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Review of Literature

In the beginning of this chapter various theories of language learning have been reviewed. It includes process-oriented and condition-oriented theories. The second section of this chapter begins with the theory of communicative language teaching. It is followed by the historical review of communicative syllabuses. In the third section of this chapter review of materials have been given which begins with history of materials production in India. Then, it discusses the conventional materials. After this the need of changing conventional materials have been incorporated. Then the focus is shifted from conventional materials to non-conventional materials, which has been discussed in detail. This is followed by a brief survey of communicative materials. In the end the review of research studies both in the field of Functional English and in the materials production has been made.

2.1 Part A: Theories of Learning

In this part, we will examine the various theories of learning — in general, first and second language learning theories.

*The theories given in this section have been extracted from the Ph.D. thesis of Paruchuri Usha Prasad, ‘Exploring Learner Strategies in Large ESL Classes at the Tertiary Level: A Case Study (MSS), CIEFL, Hyderabad, (1997).

2.1.1 Behaviorist Approach to Learning

The basic premise of Behaviourism 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. Behaviourist 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 behaviour in the classroom the teacher only needs to provide sufficient input and change the reinforcement contingencies in the environment.

2.1.2 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.

2.1.2.1 Chomsky’s UG Theory
In the 1960s, Noam Chomsky, in his classic critique of Skinner’s Verbal Behaviour (Chomsky, 1959), challenged the behaviourist 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 Device (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' (Sₙ). Acquiring language means progressing from 'a genetically determined initial state S₀ through a sequence of stages S₁, S₂... finally arriving at a 'steady state' (S) which then seems to change only marginally' (Chomsky, 1980:37).

It may be argued that language is complex and abstract and the input or the experience of language we receive is meagre; 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 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.

2.1.2.2 Dulay and Burt’s Creative Construction Theory

The Creative Construction theory proposed by Dulay and Burt (1974, 1975, 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 bits 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 L₂ structures are developed in a particular ‘pre-programmed’ sequence irrespective of the L₁ 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.
2.1.2.3 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 1985:2-3).

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 (1985:39-40) 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).

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

i) Higher-level processes are 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.

2.1.3.1 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 to learn, an appropriate 'need state', and prior mastery of original learning.

However, Ausubel (1964) 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 subsumption. 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.

2.1.3.2 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.

2.1.3.2.1 Inter language Theory

The cognitive perspective of Inter Language (IL) theory is primarily concerned with implicit L₂ knowledge and the strategies that assist its development (the learning process) and the deployment of linguistic resources to actual L₂ 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 a '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 L<sub>2</sub> 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 more broadly. They identified three central strategies: language transfer, 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, 1994:354).

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

2.1.3.2.2 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.

2.1.3.2.2a 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).
2.1.3.2.2b 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 1995:318). The Noticing Hypothesis highlights the importance of ‘attention to form’ for ‘intake enhancement’.

2.1.3.2.3 Skill Learning Models

In this section, 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.

2.1.3.2.3a 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.
2.1.3.2.3b 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 that 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 frameworks 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 existing information, the associations become stronger and easier it becomes to remember and recall. For example, when students learn by repetition, they go over the 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 the 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.

2.1.3.2.3c McLaughlin's Information Processing Model
McLaughlin developed an information-processing framework of SLA over the years (McLaughlin 1978, 1980, 1987, 1990, McLaughlin, Rossman and
McLeod 1983). Two notions are central to his theory – automatization and restructuring.

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.
2.1.4 Social Learning Theories

Social factors have a major impact on L₂ proficiency, albeit, indirectly. In this section, the aim is to establish the relationship between social context and L₂ learning. We will examine three models that seek to account for the role of social factors. These are Schumann’s Acculturation Model, Gardner’s Socio-educational Model and the Socio-cultural Model based on the Vygotskian perspective.

2.1.4.1 The Acculturation Model

Acculturation is the “process of becoming adapted to a new culture” (Brown, 1980:129). As language is an expression of culture, learning a second language is related to the way the learner perceives the target language culture.

In Schumann’s view (1978), then, second language acquisition is determined by the degree of social and psychological distance between the learner and the target language culture. Social and psychological distance influences SLA by determining the amount of contact that the learners experience with the target language and the degree to which they are open to the input that is available. Thus, the more social and psychological distance there is, the lower will be the learner’s degree of acculturation towards that group.

Although a number of criticisms have been aimed at this model, what is important here is the learners’ attitude toward the target language and the community, as well as the motivation to learn that language. Thus the learners’ degree of willingness to assimilate or adapt themselves into the target language community would provide them with either integrative or instrumental motivation to learn that language.
2.1.4.2 The Socio-Educational Model

The socio-educational model proposed by Gardner (1979, 1983, 1985) is based on the relevance of social psychology to SLA and is rooted in Lambert's (1963a, 1963b) social psychological model. All the versions of his model (1979, 1983, 1985, 1993), in general, stress the idea that languages are unlike any other subject taught in a classroom in that they involve the acquisition of skills or behaviour patterns of another cultural community – that is, a learner is faced with a task of "acquiring symbolic elements of a different ethno linguistic community" (Gardner, 1979:193).

