Chapter-III

Instructional Materials

3.1 Importance of Materials

3.2 The Present Day Role of Teaching Materials

3.3 Factors in the selection and production of Materials

3.4 Designing materials

3.4.1 IMs and a model of language

3.4.2 IMs and language learning models

3.4.3 Conclusions

3.5 Defining Objectives

3.6 A Materials Design Model

3.7 Definitions of the term Task:

3.7.1. Implications for Task Design

3.7.2 Task Rationale

3.7.3 Task Components

3.7.3.1 Goals(Defining and describing goals)

3.7.3.2 Input

3.7.3.3 Activities

3.7.3.3.1 Authenticity

3.7.3.3.2 Skill Getting & Skill Using

3.7.3.3.3 Accuracy and Fluency

3.7.3.3.4 Activity Types

3.7.3.4 Learner role

3.7.3.3 Teacher role

3.8 Implications
Chapter-III

Instructional Materials

The beginning of this chapter signifies the importance of materials. It is followed by a view of different steps of designing materials, instructional materials and language learning models viz. structural, functional and skill-based view of language. Thereafter, the objectives of materials, and for fulfilling them a materials design model has been given which focuses on input, contents, language, and on the term ‘task’. The term ‘task’ has been defined clearly. Implications of task design, task rationale and its components are also discussed in detail.

3.1 Importance of Instructional Materials (IMs)

1. Materials act as support to teachers by providing the language input that they could use in the classroom, to expose their learners to the language.

2. They also supply to the teacher, the exercises and activities to give to their students for them to engage in as practice material that will lead them to learn the language. They take on the responsibility of providing material for teaching which will realize the syllabus or objectives of teaching prescribed for the specific level.

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

1. They act as concrete exposure to the language to be learnt.

2. They also instruct them to do specific things in specific ways so that they practice and use the language and learn it in the process.”

Candlin and Edelhoff (1982) have given the following purposes of materials: “Materials should have twin aims: on the one hand they offer information and data about the language being studied, and in particular about the social
context – the culture within which communication takes place and derives much of its meaning and value. They need to be... authentic to communication and the world outside. At the same time, materials have a role to promote learning and language learning in particular. They fulfill this role in the way they offer activities and tasks and exercises which challenge the competence of the learner.”(Quoted by Kudchedkar, 2002: 186)

They emphasize the ‘twin aims’ that they are supposed to fulfill. The first aim is to provide the language input, data or what we call ‘language exposure’, which is very valuable in learning the specific language. Candlin and Edelhoof expand this concept of language input, and state that it embodies the cultural and social context within which the language that is to be learnt is located; it demonstrates for the learner the way communication takes place in a particular culture or society. They further state that since the input that they (Instructional Materials) provide are to indicate how the language functions in the social and cultural context and how it is used for communication, it is important that this input material be authentic and ‘true to the world’.

3.2 The Present Day Role of Instructional Materials

Materials form an integral part of classroom lessons. They perform several functions in the classroom.

a) A resource for teachers, students and examiners: Textbooks and other materials play a vital role as language resource for teachers, learners and examiners. They guide teachers, and through lessons provide a resource for teachers to formulate classroom activities. Materials are a link between the teachers and the students as learning is based on the textbook.
b) **Materials provide raw data:** Materials reduce the burden on the teacher to collect teaching materials from miscellaneous sources. They provide consolidated data for the particular level. The data can be utilized by the teacher in the classroom. The teacher is thus left with more time to devise innovative techniques for the application of activities in the classroom, which would otherwise be spent in trying to locate and devise suitable materials. The strain on teachers is thus reduced.

c) **Materials promote self-study:** Classroom time is limited and the amount of practice teachers can provide to learners with is restricted by time. Textbooks provide students with the scope to practise reading and other skills on their own. They thus provide a variety of inputs for self-study.

d) **Materials provide teachers with insights to theoretical framework:** In India there exists a large number of untrained teachers. Materials provide instructions and insights into the theory behind the formulation of the materials in question as well as the teachers approach to be followed for particular materials. Theoretical insights are thus made accessible to untrained teachers. Materials can bridge the gap between theory and practice.

e) **Materials are an aid to teaching:** Teaching aids like pictures, diagrams, maps and others can be used by the materials producers in an effective way. These aids are thus made easily available to teachers and students at a low cost.

f) **Materials provide instructions to the teacher:** Materials provide specific instructions and suggestions to the teacher to conduct the...
classroom activities. Teachers' handbooks are also prepared to acquaint teachers with the effective teaching strategies for lessons.

