Chapter 2
Review of Related Literature

Common sense tells us that the aim of teaching a language is normally to try to create in the learner the ability to communicate productively as well as creatively and this necessitates the inclusion of receptivity in that language. That is to say that the learner should have communicative competence. The more communicative a person is, the more creative his or her language use is. Thus productivity/creativity goes hand in hand. However, productivity is a mechanical process and an aspect of language use whereas creativity is the mark of higher degree of proficiency.

Understanding the process of language learning is a very complex task. People learn their mother tongue and other tongues in a multilingual country as ours very easily without being aware of the processes behind them. Initially, English was taught as a foreign language at the school level in India but gradually, it has risen to the status of a second language at the undergraduate level in some areas of specialization like English Literature and professional courses, and it is today the language of banking, commerce and industry, and also a link language among the educated people in the country. The role of English has not changed in the field of education. The regional media
entered university education after independence, but it has not affected the status of English. In fact, more and more people now believe that competence in English is a must because English is the most widely used language in all spheres. It would not be wrong to say that it is the international link language. Consequently, the demand for English medium education is steadily growing. The world we live in today is a technology-driven one. Whether it is computers, Internet, biochemistry, biotechnology, stem cell research and what not, the common link language is English. Scientists and technologists across the world interact with one another in English. Students understand the importance of English. They realize that within the next few years, they would face the real hard world in their future career. However, if they are not equipped with good qualifications and a good command over English, they would face a daunting task.

There is no denying the fact that English is the language of opportunity. In such a situation, the job of teachers of English has become really challenging, particularly in India because teachers in India face a peculiar situation. In principle, many of the undergraduates have ‘studied’ English for at least six years. Going by that yardstick, they should be reasonably competent in the language but that is not the case. Most of Indian college classrooms are a
mixture of good, average and poor users of English. This is the real 
challenge for classroom practitioners and the language planners alike.

Educationists in India have woken up to the need of the hour and for 
the first time, in several years, the Central Board of Secondary 
Education, New Delhi, took up curriculum renewal in English in 
classes IX and X of the Kendriya Vidyalayas and Navodaya 
Vidyalayas in India. We must add here that whatever be the nature of 
reforms that were planned, they were limited to school level and very 
little work was done at the tertiary level. If one were to look at the 
scenario in Gujarat, very little is known about the objectives of any 
courses in compulsory English. The learners' needs are seldom taken 
into consideration and the teachers themselves are also not very clear 
about the purposes of the courses being taught at those levels.

During our investigation, we had a look at these relevant books, most 
of which are available in the markets. These deal with curriculum in 
school education and very few take up tertiary education for a 
discussion. Even so, there are quite a few published articles in Indian 
and foreign journals about ESP, ESAP, EAP, scientific English, 
curriculum design, syllabus design etc. Here too the focus tends to be
more on commerce/business studies/management studies, engineering and technology.

Curriculum is one of those terms like communicative effort; authentic material, and many others terms in teaching that are used in a confusing variety of senses. It is used in particular in both a broad sense and a narrower sense. In its broad sense, it is used to refer to all that there is in learning experiences that a person encounters at school. In a narrower sense, it is a person’s experiences in one’s specific subject on the school time table, such as the foreign language curriculum or the science curriculum. So it is possible to have an English Curriculum. Broad discussion about curriculum includes:

- Why do we learn and teach? (Aims and objectives)
- What do we learn and teach? (Content)
- How do we learn and teach? (Methods and learning activities)
- What resources do we use to learn and teach? (Books and materials)
- How well do we learn and teach? (Assessment and evaluation)

In the narrower sense, curriculum refers to a foreign language teaching. Richard et al (1985) defines curriculum development as:

(a) A study of the purposes for which a learner needs a language (needs analysis)
(b) The setting up of objectives and the development of a syllabus, teaching methods and materials.

c) The evaluation of the effects of these teaching procedures on the learners' language ability.

In ‘Six levels of Curriculum Design,’ Allen (1984) adds a further dimension/aspect: that of a concept formation by which he means the general principles that provide the foundation for the second and foreign language education. His six levels are:

(a) Concept formation (general principles of language learning)
(b) Administrative decision making (which includes the formulation of general aims)
(c) Syllabus planning a (the stage at which specific objectives are defined)
(d) Materials design (including texts, exercises and so on)
(e) Classroom activities (where materials are adapted by individual teachers to their own situation)
(f) Evaluation (which tests the validity of the decisions made at the earlier stages)

The definitions mentioned above help us to arrive at the following elements that can be considered in is ELT Curriculum and Design

*Purposes of Education*
A lot of work is available on curriculum process etc. Stern (1983:23) observes that implicit in all decisions made by the teacher relating to classroom practice, materials, methodology and content, is the theory about the nature of language and the nature of language learning. In her book *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice*, Taba (1962) examines theories about society, culture, learning and subject matter as the bases of educational programmes. She says that curriculum development is sterile if it does not encompass change in classroom practices. Her discussion of theory and practice in the design and use of new programmes provide both necessary and fundamental concepts and specific illustration of their use in schools, with realistic appraisals of teacher’s perceptions of themselves, of their ability to participate in educational planning, and of the many demands upon them.