Gardner and McIntyre (1993) in their model point out that achievement in the language will influence the use of language learning strategies. Non-linguistic outcomes are expected in turn to have direct effects on language attitudes, motivation and language anxiety.

Gardner's socio-educational model places considerable premium on the positive relationship between integrative motivation and terminal proficiency. Task motivation in the classroom may affect the extent of 'noticing' done by a learner, thereby directly influencing SLA.

2.1.4.3 Socio-cultural Theory of L2 Learning

'Socio-cultural' perspective on language acquisition (Ochs and Schieffelin: 1984) grounded in the notion that meaning is embedded in cultural and social conceptions of context and that the process of acquiring language is embedded in the process of acquiring culture (Ochs 1987). That is, along the path of cognitive development, learner's linguistic systems interact with the cultural configurations of their external social world.

The socio-cultural theory has its roots in Vygotskyan psycholinguistics. The principal theme of Vygotsky's work is that a learner's cognitive
development takes place in a social context through the process of social interaction with parents, siblings, relatives, friends, teachers and peers. Vygotsky believes that only when speech is externally established for others, it can also become internalized for oneself. For Vygotsky, dialogue is the starting point of speech that develops into egocentric speech which is eventually internalized. According to Vygotsky, this takes place when the responsive social world provides scaffolded assistance within the child's zone of proximal development. (ZPD).

The ZPD is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problems solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with peers (Vygotsky, 1978:86).

Vygotskyan socio-cultural theory operates within a developmental framework which "focuses on the diachronic, on processes and changes, not on products and states" (McNeill 1987 as quoted in Schinke-Llano 1993:123) and when applied to SLA, it compels us to think that "acquisition happens not just exclusively inside of people's heads, but that it's situated and it's distributed ...".

Comment

It is seen from the social models that social factors have a general impact on the kind of learning that takes place, whether formal or informal. Their effect is mediated by psychological variables such as attitudes, motivation, etc., and the nature of interpersonal interactions learners engage in. Thus, the relationship between social factors and L₂ achievement is an indirect one. The social theories highlight the use of certain social strategies like developing positive attitudes towards the target language, interacting and negotiating meaning in social and cultural contexts.
2.1.5 Interactionist Theory of Language Learning

In the behaviourist 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, 1981:302).

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.

2.1.5.1 Input and Second Language Acquisition

Input is defined as “what goes in” (Corder, 1967:165), “the linguistic forms used” (Long 1981:259), “language that is addressed to the L2 learner either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner (Ellis, 1985:127).

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 Ferguson, 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 behaviour. 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 clarification 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, 1985:2).

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 'i' - 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 (See section2.1.5.3). 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.

2.1.5.2 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 (1983a) 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 (1985:378) 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 then 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.

2.1.5.3 Output and Second Language Acquisition

Crookes (1991) claims 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 L2 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 learners’ 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.

Swain and Lapklin (1995) maintain that learners in producing L2 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 form 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 L2, thereby receiving
feedback from interlocutor’s etc.
2.1.6 Humanistic Approaches

The two theories discussed above were the offshoots of behaviourist and cognitivist 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 grade 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 coursers 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 a 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.

2.1.7 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 behaviourist theory to the current theories of interaction, we saw that theories were either 'incomplete' as they explained only certain facets of learning, or lacked comprehensiveness as they were not fully worked out (e.g. socio-cultural theory). The behaviourist 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 behaviourist 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 of 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.

According to social learning theories, learning is a social event which takes place when the learner uses strategies such as developing positive attitudes to the target language community, developing intrinsic motivation and cooperative learning through 'scaffolding'. The interactionist theories stress on communication strategies like negotiation of meaning, seeking clarifications, trying to produce language even in an imperfectly known language, directing 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:

2.2 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 different interpretations of Communicative Language Teaching method reflected through different syllabuses designed by various researchers have been discussed below.
2.2.1 Theory of Language

Communicative language Teaching is based on the 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 communicatively 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). Halliday views language as 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 exponence 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 implicit relationships among illocutionary acts. Discourse concerns the ability to combine meanings 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 linguistics 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 meanings 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.

2.2.2 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.
- Dialogs, if used, Centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
- Contextualization is a basic premise.
- 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)

2.2.3 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, 1981:6)

“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 his 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? (Littlewood, 1995:82-84)
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, 1987:58)

2.2.4 Communicative Language Testing
The communicative language testing tests learners’ “ability and capacity” to
construct grammatically (and phonologically) well informed sentences, to
select these forms in order to express many different kinds of conceptual
model and functional meaning.” (Wilkins, 1976:81-82)
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, 1996:25)

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: 155)

2.2.4.1 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 settings 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)

2.2.4.2 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, but concurrent validity with existing tests will not be necessarily significant.

