

CHAPTER- III

METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE

AND SYLLABUS DESIGNING

3.1. Objectives of Teaching English in India

The main goal of English studies in India in pre-independence years was associated with the mastering of British literature. As said by Desai “The goal set before students of English before independence was that of mastering the language for the purposes of knowing English literature, life and thought, and developing a refined sensibility and expression” (3). But later on, i.e., in the years since independence, the goals have been changed radically. In Krishnaswami and Sriraman’s opinion the goals of teaching English in free-India are-

1. mobility (that is, the utilitarian function of English as the language of opportunity),
2. modernization (that is, the interactive function of English as the “window of the world” and as an instrument of change),
3. the projection principle (that is, the interpretative function of English as an international language to project our identity and values and to promote better human understanding).

(Krishnaswami and Sriraman 30)

In post-independence India, English has attained the status of L₂ in the sense that it is used for official, social, commercial and educational activity within the country. As a result, the goal of teaching English has also been shifted from literature to language. The policy of the Government of India towards English has been decided

by various Education Commissions appointed at different periods in post-independence India. The Radhakrishnan Commission or the University Education Commission of free India recommended that English should continue to be studied “in higher schools and in the universities in order that we may keep in touch with the living stream of ever-growing knowledge” (Saikia 114). The University Education Commission which submitted its report in 1949 gave importance on tertiary level. The three language formula suggested by National Integration Commission of 1962 and later recommended by the Indian Education Commission (1964-66) advocated for the compulsory study of English either as L₂ or as L₃.

As a result, English is used as a compulsory subject up to the graduate level. Besides, the Indian Education Commission of 1964-66 laid stress on the use of modern Indian languages as media of instruction at different stages of education, recommending at the same time, the study of English in colleges and universities as an important “library language” and “window on the world” (Naik and Nurullah 490). At that time it was felt that a reasonable degree of proficiency in English should be essential for the award of a degree. Gradually, Government of India has decided to teach English as a “language of comprehension” rather than as a literary language.

However, it is the Secondary Education Commission which was appointed in 1952, was perhaps the first official body that was concerned with methods of teaching, materials for teaching and evaluation system. It stated- “any method, good or bad, links up the teacher and his pupils into an organic relationship with constant mutual interaction. . . . Every teacher and educationist knows that even the best curriculum and the most perfect syllabus remain dead unless quickened into life by the right methods of teaching and the right kind of teachers (Aggarwal 112-13). In the same year a list of graded structures identified by experts for teaching English in

schools was introduced in Madras for making learning easier for children. For this, the structural syllabus prepared by the Institute of Education, London was brought to India by the British Council and introduced in Madras through the Madras English Language Teaching (MELT) Campaign in 1952. In 1954 English Language Teaching Institutes (ELTIs) were set up. The first such centre was set up in Allahabad. The All India Seminar on the Teaching of English held at Nagpur in 1957 recommended a six-year course in English that would involve the use of 3,000 words and 300 structures. In 1958 the Central Institute of English (CIE, later known as the CIEFL, now EFLU) was set up with the following objectives: to train teachers of English, to produce teaching materials and to improve the standards of English teaching in India. In 1960s the Bridge Intensive Course was designed by Brendan J. Carroll, then English Studies Officer at the British Council to help learners in making themselves comfortable with undergraduate studies through the medium of English. The Regional Institute of English was set up in Bangalore in 1963. Reports on the Study of English in India were submitted in 1967 and 1971 by study groups appointed by the Ministry of Education for surveying the nature of the study of English in India. In 1977, the Bombay Project adopted a skill-based approach for teaching English at undergraduate level on experimental basis. Dr. N. S. Prabhu and his colleagues came up with a new task-oriented “Procedural Syllabus” for teaching English as a reaction against the “Structural Syllabus”. This internationally proclaimed project in English language teaching was known as the Communicational Project or the Bangalore Project (1979-84). The underlying principle of this project was “acquisition through deployment”. According to Prabhu, language was best learnt when the focus was not on form but on meaning. Prabhu appreciated the Loyola College for introducing a communicative syllabus at the undergraduate level in 1980s. He remarked, “I regard this project as

being very progressive in its operation and rewarding in its outcome. I can think of no other tertiary level institution in India which has attempted or sustained a project of this significance in the field of ELT.” (qtd. in Saraswathi 8). The establishment of the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) by the UGC at Hyderabad in 1987 was another landmark in the history of ELT in India. The goals of learning English were redefined on the basis of needs; a learner-centred, interactive, skill oriented methodology was recommended. At the same time, different syllabi were suggested to meet the needs of learners with different levels of competence.

3.2. Methods of Teaching Second Language

For Richards and Rodgers method is an umbrella term to capture approaches, designs and procedures. “It contains detailed specifications of content, roles of teachers and learners, and teaching procedures and techniques” (245). Prabhu in his article entitled- “There is No Best Method- Why?” thinks of method as both classroom activities and the theory that informs them (163). E. M. Anthony, the American applied linguist defines method in language teaching as- “an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.” (65)

Richards and Rodgers feel that despite the changing status of approaches and methods in language teaching, the study of past and present teaching methods continues to form a significant component of teacher preparation programmes, because-

- The study of approaches and methods provides teachers with a view of how the field of language teaching has evolved.

- Approaches and methods can be studied not as prescriptions for how to teach but as a source of well-used practices, which teachers can adapt or implement based on their needs.
- Experience in using different teaching approaches and methods can provide teachers with basic teaching skills that they can later add to or supplement as they develop teaching experience.

(Richards and Rodgers 16)

In Larsen-Freeman's view a study of methods is important in teacher education in at least five ways:

1. Methods serve as a foil for reflection that can aid teachers in bringing to conscious awareness the thinking that underlies their actions . . . When teachers are exposed to methods and asked to reflect on their principle and actively engage with their techniques, they can become clearer about why they do what they do.
2. By becoming clear on where they stand, teachers can choose to teach differently from the way they were taught.
3. A knowledge of methods is part of the knowledge base of teaching. With it, teachers join a community of practice. Being part of a discourse community confers a professional identity and connects teachers with others so they are not so isolated in their practice.
4. A professional discourse community may also challenge teachers' conceptions of how teaching leads to learning. Interacting with others' conceptions of practice helps keep teachers' teaching alive.
5. A knowledge of methods helps expand a teacher's repertoire of techniques.

(Larsen-Freeman ix-x)

Some popular methods of L₂ teaching which have significant influence on teaching English as L₂ are discussed below:

i) The Grammar Translation Method

The Grammar Translation Method which dominated European and foreign language teaching from 1840s to the 1940s was originally used to teach the classical languages like Latin and Greek. For this, it was called Classical Method. It was known as the Prussian Method in the United States of America. This method was developed by some German scholars like Seidenstiicker, Karl Plotz, H. S. Ollendorf, and Johann Meidinger. The Grammar Translation Method, as its name suggests, views language as a structure of structures. It aims at making language learning easier. In the beginning of the 20th century this method was used to help students in reading and appreciating the foreign language literature as it considered literary language as superior to spoken language. The chief features of this method as summarized by Richards and Rodgers are:

1. The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of target language. It hence views language learning as consisting of little more than memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language.
2. Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.

3. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization. In a Grammar Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are prescribed.
4. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language, and it is this focus on the sentence that is a distinctive feature of the method.
5. Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation, because of “the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal writing examinations that grew up during the century”.
6. Grammar is taught deductively- that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points throughout a text, and there was an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way.
7. The student’s native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student’s native language.

(Richards and Rodgers 5-6)

In Grammar Translation Method, the main objective of teaching the target language is to learn about the language, not the language itself. Here, words are taught in isolation with the help of bilingual word list, and dictionary. Students are

encouraged to memorize native language equivalents for target language vocabulary. The classroom is controlled by the teacher. In this teacher-centred method students' duty is to follow the teacher, so that they can learn what the teacher teaches. There is little scope for student- teacher or student-student interaction. If the students make error, the teacher supplies them with the correct answer. Almost no attention is paid to pronunciation. The Grammar Translation Method gives importance on attaining accuracy because, in this method, it is considered to be important for students to learn about the form of the target language. Tickoo has identified some distinctive features of Grammar Translation classroom-

- a. The language most used in the classroom is the mother tongue rather than the language being learnt.
- b. The texts serve mainly as supports to the analysis of grammar and may often not be selected to suit the learner's level of ability, her age and interests.
- c. Little or no attention gets paid to pronunciation.
- d. Translation of individual, often disconnected, sentences receive attention; so does explanation of rules and intricacies of grammar.
- e. The grammar taught is restricted to the sentence level with attention to word formation and the inflection of words.
- f. In a teacher-centered class what matters is how much and what gets taught, in the belief that teaching guarantees learning.
- g. Of the four language skills it is reading that receives the highest attention. Very often reading aloud by the teacher and by individual learners becomes a central activity.