Taba (1962) is of the opinion that evaluation of education includes both the process of determining what changes result from an educational
programme in the behaviour of the students, and that of determining whether these changes actually achieve the objectives specified.

Lawton (1973) sees the gap between theory and practice, that is, the gap between what should be and what is one of the central problems of the curriculum.

Tyler (1949) known as one of the most influential curriculum developers of this century, provides a model for the systematic development of the curriculum in his work 'Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction'. He asserts that the development of any curriculum for any subject whatsoever must be based on a consideration of four fundamental questions. These are:

❖ What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
❖ What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
❖ How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
❖ How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

One of the major criticisms of this model was that it suggested that curriculum activity occurs in a series of discrete and sequential stages. This led Wheeler (1975) to develop a more integrated model. It differed
from the Tyler's model in that it allows for recycling, so that evaluation feeds back into aims, goals and objectives.

Kerr's (1968) Interactive curriculum model has four interactive elements—objectives, evaluation, knowledge, and school learning experiences, each of which has subsidiary elements. All these elements interact in the learning teaching situation, and change in one element in the model leads to changes in all other elements.

Stenhouse's (1975) model was developed within the context of a strong commitment to a subject-centered view of the curriculum, and may not necessarily be as relevant in systems subscribing to other philosophies or approaches. He suggests that a curriculum should consist of three major parts relating to planning/empirical study/and justification. Stenhouse's ideas, that effective curriculum development is largely a matter of effective teacher development seems to suggest that curriculum change will only find its way into the classroom if teachers themselves become the principal agents of curriculum change through critical analysis and reflection on their current performances. These ideas have been taken up by curriculum theorists such as Kemmings and McTaggard (1982) who have proposed an action research-orientation to curriculum development.
There has been a comparative neglect of curriculum theorizing in relation to ESL until recently, maybe, due to the dominance of and influence of theoretical linguists over language teaching. Language learning has been seen as the linguistic rather than an academic matter, and there has been a tendency to overlook research and development as well as planning processes related to general educational principles and all this in favour of linguistic principles. In recent years, this has also come to be related to second language acquisition research. Thus, decisions on inputs related selection and gradation have heretofore been made on linguistic grounds. Recent empirical research into learnability and speech processing constraints have demonstrated that there is not always a direct correlation between linguistic prediction of difficulty and what learners actually do find difficult, and it is only recently that attention has been focused on the selection and grading of input on the basis of what is actually learnable at any given stage (Johnson 1985).

Clark (1985) favours the term ‘curriculum renewal’ to the more widely used ‘curriculum development’. He suggests,

This takes in the creation of syllabus in which educational, subject-specific and learner-oriented objectives (content and methodology) are reconciled and, the creation of resources to provide learning experiences
for the learner, the writing of principles and guidelines to assist teachers to tailor their classroom practices to the requirement of the learners, the elaboration of an assessment scheme to monitor and measure pupil progress, the devising of strategies to evaluate the curriculum itself, and last but not the least the working out of strategies for teacher development, so that teachers are enabled to renew their own curriculum in the light of the classroom reality. (Clark 1985: 3)

When we discuss curriculum development, we ought to discuss educational value systems that have paved the way to further development in the field. Skilbeck (1982) identified three broad value systems permeating the contemporary educational process. These were classical Humanism, Reconstructionism, and Progressivism.

**Classical humanism** is elitist, concerned as it is with generalizable intellectual capacities and with the transmission of knowledge, culture and standards from one generation to another. In terms of curriculum design, it gives rise to a content-driven curriculum, in which the subject matter is analyzed into elements of knowledge which are then sequenced from simple to complex, and assessment is norm-referenced. As far as curriculum renewal is concerned, change is to be brought about slowly through reform that is authorized by the guardians of the nation's wisdom.
in universities and by spreading of good practices by the guardians of the nation’s standards in the inspectorate.

**Reconstruction** is concerned with bringing about social change through the educational system, with achieving a social consensus on common goals, and with planning rigorously to achieve them.

