CHAPTER-II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction:

With a view to develop an insight into the problem, the researcher studied the related literature available in the field of problem. It helped in framing out the design of research. The review of the literature studied is posited in this chapter under three titles i.e. theoretical basis throws light on ELT in India, various theories of language learning reviewed, communicative language teaching and the conventional material. Furthermore theoretical foundation of the materials, material design model used for Expression Skill Development Programme is also viewed. Empirical basis throws light on the past research studies carried out in the present field along with the critical review of them as compared to the present study. The researcher studied method, measures, approaches, treatments, teaching aids and experimental designs employed by previous researchers. Significant features of the present study are given at the end of the chapter.

Theoretical basis

Section I

2.1 The Position of English in India:

Even after 50 years of independence in India, English is treated as the 'link language', 'library language', and 'window to the world'. No other language has risen in status yet to substitute the all-encompassing influence of the English language in the socio-economic and educational arenas. As krishnaswamy and Sriraman (1994) put it,

"Learners of English in India have realized that English is not necessary for shaping of characters, the development of the aesthetic sense,... but English is needed for mobility and social and economic success; English is the language of opportunities because it takes one outside one's own community, to places where more opportunities are available for professional and economic reasons... it has a lot of 'surrender value' and learners want to cash in on that."(p.25)

English not only gives the information in every conceivable branch of knowledge; it has also the power to change the world that changes us. However, it is important to note that "English is the language of modernization not of westernization." (ibid.26) Students of India has realized that English is necessary to talk about their identity, language. Literature, science, technology, society, economy, policy, values and culture to the world outside.

English is being learnt and used not out of any imposition but through the realization that it has certain inherent advantages. Today in the context of global English there is a new awareness about communicative English. Everyone who is anyone is desperately eager to acquire communicative competence in English. Parents as well learners have realized that to acquire fluency in English is a means of empowerment.
2.2 Teaching of English at School Level in Gujarat:

The state of Gujarat was formed on 1st May 1960 after the bifurcation of Greater Bombay. The policy on English language teaching was modified to change the situation; as a result a new language policy was announced for the state of Gujarat. The integration committee on secondary education held on 26 May 1960 declared that English could be taught voluntarily from standard V to VII, in a meeting attended by the vice chancellors of universities of Gujarat, chairmen of municipal school Boards, and some members of Gujarat Vidhansabha.

The Government of Gujarat was anxious about the poor state of affairs in English language teaching and it announced a decisive policy on 2nd June 1960 with the result English was taught in std. VIII, IX, and X as one of the subjects. In class X, which was the year of public Examination, it was taught as an optional subject. Furthermore, during graduation also it was an optional subject. However, if a student desired to opt for English at the college level, he/she was allowed to do so after going through a short 'Bridge Course'. It enabled them to specialize in English as a major subject, thus placing these students at par with those who had been studying English since class VIII without a break. All these years, the situation of English in the state of Gujarat, remained in a state of flux. Most of the students did not have even elementary knowledge of English language, which could enable them to cope up with the challenges of the time posed by inadequate command of English. As Dr. Rajedrasinh Jadeja and Dr. S. Natraj have rightly said in their book 'Communicative Approach':

"... In the 60's the approach to the teaching of English was bookish and rule-governed. Ability to translate from and into English and Gujarati was considered the hallmark of learning English. Use of the language in real life situations was not considered to be important." (p.6)

With a view of giving an impetus to vocational courses when Gujarat opted for the 10+2+3 pattern of education. English was introduced as an optional subject in classes V, VI, VII and VIII. In class VIII, there used to be two categories of students (a) those who had studied English for three years, and (b) those who were total beginners. During time, once again the subject was compulsory in classes VIII and IX but optional in X, XI and XII and also in a few universities. Leaving little motivation for schools to take the teaching of the subject seriously. By the 1990's, however, most schools offered English in classes V, VI, VII and VIII. Nevertheless, the approach to the teaching English was mainly structural. On the positive side, now some attention was paid to oral work. However, by and large the focus still remained on the transmission of information about the language, viz. rule-memorization and work-lists.

Towards the end of the 80's, however, some change was noticed in the textbooks and teacher-training programmes. There were a few teachers and teacher-educators trying to relate classroom language teaching with the real language use outside. With increased mobility of people across the globe, use of English was not only considered more acceptable but also desirable. Numerous private institutions flourished by offering help to those who wanted to go abroad, appear for competitive examinations, and appear for interviews of different types etc.

Keeping in view the present need of English language from 2000 onwards the Gujarat Secondary and Higher Secondary Education Board started upgrading and updating the syllabi of English for standards
VIII, IX, and X. It is designed to consolidate and further expand the language acquired at the primary school level and equip the learner with a vocabulary repertoire of about 3000 words and to develop the skills of LSRW. The main thrust of the new syllabus as stated in GSHEB English syllabus, (2003 -2004) is on:

a) Meaning and use rather than form of the language.
b) Communicative skills and language functions
c) Interactive classroom practices for learner-centered activities and
d) Evaluation of communicative ability rather than formal grammar.

The perspective to English language teaching as reflected in this syllabus is communicative. That is, the teaching of English is need - based, learner centered, interaction-oriented. The teacher's role is that of a facilitator of learning who creates opportunities for the students to use English in the classroom, at school as well as outside. This approach envisages centrality of exposure to spoken English as well as oral interaction for language learning acquisition. The evaluator of all the skills i.e. LSRW thinking, appreciation, library skills is comprehensive and continuous. Both the print and electronic media are to be used extensively.

2.3 Theories of Learning

In this part various theories of learning in general, first and second language learning theories have been discussed in detail.

2.3.1. Behaviorist Approach to Learning

The basic premise of Behaviorism is that learning is a mechanical process of habit formation (Watson 1926, Pavlov 1960) and habit strengthening through positive reinforcement (Skinner 1957). It was believed that language acquisition, both first and second could proceed in a similar way. Behaviorist explanations of SLA advanced a direct relationship between language input (which included speaker models as well as feedback that acted as stimuli) and output or the response. Thus, “the whole process of language acquisition could be controlled by presenting learners with input in the right sized dozes and then reinforcing their attempts to practice them” (Ellis 1994:26-27) Errors were considered as impediments to learning due to old habits (learners’ first language ) interfering with the formation of new ones (‘Proactive inhibition’, Lado 1957), and therefore “error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence to be expected” (Brooks, 1960:58).

Comments:

This rudimentary and mechanistic nature of learning, with the exception of strategies like ‘imitation’ and ‘practice’ makes no reference to ‘covert’ strategies or to factors such as learners’ choice, beliefs, expectations, or emotions that may influence learning. In order to effect desired learning behavior in the classroom the teacher only needs to provide sufficient input and change the reinforcement contingencies in the environment.

2.3.2. The Mentalist Approach to Learning

The mentalist approaches to learning emphasize the role of innate mechanisms in language acquisition. For some theorists (for example Chomsky) this innate mechanism is universal language-specific
knowledge, whereas for others (for example, Dulay and Burt, the Krashen) it includes both linguistic and cognitive principles.

1. Chomsky’s UG Theory

In the 1960s, Noam Chomsky, in his classic critique of Skinner’s Verbal Behavior (Chomsky, 1959), challenged the behaviorist account of learning. He argued that:

1. Learners are ‘creative’ in that they regularly understand and produce sentences that they have never heard before.
2. One stimulus may have many responses.
3. A learner seldom encounters appropriate external rewards or punishment.

Chomsky explained language learning by positing an innate biological endowment called language Acquisition Devise (LAD). It is believed that LAD consists of Universal Grammar (UG) that accounts for language acquisition.

Chomsky’s approach to language acquisition is described in terms of ‘initial state’ (S₀) and ‘final state’ (Sₐ). Acquiring language means progressing from ‘a genetically determined initial state to thorough a sequence of stages S₁... S₂ finally arriving at a ‘steady state’ (S) which then seems to change only marginally’ (Chomsky, 1980).

It may be argued that language is complex and abstract and the input or the experience of language we receive is meager: so to arrive at the steady state then, that learners must invoke innate properties of mind – the Universal Grammar (UG), to explain the knowledge that is built out of the meagre learning input available. The UG constraints the range of hypotheses that learners form: that is, it prevents the learners from constructing wild grammars.

The UG consists of principles and parameters. Unlike principles, parameters vary in certain restricted ways from one the language to another. Therefore, what the language learner needs to master are appropriate settings for the parameters. These parameters are set by experience with the environment. In other words, the input to the language learner is essential. For the triggering of parameters setting; however, a single sentence may suffice for a parameter to be set.

According to the UG theory of SLA, parameters that have been set in L₁ need to be reset for the second language. This, however, depends on the availability of UG for the second language learners. Consequently, three positions are preferred regarding the availability of UG for second language learners – the ‘complete access view’ (L₁ = L₂), the ‘no access view’ (L₁ ≠ L₂), and the partial access view (the UG is available through L₁).

The crucial point then in the mentalistic view of second language learning is that the learner requires only that much input that will suffice for triggering particular parameters. What is therefore left unexplained by the UG model is that in order to reset parameters in L₂ the learners need to ‘consciously attend’ and ‘notice’ the features in the input.
2. Dulay and Burt’s Creative Construction Theory

The Creative Construction theory proposed by Dulay and Burt (1974, 1975, and 1982) supported ‘L2 acquisition’ L1 acquisition hypothesis. According to the Creative Construction theorists, language development is not dictated by the environment but rather the learner subconsciously selects certain habits from the language exposed to him. "This process of selection is part of an ‘internal programme’ which is essentially the same for L1 acquisition. The L structures are developed in a particular ‘pre-programmed’ sequence irrespective of the L background of the acquirer. For development to take place, language input must be comprehensible to the learner and must contain samples of the next construction in the sequence.

3. Krashen’s Monitor Theory

According to Krashen, acquisition is a subconscious process used by children in acquiring their first language and learning is a ‘conscious process that results in “knowing about” rules or Knowledge about the second language (Krashen 1985). Acquisition is developed through ‘comprehensible input’ when learners are engaged in real time communication where the focus is on ‘meaning’. Therefore, error detection and correction do not play any role here. Krashen observes:

“If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided…. input is the essential environmental ingredient…… (but) there is a significant contribution of the internal Language processor (Chomsky’s Language Acquisition Device: LAD)” (Krashen 1985).

In contrast, learning comes about due to the focus on ‘form’, that is, by the study of formal properties of language. Here error correction, detection and feedback are pivotal. Krashen advocates a strong non-interface position, that is, the ‘learned’ system is completely separate and cannot be converted into acquired knowledge. Neither, practice nor error correction enables ‘learned’ knowledge to become ‘acquired’ system.

Krashen claims that our ability to produce utterances comes from the ‘acquired’ system, while the learned’ system is available only as a Monitor or Editor with which to monitor the output of the language.

Krashen (1985) argues that an interface position adopted by his critics does not account for examples like 1) the second language learner who had consciously learned a rule such as 3rd person singular morpheme for regular verbs in English and yet could not use them in free speech, and 2) learners who have ‘acquired’ rules without having learned them. Thus, Krashen’s Monitor theory argues against an interface between explicit and implicit knowledge. Formal learning, therefore, is said to hinder the natural acquirement of language.

Comment

The mentalist approaches emphasize the role of the ‘internal mechanism, the LAD’, in the acquisition of a second language. Input is considered useful only as a ‘trigger’ that sets off the internal language processing. As acquisition is predetermined, these approaches make no reference to learner’s choice or any conscious or intentional learning on his part. Therefore, they do not advocate any role for learner strategies as discussed by O’ Malley (1990) and Oxford (1990).
2.3.3. Cognitive Approaches to Learning

In the cognitive approach to learning, the emphasis is on the mental processes used to acquire knowledge and is representation in the mind. These approaches view learning as an active, conscious, goal-oriented process dependent on the mental activities of the learner. All cognitive approaches share the following similarities:

i) Higher-level process is used in learning.

ii) Prior knowledge plays a pervasive role in how knowledge is represented and acquired by the human mind.

iii) The representation and organization of knowledge about language in memory is not any different from how people acquire and store knowledge in general.

Various theories have been formulated to address learning from a cognitive perspective. Below is given a description of cognitive theories of learning. Before we discuss these theories, it is necessary to briefly describe the early cognitive theories as these theories form the basis for the development of later cognitive theories.

1. The Early Cognitive Theories

Two of the earliest and important cognitive learning theories are that of Bruner and Ausubel. Bruner talks about 'meaningful' learning through rearranging and transforming information by 'discovery' (Bruner 1966) and 'going beyond the information given' (Bruner 1980). Such learning requires Learners to meet certain conditions — a set of learn an appropriate need state', and prior mastery of original learning.

However, Ausubel (1954) is of the opinion that the 'junior scientist' model of learning proposed by Bruner is uneconomical, inefficient and ineffective He advocates meaningful verbal learning, or alternately, a theory of consumption. To subsume is to incorporate new material into one's already existing stable learner or completely unrelated to anything that he knows the only learning that can take place is what Ausubel calls rote learning. Neither Bruner nor Ausubel explained how the new information is perceived and processed to produce new output. A model that precisely describes these processes is Atkinson's and Shiffrin's (1968) Information Processing Model. The Information Processing Model postulates a sensory store where information enters through one or more senses and the selected information is immediately transferred to the short-term memory (STM). The information retained in the STM through rehearsal is then passed to the long-term memory (LTM) which has unlimited capacity for storing information. This information can be retrieved into the STM whenever it has to be used. This model suggests that for effective learning, 'attention' and 'rehearsal' are important to enable information to be stored in the LTM.

2.3.4 Cognitive Approaches to SLA

In the sections following, a number of cognitive approaches to SLA under the following headings have been examined.

1. Inter language theory.

2. Models based on explicit/implicit distinction

3. Skill learning models.
1. Inter Language Theory

The cognitive perspective of Inter Language (IL) theory is primarily concerned with implicit knowledge and the strategies that assist its development (the learning process) and the deployment of linguistic resources to actual use.

Selinker (1972) identifies five principal cognitive processes responsible for L2 acquisition.

I. Language Transfer: Some items, rules and sub systems of the IL may result from transfer from the first language.

II. Transfer of Training: Some items, rules and subsystems of the IL may result from specific features of the training process used to teach second language.

III. Strategies of second language learning. The elements of IL may result from an identifiable approach used by the learner to the material to be learned.

IV. Strategies of second language Communication: The elements of IL are the result of an identifiable approach used by the learner to communicate in the target language.

V. Overgeneralization of Target Language linguistic materials some elements of IL may be the product of overgeneralization of the rules and semantic features of the target language. Selinker is not very sure of what constitutes the notion of 'strategy' although he believes that "strategies... evolve whenever the learner realizes, either consciously or subconsciously, that he has no linguistic competence with regard to some aspect of the target language."

One general principle evoked by cognitive psychology in discussing L2 learning is relating new knowledge to what is familiar, it is this principle that Taylor (1975) invokes when he proposed that both transfer and overgeneralization strategies are two different linguistic manifestations of one psychological process. In the case of language transfer - the established knowledge is native language competence, and in the case of overgeneralization, the most recently acquired elements of target language constitute the prior knowledge. It is, therefore. Not clear why Selinker (1972) did not consider transfer and overgeneralization as strategies as well. However, Selinker, Swain and Dumas (1975), in extending the notion of IL to child second language performance discussed learning strategies transfer more broadly. They identified three central strategies: language overgeneralization and simplification. Thus, Selinker and his associates found that children's IL was characterized by systematicity which was not to be predictable by grammatical rules but by strategies.