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.

4. Reliability, while clearly important, will be subordinate to face validity. Spurious objectively will no longer be a prime consideration, although it is recognized that in certain situations test formats which can be assessed mechanically will be advantageous. The limitations of such formats will be clearly spelt out, however." (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979: 155-156)
2.2.5 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 syllabuses 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.

2.2.5.1 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

2.2.5.2 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.

2.2.5.3 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

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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.

2.2.5.4 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 to help in designing methodology and materials for second language learning since job is done by the subject matter teacher.

2.2.5.5 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 best 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 syllabuses 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 form 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 learners’ 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)
2.2.6 Study of Functional English Syllabuses

The committee appointed by the UGC for the Vocationalization of First Degree Education (1993) offered a syllabus for the FE course (Communicative English). CIEFL (1995) devised a pre-final draft of a prototype syllabus for vocational course in Communicative English at the undergraduate level. In response to the needs for revising the FE syllabus, the UGC (1998) proposed a modified syllabus for the FE course. General objective of all these syllabuses is to make the learners proficient in the communicative use of English. They aim at equipping the learners with language skills needed for employment or self-employment. Study of the above mentioned syllabuses would be useful for a greater understanding of FE course.

2.2.6.1 U.G.C ‘Functional English Syllabus (1993)

The UGC (1993) syllabus for FE course at the undergraduate level clearly spells out the aims of the course: “Optional course in communicative English is a job-oriented course. Its main aim is to motivate young men and women to seek self-employment as well as to inculcate the spirit of entrepreneurship in young graduates. The course is intended to break new grounds in the teaching of purposeful functional English. Communicative English course aims at training enterprising young men and women in various communicative skills oral, written, and conversational. The course is broad-based and its primary aim is to prepare self-sufficient, self-reliant, confident adventurers daring enough to undertake self-employment and to seek employment in new areas.”

Consistent with its aims the course has following objectives:

1. To develop all the four skills of the students.
2. To raise learners’ awareness of English language.
3. To develop learners into independent autonomous learners by exposing them to a range of learning experiences.
4. To increase the employment potential of the students and their ability to undertake entrepreneurial projects on a self-employment basis.

Unlike the traditional general English courses, the FE syllabus focuses on the teaching of communicative use of English in real life situations. Twelve papers are introduced for six-semester course, two papers for each semester. Two of the job training programmes, each of one month duration, are proposed in the syllabus, one after the completion of the second semester and the other after the completion of the fourth semester to give the students real life employment experience.

At the first year B.A., Phonetics and Remedial Grammar are introduced for the first semester and Applied Phonetics and Remedial Grammar for the second semester with a view to developing oral skills and knowledge of grammar of the students. At the second year, with the aim of developing communicative ability of the students in oral and written form and widening the horizon of knowledge, Conversational English and Writing Skills are incorporated in the first semester and conversational English and Introduction to Broadcasting Media in the second semester. At the third year, Broadcasting Radio and Conversational English are proposed for the first semester and Broadcasting Television and Entrepreneurship Development are introduced in the second semester.

The UGC syllabus (1993) mainly focuses on the spoken aspect of English language, writing skills receives secondary importance. Though the FE course is considered as practical and job-oriented, theoretical aspect has also
received place in the syllabus. In 'Phonetics' and 'Remedial Grammar' much emphasis has been given on the theoretical knowledge of Phonetics and different grammatical items respectively instead of focusing either on the functions of language or on the development of skills. It seems to us that this approach underlines the principle of structural approach that before putting into practice students should be familiar with all the structures.

Components of each paper in the syllabus are divided into small units. But the suggestions for teaching different units of each paper are not stated explicitly in the syllabus. With the result, students are first taught theory / grammar of English language which is followed by the practice of the topic but in isolation.

Some of the objectives of the course e.g., 'to introduce corrective measures to the students' and 'to eradicate grammatical errors in speech/ writing' do not contribute significantly in order to enhance the communicative competence of the learners.

However, this syllabus has been designated as 'Functional English' syllabus, hardly there is room left for the functions of English language.

Though division of marks for theory and practical for each paper is made clear in the syllabus, guidance for testing and evaluation is hardly included in the syllabus. Due to the lack of testing techniques, the question papers are set in the usual way. Following are a few examples of the questions asked in the university examinations.

a) Prepare three sentences of each article 'the', 'and' 'a'.

b) Prepare your own sentences using 'no', 'not' and 'none'.

c) What is a syllable? How does it help our speech? Give examples.