(Tickoo 350)

Grammar Translation Method is still popular and it is still used in some FL teaching programme where understanding the literary text of the target language is considered to be the primary focus of language learning.

Contemporary texts for the teaching of foreign languages at the college level often reflect Grammar-Translation principles. These texts are frequently the products of people trained in literature rather than in language teaching or applied linguistics. Consequently, though it may be true to say that Grammar Translation Method is still widely practised, it has no advocates. It is the method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory. (Richards and Rodgers 7)

Materials Required

Grammar Translation Method which carries the legacy of German scholarship generally uses literary texts written in the target language. “In a typical Grammar-Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary is presented with their translation equivalents and translation exercises are prescribed” (Richards and Rodgers 6). In this method, different literary passages to be extracted from different works of the target language literature are frequently used and learners are given to translate such reading passage to their native language. These reading passages serve many purposes in Grammar Translation Method. Grammatical structures and vocabulary are taught with examples and exercises are given to apply the grammar rules and to use words they have already learnt, learners answer questions in the target language to test their understanding of the given passage. Learners are asked to find antonyms/synonyms, if any, in the reading passage. Sometimes learners are asked to write in the target language on a topic given by their

teacher. Since, literary language is treated a superior to spoken language in Grammar Translation Method, literary passages of the target language play an important role in this method of teaching.

ii) The Direct Method

Dissatisfaction with the Grammar Translation Method gave rise to the Reform Movement in mid-nineteenth century under the leadership of Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Vietor and Paul Passy. The Reform Movement was based on certain basic principles- primacy of speech, context based language teaching, inductive approach- which were in opposition to the basic principles of the Grammar Translation Method. Parallel to the development brought about by the Reform Movement, there emerged another development in language teaching enterprise in the beginning of twentieth century when language teaching experts moved towards searching for a natural method of teaching a foreign language as a reaction against the Grammar Translation Method. Many of them believed that a foreign language could be taught directly without the intervention of the mother tongue of the learner, if meaning could be conveyed directly through demonstration and visual aids. This monolingual way of teaching foreign language came to be known as the Direct Method. It was believed that a language could be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Since this method assumes that language is primarily speech, the focus shifted to the development of oral communication skill of the learner. Thus, the basic goal of teaching in Direct Method is to make student learn how to communicate in the target language. This particular method believes that in order to communicate in the target language effectively, the learner should learn to think in the target language. The lessons should be consisted of some conversational activities, so that the students get opportunity to use the target language in real contexts. The Direct Method is a monolingual method.

All classroom instructions are to be given only in the target language. It gives importance on teaching only those vocabulary and sentences which are used in day-to-day conversation. Concrete vocabulary should be taught through demonstration, while abstract vocabulary should be taught by relating to ideas. Pronunciation gets importance and grammar is taught inductively.

Unlike Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method is a bi-directional method which requires involvement of both teacher and students in the teaching-learning process. As the lessons contain some conversational activities based on real life situations, the teacher has to encourage the students to speak the target language as much as possible. The emphasis should be given on vocabulary, rather than on grammar. Although attention should be paid on developing all four language skills, oral communication is considered as basic. If the students make mistake in using the target language, instead of supplying with the correct answer, the teacher should facilitate self correction by the learners.

Materials Required

Learners are provided with some materials viz., a passage, play, or dialogue to read aloud. The teacher makes use of pictures, map, gesture, or other means for explaining the text. In this method some fill in the blank exercises are given without giving grammar rules. Learners are given some topics such as map-reading, the weather etc. to carry out in the target language. Since, this method is based on the principle that language is spoken not written; learners get exposed to common, everyday speech in the target language.

iii) The Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method which was very popular in the 1960s is based on the basic belief of structuralism, that “speech is primary”. In this method, foreign

language learning is considered basically as a mechanical process of habit formation. It is believed that good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. Here, language teaching is viewed as controlled and repetitive activity. Therefore, it is expected that learner should be prevented from making mistake. This method gives emphasis on immediate detection and remediation of errors as errors lead to formation of bad habits. This method believes that analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. The learner should be provided with the adequate knowledge of similarities and differences between the native language and the target language. The medium of instruction is always the target language and the goal of language learning is to learn how to communicate in that language. In this method speech is given more importance than the writing. It gives importance on the development of the four skills, viz., listening, speaking reading, and writing, in the target language. Brooks mentions that in Audio-lingual Method, a teacher must be trained to do the following- “Introduce, sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order: hearing, speaking, reading and writing. Use- and not use- English in the language classroom. Model the various types of language. Model the various types of language behaviour that the student is to learn.” (143). According to this method, the vocabulary should be taught in linguistic and cultural context, not in isolation. The focus is shifted from vocabulary to “syntactic progression”. Regarding teaching of grammar it believes that the rules necessary to use the target language can be figured out from examples. That is, grammar is taught inductively.

Materials Required

Audiolingualism, the structure based approach to language teaching gives importance on using such kind of materials which can assist the teacher to develop the

language skills of the learner. In this method, student's textbook is not used in the early phases of the course. Since it is a teacher-centred method the teacher has the access to a teacher's book for providing students with some useful vocabulary and common structures used in everyday communication through dialogues and drills. Students are provided with grammar games which are designed to practise grammar points within a context. In this method, textbooks and printed materials are introduced to the learner at a later stage.

Tape-recorders and audiovisual equipments are considered to be important teaching aids in this method. In absence of a native speaker of the target language, the tape-recorder provides accurate models for dialogues and drills. A language laboratory is also considered essential for providing students with the opportunity to carry on their further drill work. "Put a structure drill with a repetition dialogue and a role play and you get the audio-lingual style with its dependence on the spoken language, on practice and on structure" (Cook 235).

iv) The Bilingual Method

C. J. Dodson who was in favour of using the Bilingual Method for teaching L₂ believed that a method should be simple and balanced between the spoken and the written forms and at the same time, the method should be within the reach of all teachers. In his opinion only such a method can overcome the conflict between accuracy and fluency and speed up the interpersonal communication between the teacher and the taught (34-36). Dodson's Bilingual Method which aims at developing the language proficiency of the learner allows teaching of the target language with the help of the learners' mother tongue. In this method, the teacher has the freedom to use the mother tongue more liberally even in asking questions and in giving explanations and instructions in the initial stage. But in the later stages, the use of mother tongue is

reduced gradually, and classroom interaction between the teacher and the learners takes place only in the target language. It is also notable that unlike the Grammar Translation Method, only the teachers are allowed to use the mother tongue for classroom instructions; students are encouraged to use only the target language.

In this method, the interpretation of the basic sentences of the target language is done through the teacher's use of the learners' mother tongue. The teacher also explains the differences of sound system, grammar, and vocabulary of the target language with the help of the mother tongue. Unlike Grammar Translation Method, the Bilingual Method allows the use of mother tongue equivalents only at the utterance and not at the word level. So, the teacher should take care not to degenerate the Bilingual Method to Translation Method.

Materials Required

The most important materials required in Bilingual Method are the printed text. The printed text is read out by the teacher to the class with books closed. Then the students are allowed to go through the text as a support to oral imitation. Sometimes, pictures or slides are also used to teach the target language.

v) Situational Language Teaching or Oral Approach

In 1930s British applied linguists like Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby attempted to develop a more scientific foundation for an oral approach to teaching English than was evident in the Direct Method and it led to the development of the Oral Approach or Situational Language teaching. The Situational Language Teaching which is based on the "structural theory of language" identified speech as the basis of language and structure as an important component for developing communicative ability. It gives emphasis on presenting teaching material orally before it is presented in written form. The meaning of words or structures is explained neither in the native

language nor in the target language, but it is to be deduced from the way in which different forms are used in different situations. In this method, the target language is the language of the classroom and the learners are expected to use the target language with proper pronunciation. In the Situational Language Teaching new language points are introduced and practised situationally. Here in lies the basic difference between the Situational Language Teaching and the Direct Method. The Situational Language Teaching aims at presenting the teaching materials by following the principles of selection, gradation, and presentation in a systematic way. Here grammatical items are graded and taught inductively. It gives importance on overall development of all four language skills.

Materials Required

This method gives emphasis on using textbooks and visual aids. The textbooks contain some organized lessons based on different grammatical structures. Visual aids to be used by teachers are wall charts, flashcards, pictures, stick figures and so on. The teacher, in this method, may present the situations through actions or pictures.

vi) Community Language Learning

The language teaching method known as Community Language Learning (CLL) was developed by C. A. Curran, a professor of psychology from Chicago and his associates. CLL techniques belong to a larger set of foreign language teaching practices popularly described as humanistic techniques. “Humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills” (Richards and Rodgers 90). CLL involves the application of psychological counselling techniques to language learning

which results in creating an environment of “caring and sharing” in the language classroom. Richards summarizes that the principles upheld by methods like CLL are:

- the development of human values
- growth in self-awareness and understanding of others
- sensitivity to human feelings and emotions
- active student involvement in learning and the way learning takes place.