The inter language is envisaged as a continuum: a series of overlapping grammars, each grammar not only shares some properties with the previously constructed grammar, but also contains new rules. It is therefore a restructuring continuum. Thus IL is defined by Ellis as "the system of implicit L2 language that the learner develops and systematically amends over time." (Ellis, 1994).

The IL theory emphasizes the role of cognitive strategies in using and acquiring the target language.

2. Models Based on Explicit/Implicit Distinction

In SLA research, explicit knowledge generally refers to knowledge that is available to the learner as conscious representation. Implicit knowledge is intuitive in the sense learners are not conscious of what
they know. Implicit knowledge is largely hidden and we do not know how it is represented in the mind of the learner. Implicit knowledge is manifested only in actual performance. Two theories—Bialystok's Theoretical Model of Language Learning and Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis—will be considered in this section.

(a) Bialystok's Model of Second Language Learning

Bialystok's (1978) model unlike Krashen's Monitor Theory, allows for an interface between implicit and explicit knowledge. With the help of this model Bialystok (1979) devised an experiment and came to the conclusion that "the learner's intuition (his implicit knowledge store) must be developed and encouraged, and efficient strategies for consulting explicit knowledge must be trained... concentration on only the formal aspect of the language and rule formation not only precludes important aspects of language but ignores as well, the learner's great intuitive source" (Bialystok 1979:101)

(b) Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt (1990,1993a,1993b,1994) claims that in order to acquire any particular aspect of L2 the learner must first notice it, that is, the learner should be consciously aware of this form of input. It runs counter to Krashen's (1981) dual system hypothesis. He (1990) cites evidence of his own learning of Portuguese (Schmidt and Frota 1986) in support of his Noticing Hypothesis.

A number of other researchers have also claimed an important role for "consciousness-raising activities and a role for 'attention on form' in promoting L2 development (see Hulstijn 1989; Fotos 1993; Fotos and Ellis 1991; Long 1991; Rutherford 1987; Sharwood Smith 1991, 1993; Terrell 1991). These studies claim that for target language input to become intake, the input should be noticed. Noticing requires attention and, therefore, the saliency of target language forms in input should be increased so that they are more likely to be noticed by learners.

However, Tomlin and Villa (1994) suggest that noticing or conscious awareness may not be as critical a factor as it is thought to be, but detection that leads to noticing is necessary for SLA. Robinson reconciles the different views of 'noticing' and provides a theoretical basis for the Noticing Hypothesis where he defines noticing as 'detection' with awareness and rehearsal in STM' (Robinson 1995) The Noticing Hypothesis highlights the importance of 'attention to form' for 'intake enhancement'.

(C) Skill Learning Models

Here theories that explain L2 acquisition in terms of general skill learning such as Anderson's ACT theory, O Malley and Chamot's Cognitive theory based on Anderson's ACT theory and McLaughlin's information Processing Model have been discussed.

CI. Anderson's ACT Theory (1983, 1985)

According to ACT, knowledge in the new domain begins as declarative knowledge and a learner moves to the procedural knowledge in three stages:

i) The declarative or cognitive stage: The learner develops declarative knowledge through the application of an if then production. The knowledge acquired in this stage tends to be laden with errors.
ii) The associative stage: The errors in the declarative knowledge are gradually detected and eliminated and the learner’s mind tries to ‘compile’ the information into specific procedures.

iii) The autonomous stage. The performance becomes rapid and automated. The information is no longer available to consciousness and the skill can be executed without effort, the productions that have become automatic no longer impose demands on memory space, which can then be utilized for new stimuli.

Anderson provides an illustration of classroom second language learning in his model. The L2 learner starts with declarative knowledge of the rules provided by the teacher and transforms this into procedural knowledge. The research on learner strategies is directly influenced by Anderson’s ACT theory.

C2. O’ Malley and Chamot’s Cognitive Theory of Learning

O’ Malley and Chamot’s (1990) cognitive theory of learning describes the role that learning strategies play in the language acquisition process. They view strategies as a ‘set of productions that are compiled and fine tuned until they become procedural knowledge’ (O’ Malley and Chamot 1990:43). O’Malley and Chamot’s cognitive learning theory is based on Anderson’s (1985) production systems.

O’ Malley and Chamot claim Anderson’s distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge is important because each type of knowledge is learned, stored in and retrieved from memory in different ways. This has implications for teaching and learning.

Declarative knowledge is best learned by building on prior knowledge and activating existing schemata. Schemata or memory framework are interconnected concepts and ideas or propositions and form the declarative knowledge store in the memory. Propositions are connected with varying strengths of association, so that recall of one concept may evoke recall of others.

In addition to the prior linguistic knowledge, the second language learner also has schemata with experiential and also academic knowledge that can be usefully related to new input in the target language. The more number of ways in which new information is linked to exiting information, the associations become stronger and easier it becomes to remember and recall. For example, when students learn by repetition, they go over material to be learned by rote, with minimal linkages to existing schemata. In contrast, when students learn strategically by elaboration, they develop images of the new information, organize the new information, relate what they know about the concepts to the new information and build strong and varied associations with the existing schemata. It is likely that memory schemata in one language can be used to solve problems in another language as the terms used in describing the concepts may differ, but the relationships between the concepts and strengths of association may be identical in both the languages.

The mechanisms involved in learning procedural skills are however more complex than those with declarative knowledge. The procedural skills, according to Anderson, are acquired through a three-stage sequence. In the cognitive stage, the learner approaches the language skill with conscious attention to rules, and makes deliberate efforts to make sense of it. In the associative stage, some of the errors are eliminated and performance becomes somewhat more fluent, though still not fully automatic. In the autonomous stage,
the performance is fine-tuned so that it becomes virtually automatic. At this point, the skill is proceduralized or automatized.

O'Malley and Chamot claim that there is an equation between their concept of learning strategy and the three stages of Anderson’s theory described above. The beginning stage of the application of a learning strategy is a conscious one. However, through repeated applications of the strategy with various learning materials, learners can gradually proceduralize. This eases the burden on STM, which can then focus on the incoming language.

C3. Melaughlin's Information Processing Model


Automatization refers to the routinization of skills’ or ‘making automatic’ or ‘making procedural’. As learners are limited capacity processors automatization maximizes their informal processing capacity so that more and more information can be processed.

Restructuring is another way through which information processing capacity is extended. Restructuring can be seen as a process in which the components of a task are coordinated, integrated and reorganized into new units, thereby allowing the procedure involving old components to be replaced by a more efficient procedure involving newer components. Thus, restructuring is characterized as a discontinuous and qualitative change as the learner moves from one IL stage to another. Each new stage constitutes a new internal organization and is not merely accumulation’ Of new elements which are established through practice. McLaughlin’s theory, like Anderson’s and O’ Malley’s theories, implies that reutilization of conscious strategies takes place through practice.

Comment:

Although the cognitive approaches give a central role to ‘consciousness’ and also explicit knowledge, the ultimate aim of these theories is the acquisition of implicit knowledge which is responsible for fluency and accuracy of language. Thus the acquisition of implicit knowledge is facilitated through the process of consciously attending to the formal features of the target language.

The cognitive approaches by prioritizing on consciousness provide an important role for learner strategies in the acquisition of a second language.

2.3.5 Interactionist Theory of Language Learning

In the behaviorist approach to learning, input in the form of stimuli and feedback is an essential condition for language learning to take place. In the mentalist approach to learning, input is merely a trigger which activates the internal mechanisms. The interactionist perspective, however, views learning as the result of both input factors and of innate mechanisms. Input is seen as crucial to both first and second language acquisition as it determines the possibility of gradual development of knowledge of the language. As Wode remarks, "there is no learner on record who learned a language or even part of it without receiving some language input" (Wode, 1981).
In this section, we will review the roles of input, interaction and output in non-instructional settings. The roles of input, interaction and output in instructional settings will be discussed in next section.

2.3.5.1 Input and Second Language Acquisition

Input is defined as "what goes in" (Corder, 1967). "The linguistic forms used" (Long, 1981), "language that is addressed to the L2 learner either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner (Ellis, 1985). The early descriptive studies concentrated on the general characteristics of input directed to learners. In the 1970s a considerable bulk of empirical research investigated how mothers talked to their children (for example, snow and Fergusorfrl 1977), that is, Motherese or Caretaker talk. Motherese is said to be consist of features such as lower mean length of utterance, use of sentences with a limited range of grammatical relations, few subordinate and coordinate constructions, simple sentences, the use of display questions and a high level of redundancy (Snow, 1976), and adjustments in pronunciations (Sachs, 1977). Evidence from Motherese suggests that the way mothers talk to their children influences how rapidly they acquire the language, i.e., the rate of acquisition. The research on Motherese provided a basis for considering the role of input in SLA.

Foreigner Talk (FT), a register used by native speakers when communicating with non-native speakers, displays many of the characteristics of caretaker talk. Freed (1980, 1981) compared Motherese and FT to show that declaratives were much more common in the FT and Yes/No questions and imperatives less common. Freed suggested that this reflects a difference in purpose according to the age of learners. In her study, the purpose was the exchange of information. FT, however, resembles caretaker talk closely when it is addressed to children and is aimed at directing their behavior. Hatch, Peck and Wagner-Gough (1979), in their analysis of the input to a five-year-old learner found that FT constitutes more 'here and now' topics, more topic initiating moves more confirmation and comprehension checks, more clarifications requests, more self- and other-repetitions, more expansions and shorter responses.

Interlanguage talk consists of the language that SL learners receive as input when addressed by other SL learners, which constitutes the primary source of input for many SL learners. Interlanguage talk is less grammatical than FT (Porter, 1986). However, it is found that interlanguage talk provided learners with more interactional modifications associated with the negotiation of meaning (Gass and Varonis, 1985, Porter, 1986).

After briefly considering the various characteristics of linguistic input addressed to learners L1 or L2 in non-instructional settings, let us now consider the role of input in SLA from the point of view of two most influential theoretical positions advanced by Krashen and Long.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) postulates "humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'..." (Krashen, 1985).

Krashen cited considerable evidence from various sources to claim that comprehensible input contributes to acquisition. He believed that some children go through a silent period when exposed to a new language wherein they build the competence in the language by listening to it. He maintained that older learners are able to acquire language faster than young children as they obtain more comprehensible input.
This evidence, however, runs counter to another line of evidence provided by him - that of simple codes. Krashen (1985) argued that simple codes such as caretaker speech provide ideal input for learners because they are easily comprehensible and not finely tuned to learners' needs.

Based on evidence from both, first and second language research, Krashen hypothesized that good input is (i) sufficient in quantity, (ii) given in a non-threatening atmosphere (when the affective filter is down), (iii) both attended to and understood by the language learner and (iv) at an appropriate level (beyond the current level of learners' linguistic competence), Krashen considered comprehensible input as a causal variable affecting SLA.

Long (1983c) propounds that input is made comprehensible by the use of structures and vocabulary, or by the 'here-and-now' orientation or through the modification of the interactional structure of conversation. Long considers interactional adjustments to be important for SLA.

Krashen and Long have put up a strong case in favour of comprehensible input. There are problems, but Swain (1983) strongly argues that the input hypothesis fails to recognize the importance of comprehensible output. Whereas Krashen negates the role of output in SLA, Swain suggests that it is through output that learner is 'pushed' to use alternate means of expressing a message. White (1987) has argued that besides comprehensible input, incomprehensible input is also vital to SLA as this may allow the learner to modify his interlanguage rules.

2.3.5.2 Interaction and Second Language Acquisition

When L2 learners experience problems in communications, they can negotiate solutions to these problems and thereby acquire new language. This claim, which was originated in the work of Long (1981), has been referred to as the interaction hypothesis (Ellis 1990, Loschky 1984).

Long (1983) has provided a detailed account of the conversational modifications involved in the negotiation of meaning. They include comprehensible checks (the speaker checks whether the interlocutor has understood something) confirmation checks (the speaker attempts to ascertain whether s/he heard or understood something the interlocutor said) and clarification requests (the speaker requests help in understanding something the interlocutor said). These devices provide learners with opportunities to resolve their comprehension problems and therefore make negotiation of meaning possible.

Long (1983b) argued that the two-way exchange of information ought to provide more comprehensible input and thus promote acquisition more effectively than one-way exchange of information.

Long (1985) suggested three steps as a way of gaining insight into how input-interaction affects acquisition:

**Step 1:** Show that linguistic/conversational adjustments promote comprehension of input.

**Step 2:** Show that comprehensible input promotes acquisition, and

**Step 3:** Deduce that linguistic/conversational adjustments promote acquisition.

Pica (1992) endorsed Long's (1986) assertion that negotiation is of special value in the early stages of L2 acquisition. The claim that comprehensible input promotes acquisition (step 2) has been addressed by Krashen (Krashen 1985). It seems that steps 1 and 2 of the Interaction Hypothesis have been established. However, doubts persist about step 3 mainly because little is known about how negotiation contributes to
comprehension barring Loschky’s study (1989) quoted in Ellis (1994), has attempted to establish a direct relationship between negotiated interaction and acquisition but failed to find supporting evidence.

2.3.5.3 Output and Second Language Acquisition

Crookes (1991) claimed that the role of output (i.e. production or use) in the development of second language has largely been ignored or denied as Krashen (1985) also argued that output only acts as a monitor and has no direct effect on acquisition.

Swain (1985) claimed that it is often possible for learners to understand the meaning of $L_2$ input without grasping its morph syntax, but in order to participate in extended discourse; learners must organize their output grammatically. Swain believes that acquisition is fostered whenever learners have the opportunity to structure their interaction with their interlocutors. Even without implicit or explicit correction provided from their interlocutor about the learner’s output. Learners may “notice a gap” (Schmidt and Frota, 1986:311) in their knowledge when trying to produce the L2 or when the interlocutor makes a request to clarify or confirm the original message. In such instances, learners are “pushed” to make their output comprehensible.

Swim and Lapkin (1995) maintain that learners in producing $L_2$ will notice a linguistic problem. Noticing a problem can ‘push’ learners to modify their output. In their study, the communicative need engendered by the task forced the learners into thinking about the form of linguistic input. Swain (1983) proposes various ways in which output may play a role in the process of second language learning.

- Output provides opportunities for meaningful practice of one’s linguistic resources leading to automaticity in their use.
- Output may force learners to move from semantic to syntactic processing.
- Output may serve the language learning process through hypothesis testing.
- Output may generate responses from the interlocutors which can lead learners to modify or 'reprocess' their output.

Comment

The interactionist perspective to SLA claims that input and interactional modifications and ‘pushed’ output facilitate language acquisition. Although, this theory does not explain how these features interact with the learner’s internal mechanisms to shape the course of language acquisition, it highlights certain strategies such as negotiation of meaning, seeking clarifications, utilizing the opportunities to talk in the $L_2$, thereby receiving feedback from interlocutor’s etc.

2.3.6 Humanistic Approaches

The two theories discussed above were the offshoots of behaviorist and cognitive psychology. It has also been observed that humanistic psychology has had a significant role to play in approaches to language teaching like suggestopedia, silent way and Community Language Learning. This is an area of methodology that is the latest and the most thought provoking. It has for its base, not linguistic theories or pedagogic facts, but something more basic-the human being. People outside the language teaching profession
developed the methodologies discussed under humanistic approaches. They evolved because the persons were concerned about the individuals who were learning. The ‘caring and sharing’ attitudes of these persons have shaped these methodologies. The humanistic approaches have drawn on pedagogic and psychological insights into the nature of learning itself.

Earl Stevick in his book ‘Humanism’ specifies three things, which a humanistic course is not.

1. It is not a course, which is taught because of some tradition, or because it is a syllabus designed by an impersonal authority.
2. It is not a course in which a teacher remains ‘in charge’.
3. It is not a course in which getting a good grades is the aim.