(Ranganayaki S., 2000:151-152)
2.2.6.2 U.G.C. Revised Syllabus (1998)

Keeping in view the redundancy of several components of the FE syllabus (1993), RIE, Chandigarh, authorized by UGC, drafted a new syllabus in consultation with other scholars and teachers of Functional English. The new syllabus aims at "training youngsters in communicating at various levels by providing practice in study skills, speech skills. Additionally, being broad based, it aims to shape youngsters into confident and self-reliant individuals who can set-up their own enterprise or take up employment in the upcoming areas. They will also be able to find employment as Interviewers, Scriptwriters and commentators, Announcers with T.V.\Radio \Newspaper, as Feature writers, Receptionists, Secretaries and Sales Representatives."(J.L.Davessar, 1999:1-4)

The total strength of the redesigned syllabus is 1200 marks divided over three years. In this revised syllabus the first year is considered as a foundation of the entire course, hence skills of oral and written communication and also of collecting, classifying and retrieving information are introduced to the students. The first year syllabus includes papers like 'Speech Skills', 'Oral\Aural Communication skills', 'Writing Skills', and 'Study Skills'. In B.A. second year the papers are 'Radio Journalism', 'Broadcast Presentation', 'Entrepreneurship Development' and 'on -the job training'. In B.A. Third Year syllabus papers such as 'TV Journalism' and 'Print Journalism' are incorporated. Identifying the importance of English in 'Business Communication' two separate papers are also introduced at this level.

However, RIE Chandigarh has admitted that no syllabus, no matter, how sound or ambitious it is, can become successful in the absence of relevant
materials, particularly in new areas. But this syllabus can be called, in a true sense, a functional syllabus on account of the development of skills, guidelines given to the teacher on how to carry out the process of instruction and testing techniques. Compared to the UGC (1993) FE syllabus, the revised syllabus relates more to profession oriented language skills.

The syllabus suggests methods/techniques for teachers to pursue. It clearly spells out what the teachers and students are supposed to do in the class. In the revised syllabus the contents of each paper are divided into small units. Guidelines for teaching each unit too, are stated explicitly in the syllabus itself.

It has also suggested testing techniques, which will facilitate the teachers of ‘Functional English’ while evaluating the learners’ progress. Mode of examination along with marks division as well as units to be focused in the examination are also mentioned clearly in the syllabus.

Since the revised syllabus has been designed on the semester system, it can be adaptable for the annual examination system.

Finally, at the end of each paper a list of recommended books is also given which can be a valuable asset for the teachers of ‘Functional English’.

Since the syllabus focuses on Radio, TV and Print Journalism, which is a new area for an English teacher, his job becomes more challenging and difficult. But the major problem with this syllabus is that except print journalism other two areas are difficult to deal with due to lack of resources and exposure. Though Radio and TV journalism are important, it is necessary to focus on skill development and specially development of higher order skills like problem-solving, analytical and critical thinking.
2.2.63 CIEFL's Prototype Syllabus (1995)

The prototype syllabus was developed as an alternative to the UGC syllabus for the FE course. The introduction to the syllabus contains a clear statement of the aims and objectives of the course. The objectives listed in the prototype syllabus are based on the language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, writing, and grammar, study skills, and autonomous leaning skills, to be developed by the students. As an improvement over the UGC syllabus the prototype syllabus also gives clear guidelines about on the job training and organization of the course. Information about the factors influencing the choice of areas for job training along with a list of the possible areas for on the job training are also included in the syllabus. This would greatly help the teachers and students to plan the course, while remaining sensitive to the needs of their specific group of students, local resources and constraints.

Details on the structure and organization of the course into semesters, with more emphasis on “practice and application rather than to theory, tutorials and group work rather than to lectures, and oral examination and internal assessment rather than to exclusive dependence on final, written examinations” are also highlighted in the syllabus. Suggestions on developing new instructional materials and improving the limited existing ones are also indicated, besides indications on instructional strategies, testing and evaluation.

The syllabus also gives a “cumulative and comprehensive inventory of sub-skills” to be developed by the end of the course. The syllabus is thus skills-oriented with a focus on the development of the functional aspects of the language use in students. The possible sub-skills within a skill are spelt out in detail, mainly to serve as guidelines to teacher(s) and students. There is
also an exhaustive list of books for reference, as resource materials for the teachers.

While the prototype syllabus is intended as an improvement over the UGC syllabus, there are no clear indications on the way in which the content is to be taught/in each semester. As the syllabus merely lists the sub-skills, the preparation time and effort required from the FE teacher is enormous. It seems to be the case that the instructional materials are to be developed by the teacher, without much direct assistance from training institutes or universities. Another problem which surfaces is that most of the recommended reference books for papers on listening and speaking are based on alien contexts, which may not be applicable nor relevant to the Indian student. However in the absence of any readily available materials, provided they are also easily accessible. Conventional skills, interpersonal skills, presentation skills and entrepreneurship development, though listed, as components of the course have not been elaborated on in the prototype syllabus. The teacher may have to evolve his or her own syllabus outline for these components.