(qtd. in Tickoo 360)

This learner-centred approach aims at developing a warm and supportive community among learners. In CLL two types of interactions are found- interactions between learners, and interactions between learners and knowers. Initially, the learner tells the knower what he/she wishes to say in the target language and the knower tells the learner how to say it. By drawing the affinity between the process of learning a new language and process of developing a new personality Richards and Rodgers explain the process of language learning as-

In the first ‘birth’ stage, feelings of security and belonging are established. In the second, as the learner’s ability improve, the learner, as child, begins to achieve a measure of independence from the parent. By the third, the learner ‘speaks independently’ and may need to assert his or her own identity, often rejecting unasked-for advice. The fourth stage sees the learner as secure enough to take criticism, and by the last stage, the learner merely works on improving style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness. By the end of the process, the child has become adult. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner. (Richards and Rodgers 92)

In CLL where “whole person” learning gets priority, building relationship with and among students becomes very important. Here, initially students’ may use

their L₁ in discussing any topic of the target language. Sometimes, native language equivalents are given to the target language to make the meaning clear and it also allows the students to combine the target language words in different ways to create new sentences. But in later stages, they are to use the target language for doing classroom activities. Culture is viewed as an integral part of language learning. In CLL teacher is the acts as a “counsellor” and the learner is treated as a “client”. According to Curran, the six elements which are necessary for successful learning are- security, aggression, attention, reflection, retention, and discrimination (217). The CLL method is neither student-centred, nor teacher-centred, rather teacher-student-centred, since both teacher and students take part in decision making process in the classroom. In CLL encourages learner for taking initiative for effective learning and it views learning as a collaborative effort.

Materials Required

CLL does not consider a textbook as a necessary component of language teaching. It believes that use of text book may impede the growth and interaction of learner by imposing a particular body of language content on the learners. The conventional language syllabus is not used in CLL. A CLL syllabus emerges from the interaction between the learners’ expressed communicative intentions and the teacher’s reformulations of these into suitable target language utterances. In CLL innovative learning tasks are combined with the conventional ones. It includes activities like translation, group work, recording, transcription, listening, free conversation etc. CLL gives emphasis on such materials which may be developed by the teacher as the course develops and these types of materials include “little more than summaries on the blackboard or overhead projector of some of the linguistic features of conversations generated by students” (Richards and Rodgers 95). This

method gives importance on encouraging learners to produce their own materials, such as scripts for dialogues and mini-dramas, in the early stages. Later on, when the learners will be comfortable with the taught language, then the teacher might prepare specific materials or work with published textbooks. This method aims at developing the speaking skill of the learners with the help of reading and writing skills.

vii) Suggestopedia or Desuggestopedia

Suggestopedia, also known as Desuggestopedia is another method of language teaching which is based on humanistic approach to language teaching. Its exponent Georgi Lozanov, the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator, applied the principles of Suggestology- “a science . . . concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/ or non-conscious influences” (qtd. in Richards and Rodgers 100). Lozanov was influenced by both Indian Raja Yoga and Soviet psychology in developing Suggestopedia. “From raja-yoga Lozanvo has borrowed the techniques for altering states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet psychology Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill.” (Richards and Rodgers 100)

Suggestopedia gives importance on the decoration, furniture and the arrangement of the classroom as it believes that learner should be provided with pleasant atmosphere for effective teaching of the target language. Suggestion plays an important role in this method of learning. Lozanov believes- “There is no sector of public life where suggestology would not be useful” (2). Here, it is believed that learners can learn best if the information is provided from an authoritative source. Therefore, this method gives importance on creating a trusting learning environment for building confidence in teacher’s authority. Teacher speaks confidently and behaves authoritatively. Music occupies an important place in Suggestopedia. In this

method teacher should try to remove the “anti- suggestive barrier” such as anxiety and boredom for the enhancement of learning.

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in a harmony with musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and the second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher’s reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning. (Lozanov 272)

Here, in correcting errors the teacher must avoid direct and confrontational manner. Teaching of vocabulary is emphasized and grammar is dealt with explicitly but minimally. Initially, native language translation is used to make meaning clear. But as the course proceeds, use of the native language is reduced gradually by the teacher. The basic principles underlying Suggestopedia, as mentioned in V. Saraswathi are as follows-

- Joy and relaxation; anxiety and boredom are the chief enemies of learning.

- Learning takes place, when learners feel unthreatened, comfortable, secure, interested and amused.
- Learners learn best by gaining access to the reserve powers of the brain.
- In learning, there is a harmonious collaboration of the conscious and unconscious levels.

Materials Required

Materials required for this method include both direct support materials and indirect support materials. Here direct support materials refer mainly to text and tape-recorder. Since this method aims at enhancing the self-confidence of the learners it gives importance on using such type of textbook which contain emotional force, literary quality and interesting characters. That is, the content of the textbook should introduce the language problems in such a way that it should hold the attention of the learner. As Larsen-Freeman says- “It is believed that students will learn best if their conscious attention is focused not on the language forms, but on using the language” (83). Along with the direct support materials the indirect support materials are also considered important in this method. The indirect support materials consist of learning environment which generally comprises the appearance of the class room, the furniture and music.

viii) Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which was developed in 1960s is often considered as an approach rather than a method. It aims broadly at applying the theoretical perspective of the communicative approach by making communicative competence the goal of language teaching. In CLT, it is assumed that the main goal of learning the target language is to communicate in that language. That is, instead of linguistic competence, communicative competence is considered as the desired goal

of language learning in CLT. “The communicative approach to language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes referred to as communicative competence.” (Richards and Rodgers 159). The term communicative competence was coined by Hymes as a reaction to the Chomskian view of linguistic competence. For Chomsky, “linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attentions and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance” (qtd. in Richards and Rodgers 159). According to Richards and Rodgers, “Hymes theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community.” (Richards and Rodgers 159). That is, in Hymes defines, acquiring communicative competence by a person means acquiring both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to-

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

(Hymes 281)

It means, for achieving this goal i.e., communicative competence, the students should possess the knowledge of the linguistic forms, meanings and functions. It is based on

the belief that communication is a process; knowledge of the forms of language is insufficient. It is based on the assumption that the linguistic system of the target language is best learned through the process of struggling to communicate. The most common features of the activities which are truly communicative are: information gap, choice and feedback. Communication gap exists when one person in an exchange knows something that the other person does not know. Again, true communication is always purposeful. A speaker can evaluate whether or not his/her purpose has been achieved on the basis of the information he/she receives from the listener. The target language is the language of the classroom. Yet judicious use of the learners' mother tongue is accepted. Here, the emphasis is not on accuracy, but on fluency and acceptability. It gives emphasis on how to use the target language for day-to-day communication. The distinctive features of the CLT as outlined by Finocchiaro and Brumfit are as follows:

- i) Meaning is paramount.
- ii) Dialogues, if used, centre on communicative functions and are not morally memorised.
- iii) Contextualization is a basic premise.
- iv) Language learning is learning to communicate.
- v) Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
- vi) Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
- vii) Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
- viii) The target linguistic system will be learnt best through the process of struggling to communicate.
- ix) Speaking is given priority. Communicative competence is more important than performance.

- x) Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
- xi) Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function or meaning which maintains interest.
- xii) Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
- xiii) Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal, accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
- xiv) Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work or in their writings.
- xv) The teacher cannot know how exactly what language the students will use.
- xvi) Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(qtd. in Richards and Rodgers 157)

This approach to language has brought a paradigm shift in teaching of ESL. Tickoo has found out some characteristics which are shared by all methods which follow the principles of the communicative approach to language teaching:

1. A move towards the “process”, “task”, and “discovery” of materials.
2. A less dominant role for the teacher in the classroom together with a participatory view of the learners in it.
3. Support for their initiative and for the effort they make to arrive at meaning. (This is also termed negotiation).
4. Opportunities for learners to cooperate among themselves in attempting tasks and/or solving problems.
5. Greater tolerance towards learner errors and acceptance of their contribution to both language development and system expansion.

6. Belief in the appropriateness of use and shift of emphasis from an exclusive concern with accuracy to a much greater belief in the importance of fluency.

(Tickoo 359)

CLT advocates for a learner-centred classroom which allows for the learner to have initiative and choice in communication. The teacher will act as a counsellor. “The counsellor’s role is to respond calmly and non-judgementally, in a supportive manner and help the client to understand his or her problems better by applying order and analysis to them” (Richards and Rodgers 95).