The humanistic approach tends to see language learning as a process, which engages the whole person and not just the intellect. It takes into account the emotional and spiritual needs of the individuals too.

There are three dimensions on which humanistic courser differ from traditional courses.

1. Attention to the purpose of the learner, what learners are interested in and why they used the language. The emphasis is on the centrality of the learner rather than the supremacy of the teacher or the subject matter.
2. There is shift in the balance of power in the classroom. The learner is no longer a passive or helpless entity. She is granted more autonomy, independence, responsibility and opportunities for being creative.
3. The assumptions about the process of learning differ. The focus is on learning about learning and awareness of awareness.

2.3.7 Discussion of the theories of language

In the preceding section, we looked at a number of language learning theories. As we progressed in our review from the earliest behaviorist theory to the current theories of interaction, we saw that theories were either ‘incomplete’ as they explained only certain facets of learning. The behaviorist theories with their emphasis on imitation and practice are too simplistic and can only account for the learning of some routine aspects of language such as formulaic expressions. However, the acquisition of the more complex grammatical structures requires the learners to go beyond the behaviorist view to linguistic explanations. The mentalist theories with their emphasis on the pre-equipped LAD, account for the acquisition of complex linguistic structures, but are unable to provide a role for learner strategies. As the use of strategies entails consciousness on the part learners, the mentalist approaches by de-emphasizing consciousness assign no role to learner strategies in language learning. The cognitive theories by giving priority to ‘consciousness’ constitute a sound theoretical background to the issue of learner strategies in SLA and therefore to second language learning itself. However, the cognitive theories remain inadequate, as they are unable to account for the linguistic constraints and therefore need to be supplemented by linguistic theories.

The interactionist theories stress on communication strategies like negotiation of meaning, seeking clarification, trying to produce language even in an imperfectly known Language, direction input at oneself, etc, but do not specify how interaction activates the mental processes of the learner.

It therefore seems necessary to reconcile the different positions offered by the various theories.
Section II

2.4 Communicative Language Teaching

In late 1960s change in language teaching methods occurred all over the world. Situational language teaching and Audiolingualism then current theories of language teaching were rejected due to their focus on basic structures, which gave way to the communicative Language Teaching method. In this section the features of communicative Language Teaching theory underlying Communicative Language Teaching and interpretations of Communicative Language Teaching method reflected through different syllabuses designed by various researchers have been discussed below.

2.4.1 Theory of Language

Communicative language Teaching is based on theory of language as communication. Chomsky’s theories of communication, which is in contrast with Hymes theory of communicative competence, deals with the ideal speaker learners’ knowledge that enable him to produce grammatically correct sentences.

Chomsky (1965) proposes strong and weak sense of competence and performance. His strong sense of competence refers to the linguistic system that an ideal native speaker of a given language has internalized where as strong sense of performance mainly concerns the psychological factors that are involved in perception and production of speech. Chomsky’s theory of competence which does not consider the appropriateness of socio-cultural significance of an utterance and mainly deals with an ideal native speaker was criticized by Hymes (1966) who proposed a broader notion of competence and coined the term communicative competence. Hymes (1972) defined competence as a knowledge and ability of language use a speaker needs to acquire to communicative effectively or competently in a speech community.

Campbell and Wales (1970) stressing the appropriacy of the socio-cultural significance of an utterance, stated that important linguistic ability of a person is to be able to “produce or understand, utterances which are not so much grammatical but, more important. appropriate to the context in which they are made and they continue.”

Rejecting Chomsky’s strong version of communicative competence, Hymes (1972) proposed that communicative competence comprises of knowledge and abilities of four types.

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated.
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and to what its doing entails.

In Hymes’ view people vary in both, their knowledge and their ability to use that knowledge. The performance of a person in any one context reflects, moreover, the interaction between that person’s competence and the competence of others and the nature of event itself as it unfolds. Thus by stating’ ‘There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless’, Hymes stresses the concept of communicative competence in the contextual appropriateness.
Halliday (1973, 1978) has suggested that his socially constrained meaning, potential is similar to Hymes’ notion of communicative competence. Halliday is concerned with the synthesis of structural and functional approaches in the study of language. In his view “only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language and therefore all components of meaning brought into focus.” (1970). Haliday views language as a system of meaning potential but Halliday’s research of meaning potentially of language restricts at the clause level rather than discourse level.

“Widdowson (1978) in his book Teaching Language as Communication discusses the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. According to Widdowson:

“Communication does not take place through the linguistic exposure of concepts and functions on self-contained units of meaning. It takes place as discourse, whereby meanings are negotiated through interaction.”

(Widdowson, 1979)

Widdowson proposes discourse, which consists of the ability to produce coherent and cohesive texts—written or oral. For Widdowson cohesion consists of explicitly marked relationships among propositions and coherence comprises the ability to combine meaning with unified and acceptable spoken or written texts in different types of texts. Savignon (1982) defines discourse competence as “the ability to interpret a series of sentences or utterances in order to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context.” (Savignon, 1983)

Canale and Swain (1980) define communicative competence as a theory which interacts with a theory of human action and with other systems of human knowledge is observable indirectly in actual communicative performance. Canale and Swain’s (1980), Swain (1982) framework of communicative competence includes lexis, morphology, sentence grammar, semantics and phonology. Socio linguistic competence includes socio cultural rules and rules of discourse. Strategic competence consists essentially of communication strategies that compensate for breakdown in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence. Discourse competence concerns the ability to combine meaning with unified and acceptable spoken or written texts in different genres. In Canale and Swain’s (1980) view a learner need to acquire the knowledge of these competence to achieve a sufficient level of communicative competence.

Theory of communicative competence forms basis to the Communicative Language Teaching approach.

The brief sketch of development in linguistics during the last decades of twentieth century helps to locate some of the theoretical roots of communicative approaches to language teaching.

2.4.2 Features of Communicative Language Teaching

Finnocchire and Brumfit (1983) mark the features of communicative language teaching while presenting the distinction between Audiolingual Method and Communicative Language Teaching

- Meaning is paramount.
- Dialogues, if used, Centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
- Contextualization is a basic premise.

38
Language learning is learning to communicate.

Effective communication is sought.

Drilling may occur, but peripherally.

Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.

Any device which helps the learners is accepted- varying according to their age, interest, etc.

Attempt to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.

Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.

Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.

Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.

The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.

Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).

Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.

Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.

Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.

Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.

Fluent and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.

Students are expected to interact with people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.

The teacher cannot know exactly what language students will use.

Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(Finnocchire and Brumfit, 1983)

### 2.4.3 Communicative Needs

Students can convey their ideas etc. in a better way if their teachers spell out their communication Needs.

Richterich’s (1973) says, “Language needs are the requirements which arise from the use of language in the multitude of situations which may arise in the social lives of individuals and groups.” (Johnson and Morrow, 1981)

“Before deciding what to teach the learner, one wants to know his requirements in terms of, for example, communicative mode and activities, and the relationship between him and interlocutors. In other words, the specification of communication requirements or needs is prior to the selection of speech functions or communicative acts to be taught. By drawing up a profile of communicative needs one can more validly specify the particular skills and linguistic forms to be taught.” (Paliwal, 1996:11)

In recent years some attempts have been made to spell out learners’ needs. A document, which has proved particularly valuable for this purpose, is the Council of Europe’s Threshold Level, which helps the teacher to answer questions such as:
1. What situations learner might encounter?

2. What language activities is the learner most likely to take part in?

3. What functions of Language are likely to be most useful?

4. What topics are likely to be important?

5. What language forms should the students learn, in order to specify the communication needs that have been described? (Littlewoods, 1995) After specifying communicative needs one starts gathering relevant information and data about needs. “There are a number of ways in which information can be gathered about the needs. The most frequently used are questionnaires, interviews, observation informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)

2.4.4 Communicative Language Testing

The communicative language testing tests learners’ ability and ‘capacity’ to construct grammatically (and phonetically) well informed sentences, to select these forms in order to express many different kinds of conceptual model and functional meaning.” (Wilkins, 1976)

In the communicative language testing, “a teacher evaluates not only his (students’) accuracy, but also his fluency. The student who has the most control of structures and vocabulary is not always the best communicator. A teacher can informally evaluate his students’ performance in his role as an advisor or co-communicator. For more formal evaluation, a teacher is likely to use a communicative test. This is an interactive test which has real communicative function.” (Paliwal, 1996)

K. Morrow (1979) is of the opinion that “the concept of pass: fail” loses much of its force; every candidate can be assessed in terms of what he can do. Of course, some will be able to do more than others, and it may be decided for administrative reasons for certain level of proficiency is necessary for the awarding of a particular certificate.” (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979)

2.4.4.1 Designing a Communicative Test

B.J.Carroll’s contribution to communicative testing is extremely important. “The ultimate criterion of language mastery is therefore the learners’ effectiveness in communication for the setting he finds himself in.” (Paliwal, 1996:25)

The design of a communicative test can thus be seen as involving the answers to the following questions:

1. What are the performance operations we wish to test? These are arrived at by considering what sorts of things people actually use language for in the areas in which we are interested.

2. At what level of proficiency will we expect the candidate to perform these operations?

3. What are the enabling skills involved in performing these operations? Do we wish to test control of these separately?

4. What sort of content areas are we going to specify? This will affect both the types of operation and the types of ‘text’ which are appropriate.

5. What sort of format will we adopt for the questions we set? It must be one which allows for both reliability and face validity as a test of language use.” (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979: 155-156)
2.4.4.2 Characteristics of a Communicative Test

According to Keith Morrow following are expected to be “characteristics of a communicative ability test.”

1. It will be criterion-referenced against the operational performance of a set of authentic language tasks. In other words it will set out to show whether or not (or how well) the candidate can perform a set of specified activities.

2. It will be crucially concerned to establish its own validity as a measure of those operations it claims to measure. Thus content, construct and predictive validity will be important.

3. It will rely on modes of assessment which are not directly quantitative, but which are instead qualitative. It may be possible or necessary to convert these into numerical scores, but the process is an indirect one and recognized as such.

2.4.5 Communicative Syllabus:

During 1970s and 80s theories in applied linguistics and language teaching were concerned with the application of functional theories, to syllabus design. One of the first syllabuses in communicative language Teaching was proposed by Wilkins (1976) as a notional syllabus. Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the system of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language, than describing the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary. This syllabus describes the semantic grammatical categories and the categories of communicative functions included requests denial, offers, and complaints.

Criticizing syllabus based on notional functional categories that provide only a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules, Widdowson (1978) argued that discourse must be at the center of your attention. Van EK and Alexander (1980) published ‘Threshold Level English’ as an attempt to specify a set of specifications needed to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language.

Different interpretation of Communicative Language Teaching by various researchers resulted into emergence of variety of communicative syllabuses. Yalden (1987) categorizes the communicative syllabuses in the five distinct categories.

1) Functional Syllabus:

Linguistics like Austin (1962), Wilkins (1976), Jones (1977) proposed syllabuses based on functions and notions of language Functional syllabus desires needs analysis to be undertaken to prepare a set of specifications to be included in the syllabus. ‘Traditional linear model of transmitting information and making applications of theory underlies the process of developing a functional-notional syllabus. This syllabus covers following aspects of language:

- Language functions (agreeing, persuading, changing etc.)
- General as well as specific notions (e.g. “time” general notion, and “two o’clock”-a specific notion)
- Rhetorical skills (e.g. extracting information from a text, obtaining clarification from a speaker)
- Linguistic forms

2) The Negotiated Syllabus
Self-directed autonomous learning without relying on the teacher is the basis of negotiated syllabus (Holec, 1980-81). Learner receives more attention than the teacher and could interact directly with the syllabus designer. In this type of syllabus interactive relationship is formed between learner and syllabus designer and learner and teacher. But the relationship between syllabus designer and teacher is unidirectional from syllabus framer to teacher.

Though this syllabus is variant of the functional syllabus, learner receives more freedom and chance to take decisions about the learning process.

3) The Natural Syllabus

The Natural syllabus is based on Terrell’s (1977) “Natural approach,” which is based on second language acquisition theory. The syllabus or a set of framework already exists in the learner mind. For effective second language acquisition experience need to be provided in the classroom through language activities based on providing comprehensible input and arranged in stages. In this syllabus the syllabus designer and the learner are dependent on the teacher. Interaction is between learner and teacher and teacher and syllabus designer.

4) The Subject-matter Syllabus

Immersion teaching Swain (1978) in Canada is observed as subject-matter syllabus. Teaching of subject matter through a target language forms part of the second language learning experience. Learning a subject in a target language is accepted as a part of learning experience, but not considered explicitly as second language teaching approach.

The subject-matter teacher teaches the subject in the usual way, generally simplifying language, and slowing of pace and using gestures since the students are not native speakers. The subject-matter teacher plays role of language teacher by giving some language instructions. No syllabus designer is required teacher to help in designing methodology and materials for second language learning since job is done by the subject matter teacher.

5) The Task-based Syllabus

Task based approach is also known as procedural approach. Prabhu’s Bangalore project (reported in Johnson (1982) followed procedural syllabus with the hypothesis that “structure can be learned when attention is focused on meaning.” Second language teaching based on this hypothesis focuses more on the performance of tasks in the classroom than the language required to perform those tasks. Teacher provides comprehensible input and prepares tasks, on the basis of their own experience and knowledge of learners’ conceptual development and the feedback they received from the learners. Teacher’s role as syllabus designer reduced the syllabus designer role in the process of syllabus development.

The approach of all these syllabus is Communicative Language Teaching, but the relationship between teacher, learner and the syllabus designer differ in each syllabus. The functional syllabus relies heavily on the syllabus designer. In the negotiated syllabus reliance comes from the learner and the teacher. The natural syllabus relies on second language acquisition theories rather than the descriptive linguistics. In the subject-matter syllabus designer’s role is minor. In task-based syllabus, the participation of a syllabus designer is very limited. The interdependence of teacher and learner receives prominence in this syllabus.
Usually the Functional syllabus gets adopted in many language-teaching courses. Breen (1984) while describing aspects of functional syllabus mentions that

Functional syllabus:

1. It focuses upon the learner’s ability to use language in particular social activities or events.
2. A functional syllabus intends that the learner will not only become accurate in using the language but that he or she will learn how to be socially appropriate in language performance.
3. It identifies main type of language purposes in sets and sub-sets with a range of subordinate functions, and further specifies how these functions may be realized in various ways through the language code.
4. The sequencing of items is from the general to the particular, or cyclic in nature. (Ghodiawala, 1988)

6) **Modcom (Modified communicative) Approach:**

Keeping pace with the global phenomenon of ELT, teachers in all the countries are adapting new and innovative method and techniques for an effective use of English. They are engaged in studying issues like language acquisition, language learning, use of ICT for this purposes, monolingual and multilingual competence etc.

The winds of change have been blowing and India has also brought about considerable change in teaching of English. Hence it is a second language for the learners all over India, the atmosphere and appropriate exposure for language acquisition demands great efforts on the part of educationists, policy makers, subject experts, researchers and above all a teacher to make language teaching easy and enjoyable. The importance of English has increased immensely and we use it in every walk of our life. Therefore English language teaching has shifted its attention from the missing. Thus communicative approach came into existence, which put more emphasis on the use of language in its real sense of the term rather than just looking into its linguistic aspect. The usage of language thus leads towards its effective learning.

This deviation from structural approach is called modified communicative (Modcom) approach. This modification part of the “Modcom” signifies specific Indian and Gujarati perspective, and the communicative part suggests the global perspective. ELT in Gujarat is keeping abreast of research and innovations at the international level and, at the same time, ensuring that ground realities of learners are kept in mind.