Conclusions:

All the three syllabuses have positive and negative aspects. The UGC syllabus divides the course into specific number of papers, with clear guidelines, time allocation, and marks for each component. Details on when to conduct on – the job training, entrepreneurial development and project work are also clearly indicated in the UGC syllabus. But the UGC syllabus fails to take into account the learner needs and societal demands. The contents also are not worked out in to a clear guideline. The prototype syllabus has an exhaustive outline, but does not give information about what
should be taught in which semester. The teacher is likely to feel confused in
guiding the students through the course, using the open-ended, multi-
dimensional prototype syllabus. Hence the teachers of FE who are using the
particular syllabus in a particular setting can throw more light on the content
worked on in the classes.

Section III:

2.3 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.

2.3.1 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).

2.3.1.1 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 on 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.” (Krishnaswamy 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
Krishnaswamy 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 standard examination questions. Critical thinking and
original writing were not required for conventional examination patterns.

2.3.1.2 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 material in the nineteen seventies 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.

2.3.1.3 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.

2.3.2 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 promoting learner interaction against conventional materials which required the teacher to speak while the learners remain silent and learnt through the rote method.
2.3.2.1 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 communication, which enhances the processes of language acquisition.

2.3.2.2 The History of Non-Conventional Materials

In the nineteen eighties 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 (C.B.S.E.) and Maharshatra Board Materials products. The C.B.S.E. and the Maharshatra 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 ‘use’ of language rather than ‘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.

2.3.2.3 Communicative Teaching Materials

Thus Communicative Language Teaching approach proposes meaning focused, contextualized, interactive, fluency-based, learner centred 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 labelled '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.

2.3.2.4 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, 1982:125). 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 (1979:252) 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, 1979:252)

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,
1982:127)

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, 1982:129).

Communicative syllabuses and textbooks are far more motivating 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 structures 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.

2.3.2.5 A Brief Survey of Communicative Materials

In the succeeding section a brief survey of the following books containing Communicative Materials have been made: ‘Starting Points’ (Scott and Arnold, 1978), Kernel One (O’Neill, 1979), English for Life-People and Places (Cook, 1980), Functional English (White, 1979), Approaches (Johnson and Morrow, 1979), Communicate –2 (Morrow and Johnson, 1980), A Textbook of Functional English for Arts\Science\Commerce, Cambridge Series For Fluency (1994), Form and Function, BBC Beginners English, Keep Talking, Interact in English, English for Career Development (1999), Write to Communicate and Enrich Your English.

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 by no means as obvious as in grammar-based materials.

2. Kernel One:
There seems to be distinctly Bramfitian flavour to the notion of learning and teaching in ‘spiral’ expounded in the introduction to the book. As Kernel One is intended as main course book. It cannot afford to neglect grammar; its author claims that:
“ It is not a rigidly structural course. It does not try to present grammatical forms simply because they are part of the system... it presents things because they can be seen generally to be useful.”(O’Neil, 1979)

3. English for Life—People and Places:
This book deals with grammar more explicitly than the other two, and by virtue of retaining and using the traditional names of grammatical categories
e.g., 'present continuous, it could be helpful for any student who desires to exploit the book on his own.

4. **Functional English:**

Functional English, as the title suggests, concentrates on the purposive use of language and most of its units have an overtly 'functional title', e.g. 'describing people', 'describing a place', 'telling what happened', etc. The book receives an explicit treatment of the aspects of sentence-level grammar, text cohesion and discourse cohesion. There are problem solving as well as linguistic exercises.

5. **Approaches:**

The main emphasis in this book is on 'language activation'. It is designed to activate language, which the student may have learned 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.

6. **Communicate 2:**

Communicate2 includes grammar exercises, grammar to study, grammar to practise, but the treatment of grammar is entirely based on the texts, situations or topics and on the author's claim that 'Communicate2' is not really a grammar book. (Morrow and Johnson, 1980) The contents comprise 'food', 'offerings', 'cooking', 'telling people what to-do', 'restaurants and pubs', 'role-play' etc.
6. **A Textbook of Functional English for Arts\ Science\ Commerce:**

The ELT Centre, Kolhapur, has designed these books believing that the need of Indian graduate is a kind of English which will serve two purposes: one, help them to pursue their academic course meaningfully through the medium of English if so desired; and two, prepare them to meet the social demands successfully after graduation, and among other things, fulfill the essential requirement for competitive jobs. In this book exercises like match the columns, fill in the blanks, substitution table (vocabulary practice, aids to comprehension, composition) are given. A critical look reveals that although the book has been designed aiming at the communicative objectives in mind, the book does not fulfill the needs of learners because most of the exercises given in the book are in the conventional way emphasizing the structures. Functions are not given its due importance in the book.

8. **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 the 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 to overcome the sense of panic that 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 students' 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 effort 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 experience and 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 neighbours 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.

9. 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 ‘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.

10. 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 revision, its international settings, its learners-centred, 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 structures 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 type of structure are used in different activities or situations.
11. 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 I contains instructions for over 100 different exercises, including interviews, guessing games, jigsaw tasks, problem solving, values clarification techniques, mime, role-play and storytelling. 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, time 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 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.