Materials Required

CLT requires a wide variety of materials for teaching of L₂. According to Larsen-Freeman, “The most obvious characteristic of CLT is that almost everything that is done with a communicative intent. Students use the language a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role plays, and problem-solving tasks.” (129). The materials which are used to support this method are designed to develop the communicative competence of the learner. These materials are labelled as “text-based, task-based, and realia” by Richards and Rodgers (168). Text-based materials refer to different textbooks used to support CLT. These text-books aim at providing the learner with a scope to use the target language through communicative activities such as role plays and other pair activities task analysis for thematic development in a particular lesson, a practice situation description and comprehension questions related to a particular piece of writing.

In CLT, task-based materials refer to games, role-plays and different problem-solving tasks or activities. In this method, various games are used in order to create information gap to be bridged by the learners. Apart from games, these task-based materials are designed in the form of exercise handbooks, activity cards, a building

plan, picture strip stories with scrambled sentences and different pair communication practice materials. Role plays are frequently used in CLT as they give students an opportunity to practice communication in different social contexts.

In CLT realia refers to the authentic materials which are believed to be helpful in developing communicative competence in the learners. The realia may include different language-based realia such as newspapers, magazines, advertisements and the adherents of CLT have advocated the use of authentic materials instead of those materials which are written according to certain structured specifications. These authentic materials may include language-based realia such as a real newspaper article, magazines, advertisements, menu cards, a live radio or television broadcast, and different graphic and visual sources like maps, pictures, graphs, charts and some visual clippings which will be useful for preparing communicative activities. “Often there is no text, grammar rules are not presented, classroom arrangement is nonstandard, students are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher, and the correction of errors may be absent or infrequent” (Richards and Rodgers 166).

ix) The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach owes its origin to Tracy Terrell, a teacher of Spanish in California and Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California. It was developed out of Terrell’s experiences in teaching Spanish classes and Krashen’s theory of L₂ acquisition. In discussing the similarities and dissimilarities between the Natural Approach and Natural Method, Richards and Rodgers say:

Although the tradition is a common one, there are important differences between the Natural Approach and the older Natural Method The term

natural, used in reference to the Direct Method, merely emphasized that the principles underlying the method were delivered to conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Similarly, the Natural Approach, as defined by Krashen and Terrell, is believed to conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful L₂ acquisition. Unlike the Direct Method, however, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target-language sentences. In the Natural Approach, there is an emphasis on exposure, or input, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. (179)

The exponents of the Natural Approach believe that the primary function of language is communication. So, emphasis is given on teaching communication abilities. The basic assumption in the Natural Approach is that the learners should not try to learn the target language in the usual sense, because learning cannot lead to acquisition. Acquisition can take place only when the message of the target language is understood. Hence it views language as a vehicle for communicating messages. Here, emphasis is given on teaching vocabulary and meaningful language input, not on grammar. The goals of the Natural Approach are determined by the needs of the learner. Here, assessment of student needs becomes important. In this approach, initially the teacher speaks; the learners remain silent until they feel ready to speak. Learners are provided with language input repeatedly for using it in communicative purpose. The language acquirer is treated as a processor of comprehensible input. The acquirer is challenged by giving input of advanced level, i.e., slightly beyond his/her

current level of competence and he/she is to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extra-linguistic information. Here, learners are engaged in activities that focus on meaningful communication, not on activities where language form are emphasized. It believes that for effective teaching, the learners should be motivated by reducing their anxiety and boosting their self-confidence.

Materials Required

Materials used in the Natural Approach aims at enhancing comprehension by providing learners with some classroom activities related to the real world. This method uses different instructional materials to make the classroom as meaningful as possible by supplying “the extra linguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire” (Krashen and Terrell 55). The Natural Approach makes use of materials like pictures and other visual aids for facilitating the acquisition of a large amount of vocabulary within the classroom. Other materials which are frequently used in Natural Approach are schedules, brochures, advertisement etc.

In Natural Approach preference has been given on using authentic materials for making classroom activities as meaningful as possible by supplying “the extra linguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire” (Krashen and Terrell 55). According to Richards and Rodgers the selection, reproduction and collection of materials place a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher.

x) Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) was developed by considering tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. In language teaching, task means an activity that is carried out using language, such as finding

solution to puzzle, reading a map, making telephone call, writing letter, etc. In Richards and Rodgers opinion- “Tasks are believed to foster processes of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are the heart of second language learning” (228). According to Skehan, “Tasks are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use. So, task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching.” (20)

In TBLT, the focus is on process, rather than product. It seems TBLT is primarily influenced by the theory of learning rather than the theory of language. It is based on the assumption that real communicative activities are essential for learning a language. TBLT aims at providing learners with a natural context for language learning. It believes that learners can learn the target language by interacting with one another while they engage themselves in the work of completing their given tasks. Language learning is believed to depend on immersing learners not merely in “comprehensible input” but in tasks that require them to negotiate meaning and involve in naturalistic and meaningful communication. As Candlin and Murphy think, “The Central purpose we are concerned with is language learning, and tasks present this in the form of a problem-solving negotiation between knowledge that the learner holds and new knowledge” (1). In TBLT, the order generally followed in sequencing the tasks are- initially comparatively easier tasks are given; thereafter gradually difficulty level is increased. In judging the difficulty level of a task the following factors are taken into consideration: the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, the degree of

support available. Here, much emphasis is given on vocabulary, rather than, the structure.

Materials Required

The instructional materials play an important role in TBLT because this method is dependent on a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks, some of which may require considerable time, ingenuity and resources to develop. According to Richards and Rodgers teacher can play a vital role in selecting, adapting, and/or creating the tasks themselves and then forming these into an instructional sequence in keeping with learner needs, interests and language skill level (236). In Prabhu's approach, the teacher designs which tasks are to be worked on. According to Prabhu, TBLT requires materials which include three types of tasks: information-gap activity, opinion-gap activity and a reasoning-gap activity. For this the teacher can provide learners with some pictures to describe some social problems to find out solutions and railroad timetable to find out the best route to get from one particular city to another, and some riddles. The proponents of TBLT also give importance on using authentic tasks supported by authentic materials such as newspapers, television, internet etc.

xi) The Post-Method Era

The post-method era considers language teaching not in terms of a particular methodological prescription, as language learning is always situation oriented. No doubt, method is a systematic way of presenting instructional materials, yet sometimes it marginalizes of teacher's role. All methods have their own strengths and weaknesses. The language teaching philosophy determines the method of teaching and the method in turn, defines the role of the language teacher. According to Richards and Rodgers:

The commonest solution to the “language learning problem” was seen to lie in the adoption of a new teaching approach or method . . . the Direct Method was enthusiastically embraced in the early part of the twentieth century as an improvement over Grammar Translation. In the 1950s the Audio-lingual Method was thought to provide a way forward, incorporating the latest insights from the sciences of linguistics and psychology. As the Audio-lingual Method began to fade in the 1970s, particularly in the United States, a variety of guru-led methods emerged to fill the vacuum created by discrediting of Audio-lingualism, such as the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and Suggestopedia. While these had declined substantially by the 1990s, the new “breakthroughs” continue to be announced from time to time, such as Task-based Instruction, Neurolinguistic Programming, and Multiple Intelligences, and these attract varying levels of support. (244)

In such a situation, selecting a suitable language teaching method has become a challenging job for the teachers. Moreover, the same method may not be suitable in different situations and environments as “most good methods are products of local studies of local needs” (Tickoo 393). In the method era, language teaching was confined to the theoretical frameworks. As a result, both “approaches and methods are often promoted as all-purpose solutions to teaching problems that can be applied in any part of the world and under any circumstance. In trying to apply approaches or methods, teachers sometimes ignore what is the starting point in language programme design, namely, a careful consideration of the context, in which teaching and learning occurs, including cultural context, the political context, the local institutional context, and the context constituted by the teachers and learners in their classrooms.” (Richards and Rodgers 248).

Language teaching practices in the post-method era breaks away from single method concept. H. D. Brown mentions:

Our requiem for the methods might list four possible causes of demise-

1. Methods are too prescriptive, assuming too much about a context before the context has been identified. They are therefore over-generalized in their potential application to practical situations.
2. Generally, methods are quite distinctive at the early, beginning stages of a language course and rather indistinguishable from each other at the later stages.
3. It was once thought that methods could be empirically tested by scientific qualification to determine which one is the “best”. We have now discovered that something as artful and intuitive as language pedagogy cannot ever be so clearly verified by empirical validation.
4. Methods are laden with “interested knowledge”- the quasi-political or mercenary agendas of their proponents. Recent work in the power and politics of English language teaching has demonstrated that methods, often the creations of the powerful “centre,” become vehicles of a “linguistic imperialism” targeting the disempowered periphery.