Student in Modcom approach learns language to carry out specific communicative functions (like making inquiries, responding to invitations, requesting, agreeing or disagreeing and so on). Modcom consists of eleven ‘ground rules. (Modified from Diane Larsen-Freeman, 2000). These rules are called ‘ground rules’ because they form the basis and also because they provide a working model of the new approach. These ground rules are given elaborately in chapter-1

Modcom is all about teaching the language to learners who will indulge more into learning through activities that can be called enrichment task. It suggests going beyond the text book in our classroom teaching. School children enjoy singing songs and playing vocabulary games. Play way manner of language teaching is core of this approach. The approach is introduced in Gujarat for competency-based English language teaching at primary level. New textbooks of secondary school are having this approach following functional syllabus.

43
2.5 Review of Teaching Materials:

The term "teaching materials", refers to textbooks, workbooks, teacher manuals and other supplementary materials that are utilized to promote the language learning process. They form the backbone of language teaching in the last fifty years, simultaneous with the changing approaches to language teaching. Noteworthy developments have taken place in the field of textbook production. "Setting up a new course implies a skilful blending of what is already known about language teaching and learning with the new elements that a group of learners inevitably bring to the classroom: their own needs, wants, attitudes, knowledge of the world and so on."(Yalden, 1987) In the present day, efficient teaching materials are designed to include current approaches to materials production successfully and innovations that have been experimented with in the recent years.

2.5.1 The History of conventional Materials in India

In the first half of the twentieth century, "outsiders", people who were not directly connected with the language-learning classroom, produced conventional teaching materials. The writing of textbook was," often left to literary hacks, private tutors, unemployed lawyers or less successful school-masters", according to Michael West. Hence textbooks were, "impervious to change as they did not evolve from teachers' experience and learners' needs and interests but based on 'a priori' criteria usually not available to teachers who use them. Besides these conventional materials do not involve the learner in a search for meaning, but make him dependent on teacher explication and interpretation of the text. Such materials have been found to be demotivating for learners." (Innovations in ELT: The Loyola Experience, 1986)

2.5.1.1 The Features and Use of Conventional Textbooks

In India in the early years of the twentieth century, English textbooks were imported from the U.K. These books were written for native British children who knew English even before they started schooling. They were literature based. Exercises aimed at promoting rote learning. Conventional materials were primarily content based, they comprised prose, poetry, and non-detailed lessons followed by comprehension questions and grammar exercises. The themes of lessons were generally unfamiliar and far removed from native culture and real life. As a result they did not capture the interest of the learners.

Another unsuitable feature of these texts lay in the fact that Indian students possessed no knowledge of English before starting school. However the same textbooks used for native British children were used in India as well. The production of conventional textbooks was not based on any common underlying principles. "British were...much too difficult; unfamiliar words were so frequent that more than three quarters of the lesson was spent or teaching them, and the actual reading became an infinitesimal proportion of the work. In the long intervals of word teaching the boys forgot or lost interest in the thread of the story. The new words were so frequent even in the shortest section that the boys could not remember them at all, and failed to grasp the sense of the passage for lack of an essential word. Words learned in previous lessons were forgotten because; being of not very common usage they occurred in the one passage and never again." (Krishanawamy and Sriraman, 1994)
In India, conventional textbooks were used from the pre-independence era right up to the late nineteen seventies. In a typical conventional textbook, “the length of each essay ranges between six and ten pages; poems such as Shelley’s “Ode to the West wind” are always prescribed so that the lectures (quite often in the mother tongue or in their own brand of English) ‘Fall upon the Thorns of Life’ and make life miserable for the learners,” state Krishanawamy and Sriraman (1994). Guide notes with model answers were easily available for high school classes and the college level. With the help of these, it was possible for learners to pass the final examination without even giving a glance to the original textbook, as prepared notes provided standard, answer to examination questions. Critical thinking and original writing were not required for conventional examination patterns.

2.5.1.2 Methods of Teaching followed:

Conventional materials were prepared with a view to the teacher playing a central role in the classroom. Lessons were required to be taught and directed by the teacher. The students were required to play a very passive role in the classroom.

Conclusion:

A survey of teaching materials in 1970 brought to light the fact that conventional materials were very much in use even to that date. The majority of college students depended on ‘bazaar notes’ or ‘guides to pass their examinations.

2.5.1.3 The Need for changes in Conventional Materials:

In later years of the twentieth century, it came to be realized that conventional materials possessed several drawbacks. They were as follows:

a) Textbooks did not possess thematic links between lessons and units.

b) Lessons were alien to the native culture of the students.

c) A few language items like vocabulary were given importance while language skills were neglected.

d) Reading matter was extremely difficult for the learners to comprehend, as they possessed a large number of new and unfamiliar words.

The above-mentioned drawbacks in conventional materials precipitated the need for a new kind of materials to be evolved.

2.6 Non-Conventional Materials

The changing philosophy behind language teaching and learning led to the formation of an alternative philosophy on materials production. According to the new theory, materials production should be guided by methodology used in the classroom. It is now believed that linguistic and communicative competence is achieved through active language interaction in the classroom. There has been a shift from a non-interactive view to an interactive view on classroom methodology. As a consequence, in the field of materials production, the focus has now shifted to the use of materials. Materials are now produced with a view to promote learner interaction against conventional materials which required the teacher to speak while the learners remain silent and learnt through the rote method.
2.6.1. Features

Non-conventional materials consist of problem solving exercises, puzzles, games, brainteasers and other such items, which encourage learners to utilize their cognitive and affective capabilities in addition to their social, cultural and linguistic experience in solving them. Non-conventional exercises promote interaction and enhance the processes of language acquisition.

2.6.2. The History of Non-Conventional Materials

In 1980 the shift in view from the use of conventional to non-conventional materials guided by communicative methodology gained widespread popularity. In 1980 Prabhu came up with the Communicational Approach. 'Language', Prabhu said is 'best learnt when the attention is on meaning rather than form'. The use of interactive tasks was advocated for the classroom. This new emphasis on interactive language tasks for language learning has been the key inspirational and guiding factor for the recent Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) and the Maharashtra Board of secondary Education have successfully produced new teaching materials for the high school level learners based on the Communicative Approach.

In recent years, non-conventional materials have gained widespread popularity and acceptance in India. Non-conventional textbooks are based on the communicative approach. Activities in these books generally aim at involving the learners in interactive acts that promote language acquisition. They emphasize on the 'usage'. A non-conventional textbook, "must stop reproduction, the text should expand to go beyond the classroom with several subtexts in it so that the resourcefulness of teachers and learners is fully exploited", state Krishanaswamy and Sriraman (1994). They also state that, "a non-conventional approach will have to look beyond the classroom, beyond the examination based on prescribed books.

2.6.3 Communicative Teaching Materials

Thus Communicative Language Teaching approach proposes meaning focused, contextualized, interactive, fluency-based, learner centered language learning and stresses on use of language in real life situations. The communicative movement has significantly influenced course design and instructional materials in recent years. It is important to examine these trends, which are reflected in the Indian course books.

Now-a-days, the ELT market is flooded with materials claiming to be either 'communicative' or 'authentic' or both. A brief survey of these communicative teaching materials', it is hoped, brings to light their distinctive character in comparison with the materials that are labeled 'structural/Grammatical'. Generally, every syllabus /teaching materials /course book is based on or associated with the widespread, current approach to ELT, viz., Communicative Approach'. These materials have been reviewed, keeping in view their usefulness, effectiveness and novelty.

2.6.4 Communicative Vs Structural Materials

CTM present us with a convenient and often attractively packaged inventory of functions/notions. "Because ‘CA’ is syllabus centered, it is still accompanied by the idea of ‘getting through ‘a certain inventory of things to be learned.” J.T. Roberts, (1982). These notions and functions are usually related to the needs of the learner desiring to learn English with a purpose. Before the materials are prepared, materials
producers make it a point to analyze learners' requirements and specify their needs to focus on the purposive use of language. Widdowson (1979) argues, "the specifications of learners needs should not, then (or so it seems to me) determine methodology, "The communicative approach, dubbed a 'syllabus centered approach', appears to be isolated, unlike structural approach, from methodology so far as teaching materials is concerned, "It does not provide us with a route but it points us in the right direction. It suggests an approach," (Widdowson, 1979)

The focus of CTM is on communication-oral as well as written, and 'fluency' is as central to the concerns of the materials writer as 'accuracy' is. It can be speculated that the traditional situational courses could be used to 'communicative effect' depending on the way in which they were handled by the teacher. In other words, it is not "a new language which is being presented, but the same language in different packaging."

(Roberts, 1982)

The course materials are functionally and thematically organized, though grammar is typically introduced at the level of the linguistic exponents of functions. Supporters of structural approach argue that Grammatical/Structural syllabus presents a system, provides the learner with a capacity to learn, which is expected to be acquired or captured by the learners. On the contrary, there appears to be no evidence of a 'system' in communicative course books. Roberts offers perceptive comments on this "Rich as the materials are in many respects, there is less evidence of a system to be learned than in the course book of a decade ago (meaning structural syllabuses), and the possibilities for self-access often seem very restricted."

(Roberts, 1982)

Communicative syllabuses and textbooks are far more motivation and attention capturing than structural one, for they take into account learners' needs, aspirations and concentrate more on the learner and his requirements than on structural and patterns directed from practical utility and immediate relevance. Most of the communicative textbooks that will be discussed below are exclusively meant for adult learners and migrants.

2.7 Review of Books (Communicative material)

In the succeeding Section a detail review of following books containing communicative materials have been discussed.

1. **Starting Points**: It is not intended a self-contained course, but as a source of supplementary materials which concentrates on the skills of listening and speaking. However, it provides a good illustration of a practical response to theoretical developments. It is claimed that the linguistic content of the course "is based on the communicative aims of the Council of Europe's 'The Threshold Level" (Van Ek, 1975) and acknowledgements are made to Trim and Van Ek. The phrase 'language functions' looms large in the introduction "a number of language functions are presented and exemplified", and "the language functions chosen are those which are most likely to be of practical use to beginners and elementary students." These include units such as "introducing yourself", "Offering things", "getting attention", "saying what you want", "expressing dislike", politely interrupting" etc.
The course aims to give as much opportunity as possible for guided role-playing in order to cultivate fluency. It is also intended to help the student build up recognition and comprehension in listening. 'Structures' are introduced under functional headings, but grammar is not dealt with explicitly. As a supplementary course, it concentrates on 'fluency', taking for granted that 'accuracy' will receive attention elsewhere. There is evidence of 'grading'. But grading is no means as in grammar-based materials.

2. Approaches:

The main emphasis in this book is on 'language activation'. It is designed to activate language, which the student may have passively, but which he has not had the opportunity to use in everyday communication. It is intended precisely for learners who have been exposed to accuracy-oriented methods and who need to develop fluency. The contents of the book include 'talking about yourself', 'meeting people', 'asking for things', 'asking about things', 'inviting' etc. The book deals mainly with speaking and listening skills. Grammar is not included.

3. Cambridge Skills for Fluency:

Cambridge Skills is a series of supplementary materials covering all the four skills listening, speaking, reading and writing; each skill is developed through pre-intermediate through to advanced level.

The series aims to develop students' confidence and fluency in English, by offering a variety of topics and activities which engage students' interest and encourage them to share personal reactions and opinions. Each book has its own features and its own principles approach to skill development. In this all the tasks are open ended and integrated with oral-written work: Given below is the review of Cambridge Skills part-2 for all the four books, which are designed for lower intermediate level, which suits our undergraduates' level.

Listening 2:

The listening books aim to develop students 'ability to understand real life spoken English', through recordings of natural spontaneous speech to make them accessible at each level. In this book, twenty units are given; each unit is divided into two parts: A and B. Each part provides materials for 30-45 minutes. Both the parts of the unit are independent of each other, reflecting different aspects of one topic.

In this series along with 'Standard British English' author has included a variety of voices and speaking styles such as Scotland, Ireland, Northern England, the United States and New Zealand.

In this book in earlier units, short stretches of speech are given, which can be played several times: longer pieces of listening are divided into shorter sections, each with its own listening task. In some units, isolated utterances are given -to help the learners are liable to feel when listening to an apparently 'unstoppable' stream of language. Extensive pre-listening activities are also given to encourage students to make predictions about what they are going to hear.

Speaking 2:

The speaking book also has twenty units. It aims to develop student's oral fluency by focussing on topics that are personally relevant to students, as it is the firm belief of the author that it widens the boundaries of interaction involving the target language in the future.
Here, the recorded materials are deliberately longer and more challenging. The underlying principle is that an ability to deal with unsimplified spoken English is a vital accompaniment to the development of spoken fluency. However, students' capacity for comprehension is not overburdened. Listening tasks generally require understanding only at the level of gist.

In order to arrange the twenty units the more straightforward ones are given earliest in the sequence, but there has been no conscious linguistic grading. In this series, an attempt has been made to involve the teachers in the activities; they are expected to create a pathway into the units by using simple activities, mimes or questions to elicit spoken language before using the book. All these units invite students to talk with another in small groups or in pairs.

This material inevitably reflects western backgrounds, although they have tried to avoid too many specific references to British or other English speaking locations.

Writing 2:

This book, intended for students with a lower intermediate knowledge of English, contains twenty units built around different topics. Each unit provides approximately 50-60 minutes of classroom work. With each unit there are normally four or five main activities. It is observed that, generally, the activity at the beginning of a unit concentrates on work at the level of vocabulary or sentences whilst those towards the end of the unit demand paragraph or short 'whole text' writing.

It provides open-ended, creative imaginative tasks which stimulate students to use language to say what they wish to say. Many of the activities are interactive that is, they require students write to, for and with other students. All these activities suit students while working in pairs or groups. Interactive tasks are integrated with the other three main skills-listening, speaking and reading. In this book, particular efforts has been taken to develop the range of strategies such as 'making 'idea' maps'(e.g.1.1) and 'making notes before writing' (e.g.2.2,8.3 and 10.4), which students may take in the process of writing. They are offered as opportunities to experiment with different ways of going about writing.

One map is given at the beginning of the book which shows the main areas of language functions, language structure and vocabulary as well as an indication of the main aspects of writing covered in the units helps the students and teacher to choose any activities of their interest and purpose.

The important thing though is that when students are asked to write, revise and discuss with their neighbors, they are not unduly rushed. With a class that contains students of varying levels of ability, those students who finish a task before others, can be asked to move straight on to a further task before they return to the whole class for discussion.

4. Form and Function:

'Form and Function' is a communicative grammar of English designed specifically for the use of students at the UG level. As the main objective of learning a language is to develop the ability to communicate efficiently in the language, the primary role of a communicative grammar is to ensure and enhance the ability and confidence to use language accurately. It has successfully attempted to fulfill that role by adopting a variety of eclectic approaches.
In this book, twelve topics of English have been chosen which are crucial to the user in his effect at efficient communication and pose difficulties for the user of English at this level. It attempts to exploit the user's language experience in order to trigger off a discussion of grammar. It is refreshed and enriched with interesting examples and additional information, which are reformulated in the form of a rule or principle or generalization. Applying it in a variety of real life communicative situations reinforces the rule thus established.

It has tried to give the right emphasis to matters of grammatical accuracy blending it unobtrusively with concerns of situational appropriacy.

It has also attempted to make the user aware of the degree of formality in communication, the difference between the 'spoken' and 'written' language and the demands of different registers.

The attempts throughout the book 'Form and Function' is to sensitize the user of the book to the mistakes he is likely to make and equip him with the mechanism to correct errors in the selected area of grammar have been chosen, brought to the attention of the user the causes analyzed and remedial measures suggested.

'Form and Function' has attempted to rid grammar of the stigma of humourlessness by using amusing situations for practice, by sprinkling a few 'funny' illustrations and by inserting human anecdotes.

