at F.Y. BSc level. The researcher focuses on a variety of tasks and activities performed in groups.

Dhandhukiya Chirag (2015) worked on **Preparation and Try Out of Need Based Instructional Materials for Communication Skills in English for Travel and Tourism Management.** This researcher has tried out and prepared instructional materials for developing communicative skills of students involved in the Travel and Tourism industry where English communication has become mandatory. The researcher focuses on variety of language functions through tasks and activities.

Gohil Sonu (2012) conducted a research on **Preparation and Tryout of a Set of Materials to Develop Communicative Competence through Creative Translation among Students at Graduate Level.** The research is based on the experiment of enhancing communicative competence in English through translational activities at the TYBA level. There is an attempt and tryout of a set of interactive strategies. Therefore, the interventional tryout aimed to develop learners' ability through group activities, vocabulary sessions, developing confidence, etc. improving their English skills. The researcher had found that the syllabi that

aim at teaching language skills fail in developing those skills as the syllabus includes literature in the form of novels, poems and play which do not suffice the present communicative needs of the students. Hence, if the needs of the learners are met and solutions to their problems are provided, the learners can get an opportunity to explore tryout and discover their hidden abilities.

Gohil Surendrasingh (2012) conducted a research on **Preparation and Tryout of Multimedia Materials to Enhance Communication Skills of Students at the UG Level in Digital Language Laboratory.** The researcher has prepared multimedia materials covering three language modules: listening, reading and speaking to be tried on the students at the UG level to enhance communicative skills through digital language laboratories.

Jiny Jose (2014) conducted a research on **Preparation and Travelling of Short Term Proficiency Courses for Post-Graduate Students in Sardar Patel and Gujarat University.** The aim of this research was to help design short-term courses for post-graduate students in two universities. The course comprise of discussions, cue-cards, presentation, grammar, tasks, preparing research papers, project work, data analysis, etc. According to the researcher, it was found that needs analyses have a role to play in shaping any syllabi for language enrichment of the students. It was also found that the expectations of the recruiters and employers need to be paid due attention in training students for future professional careers in order to make field work and project work reliable. Moreover, teacher's feedback acts as an effective tool in making short-term courses adaptable and reliable.

Joshi Nikhilkumar (2013) conducted a research on **Effectiveness of Language Program Empowered by Web 2.0.** The researcher carried out an experimental study having the sample of first year engineering students. The entire course on communication skills was designed and prepared on a blog which comprised slideshows and videos. 25 Android applications for language club were also made available on the blog through which learners could remain update with every latest information posted by the instructor and could even respond in return. The researcher found that the learner were able to improve their listening skills through the new experiments of e-learning and had even passed comments. Through the comments, they could share their experience with the lesson and express their views, ideas, opinions and suggestions. This quick response was possible due to web 2.0.

Phukan Reema (2010) conducted a research on **Preparation and Try Out of a Set of Interactive Classroom Strategies to Enhance Communicative Competence of Learners at the Tertiary Level.** This researcher had tried out and developed a course which is communicative and involves students in various language learning activities. It stresses learning by doing. There are tasks which focus on developing speaking abilities of the learners. Interesting innovative exercise is created.

Solanki Shyamlee (2014) researched on **Course Designing and Testing Of English Language in Engineering Colleges: An Evaluation of Innovative Practices.** The researcher has designed an innovative syllabus for communication skills and presentation and communication techniques syllabus for engineering students so that the communication needs of different groups are fulfilled. The researcher has included team activities, task-based activities, problem-solving activities, etc. so that the engineering students can get training for interview, exposure in jobs, developing communicative and writing skills. The researcher has found that engineering students need not only linguistic competence in English, but also certain life skills related to language learning that need to be included into the syllabus on completion of their engineering course. Therefore, there is a need to improve syllabus contents so as to make the students ready for corporate world.

3.13 Conclusion

The review of related literature helped the researcher to understand the procedure of program development and materials production, apart from getting to understand classroom interaction with novel perspectives. Planning and implementation of a program demands a deep understanding regarding the requirements of the learners. There might be linguistic or non-linguistic needs according to which the program needs to be prepared. During the review, the researcher developed an in-depth understanding of the varied aspects of ELT and the emergence of ESP as its major branch. The review also helped the researcher to understand the issues of the present study in detail. Further, study of research works were a great help in formulating the hypotheses, arriving at the objectives of the study, developing a comprehensive view of the design of an experimental research and the tools and techniques of data collection, analysis and interpretation. The review enabled the researcher to comprehend one's role as a researcher.