3.3 Factors in the Selection & Production of Instructional Materials

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

Humanistic psychologists such as Carl Rogers (1969) and Curran (1976) have talked about the "whole learner". Learners do not simply play "roles" or process information; they bring with them a whole array of personal attributes and feelings. These have to be respected, if individual development and growth are to take place.
g) One of the fundamental tasks of the teacher as a facilitator of learning is therefore to "make space for the learner" in the classroom through the use of appropriate tasks and materials.

Ideally speaking, the teacher should participate initially in the task as "co-contributor". Then, the teacher can take himself away and play the role of the facilitator or manager. Ideally, the class should provide a network of human relationships in which all learners feel accepted, supported and encouraged by one another. The tasks set should provide opportunities for pair work or group work, and learners can cooperate in the solution of the task. (PGCTE Materials-III, 1995:7).

3.4 Designing Materials

The materials designers emulate the following systematic steps:

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

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

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

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

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

3.4.1 IMs and a Model of Language

In this section, a brief description of different types of materials that exist, depending on the model of language, has been given.

i) One way of looking at language learning is to believe that the learning of language means acquiring knowledge of the structures and words or vocabulary items of a language. The emphasis in materials produced based on this approach to language is on the acquisition of the form of language, accurate grammatical forms and exact words in specific situations. They tend to value correct usage.

This approach to language teaching, where language structures are of prime importance, is known as the **structural approach**; and it has to be stressed that materials based on this approach place a great deal of importance on the structural items incorporated in the text. If the importance of the structural item is not adequately brought out, the materials then do not serve their purpose.

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

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

### 3.4.2 IMs and Language Learning Models

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

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

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

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

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

A very interesting feature of all the learner-centred materials is that they generally seem to believe in a language model too, which is a rich and creative combination of all these in communicative and purposeful use in real life situations, which can be academic, personal, affective, creative and more pragmatic/communicative.

3.4.3 Conclusions

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

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

In an attempt to prepare materials, following principles are identified which guide in their actual writing:

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

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

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

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

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

(f) Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use. But it is all too often taken as their only purpose and use rather than a vehicle for language learning. Language teaching materials should not be the kind of beginner’s guide to Applied Linguistics, which is so prevalent in ESP. Linguists, may be endlessly fascinated by the analysis of discourse. For the doctor, the secretary and the engineer language may have little such attraction.

3.6 A Materials Design Model

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

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

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

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

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

![Input - Content - Language - Task](diagram)

**Figure 1: A Materials Design Model (Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters, 1987: 109)**
The primary focus of the unit is the task. The model acts as a vehicle that leads the learners to the point where they are able to carry out the task. The language and content are drawn from the input and are selected according to what the learners will need in order to do the task. It follows that an important feature of the model is to create coherence in terms of both language and content throughout the unit. This provides the support for more complex activities by building up a fund of knowledge and skills.

3.7 Nature and Definitions of the term ‘Task’

A task is an “activity or action, which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command, may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative.... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake.” (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985:289)

In this definition, the authors take a pedagogical perspective. Tasks are defined in terms of what the learner will do in the classroom, rather than in the outside world. Therefore, the distinction between pedagogical task and real-world task becomes very crucial point that should also be discussed.

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

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

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

3.7.1 Implications for Task design

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

This last point may prove a logical point of departure in designing a syllabus. The various uses that a learner has, for learning another language can be revealed through various forms of needs analysis. Tasks are then justified on the grounds that they will help the learner develop the skills they will need for carrying out real-world communicative tasks beyond the classroom.

### 3.7.2 Task Rationale

Classroom tasks are generally, justified or rationalized in either 'real-world' or 'pedagogic' terms. Tasks with a real world rationale require learners to approximate, in class, the sorts of behaviors required of them in the world beyond the classroom. Tasks with a pedagogic rationale, on the other hand, require learners to do things, which it is extremely unlikely they would be called upon to do outside the classroom. It is not justified on the grounds that they are enabling learners to rehearse real-world behaviours. This usually takes a psycholinguistic form along the lines of: 'Well, although the learners are engaged in tasks which they are unlikely to perform outside the classroom, the tasks are stimulating internal processes of acquisition'. Nunan (1997: 40) Thus, while the selection of real-world tasks will proceed with reference to some form of needs analysis, pedagogic tasks will be selected with reference to some theory or model of second language acquisition.

"Pedagogical tasks are tasks teachers and students will actually work on in the classroom, at least initially, until they are capable of tackling the full version of the target task."(Long, 1985: 92) They provide a range of simplified, but transparent, concrete exponents of task types for classroom use.
The distinction being drawn here can be illustrated as follows:

Communicative classroom tasks

Task type Real-world  Pedagogic

Rationale Rehearsal  Psycholinguistic

Reference Needs analysis  SLA theory/research

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

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

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

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

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

There are also communicative tasks which have little real world relevance but which have validity because they are nonetheless intellectually valid and meaning-focused and therefore put language to use, even though they engage learners in activities which are unlikely to occur in the world outside.
the classroom. Many of the tasks in the Bangalore Project would fall into this category. Prabhu (1987:93), the principal architect of the Project, saw no need to link tasks to the real world.