5. BBC Beginners English:

This is a two stage beginners courses designed to be used in the classroom by adults or by students in the later stages of secondary education. Each stage has the following components: Student’s Book, Workbook, Teacher’s book, class cassettes set containing the recorded listening material for the lessons, language review cassette set containing recorded pronunciation and structure exercises.

The students’ book consists of thirty units. Each sixth unit is a revision unit i.e. ‘Checking what you know’. At the end of the students book there is a section with pronunciation exercises and do-it-yourself ‘Structure Review’ with exercises.

The workbook provides supplementary written practice material, which gives extra training in using the functions, structures and vocabulary.

The teacher’s book includes the typescripts, a series of warm-up activities and learning skills activities, as well as reference to the workbook exercises.

Major features of this course are its authentic oral and written input, its careful and systematic international settings, its learners-centered, activity-based approach and its presentation of the varieties of English.

The objectives of the courses are to help the learners perform a variety of simple communicative tasks, to expose the learner to a broad range of national and regional variations of English and to the features of authentic spoken English, to establish a core of lexical items and a variety of structure and functions and to provide a variety of graded activities for structured work as well as for free and spontaneous practice.

It focuses on the topics related to Functional /Communicative aspects of life e.g. from giving personal information to the broader field as talking about one's work, leisure activities, feelings, dealing with different situations such as in a hotel, travels etc. and then about the surroundings, etc. In short, it covers all
the activities, which are related to our daily life. The activities are graded from simple to complex. In between there are also given activities based on “Checking what you know” as revision exercises. The authors have also specified which tenses or which types of structure are used in different activities or situations.

6. Keep Talking:

This is a practical guide to communication activities in the language classroom, suitable for use with students from elementary to advanced level. It has been divided into two parts. Part 1 contains instructions for over 100 different exercises, including interviews, guessing games, jigsaw tasks, problem solving, values clarification techniques, mime, role-play and story telling. Part 2 contains the accompanying worksheets, which can be copied, making many of the activities instantly available for use in class.

For each activity, notes are also provided on the linguistic and educational aims, the level, organization, tone and preparation required. A comprehensive table of activities and an index are included for ease of reference.

A number of different ways of setting up the communicative activities in this book are explained in the description of the activities themselves. For teachers who would like to change their procedures for handling classroom discussions a few major types are also given in the book.

It can be concluded that the book is valuable and informative for teachers of English as numerous activities and approaches have been suggested that can be used to make learning English more meaningful and interesting.

7. Interact in English:

‘Interact in English’ is the produce of a six-year project of the CBSE in collaboration with the overseas Development Administration, UK, and the British high commission in India.

In the academic year 1993-94, the English course ‘A’ was introduced for classes IX and X – (in the current academic year, 2003-04, it has been renamed English-Communicative). After two years of use, a second look was taken at the class X books and a revision took place in 1996. Thereafter, between 1977 and 1999, the course books of classes IX and X were revised based on the feedback received from the users - the students, teachers and ELT professionals. The units and activities in the main course books, literature readers and workbooks were modified, rewritten, recorded or reworked.

As in the new curriculum, the focus is on equipping the learner with essential language skills and developing in him the confidence to use them effectively in life - situation in this book, the learning materials, both for classes IX and X, have been designed with a special emphasis on developing skills in using English and helping students prepare for the examination.

It places a heavy emphasis on interaction between the child and the teacher on the one hand and among students themselves through group discussions, projects and practical exercises on the other. This is to remind the users of the materials that English (like all languages) is to be used in various situations i.e. in speaking to someone else, in listening to a lecture, in reading of a textbook or an academic article, in writing an essay, in enjoying and discussing a poem with friends.
Interact in English has radically changed the role of the English teacher in the classroom. The teacher no longer teaches English, but helps his students learn it through active participation and its lively use.

Listening and speaking, as skills of language, are given the required emphasis as a part of the learning of English. Writing skills are being developed in a systematic manner with the involvement of the learner.

In this book grammar has been made a pleasurable activity. The students enjoy the fun in the various activities in the workbooks and, at the same time, learn the use and usage of grammatical items.

8. Write to Communicate

The focus of Write to Communicate is on developing writing skills of the undergraduate level students to communicate effectively in a mainly academic context which are based on suitable adapted authentic materials. It covers four major areas, viz. report writing, summary writing, letter writing and grammar and punctuation. There are a variety of tasks that are both challenging and interesting, which should help students acquire communicative competence.

To encourage learner autonomy, the course is designed as a series of activities and tasks for the students. The teacher’s role is that of a guide and facilitator.

This book requires a lot of effort from the teachers of English as in the book no key has been provided. Secondly, examples given were not enough to facilitate the learners, particularly in some of the tasks this need was felt very strongly, for instance, the difference between formal and informal language has not been highlighted clearly particularly in task 3(B).

9. Enrich Your English

It is a 150-Hour Bridge; intensive course has been prepared by the CIEFL, Hyderabad. This course is especially designed for entrants to undergraduate programmes with a regional medium background. It aims at developing a take-off level proficiency in reading and writing skills, with focus on reading skills. Listening and speaking skills are also given due importance. It is partially self-directed, the focus being on the learner. It is a package comprising two books, two Workbooks; a Supplementary Reader, a set of Audio Cassettes and a Teacher’s manual.

The main objective of the course is to activate and enrich their English, improve their communicative and linguistic competence and thereby help them play their roles effectively in their multilingual and multicultural setting and do their university and colleges with confidence.

The salient features of the course are: a wide range of texts, the focus on the learner, learning by doing, guided self-study, and integration of skills.

Communication Skills: Book I consists of ten units and two review units. Each unit focuses on a sub skill of reading. Besides, training is provided in skills of listening, speaking and writing. This equips learners with strategies for effective communication.

Conclusions:

In order to produce effective communicative materials, a lot of concerted effort is required on the part of material; a lot of concerted effort is required on the part of material producers. A good materials
producer has to browse through pages and pages of literary writing and selecting those pieces, which would be appropriate and learner's curiosity and sustain his interest. "The textbook and the texts selected or written must be open ended that no crib writer can predict probable question and answers. The supplementary activities suggested by the text must encourage learners to read intelligently, respond critically and write creatively so that the ability to use the language in a meaningful way." (Krishnaswamy and Sriraman, 1994)

2.8 Material Development:

Material development is both a field of study and a practical undertaking. As a field, it studies the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials. As an undertaking it involves the production, evaluation and adaptation of language teaching materials by teachers for their own classrooms and by materials writers for sale or distribution.

"Materials include anything that 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 provide exposure to the language in use, and they can be effective in that they stimulate use, or they can be exploratory in that they seek discoveries about language use.

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 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 (e.g. Dubin and Olshtain 1986, 1989; Richards and Rogers 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 as evaluation and exploitation (e.g. Candlin and Breen 1979; Allwright 1981; O’Neil 1982; Kennedy 1983; Mariani 1983; Williams 1983; Sheldon 1988). However, it was not until 1990's, 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 (e.g. Mcdonough and Shaw 1993; Hidalgo et.al. 1995; Tomlinson 1998).

An important factor in changing attitudes to materials development has been the realization that an effective way of helping teacher to understand and apply theories of language learning, and to achieve personal and professional development is to provide monitored experience of the process of developing materials. Another factor has been the appreciation that no course book can be ideal for any particular class and that, therefore, an effective classroom teacher needs to be able to evaluate, adapt and produce materials so as to ensure a match between the learners and the materials they use.

These realization have led to an increase in materials development courses for example, in the USA, the materials Writers Interest section of TESOL published a Newsletter, in Japan, the Materials Development Special Interest Group of JALT produced in 2000 a material development edition of The Language Teacher, and in Eastern Europe there are frequent materials development conferences (e.g. the International Conference on Comparing and Evaluating Locally Produced Textbooks, Sofia, March 2000) in the UK in
1993 an association called MATSDA (Materials Development Association), is found which organize materials development conferences and workshops and publishes a journal called FOLIO.

2.9 Research in Material Development

There is little published research in material development. The published research has focused on macro-evaluation of materials projects (Rea- Dickins 1994; Alderson1985), publishers’ pilot materials (Donovan 1998) and the evaluation of course materials. (Cunnings worth 1984, 1996; Breen and Candlin 1987; Tribble1996; J.B Brown 1997; Johnson and Johnson 1998).

One of the problems in materials evaluation is the subjective nature of many of the instruments of evaluation with the view of the researcher often determining what is measured and valued, e.g. in J.B. Brown’s (1997) evaluation extra points are awarded for course books which include tests.

However, there have been attempts to design objective instruments to provide more reliable information about what materials can achieve. (R. Ellis 1998, Littlejohn 1998) No one set of criteria, can be used for all materials (Johnson and Johnson 1998) and attention is being given to principles and procedures for developing criteria, for specific situations in which the ‘frame work used must be determined by the reasons, objectives and circumstances of the evaluation (Tomlinson 1999). Another problem is that many instruments have been for pre-use evaluation and they are too demanding of time and expertise. Recently, there have been attempts to help teachers to conduct action research on the materials they use (Edge and Richards 1993; Jolly and Bolitho 1998) and to develop instruments for use in conducting ‘pre-use’, ‘while-in-use’ and ‘post-use’ evaluation (R. Ellis 1998).

There is little work or theories of materials development, although Hall (1995) describes his theory of learning in relation to materials evaluation and Tomlinson has listed theoretical principles for materials development, and outlined a principled and flexible framework for teachers to use when developing materials (Tomlinson 1999). There are also published accounts of how textbooks are produced (Hidalgo et al. 1995). Which include a number of chapters on how textbooks are written. Prowse (1998) reports how 16 EFL writers develop their materials. These accounts seem to agree with low (1989:153) that ‘designing appropriate materials is not a science: it is a strange mixture of imagination, insight and analytical reasoning. ‘Maley (1998:220-221) argues that the writer should trust ‘intuition and tacit knowledge ‘and states that he operates with a number of variables which are raised to a conscious level only when he encounters a problem and works in a more analytical way’.

2.10 Trends in Material production

1. Trends in published Materials

There are a number of discernible trends in commercially produced materials. There are more activities requiring investment by the learners in order for them to make discoveries ((e.g. Bolitho and Tomlinson 1995; Joseph and Travers 1996; Carter and McCarthy 1997) Also, there are more interactive learning packages which make use of different media to provide a richer experience of language learning and to offer the learner choice of approach and route (Parish 1995). There are also more extensive reader series
being produced with fewer linguistic constraints and more provocative content (e.g. The Cambridge English
Readers Series, 1999)

2. Trends in Project Materials

In many countries groups of writers produce local materials from observation of such projects in
Bulgaria, China, Indonesia, Oreland, Mauritius, Morocco, Namibia, Norway, South Korea, Sri Lanka,
Singapore and Vietnam, the following trends are discernible:
1. Writing team often consists of teachers and teacher trained who are in touch with the needs and
wants of the learners.
2. Writing teams are often large (e.g. 30 in Namibia, seven in Romania, five in Bulgaria) deliberately
pooling the different talents available.
3. Materials are content and meaning focused, with English being used to gain new knowledge,
experience and skills.
4. Materials are written keeping in mind the wants, needs views of learners and teachers.

3. Possible Future Trends in Material production

Materials will continue to aim at the development to accuracy, fluency and appropriacy while
placing more emphasis on helping learners achieve effect. They will provide less practice of cooperative
dialogues and more opportunities to use the language to compete for attention and effect.

Materials will contain more engaging content, which will be of development value to learners as
well as offering good intake of language use. Materials will become more international, presenting English
as a world language rather than as the language of a particular nation and culture.

More materials will be available on the Internet and many will make use of Internet texts as sources.
For example, in Singapore an English course book (English for Life 2000) makes extensive use of web
search activities and offers accompanying readers on the web. Numerous websites make learning materials
available by several (e.g. planet English: www.planetenglish.com) and a joint collaboration by several
European universities puts language learners in contact for bilingual email exchanges
(www.shef.ac.uk/mirrors/tandem).

Also the US information service is active in encouraging the use of American educational websites
(e.g. American studies Electronic Crossroads: http://es.usia.gov/education/engteaching/intl/ecal-ndx.htm) and
electronically published materials (e.g. ELLSA American literary classics: www.rdthai.com://ellssa -
ellssanap.html) (Tomlinson, B.) 2003: 66-71)

2.11 Theoretical Foundation for Materials in Expression Skill

Development Programme:

2.11.1 Importance of Instructional Materials (IMS)

1 Materials act as support to teachers by providing the language input that they could use in the
classroom. To expose their learners to the language.
2 They also Supply to the teacher. The exercises and activities to give to their students for then to engage
in as practice material that will lead them to learn the language. They fake on the responsibility of
providing material for teaching which will realize the syllabus or objectives of teaching prescribed for
the specific level.

S. Ramadevi (2002:186) in her article has also talked of importance of materials: ‘for learners the materials
act as.

1 They act as concrete exposure to the language to be learnt.
2 They also instruct them to be specific things in specific ways so that they practice and use the language
and learn it in the process.

Candlin and Edelhoff (1982) have given the following purposes of materials:

‘Materials should have twin aims: on the one hand they offer information and data about the language
being studied, and in particular about the social context, the culture within which communication takes
place and derives much of its meaning and value. They need to be Authentic to communication to the
world outside. At the same time materials have role promote learning and language learning in
particular. They fulfill this role in the way they offer activities and tasks and exercises which challenge
the competence of the learner.’ (Quoted by kudchedkar, 2002:186) They emphasize the ‘twin aims’
that they are supposed to fulfill. The first aim is to provide the language input. Data or what we call
language exposure which is very valuable in learning the specific language. Candling and Edelhoof
expand this concept of language input and state that it embodies the cultural and social context within
which the language that is to be learnt is located it demonstrates for the learner the way communication
takes place in a particular culture or society. They further state that since the input that they
(instructional material) provide are to indicate now the language functions in the social and cultural
context and how it is used for communication. It is important that this input material should be
authentic and ‘true to the world’.

2.11.2 Factors in the Selection & Production of Instructional Materials:

a) The objectives of the syllabus and the linguistic contents.
b) The age group of the learners as well as their linguistic and cultural backgrounds.
c) The lessons need to be selected with suitable themes that interest the learners.
d) Lessons need also to be adequately difficult so as to make necessary demands on the cognitive and
affective abilities of the learners in order to promote language acquisition.
e) Activities need to possess an information gap, opinion gap and problem-solving elements to lend
themselves to classroom interaction. The materials need to blend with the requirements of the learners
and the existing teaching situation.
f) The materials should motivate the learners in such a way that they should be ready to engage
themselves without any constraint in the activities and interactions that take place in the classroom.

Humanistic psychologists such as Carl Rogers (1969) and Curran (1976) have talked about the “whole
learner”. Learners do not simply play “roles” or process information; they bring with them a whole
array of personal attributes and feelings. These have to be respected, if individual development and
growth are to take place.

56
g) One of the fundamental tasks of the teacher as a facilitator of learning is therefore to “make space for the learner” in the classroom through the use of appropriate tasks and materials.

2.11.3 Designing Materials

The materials designers emulate the following systematic steps:

1. Selection of the language input that would best realize the syllabus that is the language objectives and content that have been pre-specified or prescribed beforehand.

2. Choice of writing of texts as language input and the designing of activities, exercises, Drills etc, that would convert the language input into effective learning experiences for learners.

3. Organization of all these into learning units of lessons suitable for a classroom.

4. Grading and arranging all these in the most appropriate manner-from simple to difficult-with a view to promote learning in the most efficient and effective manner possible.