With regards to curriculum design, *reconstruction* gives rise to a goal-driven curriculum, in which the content is derived from an analysis of the learner’s objective needs in terms of behaviour. Content is sequenced from part skills to whole skills, from simple to complex. The methodology lays stress on part skill practice, the rehearsal of goals, and the mastery of predetermined criteria. The assessment is criterion-referenced and concerned to show what learners have mastered and at what level.

In terms of strategies for curriculum and renewal, reconstructionism leads to a top-down approach in which a committee of a government-appointed experts come to a consensus on what should be done next, and imposes a new curriculum and various educational packages deriving from it. Teachers in schools are then trained to adopt them.

**Progressivism** is concerned with the development of the individual as a whole person, with personal and group responsibilities, with promoting
natural learning processes to various stages of development, and with fostering a capacity for learning how to learn. With regards to general curriculum design, *progressivism* gives rise to process-driven curriculum governed by principles of procedures designed to allow learners to negotiate goals, content and methods. Learning is experimental. There is an acceptance that learners will impose their own order on what is learned. The assessment is concerned with both the process and product and is negotiated with individuals.

In terms of strategies for curriculum renewal, it leads to a bottom-up approach, in which teachers are assisted to observe their own classrooms, to analyze their own classrooms and to devise and evaluate strategies for over-coming them in a mutually supportive but critical climate. (Clark: 1987, p92)

*Progressivism* finds expression in the process syllabus whose proponents are Breen and Candlin (1980), Prabhu (1983) Long and Crooks (1986). Process syllabus is more concerned with the kinds of learning activities which learners should engage in rather than with specifying content or output. The specification in such curricula is more in terms of tasks and problems for the learners than in terms of linguistic items. In his book *Second Language Pedagogy*, Prabhu (1983) seems to begin with the
belief that language form is best learnt when students concentrate on meaning rather than on form. He rejects the linguistic syllabus, opting instead for a task-based procedural syllabus where students have to solve problems through reasoning and self reliance. A change in methodology as opposed to a change in syllabus content is thus thought to be a pressing need.

Richards (1984) attempts to present a curriculum model in which language teaching is seen as a set of processes and procedures which are both systematic and interrelated. Essentially, it also includes needs analysis, objective setting, content, and methodology, and evaluation. He suggests analysis of learners' needs rather than a linguistic analysis as a starting point for a language teaching course design as it also allows more involvement on the part of the target population in curriculum development. This enables identification of goals and objectives and a provision of data for evaluation and accountability. The model developed by Nunan (1985) is similar to the one devised by Richards. The only difference here is that curriculum development activities occur during the process teaching and learning.

The curriculum development process is cyclical which is similar to what Wheeler developed in 1967.
As needs of the learners began to get importance, a learner-centered curriculum started gaining prominence. One of the important forces helping learner-centered teaching was the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). CLT was presented to the world in Threshold Level English, and Notional Syllabus by Wilkins (1976) Van Ek and Alexander (1980). The Council of Europe wanted to specify the notions and functions that language users might wish to give expression to in the languages used within European Community. Consequently, they thought of a specific group of adult learners using the languages of Europe to
carry out specific tasks which included not only economic and business activities but also recreational and tourist activities (Nunan 1988 p 25)

When language teaching started evolving, linguists and social workers began to explore the concept of the speech situation. In doing so, they were able to articulate some of the ways in which language is likely to be influenced by situational variables. Among the more important of these variables is the situation itself, the topic of conversation, the conversational purpose, and probably the most important of all the relationship between interlocutors in an interaction (Nunan 1988 p 25).

The functional-notional approach led to a major development in ELT with a sharp focus on specific purposes. The teaching of language to cater to the particular needs of students is not a recent phenomenon. H.E Palmer made a crucial point about it when he stated that ‘We cannot design language courses until we know something about the students for whom course is intended, for a program of study depends on the aim or aims of students.’ (Palmer cited in Widdowson 1983: 14). The needs of the students became the aim of teaching in ESP. The notion of ESP is an important aspect of communicative approach. It also includes EAP, EOP, and EST. ESP is the pedagogic generalization and the socio-linguistic notion of speech repertoires (Hymes 1972). It is, therefore, maintained
that an effective language syllabus is one that is directly related to the specific and limited academic and non-academic functions to which the learner might put the language in question to use (MacKay and Mountford 1978, Munby 1977 and others).

Mountford and MacKay (1978) in fact suggest three kinds of purposes for ESP. They are occupational, vocational, and academic.