(Brown 10)

The language teaching practice in the post-method era gives emphasis on both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. It believes that for effective teaching of a particular language, language teaching should be concerned with the classroom- its setting, its socio-economic fabric, and its socio-cultural factors, as well as with the needs of the learners. David Nunan says- “It has been realized that there never was and probably never will be a method for all, and the focus in recent years has been on

the development of classroom tasks and activities which are consonant with what we know about second language acquisition, and which are also in keeping with the dynamics of the classroom itself” (228).

In the post-method era, it is expected that instead of being monolithic, the teacher would be “eclectic” in their methods of teaching L₂. Larsen-Freeman says, “When teachers who subscribe to the pluralistic view of methods pick and choose from among methods to create their own blend, their practice is said to be eclectic”(183).

The post-method era envisages the belief that instead of adhering to a particular method, the teacher should create his/her own method on the basis of his/her knowledge of the existing methods. “Therefore, there is much more to teacher development than learning how to use different approaches and methods of teaching. Experience with different approaches and methods, however, can provide teachers with an initial practical knowledge base in teaching and can also be used to explore and develop teachers’ own beliefs, principles, and practices.” (Richards and Rodgers 252)

It is also required that the teacher should be able to blend ideas taken from different methods in a principled way. In post-method era, language teaching approach has become so flexible that it can be adapted to suit a wide range of teaching-learning situations. Advocating for a “principled approach”, H. D. Brown claims, “One’s approach to language teaching is the theoretical rationale that underlies everything that happens in the classroom. It is the cumulative body of knowledge and principles that enables teachers, as ‘technicians’ in the classroom, to diagnose the needs of the students, to treat students with successful pedagogical techniques, and to assess the outcome of those treatments.” (12). Brown says, “A

principled approach to language teaching encourages the language teacher to engage in a carefully crafted process of diagnosis, treatment, and assessment. It enables us initially to account for communicative and situational needs anticipated among designated learners, and to diagnose appropriate curricular treatment for those specific learners in their distinctive context and for their particular goals. It helps to devise effective pedagogical objectives which have taken into account all the contextual variables in a classroom.” (13). Brown further says, “In so doing, they will be less likely to bring a pre-packaged and possibly ineffective method to bear, and more likely to be directly responsive to their students’ purposes and goals” (17).

It is realized that in teaching L₂ an individual teacher may adopt different strategies at different times by taking into account the socio-economic and educational background of the learners, number of the learners and their needs. That is, the classroom teaching practices which reflect the teacher’s belief are shaped by different factors. Clark and Peterson say that the most resilient teacher’s belief is formed on the basis of teacher’s own schooling as young student while observing teachers who taught him/her. A teacher’s experience in teaching and learning helps him/her in applying innovative teaching technique for making the teaching learning process effective. As Brown says, “Initial inspiration for such innovation comes from the approach level, but the feedback that teacher gather from actual implementation then reshapes and modifies their overall understanding of what learning and teaching are- which, in turn, give rise to a new insight and more innovative possibilities, and the cycle continues” (11). A changing and doing teacher can improve the qualities of his instructional efforts.

Though methods are believed to be the systematic way of presenting the teaching materials, they at the same time, marginalize the teacher’s role. Success of a

method depends upon the strict adherence to its rules. For that, the teacher must have to accept the claims and theory underlying the method. Accordingly, the students have to submit themselves to the regime of exercises and activities. In a method, there is often little room for the teacher's own personal initiative and teaching style, as he/she has to submit himself/herself to the prescribed method. At the same time, a method which may be found suitable for a place may not be suitable for another place. Methods are often full of claims and assertions by the method gurus about how a language is learned and thereby how a language should be taught. Many of them are empirically tested and therefore, may not be that much scientific, as they are claimed to be. "Generally, methods are quite distinctive at the early, beginning stages of a language course, and rather indistinguishable from each other at a later stage. In first few days of a Community Language Learning class, for example, the students witness a unique set of experiences in their small circles of translated language whispered in their ears. But within a matter of weeks, such classrooms can look like any other learner-centred curriculum." (Brown 3)

Materials Required

In the post-method era L₂ teaching practices have become simple, flexible, and learner-centred. The teachers are free to choose their materials according to the learners' need. Teacher can use materials which are necessary for drills, role-plays, solving problems, interviews, discussions, information gap activities. The teacher can also make use of some text books and other materials designed to teach the target language. However, the teacher should make sure that the materials used for teaching the target language must contextualize the language they present. As Wright says, since teachers teach with, rather through materials, they should feel free to improvise and adapt in response to learner feedback. "Effective teaching material, by providing

cultural and linguistic input and a rich selection of integrated activities, are thus a professional tool which can actually assist teachers to be more responsive, both by leaving them time to cater to individual needs and by expanding their teaching repertoire” (Crawford 88). In this world of multimedia, the teacher can use audiocassette, video and computer for teaching the target language effectively. The use of personal computer as teaching material is becoming very popular as it gives scope for spell-check, grammar and appropriate vocabulary. “Hi-tech visual images are a pervasive feature of young people’s lives. Text-books, worksheets, and overheads are a poor match for this other, more complex, instantaneous and sometimes spectacular forms of experience and learning Teachers are having to compete more and more with this world and its surrounding culture of the images.” (Hargreaves 75)

3.3. Methods of Teaching Prose, Poetry, Grammar, Pronunciation, and Composition

Since English is taught as L₂ in India, it is used to carry out different educational, official, commercial, and social activities within the country. According to Jesa, “We follow three-language formula which holds that English is to be taught for utilitarian purpose along with mother-tongue and a modern Indian language. In developing the skills with communication as the aim, English language teaching deals with purposeful skills corresponding to social demands and limited by situation and subject matter”. (16). Thus, the chief aim of teaching English in India is to develop the four language skills- listening, speaking, reading, and writing of the learners for developing the “communicative competence” in the learner. So, in order to fulfil the objectives of teaching English in India, it becomes necessary to make the language learning interesting. Accordingly, the course designers give importance on including

prose and poetry in the English course meant for schools and colleges. Gillian Lazar (15-19) has found out some reasons behind using literature in the language classroom:

- as a motivating material
- for giving access to cultural background
- for stimulating language acquisition
- for enhancing students' language awareness
- for developing students' interpretative abilities by exposing them to literary texts containing multiple levels of meaning
- for educating the whole person by developing students' critical abilities and increasing emotional awareness

It is also seen that grammar and composition occupy an important place in English syllabus designed for schools and colleges. As Bhatia and Bhatia says- "Grammar may be taught with a view to giving clear ideas respecting the function and relation of words and therefore, a clear insight into the meaning of language, to helping the pupils in improving their oral and written expression in the light of the accepted principles of usage and with a view to training them to think clearly and connectedly; to judge, to apply and to sift" (339). On the other hand, the aim of teaching composition is to develop the writing skill of the learner. Some methods of teaching prose, poetry, grammar, and composition put forward by different ELT experts and educationist are discussed below:

i) Methods of Teaching Poetry

The objectives of teaching poetry are to impart pleasure, to help the student in experiencing the feelings and aspirations of great man, to make them familiar with the rhythm of the language, and to provide them with the joy of reading and reciting

poems. The inclusion of poetry in English course can help in developing the reading skill of the student. The curricular objectives of teaching poetry stated by Jesa are:

To enable the learner to-

- listen to and recite poems
- appreciate rhythm, feeling etc.
- collect recordings of poems
- write a few poetic lines
- collect poems with same rhythmic pattern

(18)

In speaking about importance of teaching poetry Bhatia and Bhatia says- “The study of a poem will bring out the significance of similarities and metaphors, the imagery and pictures, the particular arrangement of words employed the beauty of its word-pictures, thoughts and the music” (329). Thus, aim of teaching poetry is always associated with giving pleasure of reading. According to Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy:

A poem not contains the content, the theme or the subject matter, but also the way it is said, the rhythm of its verse, the special beauty and music, the poetic diction, the figurative features and the suggestive power. A poem conveys the poet’s imagination, mood and feelings through words as well as music. These are to be conveyed to the learners while teaching a poem; that is where the teaching of a poem is different from teaching of prose . . . The focus of a prose lesson is more on teaching language but the aim of a poetry lesson is what is usually called “appreciation” or, to be more precise, enjoyment; the teaching of poetry must be a lively, stimulating and challenging participatory activity.(168)