"... a procedural syllabus of tasks only envisages constant effort by learners to deploy their language resources in the classroom, and does not attempt either to demarcate areas or real-life use for different stages of teaching or to bring about a ‘thorough’ learning of use in some functions at each stage.” Rather than being justified on the grounds of their real-world value, tasks in the Bangalore Project are justified on the grounds that they stimulate internal psycholinguistic processes of acquisition.

3.7.3 Task Components

**Introduction: Identifying task components**

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

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

Shavelson and Stern (1981:478) suggest that task design should take into consideration the following elements: content – the subject matter to be
taught, materials—the things that learners can observe/manipulate, activities—the things the learners and teacher will be doing during the lesson, goals—the teachers' general aim for the task (these are much more general and vague than objectives), students—their abilities, needs and interests are important, social community—the class as a whole and its sense of 'groupness'.

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

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

Figure 3: A framework for analyzing communicative tasks. Nunan (1989:47-48)
3.7.3.1 Goals (Defining and Describing Goals)

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

**Goal type Example**

- **Communicative** - establish and maintain interpersonal relations, through this to exchange information, ideas, opinions, attitudes, and feelings, and to get things done.

- **Socio-cultural** - have some understanding of the everyday life patterns of their contemporary age group in the target language speech community. This will cover their life at home, at school and at leisure.

- **Learning-how to-learn** - to negotiate and plan their work over a certain time span, and learn to set themselves realistic objectives and how to devise the means to attain them.

- **Language and cultural awareness** - to have some understanding of the systematic nature of language and the way it works

[The Australian Language Levels, or ALL, Project: Adapted from Clark (1987: 227-32) as quoted by Nunan (1989:48-49)]
3.7.3.2 Input

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

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

A similar range of stimulating source materials provides useful input for tasks that focus on writing. Morris and Stewart-Dore (1984:158) suggest that while it is probably neither necessary nor desirable for teachers to provide students with the opportunity of learning all the different styles and registers of writing, it is possible to extend the writing options traditionally offered to students by making the forms available such as articles for newspapers, magazines and journals, reports to different kinds of groups, radio and television scripts and documentaries, puppet plays, news stories and reports, short stories, poems and plays, progress reports and plans for future development, publicity brochures and posters, instructions and handbooks, recipes, replies to letters and other forms of correspondence.

The inclusion of such materials as input raises again the question of authenticity. A rule-of-thumb definition for ‘authentic’ here is any material, which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching.
The argument for using authentic materials is derived from the notion that the most effective way to develop a particular skill is to rehearse that skill in class. Proponents of authentic materials point out that classroom texts and dialogues do not adequately prepare learners for coping with the language they hear and read in the real world outside the classroom. They argue that if we want learners to comprehend aural and written texts in the real world, then the learners need opportunities for engaging in these real world texts in class. Nunan (1989:53-54)

Brosnan et al. (1984:2) point out that the texts that learners will need to read in real life are in the environment around them – at the bank, in the letterbox, on shop doors and windows, on labels, packets etc. They do not have to be created by the teacher. Given the richness and variety of these resources, it should not be beyond even the beginning teacher to select texts, which are appropriate to the needs, interests and proficiency levels of their students.

Brosnan et al. (1984:2-3) offer the following justifications for the use of these real-world materials.

- The language is natural. By simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes (limiting structures, controlling vocabulary, etc.) we risk making the reading task more difficult. We may, in fact, be removing clues to meaning.
- It offers students the chance to deal with small amounts of print, which, at the same time, contain complete and meaningful messages.
- It provides students with the opportunity to make use of non-linguistic clues (layout, pictures, colours, symbols, the physical setting in which it occurs) and so more easily to arrive at meaning from the printed world.
- Adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the
classroom to what they need to do outside it, and real-life reading matter treated realistically makes the connection obvious. (Nunan, 1989:58)

3.7.3.3 Activities

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

3.7.3.3.1 Authenticity

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

"Classroom activities should parallel the 'real world' as closely as possible. Since language is a tool of communication, methods and materials should concentrate on the message, not the medium." (Clarke & Silberstein 1977:51)

"...what is wanted is a methodology which will ... provide for communicative competence by functional investment. (Such a methodology) would engage the learners in problem-solving tasks as purposeful activities but without the rehearsal requirement that they should be realistic or 'authentic' as natural social behaviour." (Widdowson 1987:71)

Candlin and Edelhoof (1982) point out that the authenticity issue involves much more than simply selecting texts from outside the arena of language
teaching, and that the processes to which the learner submits aural and written texts and the things he or she is required to do with the data should also be authentic. Porter and Roberts (1981) also point out that while it is possible to use authentic texts in non-authentic ways, this severely limits the potential of the materials as resources for language learning. Certain activities might only remotely resemble the sorts of things that are required to be done in the real world. However, they would probably be justified on the grounds that, in carrying out the activities, learners are required to practise skills, which will be useful in the real world.