Strevens P. (1977) suggests two broad categories. He says that, all SPLT, Special Purposes Language Teaching Courses are either occupational or educational in nature. Trimble (1985), however, feels that there is a great deal of overlap between EAP and EOP, maybe because communicative skills are common to both the purposes.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 17) showed ELT as a tree with ever-growing branches of EAP, and EOP which can be further divided with EGOP, and ESOP. EAP can be sub-divided into EGAP and ESAP:

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ESP
  / \  
EAP   EOP
     / \  
    EGAP EASP EGOP EGSP

EGAP  English or general academic purposes
ESAP  English for specific academic purposes
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The basic language skills are common to all kinds of jobs but the use of English for Special Occupational Purposes may vary. Considering the fact that study skills required for different groups would be different, English for Science and Technology emerged as a major division of the ESP (MacKay and Mountford 1978). According to Robinson (1980: 8), EST would seem to be both an occupational and an educational use of English. Occupational, when one considers the needs of oil workers, engineers, computer programmers etc; educational, when one considers school and university students around the world studying physics, chemistry, mathematics and engineering through the medium of English.

It is in this context that discourse on EST does not appear different from other academic pieces of discourse at the level of general, communicative features. Rhetorical principles are seen to be related to the general communicative features of topic and purpose of discourse (Lackstrom, Trimble and Selinker 1973).

Scientific English, when considered in very general terms, possesses no separate special grammar, no special pronunciation, no special spelling or
orthography of words. The scientific English is identified from its frequent use of outstandingly long groups (example right upper inlet value spring compression and level) passive verbs (the jar was covered) and considerable use of the expression of quantity, together with special vocabulary and the special symbols used in scientific and technical discourse. (Strevens 1977: 93-94)

Nation (2000) offers some insight into course design in a research article titled ‘Designing and Improving a Language Course’. He describes a systematic approach to designing and improving courses based on a model of course design. The author says that curriculum design can begin with:

1. The adaptations of an existing course and gradually reshaping it so that the course can be taught while the curriculum design is in progress.

2. Curriculum and design can also begin from an unorganized set of resources (which can include course-book, source books, and teacher-made materials, material from newspapers or magazines) that are used, supplemented, adapted or discarded as the design progresses.

3. Curriculum design can begin with nothing except an idea in the designers’ mind.
The author also talks about practical and theoretical considerations like principles, environment, needs, learners’ present knowledge and knowledge gaps, the resources available (including time), the skill of the teachers, the principles of teaching and learning etc that play an important role in curriculum designing. The author lists out twenty principles of language teaching which are as follows:

**Environment and needs**

1. The selection, ordering, presentation, and assessment of the material in a language course should be based on a careful consideration of the learners and their needs, the teaching conditions, and the time and resources available.

**Content and sequencing**

2. A language course should progressively cover useful language items, skills, and strategies.

3. The focus of a course needs to be on the generalizable features of the language.

4. Teaching should take account of the most favourable sequencing of language items and when the learners are most ready to learn them.

5. A language course should provide the best possible coverage by including items that occur frequently in the language, so that learners get the best return for their learning effort.
6. The items in a language course should be sequenced so that items which are learned together have a positive effect on each other for learning and so that interference effects are avoided.

7. Learners should have repeated and spaced opportunities in a variety of contexts to retrieve and give attention to items they want to practice.

8. A language course should train learners in how to learn a language and how to monitor and be aware of their learning, so that they can become effective and independent language learners.

Format and presentation

9. As much as possible, the learners should be interested in and excited about learning the language, and they should come to value this learning.

10. As much time as possible should be spent using and focusing on the second language.

11. A course should include a roughly even balance of meaning-focused input, form-focused instruction, meaning-focused output, and fluency activities.

12. There should be substantial quantities of interesting, comprehensible activity in both listening and reading.
13. A language course should provide activities aimed at increasing the fluency with which learners can use the language knowledge they already have, both receptively and productively.

14. The learners should be pushed to produce the language in both speaking and writing over a range of discourse types.

15. The course should include form-focused instruction in the sound system, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse areas.

16. Learners should process the items to be learned as deeply and as thoughtfully as possible.

17. The course should help learners make the most effective use of previously gained knowledge.

18. A course should be presented so that the learners have the most favourable attitudes possible to the language, to users of the language, to the teacher’s skill in teaching the language, and to their chance of success in learning the language.

19. There should be opportunity for learners to work with the learning material in ways that most suit their individual learning styles.

**Monitoring and assessing**

20. Learners should receive helpful feedback which allows them to improve the quality of their language use.
The paper argues that a communicatively competent individual combines knowledge of the language system with knowledge of cultural conventions, norms of politeness, discourse conventions, and the like, and is able to transmit and receive meaningful messages successfully.

Learners must learn how interpersonal relations are conducted in the cultures of the target language, how individuals use language effectively to achieve different purposes, how oral and written texts are structured etc in order to develop such a kind of competence. He also asserts that students bring the insights which they have obtained from having developed communicative competence in their first language to the study of the second one, and that active use of language in meaningful situations helps them achieve competence faster.