In a poem, a student may come across some words which can be replete with powerful figurative meaning beyond its fixed lexical meaning. Here it becomes imperative in teaching poetry to provide students with the adequate knowledge of how to appreciate a poem. The meaning of appreciation may differ for different levels of learners. Though “appreciation” generally refers to critical or scholarly interpretation of a particular poem, sometimes if the teacher can make the students feel pleasure in reciting a particular poem or in reading or listening to it, the teacher would be succeeded in making the learners appreciate the poem. Hence as said by Bhatia and Bhatia, in teaching poetry it is required that the teacher should introduce the poem with the help of the “synthetic mode of introduction”, i.e., by giving a preliminary talk on the main theme of the poem. After introducing the poem the teacher should read it aloud with proper intonation so that the students can make themselves familiar with the language and rhythm of the poem. After reading the poem, the teacher should teach the poem as a whole for giving the general idea of the poem. Instead of explaining the literal meaning only, the teacher should try to find out the central ideas of the poem by interpreting it with students’ co-operation. This will be followed by a final reading of the poem by the teacher. According to Lazar, in teaching poetry at higher level there should be a discussion about the poet as well as historical background of the poem. In course of teaching the poem the students should be provided with figurative meanings of the words, close analysis of particular words and phrases, if any, and there should be a discussion on the language of the poem. At the final stage, the teacher should put forward his/her personal reactions to the theme of the poem and students should be encouraged to participate on discussion/debate on theme or subject matter of the poem. In teaching poetry, students should be exposed to different critical comments given by different critics on the particular poem.

ii) Methods of Teaching Prose

The teaching of prose aims at bringing language control through mastery of structures and vocabulary. It is also believed that the prose pieces may help the students in developing their ability to express their ideas in the target language. The prose pieces meant for intensive reading are included in the English syllabus in order to provide the students with the knowledge of the usage of the English language and to help the learners in learning functional grammar. The curricular objectives of teaching prose may be stated as:

To enable the learner to-

- listen to short speeches, narrative, commentaries
- take notes on the listened piece
- express ideas in one's own way
- take part in seminars, discussions
- present pieces of dialogue
- dramatize situations
- express ideas selecting the appropriate words and functions
- read and understand short essays
- understand messages, advertisements, brochures
- sequence ideas and present in writing
- suggest appropriate title
- expand an idea
- write letters using different formats
- prepare reports

(Jesa 18)

It seems that teaching of prose is basically related to comprehension. Unlike the teaching of poetry, in teaching of prose detailed explanation of words, phrase and idioms, structures, and other grammatical items and their uses are required. “The factors that are to be considered in exploiting a prose passage for teaching are: (a) linguistic complexity, (b) length of the passage, (c) interest level and (d) the aims of teaching that particular passage” (Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy 152).

In teaching prose, according to Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy, the teacher should at first, try to arouse the interest of the student for the prose prescribed for teaching. For motivating the students, the teacher can ask some guiding questions which are related to the content of that particular text or something which helps students to relate the text with their own experiences. Then, the teacher should read the text aloud with the students keeping their books closed for giving the students an opportunity to develop their listening skill. It can also work as a good reading model. After that the teacher should read the text aloud with the students keeping their books opened in order to exploit the text linguistically. At this stage, the teacher should explain new words, structures and other grammatical items found in that text. The students should also be taught the proper pronunciation of certain words and they should be taught how to read connected speech with proper pause and intonation. Then, the students should be given to read silently, and find out the meaning of the text. At this stage, student may try to understand the use of some new words and grammatical items in the context of the text and here the intensive teaching of prose may be helpful for students.

The intensive teaching of prose is one of the most important devices of language teaching. To teach a prose piece intensively the teacher should provide the student with suitable introduction and for this the teacher should prepare himself by

going through the content of the text. The new words and phrases should be taught in their proper context. The grammatical items should be taught on the basis of meaningful context and not as discrete items. For removing difficulties the unfamiliar references should be explained by using (if possible) suitable illustrative aids. In course of teaching, the teacher should ask the students some questions, e.g., wh-questions, yes-no questions, true-false statements— in order to test students' comprehension of the text. The students can also be encouraged to hold a discussion on the main issues of the text, present a verbal or written review on that particular text. The teacher can also make the text lively by engaging the students in different activities such as- dramatization (if possible) of the prose piece, presentation of other's point of view, making some changes in mode of narration, or making graphic representation of the text. "The activities suggested for exploiting a text need not be crowded into a single lesson. It is not also necessary to exploit every part of a prescribed prose lesson in an exhaustive manner. Depending on the nature of every passage, the activities can be verified to generate interest and enjoyment, resulting in learning." (Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy 152)

iii) Methods of Teaching Grammar

The teaching of grammar has become a controversial topic as there are equally valid arguments on both sides- whether grammar should be taught or not. In Rod Ellis' view, one should consider two major questions regarding the teaching of grammar in L₂ pedagogy:

1. Should we teach grammar at all?
2. If we should teach grammar, how should we teach it?

There are some applied linguists who are not in favour of teaching grammar. Most of them believe that knowledge of grammar is not much helpful in learning to

communicate in the target language. Krashen has argued that formal instruction in grammar will not contribute to the development of that knowledge which is required to participate in authentic communication. Prabhu has tried to show, with some success that classroom learners can acquire L₂ grammar naturalistically by participating in meaning-focused tasks. While some others, including Ellis, have argued that grammar teaching does aid L₂ acquisition, although not necessarily in the way teachers often think it does. (Ellis 167)

While speaking about the importance of teaching grammar in L₂, V. Saraswathi remarks, “Second language learners should be taught grammar to compensate for the lack of exposure to language. Since the method of teaching rules first does not seem to work, we could start with communication first and then elicit the rules of Grammar for them. Grammar tasks which are contextualized, life-oriented, meaning-focussed, interactive and minimal in the use of labels may prove interesting and useful.” (101)

By viewing study of grammar as a prerequisite of language learning, Jesa says, “Grammar is the means through which linguistic creativity is achieved and inadequate knowledge will lead to serious limitation in communication. Faulty grammar may result in ambiguity or obscurity in meaning; ungrammatical speech will shock the educated listener and proclaim the speaker’s lack of culture. Thus knowledge of grammar has a practical and social value”. (84)

Advocating for the necessity of teaching of grammar in L₂, Tickoo says:

Grammar teaching continues to be dogged by controversies: on its place and roles, on how grammar can help or harm learners at various levels of learning and on how best grammar can be taught in FL classrooms. Some recent studies in language classrooms have shown however, that (i) not all the essential

aspects of grammar are learned without being deliberately taught even in those second language classrooms where the target language serves as medium, (ii) intentional learning often works better than incidental learning, and (iii) grammar teaching in association with meaningful use of language is time well used in most classroom contexts. . . . Grammar is best taught by methods and techniques that encourage learner discovery of rules and provide for both usage and use. (186-87)

Generally two types of grammar are found: i) Prescriptive or Traditional or Formal Grammar and ii) Descriptive or Functional Grammar. The Prescriptive Grammar which gives importance on accepted forms, prescribes the rules for a language. But the Descriptive Grammar which describes the behaviour of the language gives emphasis on the functional aspect of a language. Though some rules are found even in this type of grammar, it gives importance on introducing these rules in meaningful context.

Before the advent of the communicative approach to language teaching, teaching of grammar had been considered as an integral part of the L₂ teaching. But the communicative approach to language teaching believes that the knowledge of grammar may not be much essential for one to communicate in that language. Again, in the post-method era, there has been a rethinking about grammar teaching. Now-a-days, it is being increasingly accepted that “language learning is essentially learning how grammar functions in the achievement of meaning” (Widdowson 221). It has also been realized that adequate knowledge of grammar is essential for developing the “linguistic creativity” in learners. “It has also been realized that in an acquisition-poor environment (where most learners may not have adequate exposure to the language and may not get scope for acquiring the language through continuous

interaction) some teaching of formal grammar may be useful” (Sarma and Mahapatra 62-63). Sarma and Mahapatra also suggest that in Indian context, the teaching of grammar should be related to the teaching of the textbook (63). By giving emphasis on teaching grammar as discourse rather than teaching grammar as isolated forms, Parveen Sharma has given some suggestions for successful teaching of grammar:

- Grammar lesson should begin with language. It must correlate with speech in which a sentence is a unitary whole with reading.
- Grammar should not be taught as an intellectual exercise of the pupils but aim should be to make them skilful users of language.
- Teach grammar for communication not grammar for its own sake.