12. Interact in English:
‘Interact in English’ is the product 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 1997 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—situations 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.

The Sri Padmavati Mahila Viswavidyalayam, Tirupati under the scheme of the ongoing English language Teaching Project that was sponsored by the Overseas Development Administration (U.K.) and administered the British Council Division, Madras, has prepared this book.

This textbook is designed to develop the communicative competence of students pursuing postgraduate courses in all the disciplines of the university. Its special emphasis is on oral communication and the academic and professional use of the language. It keeps in view the students’ job seeking, job-getting and job-holding needs.

This textbook aims at the task-oriented and students-centred approach. Grammatical and pronunciation accuracy are integrated with communicative appropriacy and effectiveness. Student initiative, and learner-learner and learner–teacher interaction are encouraged, striking a balance between teacher explanation, individual activity, pair work, group work and whole discussion. The topics are so chosen as to create genuine communicative pressure in the students as well as to be relevant to their diverse needs.

14. 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).

15. 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 objectives 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 courses 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.

2.3.2.6 Conclusions

In order to produce effective communicative materials, 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 arouse the learner’s curiosity and sustain his interest. “The textbook and the texts selected or written must be so open ended that no crib writer can predict probable questions 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 use the language in situations other than the ones in which it was learned, can be tested in a meaningful way.”(Krishnaswamy and Sriraman, 1994)

2.4 Materials 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 language 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 (e.g. Cunningsworth 1984; Sheldon 1987) and some articles 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
publishes 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.

2.5 Research

There is little published research in materials development. The published
research has mainly focused on macro-evaluation of materials projects (Rea-
Dickins 1994; Alderson 1985), publishers’ pilot materials (Donovan 1998)
and the evaluation of course materials (Cunningsworth 1984, 1996; Breen
and Candlin 1987; Tribble 1996; 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'.
2.5.1 Trends in Material production

2.5.1.1 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).

2.5.1.2 Trends in Project Materials

In many countries groups of writers produce local materials. From observation of such projects in Bulgaria, China, Indonesia, Ireland, Mauritius, Morocco, Namibia, Norway, Romania, 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 and views of learners and teachers.
Experiments have also been conducted in generating materials for courses rather than relying solely on commercially produced materials, e.g. Hall (1995) reports on a genre-based approach and a student-generated, experiential approach developed at the Asia Institute of Technology in Thailand, a number of researchers are currently experimenting with experiential approaches to literature on ESP courses in Singapore and Thailand.

2.5.1.3 Possible Future Trends

Materials will continue to aim at the development of 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 developmental 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 (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://e.usia.gov/education/engteaching/intl/ieal-ndx.htm) and
2.5.2 Research Studies Conducted in India

1. Ayesha Banatwala's research in designing a Course in written English (1979):

This study is primarily concerned with the preparation of a suitable course in written English for B.A.I, S.N.D.T. Women's university, Bombay. In designing the course the study has attempted to evolve strategy which should make the teaching of some types of writing more effective and which should motivate the learners to view writing as a purposeful, relevant activity which they can perform with some degree of ease and confidence.

In this study the researcher ascertained the entry level, the needs and the difficulties of learners. He investigated the courses 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. Finally, she tried out a few specially prepared teaching materials on the students of SNDT university, in order to establish the usefulness of the syllabus drawn up for the written English course and to test the usefulness of materials themselves.

2. V. Saraswati's research towards a communicative course design in English for Occupational Purposes (1981):
This research study is organized into three parts: Part I - Applied Linguistics Perspective; Part II Needs Analysis; Part III - Towards a Different course Design.

The researcher assumed that (i) there are certain sociological and psychological conventions of communication for official purposes and they have specific linguistic realizations; (ii) people involved in official communication may welcome a course in English for official purposes and may find it very useful; (iii) final year degree students do not possess the required communicative competence in EOP and its shared conventions.

The tools used by the researcher to gather data include an examination of official letters; administering questionnaire to the people involved in communication to elicit their needs pertaining to English; conducting a diagnostic test for final year degree students to estimate their proficiency in English.

The researcher did a commendable job in evolving a different course in English for official purposes. The in-depth study by the researcher is highly praiseworthy. She has framed a separate course in EOP based on learners' needs and has attempted to bridge the gap between what the learners ought to know (their needs) and what they already know.

3. Chitra Dutta's research in developing a Course in Written English for Social Science Students at the B.A. Level (1980):

This study is an attempt to identify the special English language needs of students, studying through the medium of English at the B.A. level. The hypotheses on which the study is based is that an analysis of the structure of the subject(s) of specialization and teaching learning strategies, can be the basis for constructing materials suitable for EAP courses. In this study, he tried to identify the EAP needs of social science students specialized in
Geography, studying through the medium of English in India. The structure of Geography was also analyzed in order to specify the communicative activities involved in the study of the subject. Classes were observed and the study setting examined to specify the communicative functions of English in a given educational setting and suitable course materials constructed.