### 3.7.3.3.2 Skill Getting and Skill Using

Following Rivers and Temperley (1978:4) a second way of characterizing activities is according to whether they are basically concerned with skill getting and skill using. These relate to the traditional distinction between controlled practice activities, in which learners manipulate phonological and grammatical forms, and transfer activities, in which learners are meant to apply their newly acquired mastery of linguistic forms to the comprehension and production of communicative language.

### 3.7.3.3.3 Accuracy and Fluency

A third way of analyzing learning activities is into those, which focus the learner on developing accuracy, and those, which focus on the development of fluency. Brumfit (1984:51) deals with the fluency/accuracy polarity in detail. He suggests that: "... the demand to produce work for display to the teacher in order that evaluation and feedback could be supplied conflicted directly with the demand to perform adequately in the kind of natural circumstances for which teaching was presumably a preparation. Language
display for evaluation tended to lead to a concern for accuracy, monitoring, reference rules, possibly explicit knowledge, problem solving and evidence of skill getting. In contrast, language use requires fluency, expression rules, a reliance on implicit knowledge and automatic performance. It will on occasion also require monitoring and problem-solving strategies, but these will not be the most prominent features, as they tend to be in the conventional model where the student produces, the teacher corrects, and the student tries again”.

In his book, Brumfit makes the point that accuracy and fluency are not opposites, but are complementary: however materials and activities are often devised as if they were in conflict, and teachers certainly adjust their behaviour in the light of what is important to them at any particular point.

Nunan (1989:63)

3.7.3.3.4 Activity Types

In the Bangalore Project, three principal activity types are used: information gap, reasoning gap and opinion gap. These are explained as follows:

1. Information gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another – or from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.
2. Reasoning-gap activity involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as an information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

3. Opinion-gap activity involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions. (Prabhu, 1987 as quoted by Nunan, 1989: 66)

Clark (1987:237-238) proposes seven broad communicative activity types. Language programmes, he suggests, should enable learners to:

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

Pattison (1987) also proposes seven activity types. These are as follows:
1. Questions and answers: These activities are based on the notion of creating an information gap by letting learners make a personal and secret choice from a list of language items which all fit into a given frame (e.g. the location of a person or object). The aim is for learners to discover their classmates' secret choices. This activity can be used to practice almost any structure, function or notion.
2. Dialogues and role-plays: These can be wholly scripted or wholly improvised, however, ‘if learners are given some choice of what to say, and if there is a clear aim to be achieved by what they say in their role-plays, they may participate more willingly and learn more thoroughly than when they are told to simply repeat a given dialogue in pairs.’
3. **Matching activities**: Here, the task for the learner is to recognize matching items, or to complete pairs or sets. ‘Bingo’, ‘Happy families’ and ‘Split dialogues’ (where learners match given phrases) are examples of matching activities.

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

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

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

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

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

### 3.7.3.4 Learner Role:

Roles refer to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationship between the participants.
Breen and Candlin describe the learner's role within CLT in the following terms:

"The role of learner as negotiator - between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way." (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:77)

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

3.7.3.5 Teacher Role:

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

"The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience on the nature of learning and organizational capacities." (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:77)
3.8 Implications of the study

1. Materials are the most important tools for the teacher. It is an essential support to the teacher, which provides various activities and exercise for fulfilling the teaching objectives.

2. It acquires an important place in the curriculum and it also has a definite purpose.

3. It provides language exposure. It embodies the cultural and social context. Moreover, it provides how the language functions can be used in the social cultural context.

4. Use of authentic materials can make the tasks more demanding, make learners more curious and also it will be able to sustain learners’ interest in the class.

5. Materials should be so conducive to the learners that they should be ready to engage themselves without any constraint. Importance of learners’ feelings or their ‘affective state’ determines the quality of learning that takes place in the classroom. Therefore, the role of teacher is to provide more space for the learners. Classes should be a network of human relationships in which all the learners should feel accepted, supported and encouraged by one another.

6. For the Functional English course whose sole purpose is to make the learner a fluent speaker of English, the materials should be based on more learner-centred and less transmissive language learning models.

7. While preparing learning tasks, it should be kept in mind that accuracy and fluency are not contradictory but complementary. Both should be given equal weightage.
8. One way of characterizing activities is according to whether they are basically concerned with skill-getting and skill-using. In other words, controlled and transfer activities.