In a research paper titled ‘Towards more reality and realism in EASP syllabuses,’ Jureckov (1998) argues that the ESP syllabus/course design should be realistic both in quantitative and quantitative aspects in their contents. The contents should be technically, physically and mentally conceivable and able to be implemented within the time allotted in the
curriculum. From her own experience of teaching in Slovakia, she believes that learners should be given enough time to digest and practice the input given by the teachers, and that there should be a balance between knowledge input given by the teacher, and textbook on the one side and the activities, tasks, and problems internalizing this output on the other side.

Mohan writing on “Syllabus Reform in English”, (1996) grapples with the important issues involved in the improvement of the standards of teaching and research in English language and research and in universities of India.

The author is of the view that lack of clarity of objectives in the teaching of English is the main cause of deterioration of standards. Since the teaching and study of English is unrelated to any social context and/or purpose, it has no specific objective or carefully planned program. Moreover, the author is also critical of the fact that most teachers of English, armed with an MA, simply do not have the necessary skills in language or the knowledge and the sensibility to its literature, which is needed to enable them to handle the courses in English with any degree of competence. In other words, he favours training of teachers as an essential exercise.
Mohan’s paper covers a lot of other issues as well. The author calls English an auxiliary language because it plays a significant role in the field of higher education, not as a medium of instruction but as an important additional language, the knowledge of which is essential for the pursuit of higher studies in any discipline, not only to access world knowledge but also to be able to contribute to it. Secondly if English is to be a library language, as Education Commission uses the term, reading skills should receive primary focus in a general or compulsory English course, without neglecting the other basic language skills. Since English is still the language of opportunity today, the acquisition of all the language skills in English will continue to be needed by all those seeking higher education in any sphere. So, this should be a part of the core programme in any compulsory English course.

There are other relevant papers published in scholarly journals. Take for instance, ‘ESP, E.ST or EPP: What Do Our Students Need?’ by Mohan (1979) wherein the author proposes a foundation course in Core English to serve as the base for professionally-oriented courses whose aim would be to impart a communicative competence. He suggests that Indian students do not need ESP or EST, but English for Professional Purposes.
Another important paper 'What Are We Doing When We Talk Science?' by Jack Kimball (1996) describes the teaching of speaking within the paradigm of the academic content-based learning, concentrating on science. The paper suggests that when college level advanced learners of English engage in talk about science, they are developing communicative and strategic competences. In other words, they are extending their abilities to convey meaning and to employ varieties of language for specific purposes. Forms and conventions of scientific discourse are examined to reveal rhetorical structures useful for both speaking practice and the genesis of speaking strategies.

Mohan and Banerji’s (2003) paper titled ‘An Approach to ELT Course Design’, assert that no comprehensive and scientific study of ELT syllabus has been made to determine relevance and effectiveness. The most notable attempt in this direction was organization of Zonal Workshops and a National Workshop on Syllabus Reform in English (UGC 1977), but the authors say that no attempt has been made to address the main issues, namely what factors should guide the determination of the nature of contents and how they should be arrived at.

Through this paper, the authors assert that Indian students do not need English for general purposes and that the role of English is well defined.
They suggest that learner's needs, objectives of the course/syllabus, organization of the content, and the kind of materials to be used should be well defined and the courses should be termed English for Professional Purposes.

Vanikar and Dalal (1988) in a paper titled “Responsibilities: Further Considerations in Syllabus Design” argue that the process of syllabus design cannot be divorced from issues such as learner needs, specification of the model, learner/teacher attitudes, and teaching methodology. They go on to argue that ELT in the Indian context is in a transitional stage with regard to the selection of the model for use. This has led to lack of clarity regarding learner needs/appropriate teaching-testing methodology. Decisions regarding the varieties of English used as instructional models will influence review and revision of course design. In order to be functionally effective, these decisions call for considerations in which socio-cultural factors will hold a priority over linguistic ones.

Labru's G L (1983) 'Strategies in English for Sciences and Technology: Indian Case', attempts to present some of the circumstances and conditions which are likely to lend perspective on English for Science and Technology in India. The author suggests a multidimensional approach to the problem, with each dimension to be examined as under:
❖ The need for inclusiveness in defining English in science and technology in India:

❖ The implication of a two culture theory.

❖ The place of English in Indian education and culture

❖ The feasibility of a restricted use English in science education and technical education

❖ The English language quantum in the Ministry of Education model Curricula for a 4-year degree course in engineering

❖ The demands of organization in EST.