4. Nirmala Bellore's research in designing a study skills improvement course (1984):

This study seeks to investigate the short fall into study skills possessed by the undergraduate students of Home science at the S.V.T. College of Home Science, Bombay. It also seeks to evolve an alternative approach in ELT for the improvements of those skills and to prepare sample materials that will make the implementation of such an approach possible. 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.

5. Shirin Kudchedkar's research in the development of a course in Spoken English:
The thesis describes an investigation, which was conducted at SNDT Women's university concerning the development of a course in spoken English and the study of its effectiveness. The research aimed at determining the principles on which courses in spoken English should be designed considering the teaching-learning situation in SNDT women's university. The research also aimed at determining 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. The experiment for the purpose involved a comparative
study of the progress made by experimental groups taking a course in spoken English and control groups, which followed a course in grammar and composition.

The study emphasized on three lines of approach: the oral approach, an emphasis on structure as against system and a graded approach. The study laid emphasis on the teaching of communicative abilities although it also said that students obtained greater benefit from the more advanced stages of a course if the first stage was based on a structural syllabus. 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 minimal 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 study has advocated for emphasis on teaching communicative ability to improve the linguistic skills of the students. It has upheld the idea of continuous assessment of students.
6. Vineeta Deshmukh’s research in the development of a Need Based Course (1997):

The thesis examines the specific needs of learners of the Departments of Pharmacy, Electronics and Medical Laboratory Technology at a Polytechnic under SNDT University in Mumbai. The course is prepared on the basis of a thorough analysis of learners’ needs for the three disciplines and offers sample materials for classroom activities. The hypothesis considered at the beginning of the research was founded upon certain notions regarding learners’ specialization, field expectations, syllabus design and material for classroom activities. With regard to learners, the hypothesis was that polytechnic learners were biased against the subject communication skills. This was confirmed by certain questionnaires responses. The investigation carried out during the study confirmed the assumption that a change in pedagogical approach and materials enthuse learners and brings about the virtual metamorphosis among learners.

The distinction between the discipline-initiated syllabi had been hypothesized in the areas of lexis and genre. The study revealed that a composite glossary for the two paramedical disciplines and a separate one for electronics would be required. The study suggested that the syllabus prescribed should be specific about study areas, teaching items and learning activities. The implementation and classroom activities would be commensurate with the parameters established through needs–analysis and data-analysis.

The teaching material used is not “instructional” in nature. The units are designed to initiate learning and not to instruct. They are initiators of cognitive, analytical and reflective learning using the strengths and weaknesses of the learners. The strengths lay in the caliber heterogeneity
and professional aspiration of learners. The weakness lay in learners' "error fossilization" and the "basic lack of confidence". A balance between the technical discourse and ease of operation of the language characterizes the courses material. The units are not discrete in dealing with separate skills but are integrated.

The study is a good response to the results of a need-based syllabus for any ESP class. The teaching materials proposed in the study have not used the traditional rubrics of grammar, composition, precise writing etc. It was influenced by the specialization-specific contexts and has highlighted the value of integrated teaching. It establishes the fact that such a methodology is learner friendly.

7. Praveen Kumar’s research in FE Course (1997)

Kumar (1997) studied the expectations of potential employers and teachers about the Functional English (FE) course at the undergraduate level. The UGC syllabus for the course has been critically assessed from the point of view of the employers, to ascertain the 'utilitarian value of the course and ...whether...the course fulfils the demands of the job market' (Kumar, 1997:177).

Highlighting the drawbacks of the existing General English courses at the undergraduate level, Kumar emphasizes the significance of vocationalization as projected through the Functional English course. He also focuses on the paradigm shift from a structural or situational approach to communicative language teaching and its impact on the teaching-learning of English. The study reveals that the respondents (employers and teachers) consider 'speaking' as the most important skill followed by listening, reading, communicative grammar and study skills and strategies. One of the main
aims of this study was to prioritize and to formulate an inventory of skills and sub skills for the syllabus of the FE course.

Kumar’s need analysis based on employers’ and teachers’ responses to the contents of the FE syllabus gives a fairly clear picture of the expectations of these groups. However, Kumar’s suggestions for improvement of the syllabus are indicated in general terms and do not indicate how these changes can be implemented. Responses form students, if included, would have given a clearer picture on whether the students’ needs correlated with the employers’ expectations and teachers’ responses. However, the study provides useful information on the possibilities of improving the contents of the FE syllabus.

8. Vindhya Singh’s research in the FE Course (1999)

M.Phil. thesis of Vindhya Singh is a study of the FE courses in terms of its relevance, scope, aims and objectives. Her study focuses on methodology of teaching, materials used and evaluation in the Conversational English paper in the FE course. Her study also compares the aims and objectives and contents of the General English course, the English main course and the FE course. Some changes in the implementation of the FE course and specially the conversational English are suggested in her study.