In this way, materials incorporate, within them the syllabus-the objectives and content for a specific class of a specific group of learners, and provide learning experiences through exercises and activities which are arranged and presented in a principled order or sequence. Obviously they become very important for teachers who need their support to carry on day-to-day teaching and also the direction that they provided. That is, they help teachers to be clear about what to teach, how much of it to teach, through what activities to teach it, in what order or sequence to teach it, how to organize their classroom time through the number of lessons that they provide, etc.

2.11.4 A Model of Language for Instructional Materials.

A brief description of different types of materials that exist, depending on the model of language is as follows.

i) One way of looking at language learning is to believe that the learning of language means acquiring knowledge of the structures and words or vocabulary items of a language. The emphasis in materials produced based on this approach to language is on the acquisition of the form of language, accurate grammatical forms and exact words in specific situations. They tend to value correct usage. This approach to language teaching where language structures are of prime importance is known as the structural approach. And it has to be stressed that materials based on this approach place a great deal of importance on the structural items incorporated in the text. If the importance of the structural item is not adequately brought out, the materials then do not serve their purpose.

ii) Another way of looking at language learning is to consider language learning as the learning of a system of communicative functions. In this approach, known as the ‘Functional approach’, the language that is focused on for teaching is chosen by the materials writer and arranged in terms of the communicative functions that they perform.

iii) The next view of language according to which materials can be designed is the skill-based view of language. Here the assumption is that language consists mainly of skills like reading, writing, listening and speaking, and learners need to acquire these skills. Language is a skill to be learnt, rather than content to be acquired or possessed. Either in linguistic terms or in terms of items of communicative functions.
2.11.5 Instructional Materials & Language Learning Models

In the above-mentioned instances, although the view held about the contents of language knowledge is different, the view about how languages are to be learnt is the same. The assumption about language learning in all these materials seems to be the following.

- If learners are exposed to the right way of using language and if they are told what to do with the different elements of language, structures, words or functions, or if they are told how to use skills of language, they will be able to learn to do as they are told. In other words, language can be learnt if knowledge about it, either in terms of skills or items of structure and vocabulary is transmitted to learners, the materials or the teacher. This is called the transmission model of learning (Ramadevi, 2002:197)

- There are however, other possible ways of learning a language: There are those who believe that just by informing or telling the learner the right way of doing things may not lead to effective learning of language: it can be learnt only if they are made to do things by themselves. They would be willing to do things on their own only if there is genuine involvement on their part. Such total involvement on the part of the learner can be guaranteed only if he/she is motivated and interested in the activity. Materials, which are made with these principles in focus, tend to be less transmissive and more learner-centered. Instead of being told what to do the learners are directed to use their cognitive abilities to arrive at their own opinions. Draw their own inferences and conclusions about matters which would interest them or which they would find naturally relevant. And in the process of mulling over problems and performing activities they use language (structures, functions, words and skills). The assumption is that language is best acquired when it is used for the purpose of communication for producing meanings and when in centers around the learner as an individual.

- The teaching of the skills is task-based. The input is authentic, i.e. the texts are what the learners would deal with in real life, e.g. disembarkation card, map of places, etc.

- Though the general pattern (especially in the early stages of the introduction of skill-based teaching in materials.), has been to teach these skills separately and provide texts and activities for teaching each of these skills specifically, more recently, it has been realized that in actual language use, language skills never occur in isolation. We listen while we read and write on the basis of what we have read, we listen and write down notes in our notebook, we read books in libraries and talk about them, etc. Based on this fact of authentic language use, Materials also try to integrate these skills for meaningful language practice and learning. Consequently, we do not have just the written skill but a little bit of reading, combined or integrated with writing or listening which leads to speaking. These are the more obvious combinations- reading and writing, listening and speaking. There are also other skills integrated quite meaningfully-listening with writing, speaking with writing, etc. Sometimes there are very ‘rich’ activities where all the four language skills are integrated. As learners engage in these activities, they use all the four language skills moving from one skill-use to another, naturally.
• A very interesting feature of all the learner-centered materials is that they generally seem to believe in a language model too, that is a rich and creative combination of all these in communicative and purposeful use in real life situations, which can be academic, personal, affective, creative and more pragmatic/communicative.

Conclusions:
From the above discussion it can be concluded that materials generally follow a model of language and model of language learning which are mutually consistent.

Materials that believe language to be a quantum of knowledge teaches learners right usage in a systematic and controlled way. Those who believe that language is essentially for communication will not focus too much on correct materials which believe that language is means for actual use, teach it in a way which gives learners more freedom, dose not worry too much about the exactly correct forms to be used, makes learners engage in truly meaning-making activities, with language as the instrument for meaning-making.

2.12 Defining Objectives for preparing materials:
In an attempt to prepare materials, following principles are identified which guide in their actual writing:

(a) Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach they encourage learners to learn. They will, therefore, contain: interesting texts, enjoyable activities, which engage the learners' thinking capacities, opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills: content which both learner and teacher can cope with.

(b) Materials help to organize the teaching process, providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learnt. Good materials provide a clear and coherent unit structure that will guide teacher and learner through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chances of learning. This structure helps the teacher in planning lessons and encourages in the learner a sense of progress and achievement. The materials model must be clear and systematic, but flexible enough to allow for creativity and variety.

(c) Materials embody a view of the nature of language and learning. They should therefore, truly reflect what we think and feel about the learning process. If we think that learning is helped by frequent reinforcement, make sure that items to be learnt are processed several times.

(d) Language learning is a complex process involving many different kinds and levels of knowledge. In the heyday of structuralism, material writing was considered to be a simple task of isolating the structure, writing a text exemplifies it and pattern drills to practice it. We must now take a more humble view and recognize that language learning is a very complex and little understood process. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook, which both reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

(e) Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basic of teacher training, by introducing teachers to new techniques.

(f) Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use. But it is all too often taken as their only purpose and use rather than a vehicle for language learning. Language materials, which are so prevalent
in ELT, may be endlessly fascinated by the analysis of discourse. For the doctor, the secretary and the engineer language may have little attraction.

2.13 A Materials Design Model

Taking into account the outlined principles it is necessary to give a model that has been used by the material designers and producers for writing their own materials. The aim of this particular model is to provide a coherent framework for the integration of the various aspects of learning, while at the same time allowing enough room for creativity and variety to flourish. It consists of four elements: input, content focus, language focus, and task.

(a) **Input:** This may be a text, dialogue, video recording, diagram or any piece of communication data, depending on the needs identified which provides a number of things: stimulus material for activities: new language items: correct modules of language use: a topic for communication: opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills: opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge both of the language and the subject matter.

(b) **Content focus:** Language is not an end in itself, but a means of conveying information and feelings about something. Non-linguistic content should be exploited to generate meaningful communication in the classroom.

(c) **Language focus:** It is unfair to give learners communicative tasks and activities for which they do not have enough of the necessary language knowledge. Good materials should involve both opportunities for analysis and synthesis. In language focus learners have the chance to take the language to pieces, study how it works practice putting it back together again.

(d) **Task:** The ultimate purpose of language learning is language use. Materials should be designed: therefore. To lead towards a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit. These four elements combine in the model as follows:

![Diagram of Materials Design Model]

**Figure 1:** A Materials Design Model (Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters, 1987:109)

The primary focus of the unit is the task. The model acts as a vehicle that leads the learners to the point where they are able to carry out the task. The language and content are drawn from the input and are selected according to what the learners will need in order to do the task. It follows that an important feature of the model is to create coherence in terms of both language and content throughout the unit. This provides the support for more complex activities by building up a fund of knowledge and skills.
2.13.1 Nature and Definitions of the term 'Task'

A task is an “activity or action, which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command, may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task: The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language is said to make language teaching more communicative, since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake (Richards, Platt and Weber 1985:289). In this definition, the authors take a pedagogical perspective. Tasks are defined in terms of what the learner will do in the classroom, rather than in the outside world. Therefore, the distinction between pedagogical task and real-world task becomes very crucial point that should also be discussed.

Long (1985:89) describes a task as “a piece of work” undertaken freely or for some reward. Thus, painting a fence, filling out a form etc. are all examples of task. In other words, by task is meant the things people do in life,” at work, at play, and in between.”

Breen (1987:23) describes a task as “any structured language learning Endeavour” which naturally has its own objectives, content, working procedures and outcomes. It means “a range of work plans” from the simple to complex, which facilitates language learning.

For Nunan (1989:10) a task is basically “a piece of classroom work which involves learners in activities like comprehending, manipulating or interesting in the target language” The focus. For Nunan, when he talks of the task is on meaning rather than form.

2.13.2 Implications for Task design:

According to Nunan (1989) in designing communicative language tasks, one needs to consider the extent to which it is necessary to focus on linguistic form, some language to provide practice activities, which focus on individual linguistic components as a preliminary to engagement in communicative tasks. They argue that involvement in communicative tasks is all that is necessary to develop competence in a second language. Others (for example, Rutherford 1987, as quoted by Nunan (1989:37) believe that a linguistic focus, in the form of grammatical consciousness-raising activities, should be incarnated into task design.

Brown and Yule (1983) distinguish between international and transactional tasks. They also differentiate between short and long speaking turns. Richards (1987) distinguishes between conversational and academic listening. Rivers and Temporarily (1978) list a range of purposes for reading in a second language. This last point may prove a logical point of departure in designing a syllabus. The various uses that a learner has, for learning another language can be revealed through various forms of needs analysis. Tasks are then justified on the grounds that they will help the learner develop the skills they will need for carrying out real-world communicative tasks beyond the classroom.

2.13.3 Task Rationale:

Classroom tasks are generally justified or rationalized in either ‘real-world’ or ‘pedagogic’ terms. Tasks with a real world rationale require learners to approximate in class. The sorts of behaviors required of
them in the world beyond the classroom. Tasks with a pedagogic rationale, on the other hand, require learners to do things, which it is extremely unlikely they would be called upon to do outside the classroom. It is not justified on the grounds that they are enabling learners to rehearse real-world behaviors. This usually takes a psycholinguistic form, although the learners are engaged in tasks which they are unlikely to perform outside the classroom. The tasks are stimulating internal processes of acquisition, Nunan (1997). Thus while the selection of real-world tasks will be selected with reference to some theory or model of second language acquisition, "Pedagogical tasks are like teachers and students will actually work on in the classroom, at least initially, until they are capable of tackling the full version of the target task." (Long, 1985). They provide a range of simplified, but transparent, concrete exponents of task types for classroom use.

The distinction being drawn here can be illustrated as follows:

Figure 2: The distinction drawn based on the communicative classroom tasks. (Nunan, 1989:40)

In fact, this distinction between real-world and pedagogic task is rather a continuum. There will be some tasks, which though in principle authentic, are of such unlikely occurrence that the learner will come across them only in the classroom (for example, for younger children, 'Making a formal introduction'). There are some obviously pedagogic tasks for which it is possible to create real-life contexts (for example, 'Listen to an aural text and write a sentence restating the gist'.) And there will be some tasks residing at the center of the continuum, which will be difficult to assign to one category or another (for example, 'Listen to the weather for tomorrow and write a note to a friend telling about the weather'). The distinction nevertheless, is a powerful one.

Those who justify pedagogic tasks do so on the grounds that involvement in these tasks will provide learners skills for those real world tasks which are difficult to predict in advance, or which are not feasible to practice in class. For example, the learner who has mastered the pedagogic task of listening
to a news report about a terrorist attack on the Akshardham temple, Gandhinagar and then completing yes/no questions which require them to distinguish between true and inferences might be able to use the listening and thinking skills they have developed for comprehending radio and television news broadcasts outside the classroom.

In some language course all tasks are specified in real-world terms. Learners progress towards course goals by undertaking classroom activities, which require them to practice repeatedly the target real-world activities. However, it is unusual for real-world tasks not to be modified or adapted in some way when they are brought into the classroom. For example, the interview could be re-recorded at a slower pace. The teacher might replay it several times, and the students might be given assistance in the form of three or four clues of suggestions rather than having to come up with the correct answer unaided. Following Widowson (1987), the specification of tasks in real world could be termed as ‘rehearsal’ approach to language development.

It is also possible to find tasks, which do not at all resemble the things learners will need to be able to do outside the classroom. These may include non-communicative or pseudo-communicative activity types such as repetition, substitution and transformation drills. The justification for including these activities and exercises would be on the grounds that the tasks develop the necessary prerequisite skills required by learners for communicating in the target language.

There are also communicative tasks which have little real world relevance but which have validity because they are nonetheless intellectually valid and meaning-focused and therefore put language to use, even though they engage learners in activities which are unlikely to occur in the would outside the classroom. Many of the tasks in the Bangalore Project would fall into this category. Prabhu (1987), the principal architect of the Project, saw no need to link tasks to the real world. A procedural syllabus of tasks only envisages constant effort by learners to deploy their language resources in the classroom, and does not attempt either to democrat areas or real-life use for different stages of teaching or to bring about a ‘thorough’ learning of use in some functions at each stage” rather than being justified on the grounds of their real-world value, tasks in the Bangalore Project are justified on the grounds that they stimulate internal psycholinguistic processes of acquisition.

2.13.4 Task Components

Introduction: Identifying task components

The definition of a language-learning task requires specification of four components: the goals, the input (linguistic or otherwise), the activities derived from this input, and finally the roles implied for teacher and learners.

Candlin (1987) suggests that tasks should contain input, roles, settings, actions, monitoring, outcomes and feedback. Input to the data presented for learners to work on roles specifies the relationship between participants in a task. Setting refers to the classroom and out of class arrangements entailed in the task. Actions are the procedures and sub-tasks to be performed by the learners. Monitoring refers to the supervision of the task in progress. Outcomes are the goals of the task. And feedback refers to the evaluation of the task.

63
Shavelson and Stern (1981) suggest that design should take into consideration the following elements: content—the subject matter to be taught, materials, the things that learners can observe/manipulate, activities—the things the learners and teachers will be doing during the lesson, goals—the teacher's general aim for the task (these are much more general and vague than objectivity), students, their abilities, needs and interests are important, social community—the class as a whole and its sense of 'groupness' is needed.

Wright (1987) suggests that tasks need minimally contain just two elements: input data, which may be provided by materials, teachers or learners and an initiating question which instructs learners on what to do with the data. He rejects the notion that objectives of outcomes are obligatory the grounds that, with certain tasks, a variety of outcomes might be possible and that these might be quite different from the ones anticipated by the teacher.

Wright's point concerning the unpredictability of outcomes is well made. But one should not lose sight of the influence of settings, including social community, and the necessity for feedback. Nevertheless, the framework, which combines simplicity with the power to analyze the majority of learning tasks, has just three components: goals, input and activities. These three in turn imply certain roles.

The diagrammatic representation of the task and its constellation of elements are given here.

![Diagram of task analysis framework](image)

**Figure 3:** A framework for analyzing communicative tasks.

*Nunan (1989)*
2.13.5 Goals (Defining and Describing Goals)

Goals are the vague general intentions behind any given learning task. They provide a point of contact between the task and the broader curriculum. Goals may relate to a range of general outcomes (communicative, affective or cognitive) or may directly describe teacher or learner behavior. There is rarely a simple one-tone relationship between goals and tasks. In some cases a complex task involving a range of activities might be simultaneously moving learners towards several goals. Following is a classification of goals from a recent large-scale language curriculum project in Australia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal type</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicative</td>
<td>Establish and maintain interpersonal relations, ideas, opinions, attitudes, and feelings, and to get things done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural</td>
<td>Have some understanding of the everyday life patterns of their contemporary age group in the target language speech community. This will cover their life at home, at school and at leisure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning-how</td>
<td>To negotiate and plan their work over certain time span, and learn to set themselves realistic objectives and how to devise the means to attain them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn</td>
<td>To have some understanding of the systematic nature of language and the way it works</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[The Australian Language Levels, or ALL, Project: Adapted Clark (1989) as quoted by Nunan (1989)]

2.13.6 Input

Input refers to the data that form the point of departure for the task. In fact, input for communicative tasks can be derived from a wide range of sources. Hover (1986) suggests the following: Letters (formal/informal.) Newspaper extracts, Picture stories. Photographs, Recipe, Weather forecast. Note to a friend, Bus timetable, Newspaper reporter’s notes, diary, Shopping lists.