In “An Introduction to Applied Linguistics: Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching”, Bell (1981) raises the fundamental questions like what is language? How do people learn languages? And most importantly, how can applied Linguists and teachers help people learn languages? The author who is a socio-linguist by training, also suggests some alternative answers to some key questions and presents the elements which can go together and create an approach in applied linguistics that has input from linguistics and psychology. Such an input in particular can lead us to accept a particular linguistic theory of learning and help us in conceptualising the design of the syllabus, selection of the method, and the production of the material. The book also deals with procedures for
designing training programs, including the evaluation, and provision of feedback from all concerned.

Agnihotri and Khanna's (eds) (1995) book 'English Language Teaching in India: Issues and Innovations' is a compilation of papers. The thrust of most of the papers is that the future of English in India lies in relocating it in the multilingual context of India. Space needs to be created for an authentic and creative interaction between a variety of discourse in English and various Indian languages. The language curriculum should be the center of a child's education, drawing on and feeding into all other disciplines. A critical awareness about language structure, its role in the society and development of critical faculties of the learners should constitute the goal of language teaching. So ELT in India needs to be fully revamped and should form an integral part of curriculum and participate in the process of social change instead of standing apart as a superior language.

Sood's (1988) 'New Directions in English Language and Literature Teaching in India' tries to cover issues in course designing, needs of Indian students, teachers' role and methodology and also English language and literature teaching in the ESL situations in Indian schools, colleges and universities. The author feels English teaching should be
learner-centered. The courses leading to an MA in English need to be restructured to induce in them an element of teaching (both language and literature). Appropriate postgraduate courses in teaching of English also would be useful for the existing teachers of English.

In a paper titled 'Using Curriculum Theory to Design Language Programs', Aydelott (1990) talks about the different steps through which rational curriculum can be developed. He argues that if the educational program is to be successful, it must be based on rational principles. It must be arranged in a logical and systematic way. The author also says that there are several different theories of curriculum, and most of them are based on the belief that developing and holding to goal statements or guidelines is essential.

In 'English With a Purpose' Burton (1961) acknowledges the reality of an Indian student and the general classroom conditions that students coming from vernacular backgrounds face given the fact that they have put in five or six years in learning English. Keeping such students and their purpose of gaining adequate knowledge of English to be able to follow lectures and read books in their respective subjects in mind, the author talks about an experiment he had set up to conduct with a group of students using
materials with some specific vocabulary items based on frequency count, and a specific methodology that he had devised.

'English Language Arts curriculum Resource Handbook' by Erad (1992) argues that a curriculum planner must present the best of the past but must not be limited by it. They must look at the language arts curriculum in a much broader sense so as to avoid repeating the failures of the past. In a way, the language curriculum planners face a huge challenge for creating a broad spectrum of social and cultural component so that all young people will have equal opportunity to achieve academic excellence. The author also discusses new emerging trends and theories specific to language arts and how they relate to each component of the language arts (reading, writing, spelling, oral language, thinking, listening).

In the last section of the paper, the author discusses trends in education with implications for arts curriculum like interdisciplinary curriculum, whole language vs systematic phonic instruction, multicultural curriculum, and technology integration. The author also talks about strategies for the implementing these trends.
Savignor's (1987) 'What's what in communicative language teaching?' addresses the issues that constitute the communicative language teaching. They include:

- Nature of language and language behaviour
- Second language acquisition research
- Language models and attitudes towards language varieties
- Syllabus organization
- Testing

The author is of the view that more than a ready-made method of teaching, language teachers need an appreciation both of the language as an expression of self and of the ways in which meanings are created and exchanged. They need to see the learners as a physical, psychological, intellectual being with needs and interests that extend far beyond the classroom. What will emerge, then, is the experience of learners as a network of relations between people, things and events. Even so, the balance of features in a curriculum will and should vary depending on the particular learning context of which it is a part.

In 'Syllabus Construction for Foreign Language Teaching: Reconciling the Approaches', a brief paper, Lee (1980) says that a syllabus needs to adapt to the learners, and teaching learning circumstances, and their needs
inside and outside the classroom. In designing any syllabus, a syllabus planner should approach it from several angles but all of these should have practical, teaching importance. One interesting idea that the author presents is of blending the good things in the structural syllabus and (for a good grounding in the grammar or structure) and the notional syllabus (it gives a good idea of what to learn when we learn a foreign language). Foreign language learners need to learn the norms of appropriacy (for social situations), and this requires a kind of oral competency which is productive and receptive along with skills in reading and writing. The two approaches need to be reconciled in such a way that they can be put into practice in teaching.