This study mainly deals with conversational English component in the FE course and not with other components since it is beyond the scope of the study. Data is collected only from the students of three universities, but generalization regarding the teaching methodology, materials used and evaluation is possible.

9. Roopa Suzaana Theodore’s research in FE Course (1999)
M.Phil. thesis of Roopa Suzaana is the study of the Speech patterns of Functional English students. Here she studies the supera segmental features of the speech patterns of students studying 'Functional English' (B.A. vocational course) at the undergraduate level. The speech patterns of conventional B.A. students have also been recorded and analyzed. On the basis of these recordings an attempt has been made to find out the extent to which 'FE' students have been able to overcome the problems of English accentuation. The study examines if they could internalize the accentual and attitudinal implications of intonation, which are specific to English language. Certain problems areas among the trained groups were also identified.

10. Anup Kumar's research in the FE Course (2000)
Anup Kumar's study aims at an evaluation of the implementation of Functional communicative syllabus in English introduced in West Bengal secondary schools in 1984. Since the introduction of the new approach and the methodology; it has been put to acid comments by some sections of people. In his research Mr. Anup Kumar has tried to judge the validity of such comments by taking into account the practice at the grass root level. The findings of the study present an astounding picture of the implementation of the syllabus. Board's sincere endeavour in designing the syllabus and formulating the materials has not been questioned. Most teachers involved in this study are overtly interested in carrying out the Board's objectives. Yet their practice in the classroom does not confirm the basic requirements of the Functional Communicative approach. Consequently, students, who are instrumentally motivated to learn the language are becoming helpless victims. The main findings of this study is that the implementation of curriculum change has not been effective despite
a good syllabus worked out with good intentions based on a rational, need-based research.

11. Amita Kale's research in the FE Course (2001)
This study attempts to analyze the aims, objectives, contents and instructional aspects of the writing skills component in the FE course at the university of Pune. Study uses questionnaire as the instrument to collect data form the teachers and students of the FE courses in the university of Pune regarding their views towards the FE course, writing skills components, teaching methods and materials used. Findings of the study imply that the contents and instructional methods adopted in writing skills class are unable to exploit the immense opportunities of developing students writing skills.

2.6 Implications 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 'Functional English course' and in the field of materials production, following conclusions can be drawn:

1. All these FE researches were made with the intention of evaluating either syllabus of FE course or teaching methods and teaching materials used by the teachers. In the evaluation of FE syllabuses, many shortcoming of the designed syllabus were pointed out. Some suggestions were also given to modify the syllabus.

2. All the FE researchers unanimously agreed that there was an urgent need to provide teaching materials and resource book to the teachers for selecting and adopting different activities according to the requirements of FE students. They also focused on the need for
training teachers in the preparation and modification of teaching materials.

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

4. Instead of using alien materials, instructional materials should be prepared after analyzing the needs of learners, incorporating the topics of their interest. More and more integrated tasks should be designed on the basis of the usefulness of the functions for their daily life.

5. In order to produce effective communicative materials, a lot of concerted effort is required on the part of material producers because materials should be prepared in such way that it should be linguistically appropriate and also to arouse the learners’ curiosity and sustain their interest. Selection of topics, use of the various tasks and activities should be such as to make the learner sensitive to the creative uses of language and to help them to enjoy 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.

6. The focus of CTM is both on ‘accuracy’ and ‘fluency’ Materials will aim at the development of accuracy, fluency, and appropriacy but fluency should receive greater attention, which can be cultivated by means of ‘role-play’, ‘simulations’, and other activities.

7. 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.

8. The researches also focused on the need to cater the requirements of specific groups such as Science students, Commerce students and
Home Science students. No study has been made to learn the needs of FE undergraduate learners particularly in Gujarat.

9. These researches also focused on the need for training teachers in the preparation and modification of teaching materials.

10. 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.

11. 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.

12. Team of materials producers often consists of teachers and teacher trainers who are in touch with the needs and wants of the learners.

13. Grammar is not dealt explicitly. Instead, it is introduced under functional headings, like 'offering things', 'expressing likes/dislikes', etc. Grammar is often based on text and presented in situations and topics.

14. Most communicative materials emphasize on 'language activation', that is to make optimal use of the language the learner has already learnt, by providing exercises, situations and such topics that require language use. There is greater emphasis on listening and speaking skills.

15. 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.

16. The above-mentioned researchers have given first hand information on the effects of CLT approach. They have shown how language ability can be more authenticity acquired by specifying the needs of the learners and by following the CLT approach.
17. Study of FE syllabuses identify that a syllabus of the FE course should focus on functions of language and not on the language structures.

18. More autonomy should be given to the colleges and universities for designing the FE syllabus keeping in view the local needs of their learners.

19. Teaching techniques for using innovative materials in the FE class should also be provided to the teachers of Functional English. For example, prescribed contents incorporated in the integrated tasks, must be taught simultaneously, as a whole. It will facilitate the teachers of FE to a greater extent. Practical aspects of the course should be given more weightage in the syllabus.