It seems that teaching of grammar requires a method which includes both inductive and deductive principles. The learners should be provided with some examples related to a particular grammatical item and on the basis of the examples the learner can elicit the usage or rules. That is, the teacher should proceed from particular to general and when the students can formulate a rule or definition of a particular grammatical item, they should be given to use it, by giving examples and illustrations. In teaching grammar, the teacher should focus on teaching functional grammar and the students should be provided with exposure to apply those roles in their ordinary day-to-day communication.

iv) Methods of Teaching Pronunciation

In ELT, teaching of pronunciation becomes essential because of the poor correlation that exists between the letters and sounds of English. It may cause confusion for L₂ learners of English, as they are usually exposed to English only in the English classroom where the main source of English is the prescribed textbook. In such situation, the teacher has to act as a role model as said by Krishnaswamy and

Krishnaswamy, “the teacher’s pronunciation, choice of words, phrases, idioms and sentence create the proper environment for learning English. Teachers can teach the language or the subject only through their competence in the use of the language.”(81)

In teaching of English as L₂, the teaching of pronunciation aims at attaining clarity and intelligibility rather than native-like perfection. Because, it is seen that native speakers of English vary from each other even within each major English-speaking country as they use different dialects of English. “Pronunciation is protean: differing from person to person, indeed from one person speaking slowly (or emphatically) to the same person speaking fast (casually); and the gradations of ‘difference’ can be big and obtrusive or infinitesimally small, observable only to the trained ear of a phonetician. So an absolute uniformity in pronunciation would be difficult to achieve and it is almost inconceivable.” (Quirk and Stein 122). Hence, learners should be taught to pronounce in such a way that it becomes intelligible both within and outside their country.

But most L₂ teachers use “integrated pronunciation teaching” as Joanne Kenworthy terms it where pronunciation is an incidental to other aspects of language. That is, in course of teaching, some teachers just correct the wrong pronunciation of the learners. “One clear implication from SLA research is that the learning of sounds is not just a matter of mastering the L₂ phonemes and their predictable variants . . . Learners have their own inter-language phonologies, temporary rules of their own. The sounds of the language are not just separate items on a list to be learned one at a time, but are related in a complex system . . . teaching or correcting a single phoneme may not have much effect on the students’ pronunciation, or may even have wrong effect. It is like taking a brick out of a wall and replacing it with another.” (Cook 80-81)

Moreover, in a linguistically plural country like India, where several varieties of English can be found, it is difficult to decide which variety of English should be adopted for teaching pronunciation in the classroom. In India also, Received Pronunciation or RP is supposed to be the standard variety. But, there is another variety, known as General Indian English (GIE) -a non-native variety, developed to meet needs of global intelligibility without rejecting regionalisms altogether is popularly used by educated people of India. Apart from this GIE, there is another variety called Educated Indian English (EIE), “a variety of English spoken by a majority of educated Indians which is generally free from regional features” (Tickoo 109). According to Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy, “Since GIE is already used in social and classroom conditions in India, there may not be any need to ‘teach’ it consciously. The Indian teacher of English, as pointed out earlier, can minimize the regional accent and make the classroom free from regional features. This will be an achievable aim in teaching spoken English and serve the purpose within the country.”(59-60)

Most of the applied linguists support that constant practice in listening and speaking will be helpful for improving one’s pronunciation. Again, in teaching pronunciation the teacher should give emphasis on teaching those sounds of English which cause problems for learners. For this, the teacher should teach both segmental (sounds: vowels and consonants) and supra-segmental (word, sentence, stress, intonation and rhythm) features of English. The teacher can also use recorded materials produced by EFLU and other institutions for teaching spoken English. Learners should be encouraged to listen to BBC for standard British English, the CNN for standard American, and other Radio and TV programmes conducted in English for learning pronunciation and spoken English.

v) Methods of Teaching Composition

The main objective of including the unit called composition in most of the ELT courses is to develop the learner's ability of creative writing and to help them in expressing their ideas in writing. Krishnaswami and Krishnaswamy hold, "Writing is understood in two ways: (a) the mechanics of writing and (b) composition, the art of composition" (39). The mechanics of writing is taught at the initial stages. Thereafter, the teacher moves gradually towards the teaching of composition.

The teaching of composition is generally classified into two broad categories- guided composition and free composition. In guided composition, the learners are given practice in writing under the control of teacher. They are provided with the necessary structures, vocabulary items, functions, thoughts, and ideas by the teacher. Even the topic will be selected by the teacher. In guided composition, the teacher should give importance on selecting familiar, meaningful, and interesting topic(s). The guided composition is usually considered to be suitable upto the secondary level, while for the higher level, free composition is preferred. In free composition, the students have the freedom to choose their topic(s) and to express their ideas freely. The teacher in his/her turn will point out the students' mistakes by using marking code, such as "sp" for "spelling mistake". In a formal classroom context, where the practise of free composition is not always possible, the students can be given sufficient practice of guided composition, which will lead them to free composition.

In teaching composition- both guided and free, the students can be given to write short paragraphs, short essays, and letters, and to summarise passages. Students may also be given practice in integrated skills activities. That is, for developing the confidence in handling the written language, the students should be given practice on

using the language in realistic situations which require a combined use of all language skills.

3.4. Syllabus

3.4. 1. Definition of Syllabus

A syllabus can be defined as a statement of plan which determines the context of a particular course and specifies what will be taught and evaluated. There are different definitions of syllabus put forward by different applied linguists at different points of time. Stern defines syllabus as- “a statement of the subject matter, topics or areas to be covered by course leading to the particular examination” (qtd. in Saraswathi 47). According to Yalden, a syllabus “is a public document, a record, a contract, an instrument which represents negotiation among all parties involved” (13). Rodgers defines syllabus as “the selection and organization of linguistic content- vocabulary, grammar, notions, functions- to be taught” (qtd. in Saraswathi). By making a distinction between curriculum and syllabus Saraswathi says that curriculum includes “goals, objectives, content processes, resources and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of school” where as a syllabus is “a blue print or a statement of plan which the teacher converts into the reality of a classroom” (46).

3.4.2. The Emergence of the Concept of Syllabus Design in ELT

The teaching of English as L₂ became immensely popular after the World War-II. In countries like the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada demand for English courses increased because of immigrants, refugees and foreign learners. By the 1950s, English began to play the role of international communication as it entered in the field of travel and tourism, trade and commerce, and mass media. As a

result, the ELT profession started exploring new directions in methodology during those times of “methodical excitement”.

At the initial period, the quest for better methods in ELT began with the assumption that more up-to-date teaching methods were necessary for meeting the changing needs of language learners. From the 1950s, the Situational Approach or the Structural-Situational Approach or Situational Language Teaching was considered as a mainstream method of language teaching in British language teaching circles. The Situational Approach or Situational Language Teaching was developed on the basis of the Oral Approach that had been developed during 1920s and 1930s as a result of the search for a new method of language teaching to replace the Grammar Translation Method. In countries like Malaysia, India and Hong Kong, “The curriculum of English medium schools in the early 1950s followed the tradition of English teaching in British schools, with the integration of language and literature” (Ho 222). The Situational Approach or Situational Language Teaching was linked to a grammatical and lexical syllabus which was basically related to the Structural Method propounded by Harold Palmer. In Australia, the English teaching courses meant for immigrants were based on the Structural-Situational Approach during 1950s. But the changing status of English around the world led to the emergence of the communicative approach to language teaching in the late 1960s and in 1970s, it was adopted as a replacement for the Structural Situational Method and Audiolingual Method which dominated the American language teaching scenario during 1960s. With this development in language teaching profession, there came another development in 1980s, i.e., curriculum development in language teaching.

The history of language teaching reveals that curriculum development in language teaching starts with the notion of syllabus design. Issues of syllabus design

had started emerging as a major factor in language teaching much earlier than the view that curriculum development process should consider as the central element in any language teaching programme. Syllabus design, the process of developing a syllabus, started playing a significant role in the history of language teaching since 1920. With the advent of Palmer's Structural Method in the 1920s, applied linguists showed their interest in the issues of the content and syllabus design underlying the structural method. Their approaches to syllabus design supported linguistically oriented syllabus which were concerned with the teaching of vocabulary and grammatical items in the language teaching course. It resulted in the introduction of the procedures known as selection and gradation in language teaching. In the early part of the twentieth century two aspects of selection- vocabulary selection and grammar selection began to play important role in different language teaching courses and approaches to these two aspects of selection laid the foundation for syllabus design in language teaching. It led to the emergence of two types of syllabi known as Lexical Syllabus and Grammatical Syllabus. From the 1930s, applied linguists came up with Grammatical Syllabus designed by applying principles of selection and they provided important guidelines for the teaching of English during that period. Michael West's syllabus entitled- "A General Service List of English Words", which was published in 1953 with a list of some 2,000 general service words, was considered as one of the important Lexical Syllabi of ELT programme. In Britain, Hornby developed a comprehensive Grammatical Syllabus through his books entitled- *Guide to Patterns and usage in English* (1954) and *The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns* (1959) on the basis of structural approach to teaching English. Fries, the American linguist, published his books entitled- *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1946) and *The Structures of English* (1952) where he

included some major structures which he thought necessary for foreign students. The structures outlined by Fries formed the basis for the grammatical component included in different materials developed at the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan. The Michigan materials remained as dominant methodology for teaching ESL learners for more than 20 years in the United States. But the ELT has been preoccupied with quest for better method since 1960 and it has led to the development of different ELT syllabi in language teaching profession. “The upsurge in English language teaching (since the mid-1950s) was accompanied by the introduction of new methods and materials in the classroom, particularly during the 1960s” (Jupp and Hodlin 8). And in the 1970s, CLT emerged with the work of revolution of language teaching polices and this revolution process viewed language teaching in the “whole context of teaching and learning” (Richards) and it gave emphasis on identifying the “social and learner needs” in teaching and learning of L₂. This approach to learner-centred teaching led to the emergence of the languages for specific purposes (LSP) movement, which is known as ESP (English for specific purposes) in ELT circles. Contrary to the English courses meant for general purposes, the ESP prepares learners for carrying out particular roles such as role of flight attendant, mechanic or tourist guide. However, in the 1980s and 1990s, the communicative language teaching movement led to the search for principles for the development of communicative syllabi. Breaking away from the traditional approach which focused on grammatical approach, ELT started to give emphasis on the development of the communicative competence of the learner.