This list, which is by no means exhaustive, illustrates the range of data sources that exist all around us. Most, with a little imagination, conforms the basis for communicative tasks of one sort or another.

A similar range of stimulating source materials provides useful input for tasks that focus on writing. Morris and Stewart-Dore (1984) suggest that while it is probably neither necessary nor desirable for teachers to provide students with the opportunity of learning all the different styles and registers of writing, it is possible to extend the writing options traditionally offered to students by making the forms available such as articles for newspapers, magazines and journals, reports to different kinds of groups, radio and television scripts and documentaries, puppet plays, news stories and reports, short stories. Poems and plats, progress reports and plans for future development, publicity brochures and posters, instructions and handbooks, recipes, replies to letters and other forms of correspondence.

The inclusion of such materials as input raises again the question of authenticity. A rule-of-thumb definition for ‘authentic’ here is any material, which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching. The argument for using authentic materials is derived from the notion
that the most effective way to develop a particular skill is to rehearse that skill in class. Proponents of authentic materials point out that classroom texts and dialogues do not adequately prepare learners for coping with the language they hear and read in the real world outside the classroom. They argue that if we want learners to comprehend aural and written texts in the real world, then the learners need opportunities for engaging in these real world texts in class. Nunan (1989)

Brosnan et al (1984) points out that the texts that learners will need to read in real life are in the environment around them - at the bank, in the letterbox, on shop doors and windows, on labels, packets etc, They do not have to be created by the teacher. Given the richness and variety of these resources. It should not be beyond even the beginning teacher to select texts, which are appropriate to the needs, interests and proficiency level of their students. Brosnan et al. (1984:2-3) offer the following justifications for the use of these real-world material.

The language is natural by simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes (limiting structures, controlling vocabulary, etc.) We risk making the reading task more difficult. We may, in fact, be removing clues to meaning.

It offers students the chance to deal with small amounts of print, which, at the same time, contain complete and meaningful messages.

It provides students with the opportunity to make use of non-linguistic clues (layout, pictures, colours, symbols, the physical setting in which it occurs) and so more easily to arrive at meaning from the printed world.

Adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do outside it, and real-life reading matter treated realistically makes the connection obvious. (Nunan, 1989)

2.13.7 Activities

Activities specify what learners will actually do with the input that forms the point of departure for the learning task. Nunan proposes three general ways of characterizing activities: rehearsal for the real world: skills use, and fluency/accuracy.

2.13.8 Authenticity

Nunan (1989) suggested that tasks could be analyzed according to the extent to which they required learners to rehearse, in class, the sort of skilled behavior they might be expected to display in genuine communicative interaction outside the classroom. Here are two arguments from either side of the real-world/pedagogic fence:

"Classroom activities should parallel the 'real world' as closely as possible. Since language is a tool of communication, methods and materials should concentrate on the message, not the medium." (Clarke & Silberstein 1977). What is wanted is a methodology which will provide for communicative competence by functional investment. Such a methodology would engage the learners in problem-solving tasks as purposeful activities but without the rehearsal requirement that they should be realistic or authentic' as natural social behavior” (Widdowson 1987)
Candlin and Edelhoof (1982) point that the authenticity issue involves much more than simply selecting texts from outside the arena of language teaching, and that the processes to which the learner submits aural and written texts and the things he or she is required to do with the data should also be authentic. Porter and Roberts (1981) also point out that while it is possible to use authentic texts in non-authentic ways. This severely limits the potential of the materials as resources for language learning.

Certain activities might only remotely resemble the sorts of things that are required to be done in the real world. However, they would probably be justified on the grounds that, in carrying out the activities are required to practice skills, which will be useful in the real world.

2.13.9 Skill Getting and Skill Using

Following Rivers and Temperley (1978) a second way of characterizing activities is according to whether they are basically concerned with skill getting and skill using. These relate to the traditional distinction between controlled practice activities, in which learners manipulate phonological and grammatical forms, and transfer activities, in which learners are meant to apply their newly acquired mastery of linguistic forms to the comprehension and production of communicative language.

2.13.10 Accuracy and Fluency

A third way of analyzing learning activities is into those, which focus the learner on developing accuracy, and those, which focus on the development of fluency. Brumfit (1984) deals with the fluency/accuracy polarity in detail. He suggests that the demand to produce work for display to the teacher in order that evaluation and feedback could be supplied conflicted directly with the demand to perform adequately in the kind of natural circumstances for which teaching was presumably a preparation. Language display for evaluation tended to lead to a concern the most prominent features, as they tend to be in the conventional model where the student produces, the teacher corrects, and the student tries again.”

In his book, Brumfit makes the point that accuracy and fluency are not opposite, but are complementary. However materials and activities are often devised as if they were in conflict, and teachers certainly adjust their behavior in the light of what is important to them at any particular point. Nunan (1989).

2.13.11 Activity Types

In the Bangalore Project, three principal activity types are used:

Information gap, reasoning gap and opinion gap. These are explained as follows:

1. **Information gap activity**, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another, from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

2. **Reasoning-gap** activity involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One
example is working out a teacher’s timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as an information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

3. **Opinion-gap** activity involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one’s opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions. (Prabhu, 1987 as quoted by Nunan, 1989)

Clark (1987) proposes seven broad communicative activity types: Language programmes, he suggests, should enable learners to

- solve problems through social interaction with others; for example, participate in conversation related to the pursuit of a common activity with others. Obtain goods and services and necessary information through conversation or correspondence, make arrangements and come to decisions with others (convergent tasks):
- establish and maintain relationships and discuss topics of interest through the exchange of information, ideas, opinions, attitudes, feelings, experiences and plans (divergent tasks):
- search for specific information for come given purpose, process it, and use it in some way (for example, find out the cheapest way to go from A to B):
- listen to or read information, process it, and use it in some way (for example, read a news item and discuss it with someone, read an article and summarize it, listen to a lecture and write notes on it):
- give information in spoken or written form on the basis of personal experience (for example, give a talk, write a report, or fill in a form):
- listen to, read or view a story. Poem, feature etc, and perhaps respond to it personally in some way (for example, read a story and discuss it):
- create an imaginative text (for some learners only).

Pattison (1987) also proposes seven activity types. These are as follows:

1. **Questions and answers**: These activities are based on the notion of creating an information gap by letting learners make a personal and secret choice from a list of language items which all fit into a given frame (e.g. the location of a person or object) The aim is for learners to discover their classmates’ secret choices. This activity can be used to practice almost any structure, function or notion.

2. **Dialogues and role-plays**: These can be wholly scripted or wholly improvised, however, ‘if learners are given some choice of what to say, and if there is a clear aim to be achieved by what they say in their
role-plays, they may participate more willingly and learn more thoroughly than when they are told to simply repeat a given dialogue in pairs.

3. **Matching activities**: Here, the task for the learner is to recognize matching items, or to complete pairs or sets. ‘Bingo’, ‘happy families’ and ‘Split dialogues’ (where learners match given phrases) are examples of matching activities.

4. **Communication strategies**: These are activities designed to encourage learners to practice communication strategies such as paraphrasing, borrowing or inventing words, gesture, asking for feedback, simplifying.

5. **Picture and picture stories**: Many communication activities can be stimulated through the use of pictures (e.g. spot the difference, memory test, and sequencing pictures to tell a story).

6. **Puzzles and problems**: Once again, there are many different types of puzzles and problems. These require learners to make guesses, draw on their general knowledge and personal experience, use their imagination and test their powers of logical reasoning.

7. **Discussions and decisions**: These require the learner to collect and share information to reach a decision (e.g. to decide which items from a list are essential to have on a desert island).

The Clark and Pattison typologies are quite different. Clark focuses on the sorts of uses to which we put language in the real world, while Pattison has a much more pedagogic focus.

2.13.12 **Learner Role**: Roles refer to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationship between the participants.

Breen and Candlin describe the learner’s role within CLT in the following terms:

“The role of learner as negotiator—between the self, the learning process and the object of learning—emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learners is that they should contribute as much as they gain, and thereby learn in an interdependent way “(Richards and Rodgers, 1986)

In other words, it can be said that students are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher, and correction of errors may be absent or infrequent.

2.13.13 **Teacher Role**: Several roles are assumed for teachers in Communicative Language Teaching the importance of particular roles being determined by the view of CLT adopted. Breen and Candlin describe teacher roles in the following terms:

“The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in his classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience on the nature of learning and organizational capacities” (Richards and Rodger, 1986)
2.14 Research studies conducted in India:


Objectives The major objectives of the study were (1) To study teachers’ perception of difficulties which hampered effective teaching and learning of English; and (2) To study the effectiveness of programmed teaching.

Methodology: For the first part of the study ninety-three English teachers of Udaipur constituted the sample. Total of 160 students of class viii of four government schools of Udaipur city were employed as the sample for the second part of the study. As for tool a questionnaire was administered to the teachers for the purpose of data collection. A pretest, programme and the post test were administered to the students. The significance of the difference between the achievements on the English through programmed teaching was investigated through ANCOVA.

Major Findings: The study revealed that (1) the difficulties hampering effective teaching and learning of English were due to the shortage of trained teachers, lack of subject competence in teachers, dearth of good teaching-learning material, lack of individual attention and poor socio-economic backgrounds; (2) programmed teaching overcame some of the felt difficulties of the teachers and helped students to perform significantly better than those who were taught by conventional method ; and (3) the strategy proved useful in a situation where teachers were underqualified and untrained in teaching of English.


The present study attempts to assess the effect of communicative tasks and cognitive strategies on the oral English acquisition among Classs XI students. Objectives (2) To introduce a task-based course material for oral English acquisition,(2) to identify the variety of cognitive strategies used by higher secondary students while acquiring oral English. (4) To find out the utilization of cognitive strategies in performing communicative tasks and (5) to find out the effect of communicative tasks and cognitive strategies on oral English acquisition.

Methodology: The sample comprised twelve students from XI standard. Data were collected through Communicative Tasks Package and Oral English Assessment Scale. The researcher used qualitative as well as quantitative analysis to treat the data.

Major Findings (1) It was found that these communicative tasks facilitated oral English acquisition. (2) Group work and pair work tasks enabled students to acquire oral English acquisition. (3) Role-play tasks helped acquire oral English. (4) Imagery was the most used strategy. (5)The cognitive strategies used in performing communicative tasks proved effective on oral English acquisition among class XI students.

Shirin Kudchedkar’s research in the development of a course in spoken English: Ph.D.Edu, S.N.D.T. University. (1979)

This research was pertaining to the development of a course in spoken English and the study of its effectiveness.

Objectives: (1) To determine the principles on which courses in spoken English should be designed considering the teaching-learning situation in S.N.D.T Women’s university. (2) To determine whether greater attention to speech led to greater competence in the language system, resulting in improved proficiency in the other language skills namely aural comprehension, reading and writing.
Methodology: The experiment for the purpose involved a comparative study of the progress made by experimental groups taking a course in spoken English and controlled groups, which followed a course in grammar and composition. The sample of the study comprised of the first year students of the M.A English, S.N.D.T University, was randomly assigned to the experimental group and controlled group. The study emphasized on three lines of approach: the oral approach, structural approach as against system and a graded approach. The course prepared can be graded in three levels. The first year’s course was designed according to a grammatical syllabus in order to achieve some minimum level control over the language as a system, which is necessary preliminary to the effective use of the language for communication. The language was however, always used in a communicative situation. The second year’s course is based mainly on a functional syllabus, extending students’ ability to use the language for a range of communicative functions. The third year’s course was designed to train students in the skills of discourse. This trained students with the ability to use the language in unfamiliar situations.

The study has exercised tests at all stages, which were linked with the course materials and learning outcomes, it has advocated testing for communicative ability, which need to be marked objectively to the extent possible. The data for analysis were collected by teacher-made tests and opinionnaire. T-test and Chi-square technique of statistics were used for analysis.

Major Findings: (1) it was found that the particular emphasis on teaching communicative ability to improve the linguistic skills of the students has upheld the idea of continuous assessment of students. (2) The course in spoken English proved effective to equip students with the grammatical ability to use English at initial level for communication. (3) It enabled students to use the language for a range of communicative functions. (4) The students were found proficient users of English after learning through a course. (5) It was found that the competence in speech skill would further lead to the proficiency in the other language skills namely aural comprehension, reading and writing.

Patel Bhavika’s research about an impact study on ICT integrated Teacher Training programme M.Phil, ELT., S.P University. (2006)

The root of the research project lies in the Intel Teach to the future training Curriculum which has been prepared by the institutes of Computer Technology (Sunnywale California, U.S.A).

Objectives (1) To learn IT syllabus at the H.M.Patel institute of Training and Research, practicing in real teaching learning environment (2) To study the impact of ICT based lesson on the student.

Methodology: This survey explores the extent to which the work done by B.Ed (Eng) and M.A (ELT) trainees in their pre-service training helped them to integrate technology into their curriculum and to what extent it has influenced the ways trainers now teach, their problem and outcome of the quires. The selected sample for the study was administered a strategy questionnaire. The random sampling method was used for the selection of the subjects. A few subjects from the selected sample were approached for face-to-face interview, which intended to elicit data on the use of teaching learning with ICT in more detail and in an informal setting.

Major Findings: (1) It was found that through the implementation of ICT based plan in real teaching environment students learn to work in groups, students developed higher order thinking. (2) Students also could develop basic skills and competencies: learn specific curriculum content and also their computer skill.
(3) The study marked a beginning in the direction of making usage of strategies which will make English language teaching-learning more effective and productive with the use of ICT in real classroom. (4) The former teachers can also be encouraged to use the ICT in their classroom and in this way; teachers and learners can improve their competence in the target language.

Sharma Priyalaxmi’s research about the preparation and tryout of language tasks to enhance written expression of post graduate level M.Phil.,ELT., S.P University (2007).

The present study focuses on the need to write effectively and the need to efficiently portray the thoughts and expressions with absolute clarity and preciseness. Objectives: (1) to prepare and try out a set of language tasks on composition for enhancing written expression (2) to conduct the experiment to measure the development of the written expression at the post graduate level (3) to enable students to think and express their own ideas in an acceptable, i.e., in absolute clarity and precise pattern. (4) to enhance written expression by providing opportunities to think and write based on the requisite skills for good writing.

Methodology: The investigator felt that in schools the students were given very little space to express their thoughts and ideas on their own. The students were unable to develop their own thinking process and organize their thoughts and ideas. This lead to the strangling of the inquisitive and creative abilities of the students. The investigator has prepared language tasks which would enable the students through practice and repetition, develop strategies to write efficiently and to enhance their written expression. The students of the M.A (ELT), H.M Patel institute of English training and research were taken as sample for the present research. The tools used were the pre-test and post-test prepared by the investigator and implemented on the sample. No Leveling test was conducted. Since the study was an experimental research based on one group pretest-posttest design, the treatment was imparted to the sample only. A set of diagnostic and achievement test and a set of language tasks were prepared for enhancing.