Nadkarni’s (1978) ‘Cultural Pluralism as a National Resource: Strategies for Language Education’, addresses some of the problems (in particular to two kinds of problems that have their origin in sentimental attachments to languages, and those that are the largely pedagogical) in language education, which typically arise in culturally and linguistically pluralistic societies and suggests some strategies for coping with them.

He also lays stress on meeting the needs and interests of various cultural groups by providing for the growth of their languages as an essential aspect of language planning in multilingual societies. The multilingual
countries of the Asia, Africa and Latin America are still in the process of modernization and lack the resources needed to deal adequately with modern developments in science and technology and thus they need a world language to “put them in contact with the world’s technical and scientific information and knowledge which is so important for their economic development.”

The author also makes a case for English as an auxiliary medium (to be used only for instruction) and presents his arguments about the same.

Hamid-Don’s (1978) “Curriculum for Effective Language Learning and its Implication for Teacher Education”, observes that the basic language skills are not ends in themselves but serve as a tool for various intentions and purposes. The author believes that the identification and specification of purposes, considerations like the learner, his or her age, duration, contrasts between L1 and L2, methods of instruction, and assumptions made about teacher-pupil relationship should go into Second Language Curriculum Development. However, the author singles out reading and writing skills as middle-and long-term objectives for students of English as a second language. The author also points out the need for teacher development including adequate training to make decisions regarding
what and how to teach, using different evaluation techniques, and use of educational media technology etc.

In an interesting research work titled ‘Teaching Scientific English’ Dresdner (1968) tries to show us why English for scientific purposes is important at the university level, and to spell out an approach to teach this type of English effectively. The author has also presented the characteristics of English for scientific purposes. He says that while preparing material, knowledge of the students’ science curriculum is important and ensures that materials the students use in the classroom are generally taken from books dealing with different branches of science. The author also lists out the characteristics of scientific English.

Walsh’s (1988) ‘Reading Scientific Texts in English’, talks about the nature of scientific texts, noting that the complexity in scientific texts due to three separate yet closely connected variables: the linguistic, the rhetorical and the conceptual present in it. The article also examines some of the problems that can arise in an ESP programme.

Nagraj’s (1989) ‘That’s Not Our Syllabus’, deals with various schools of thought on the syllabuses, the principles behind the syllabuses, their viability in the English language teaching situation in South India, and contains a proposal for a practical syllabus design for the teaching of
English in South Indian high schools. The author avers that it is due to various constraints and pedagogic reasons that a change in English teaching methodology would be a more viable proposition rather than a change in syllabus, and so would be the adaptation of the material already available in the form of supplementary material.

In a research article titled 'Syllabus Revision/Material Production at the College Level,' Hariharan (1988) points out that language syllabus generally means a list of textbooks, and syllabus revision merely results in change of list of detailed and non-detailed texts in India. Moreover, the teacher's focus is on the content of texts rather than on the skills or abilities of language or on the processes of learning. The author is of the view that the syllabus has to undergo a constant revision based on feedback from teaching learning situations and texts/examinations. The author is also of the opinion that since English is taught as a library language and as a medium of academic learning, it is essential to develop reading strategies like skimming, scanning, surveying, selective reading, reviewing etc. The syllabus should also aim at developing in the learners the ability to understand and write coherently.

In a paper titled 'Considerations in Framing English Syllabuses for Science Students' Lukmani (1988) is concerned with the factors leading
to ESP and whether or not there is a suitable framework upon which to base English for a science course. The author contends that the use of authentically scientific text is not necessarily desirable nor should it be avoided. Discursive texts, she says, should not only include information but also argument, attitude and valuation concerns. The author is of the view that two main trends have appeared to emerge in recent approaches to language teaching function-centered (communicative approach as embodied in the notional-functional syllabus) and task-centered (the choice of tasks being dependent on the suitability of levels of cognitive challenge called the communicative approach). So the author suggests that syllabus design should be approached by identifying the abilities required of the science students, in both cognitive and linguistic terms by framing a list of skills involved in reading, writing, listening and speaking. These abilities would be mainly concerned with the organization of discourse and the linguistic cues which signal this organization.

Dhar’s (1988) ‘English Studies at the Undergraduate Level: A Rethinking of the Objectives’, points out (as many others have done) that the competence of graduate students is deteriorating quite fast. Though the general English course is compulsory, the courses are inherently inadequate in promoting the four composite language skills. The author is
of the opinion that the ESP courses do not seem to be quite relevant to the needs of Indian students and it would be better to make the general English courses more purposeful. The teaching materials must provide variety accommodating the diversity in terms of content and vocabulary specific to each of the content areas. The author feels that inclusion of literary texts on the general English courses is not a bad idea because the language is well learnt through systematic exposure to the literature written in it. Moreover since language is culture bound, English cannot be taught and learnt in isolation from its cultural content. Learning a language involves far more than simply learning the forms of the language.

Vanikar and Dalal (1988) Writing on “Responsibilities: Further Considerations in Language Design”, deal with very important issues in the teaching of courses English compulsory courses in India. The paper contends that a lot of changes expected at the levels of policy making, the socio-cultural factors that shape attitudes and course design are not addressed. Moreover learners’ needs within the English teaching scene have not been fully explored. Language planners also need to clarify issues related to ESP, especially how the general vs specific needs are to be balanced while designing the syllabus.
The paper also raises the issue like specification of the model to be used by the teachers, learner attitudes, teacher attitude and methodology. That is to say that the process of syllabus design cannot be isolated from issues like learner needs, specification of model, learner’s/teacher’s attitudes or methodology and of course consideration of socio-cultural factors.

Ramani’s (1973) ‘Towards Evolving a Core Curriculum in English at the Tertiary Level’ stresses the need for being very unambiguous about the general and specific objectives of the programme. The author talks at length about the general educational objectives and specific instructional objectives, and what can go into them.

In a paper titled ‘EIL Curriculum Development’, Mackay (2003) argues that two widely accepted notions in curriculum development in ELT, viz. the goals of English learning is native speaker competence, and that native speaker cultures should inform instructive materials and teaching methods need to be reviewed due to undergoing changes in the nature of English and English language learners. The author says that a bilingual speaker learns and uses English for quite different functions than a native speaker. So it is unreasonable to use native speaker model as the ultimate goal for second language learners. In fact the teaching methodology has to take into consideration the local socio-cultural factors.
Robin’s (1984) book, *Giving Teaching Back to Teachers: A Critical Introduction to Curriculum Theory*, is in three parts. The first part deals with nature of curriculum. At a general level, it reviews the factors that govern the theory and practice. The second part of the book deals with questions about method, organization, content and psychology. The third part deals with issues relating to curriculum, implication and evaluation. The author also says that unless teachers are better trained in specific ways and given more freedom to manoeuvre in respect of curriculum, there is not much that can be done in education.

Muthangi’s (1989) *Syllabus Design: The ELT Syllabuses in India* (a Dissertation for the degree of MA in Education) tries to evaluate the recent trends in ELT syllabuses with reference to the organization of ELT courses in India. The author specifically refers to the experiment on procedural syllabus as a part of the Bangalore Project (Prabhu 1982) and considers how it makes a departure from traditional syllabuses and is relevant to second language teaching.

She feels that organizing syllabus and materials to suit the multilingual setting of a country and addressing the dilemma of improving the communicative competence of the learners is one of the most important issues of ELT.
It would be wrong to project the academic needs of science students as being limited to the ability to compose and comprehend scientific English in the sciences for academic purposes (c.f. Hutchinson and Waters 1980, 1981). Such a narrow conception of immediate outcomes English teaching results in a trivialization of important curricular needs of science students, particularly in the Indian situation, where general competence in English continues to be important in various job situations (Sridhar 1984). Further, undergraduate science education is prevocational in nature and aims at the general and overall development of the science student (Report of the University Education Commission 1948-49).

Cummings (1979) theorizes on a dichotomy between basic interpersonal communicational skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The former refers to language skills used in the day-to-day informal language exploited in interaction with friends, family, and co-workers, and the latter refers to the language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language situations in which individuals’ use of BICS is characterized by contexts that provide a relatively easy access to meaning. However, the use of CALP occurs in contexts that offer fewer contextual clues. It is against such a background that the role of English language curriculum needs to be reassessed. Even so, there is very little research material available on English language
curriculum renewal in the sciences in the universities of Gujarat. However, there was a study done by Jacob (1988) titled *The English Curriculum: an Ethnographic Study*. It is based on a specific college community with reference to students of science. The main intention is not a particular social situation but the general problem of optimizing the teaching-learning process in English at the undergraduate level with particular reference to Ahmednagar College, affiliated to Poona University. The author believes that students of science need to be proficient in general English for their other academic and other practical communication situations they may face after graduation.

A close look at the related literature seems to indicate that by and large curriculum planners abroad concentrate more on the language curriculum at the school level. For adult learners, they seem to think in terms of ESP/EAP/EST etc. In India, however, language experts are concerned about making the English syllabus effective at the tertiary level. The dismal performance of most students at the college level, particularly those from the vernacular medium schools where English is taught only as one of the subjects, seems to suggest that English syllabus has to be given priority.
There is no doubt that among the language experts, there is a strong view that the objectives of the course should be clearly spelt out with due considerations given to the learners’ needs, socio-cultural factors of the learners and their entry level language competence.
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