Major Findings (1) It has been found that major aspects of writing for cohesion, effective, paragraphing of ideas, comprehension were lacking in the initial L2 (Second language, English) composition. (2) Learner-centered approach is very essential for effective classroom atmosphere. (3) The students should be given ample exercises wherein they can think and write on their own. When they come up with their own creative thoughts they would find the best way to express their thoughts and feelings. (4) If specific skills are to be taught then specific tasks serve the purpose better than abstract teaching. (5) Encouragement to write and re-write plays a very important role in enhancing written expression. (6) Pre-task thinking, discussion and then writing works effectively on the students’ psyche. (7) it is observed that the teacher has to be very encouraging in providing feedback. It should work towards the larger goal of students’ self-development. (8) It was found that, once their attention is drawn towards the enhancement of written expressions, students adapted to these skills gradually.

Nirmala, Bellore’s research in designing a study skills improvement course Ph.D.Edu, S.N.D.T. University (1984):

Objectives: (1) To study the short fall into the study skills possessed by the undergraduate students. (2) to evolve an alternative approach in ELT for the improvements of those skills (3) to prepare sample materials that will make the implementation of such an approach possible.

Methodology: An effort has been made in this project to tackle the twin limitations of insufficient reading and inadequate expression and to prepare materials towards the inculcation of the necessary reading and
expression skills. The experiment was conducted by ‘Two equal groups only posttest design’. Total 42 undergraduate students of Home Science at the S.V.T college of Home Science, Bombay were selected purposively as sample for the experiment and other 48 undergraduate students were selected as sample for the replication of the experiment. The data for analyses were collected by teacher made test. The scores obtained on the test were analyzed by t-test.

**Major Findings:**
1. It was found that the students’ lack of expression hamper their study skills to greater extent which need to be improved.
2. Innovative approaches for ELT should be implemented to improve their study skills.
3. A study skills improvement course proved effective in enhancing students’ reading and expression skills that further equipped them for inculcation of study skills.

**Ayesha, Banatwala’s research in designing a course in written English Ph.D.Edu, S.N.D.T. University. (1979)**

The study has attempted to design a course having specific strategies for enhancing written expressions of the students.

**Objectives**
2. To evolve strategy which should make the teaching of some types of writing more effective.
3. To motivate the learners to view writing as a purposeful, relevant activity which they can perform with some degree of ease and confidence.

**Methodology:**
In this study the researcher ascertained the entry level, the needs and the difficulties of learners. She investigated the course of unsatisfactory writing and suggested a few measures to improve it. Next she evaluated critically the existing B.A.I Syllabus in compulsory English to know what was already being done in writing and in the other English language skills. After that she studied the approaches adopted in several existing written English courses. The insight gained her to decide on the approach to written English course and to draw the syllabus for it.

The present research was of experimental type. The design was ‘Two groups randomized subjects only posttest design’. S.N.D.T University was selected purposively as sample. The researcher tried out a few specially prepared teaching materials on the students who were learning English as their compulsory subject, in order to establish the usefulness of the syllabus drawn up to the written English course and to test the usefulness of materials themselves. The data for analysis were collected by teacher-made achievement test. T-test technique for statistics were used for analysis.

**Major Findings:**
1. It was found that students were able to write correct English after being taught through course in written English.
2. The strategies were proved to be effective tool for implying the course in written English.
3. Student would be able to express their thoughts and ideas in written form with utter clarity and preciseness.

**M.D. Acharya’s research about the effectiveness of games, work card and self instructional material of English language learning. Ph.D., Edu, Saurashtra University. (2005)**

The researcher has tried to prepare work cards, self instructional materials for English language learning. Even while teaching in learner centered class, technique of self-learning work as a tremendous supports to teacher for orienting learners towards an effective learning. Therefore the study intents to focus upon the learning strategies with specific devices.
Objectives (1) To compare the effectiveness of games, work card and self instructional material to ELT in terms of students' achievement in English. (2) To study the opinions of the students for games, work card and self instructional material to ELT with reference to their learning experiences.

Methodology: The sample of study was of 146 students studying in std.9 of Gujarati medium school: Adarsh High School, Kadi.Six teacher made tests for six units were prepared and reliability and validity were obtained. An opinionnaire was constructed to know the students' reaction at the end of the experiment. The counter experimental design was used for the present study.

Major Findings: (1) There was no significant variation among the achievement of the students of the three groups studied through games, work card and self learning material but the replication showed that the games approach proved more effective than work card and self instructional material. This result also favors the replication of the experiment in terms of experimenters' training (2) the students' opinion for the characteristics of the games, work card and self learning approach showed that students favored the learning experiences provided during the teaching through the games approach to ELT. (3) The students also liked word cards and self-instruction at material approaches for ELT.


The objectives: (1) To develop a computer assisted English language program for standard VIII Gujarati medium students. (2) To study the effectiveness of the programme on students' achievement in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension by taking pre-test and IQ as covariates.(3) To study the effectiveness of the computer assisted English language teaching program in terms of students' achievement of all above mentioned with respect to their intelligence, motivation and attitude.

Methodology: Students studying in standard VIII Gujarati medium were taken from two schools to serve as the sample for the study. Students of one school i.e. Rosary School, Baroda formed the experimental group and students of the other school i.e.GEB school, Baroda formed the control group. The experimental group consisted of 66 students and control group consisted of 46 students. The tools used in the pilot study were also used in the final experiment, namely Pretest, Raven's progressive metrices, Junior Index of motivation by Frimer translated into Gujarati by Desai and the posttest developed by the investigator. For studying the attitude of the students towards the package, the researcher developed and administered an attitude scale on the experimental group only after the final experiment. To fulfill the first objective of the pilot study, the investigator conducted informal interviews with the students by asking them about the difficulties they faced.ANCOVA was applied for analyzing the data.

Major Findings: (1) when the computer is used to its full potential, it can create an atmosphere where the students can learn and interact with the computer without being afraid of the teacher's presence.(2) the computerized exercises can help the student become familiar with significant amount of vocabulary, grammar and comprehension because it provides effective individualized instruction.

2.15 Research Articles:
Khuntia, Basanti's research about the Competency-based teaching-learning in mother tongue. The Primary Teacher, Vol.21 (3), 51-58 (1996)
It attempts to study the new approach of competency-based teaching-learning in mother tongue. **Objectives**

1. To study the effect of activity-centered teaching on the attainment of different competencies in mother tongue, that of Oriya language
2. To study the longitudinal improvement in attainment of competencies along three units of std.7.

**Methodology:** The sample of the study comprised 25 children, out of 35, who offered Oriya as first language. To assess the attainment of minimum level of competency fixed earlier, competency-based, Criterion-referenced tests of diagnostic type were developed by the experimenter. Parallel form evaluation tools were also developed to use on the non-masters found in the first attempt after getting remedial treatment. The peculiarity of the research lies in the provision of ‘Input Rich Environment’ into the classroom during remedial teaching. Percentages were computed to analyze the data.

**Major Findings:**
1. School-readiness programme, consisting of colorful pictures, action songs, poems, rhymes, games with dialogues and stories were very helpful to attract the attention of the children to the new surroundings. It motivated them for learning and developed their listening and speaking competencies.
2. The learners actively participated in games, rhymes, stories and songs. This motivated them to tell some new words which were not in the textbook.
3. Repeated drilling of writing words was helpful to all, particularly to some non-masters in that area.
4. Interaction between the learners and the experimenter on immediate environment of the learners was successful and it helped them to develop their competencies in listening with comprehension and speaking.
5. Formative evaluation during the process of teaching learning along with individual remedial measures supported by monitoring system, paved the progress of both competency and content area.
6. Free and affectionate learning environment stimulated the learner for self expression.
7. Individual attention and personal care encouraged some non-masters to achieve mastery in some of the competencies.
8. More learners were weak in writing dictation in comparison to other competencies. As they had to cover more maatraas, their spelling errors were increasing.

K. Chellamani’s research about the orientation of primary teachers towards competency-based English language teaching. *Journal of All India Association for Educational Research, Vol.20 (22)103-107, 2008*

The research is sincere effort to explore the new status of competency-based English at primary level. For competency development among children, the need to develop required teacher competencies was the core of the research. The researcher has to orient primary teachers for better understanding of required teacher competencies for the learner competencies in each language skill area and enabling then to use TLM for effectiveness in achievement of competencies.

**The objectives** of the programme were to enable the primary teachers:
1. To understand the theory of second language learning to understand the second language teaching principals.
2. To practice the essential language teacher competencies.
3. To practice the expected language competence of primary level students; to understand the psychological / pedagogical / technological principles in the instructional design.
4. To know the concepts on preparation and utilization of TLM materials.
5. To equip themselves towards the application of the principles in their utilization for the development of desired competencies.

**Methodology:**

**Teacher sample:** 10 teachers from 5 zones in Chennai city were selected at random as teacher sample.
Students Sample: students of respective sample teachers; a set for each class (from Class 1 to 5) was selected for the study. A total of two months of training for teachers was followed by implementation in their classrooms.

Research Phases: In order to realize the objective, the investigator had preceded the research in different phases. Phase 1: Developing a tool to find out the present level of English language competencies among primary teachers in Chennai city. Phase 2: Designing an instructional programme where the preparation of TLM would be based on psycho / Techno / pedagogic principles- “orienting the teachers on learner’s English language competencies and train them to design instructional language programmer along with the preparation of TLM”. Through the need assessment, the investigator realized the necessary inputs to be incorporated in the training programme. The necessity for teacher to comprehend the objectives of English language teaching of primary level, the enlisted English language competencies, and the teacher requirements for developing the competencies among students were sensitized. Phase 3: The effectiveness of the training on teacher language competencies were assessed by post- test and Phase 4: The training input, i.e. designing and testing an instructional programme being taken to the classroom by the trainee-teachers. Phase 5: the pretest and post scores on English language teaching competency of the trainee teachers were tabulated and the mean and standard deviation were computed. In order to find out the significant mean difference between the pretest and post-test mean scores on ELT competency, the ‘t’ test for correlated small group was applied.

Major Findings (1) It was observed the researcher did a commendable job in evolving for effective teaching programme for primary teachers understanding of competencies.(2) The researcher has framed a positive working atmosphere; where students make mistakes and learn from them. (3) The reflections of trainee teachers speak that there is shift in their perception of the text book. (4) It was found that there is prevalence of confidence and hope in attaining the objectives of English language teaching at primary level.

Critical Review of related researches:

With reference to the present study, 11 related researches have been studied and reviewed. Out of 11 studies by the researcher, 7 studies were undertaken as ph.D level, two were taken at M.phil level, one of them was taken as a project while two studies were research articles. The critical extract of review is as follows:

Area of Research: Material production in ELT and competency based teaching-learning. Major researchers have prepared a course consisting of instructional material and teaching learning strategies for effective English language teaching and study its effectiveness in compare to traditional method of teaching English. Shashikala R had prepared task-based course material consisting of communicative tasks and cognitive strategies for oral English acquisition, Shirin kudchedkar has prepared course in spoken English while nirmala Bellore has designed a study skills improvement course. Ayesha Banatwala and Priyalakshmi had prepared tasks and activity package to enhance the written expression of English language. M.D.Acharya and M.M.Zyoud compared the achievement level of various forms of computer delivered instruction as compared with the effects of traditional instruction. The former had prepared work cards, games and self learning materials to teach English when the latter one has developed computer assisted English language programme including O.H.P transparencies, slide show and self learning instruction and
studied the effectiveness of computer-assisted English language teaching. Two researchers have studied difficulties that hampered the teaching and learning of English. Dewal S has studied difficulties in teaching of English and effectiveness of programmed teaching. K. Chellamani's has studied the effectiveness of orientation of primary teachers towards competency based English language teaching while Khuntia, Basanti's has done a research about the Competency-based teaching-learning in mother tongue. One researcher has done a project about an impact study on ICT integrated Teacher Training programme.

**Standard, subject and unit:** out of the twelve studies, four previous studies reviewed have preferred standards form secondary level, one from higher secondary level, two have preferred primary level while other four preferred under graduate level. Two have preferred post graduate level. One has prepared language tasks in written English and other has prepared course in spoken English for post graduate students. English language and its four skills, specifically speaking and writing remained the common subject for all researchers.

**The sample size** of most of the studies ranged from forty to one hundred sixty.

**Experimental Design:** By reviewing the research works, it is clear that in eight studies two groups design, in two studies one single group design and in one counter experimental design was selected. Among them five employed only posttest, while others employed both pretest and posttest design.

**Tools:** In M.phill and Ph.D researches teacher-made test and opinionnaire were used as tools. Sashikala used Oral English Acquisition scale as tool. Zyoud, M.M used tools like pretest, Raven's Progressive metrice, Junior index of motivation by Frimer translated into Gujarati by Desai and posttest.

**Statistical techniques:** Following techniques were used by the researchers reviewed: Mean, SD, 't'-test, ANOVA, ANCOVA AND Chi-square.

**Results:**

- All the researches related to functional English focused upon an urgent need to provide teaching materials and resource book to the teachers for selecting and adopting different activities according to the requirements of student.
- Research about the competency based teaching in mother tongue for children of primary school and research about the orientation of in-service primary teachers towards competency-based English language teaching is done but no study has been made to orient pre-service primary teachers for an effective competency based English language teaching in Gujarat.
- It was observed that there was a need for working out details on methodology relating to the role of teacher, the need for indicating the role of the learner and classroom activities.
- Most communicative materials emphasize on 'language activation' that is to make optimal use of the language the learner has already learnt, by providing exercise, situations and such topics that require language use. There is greater emphasis on listening and speaking skill. The programme to develop expression skills in English equally emphasis writing skill by adopting reading writing mode of language learning.
- These studies show that such task-based courses have proved themselves more fruitful than the traditional ones. It has been successful in motivating the trainees and the students both.
• The above mentioned researchers have given first hand information on the effects of CLT approach. They have shown how language ability can be more authentically acquired by diagnosing learner’s difficulty areas in language learning and by following the CLT approach.

• The researches made upon the multimedia are more interactive learning packages. The researcher in her expression skill development programme has made use of different media like slide show of task-based materials, animation stories, animation rhymes and conversation in action to provide a richer experience of language.

2.16 Significance of the study:

In this chapter after going through the various theories of language learning, study of different syllabus, reviewing of existing materials and the researches made in “ELT”, “Functional English” and in the field of material production, following conclusions are drawn:

1. The eclectic approach can be the only viable way for the present study.

2. Instructional materials should be prepared after diagnosing learning difficulties of the learners. More and more integrated tasks should be designed on the basic of the usefulness of the functions for their daily life.

3. Effective communicative materials should be prepared in such way that it should be linguistically appropriate and also to arouse the learner’s curiosity and sustain their interest use of the various tasks and activities. Simultaneously the task prepared must be open ended. The activities selected must encourage learners to read intelligently, respond critically and write creatively in a meaningful way.

4. Researcher’s subject Effectiveness of Expression Skill Development Programme in English for Pre-service Student Teachers is an unexplored area in the field of ELT researches. Empowering student teachers skills in English for an effective classroom teaching of competency based English is a novel contribution to material production.

5. Materials prepared to develop expression skills focus on ‘accuracy’ ‘fluency’ and appropriacy but fluency should receive greater attention, which can be cultivated by means of role-play and other activities.

6. Language ‘forms’ and ‘functions’ must be introduced in terms of communicative use viz. ‘describing people’, ‘asking about things’ etc. to organize the course materials functionally and thematically.

7. The researcher also focused on the need for training teachers in the preparation and modification of teaching materials.

8. The Expression skill development programme is especially made for pre-service student teachers to teach competency based English with major focus on functions of language and not on the language structures at primary school level.

9. Teaching techniques for using innovative task-based materials of

10 Speaking and writing should be provided to the teachers of competency based English following the functional syllabus at primary school level. The prescribed contents incorporated in the integrated tasks, must be taught simultaneously, as a whole. Practical aspects of the programme should be given more weight age in the syllabus.