David Nunan has come up with the view that there is need for identifying “learning goals” which will be translated into “instructional goals” in course of time. “The term ‘goal’ refers to the general purpose for which a language programme is

being taught or learned. While we shall take into consideration a variety of goal types, the focus will be principally on communicative goals. These are defined as the general communicative activities in which the learners will engage (or, in the case of foreign language learning, could potentially engage) in real world target language use". (25)

Though methods are generally concerned with the orderly presentation of material in language teaching, they also make assumptions about the content of a particular language teaching course. By making a distinction between a "narrow" and a "broad" approach to syllabus design, Nunan remarks that narrow approach to syllabus design draws a clear destination between methodology and syllabus design- "Syllabus design is seen as being concerned essentially with the selection of learning tasks and activities. Those who adopt a broader view question this strict separation, arguing that with the advent of communicative language teaching the distinction between content and tasks is difficult to sustain." (5)

Language syllabi are categorized in different types on the basis of the aims and objectives of different approaches to L₂ teaching and syllabus design. In the L₂ teaching world, language syllabi have been specified on the basis of various criteria. ELT syllabi have been developed on the basis of different objectives of L₂ teaching and syllabus design: linguistic competence, communicative competence, functional/notional, skill-based, tasked-based and content-based.

David Nunan has divided the language syllabi into two categories, "Product-Oriented" and "Process-Oriented" syllabi: "product syllabuses are those in which the focus is on the knowledge and skills which learners could gain as a result of instruction, while process syllabuses are those which focus on the learning experiences themselves" (27). Under this product-oriented category, Nunan has discussed different types of syllabi such as Analytic and Synthetic Syllabi,

Grammatical and Functional Syllabi. Process-Oriented Syllabi include Procedural Syllabi, Task-Based Syllabi and Content-Based Syllabi. In speaking about some important language teaching syllabi, Tickoo has mentioned three different syllabus frameworks: the Structural Syllabus (SS), the Notional- Functional Syllabus (NFS) and the Communicative Syllabus. Jack C. Richards has discussed different types of language syllabi such as- Grammatical (or Structural) Syllabus, Functional Syllabus, Lexical Syllabus, Situational Syllabus, Topical or Content-Based Syllabus, Competency-Based Syllabus, Skills Syllabus, Text-Based Syllabus, and Integrated Syllabus.

The study reveals that the ELT syllabus design and development have always been subjected to the development of the approaches and methods of teaching English. Although both Lexical and Grammatical Syllabi played significant role in the development of language teaching materials since the inception of the concept of syllabus design in L₂ teaching, it was Grammatical Syllabus- the syllabus that defines learning units in grammatical terms, which had been regarded as the central basis in developing a language course. But, with the emergence of CLT; applied linguists particularly from the Council of Europe, have started to give emphasis on the notion of communicative competence- “the capacity to use language appropriately in communication based on the setting, the roles of the participants, and the nature of the transaction”, rather than on the notion of grammatical competence- “the knowledge people have of a language that underlies their capacities to produce and recognize sentences in the language competence.” (Richards 36). It resulted in the appearance of the Functional Syllabus in ELT. The CLT movement started re-examining the traditional approaches to syllabus design in 1980s and 1990s, which led to the search for principles for the development of communicative as well as learner-centred syllabi

in ELT. It contributed in the emergence of different communicative syllabus frameworks such as Competency-Based Syllabus, Text-Based Syllabus, Task-Based Syllabus and Skills Syllabus.

3.4.3. Different Types of Language Syllabi

Some popular language syllabus frameworks are discussed below:

i) Grammatical Syllabus

The most common syllabus type was, and probably still is, one in which syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. The most rigid Grammatical Syllabi supposedly introduced one item at a time and required mastery of that item before moving on to the next. Generally, Grammatical Syllabus has been used to develop general courses for beginning level learners. It seems that the common belief behind most of the Grammatical Syllabi is that language consists of a finite set of rules which can be combined in various ways to make meaning. It is believed that these rules can be learned one by one, in an additive fashion, each item being mastered on its own before being incorporated into the learner's pre-existing stock of knowledge. It is based on the assumption that the main goal of language teaching is to help learners to "crack the code". Rutherford describes it as the "accumulated entities" view of language learning. According to Richards- "Choice and sequencing of grammatical items in a grammar syllabus reflect not only the intrinsic ease or difficulty of items but their relationship to other aspects of a syllabus that may be being developed simultaneously. The syllabus planner is typically mapping out grammar together with potential lesson content in the form of topics, skills and activities, and for this reason grammatical syllabuses often differ from one course to the next even when targeting the same proficiency level". (153)

According to McDonough: “The transition from lesson to lesson is intended to enable material in one lesson to prepare the ground for the next, and conversely for material in the next to appear to grow out of the previous one” (21).

According to Nunan, Grammatical Syllabus has made some assumptions about language transfer, “It is generally assumed that once learners have internalized the formal aspects of given piece of language, they will automatically be able to use it in genuine communication outside the classroom”. (30)

ii) Topical or Content-Based Syllabus

Topical or Content-Based Syllabus is information focussed syllabus as learning units are specified in terms of themes, topics, or other units of content in this syllabus. In designing this syllabus the content rather than grammar, functions, or situations is regarded as the starting point. Content may provide the sole criterion for organising the syllabus or a framework for linking a variety of different syllabus strands together. Generally, all language courses must include some form of content. But unlike Topical or Content-Based Syllabus, with other approaches to syllabus design, content is incidental and it is used to provide a context for practising language structures, functions or skills. In Topic or Content-Based Syllabus, as said by Richards, “content provides the vehicle for the presentation of language rather than the other way around” (158). According to Krahnke, “It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct effort to teach the language separately from the content being taught” (65). The assumption behind Content-Based Syllabus is that “unlike science, history, or mathematics, language is not a subject in its own right, but merely a vehicle for communicating about something else” (Nunan 38). It is also assumed that Content-Based Syllabus can be

used to reflect the curriculum in its entirety by defining the content in terms of other academic subjects that learners study.

iii) Functional Syllabus

In 1970s the CLT movement, as a reaction against the Grammatical Syllabus, gave birth to the idea of expressing a syllabus in terms of communicative units rather than grammatical ones. Consequently, different applied linguists came up with a variety of proposals for Communicative or Functional Syllabi in 1970s and 1980s. These syllabi are termed as Functional Syllabi or Notional- Functional Syllabi. Describing the goal of syllabus designers Yalden says:

This means that if we now wish to make up the deficit in earlier syllabus types, and ensure that our learners acquire the ability to communicate in a more appropriate and efficient way, we have to inject a larger number of components into the make-up of the syllabus. These components could be listed as follows:

- As detailed a consideration as possible for the purposes for which the learners wish to acquire the target language.
- Some idea of the setting in which they will want to use the target language (physical aspects need to be considered, as well as social setting)
- The socially defined role the learners will assume in the target language, as well as the role of their interlocutors.
- The communicative events in which the learners will participate everyday situations, vocational or professional situations, academic situations and so on.
- The language functions involved in those events, or what the learner will be able to do with or through the language.

- The notions involved, or what the learner will need to be able to talk about.
- The skills involved in the “knitting together” of discourse: discourse and rhetorical skills.
- The variety or varieties of the target language that will be needed and the levels in the spoken and written language which the learners will need to reach.
- The grammatical content that will be needed.
- The lexical content that will be needed.

(86-87)

According to Nunan, “The broader view of language provided by philosophers of language and sociolinguists was taken up during the 1970s by those involved in language teaching, and began to be reflected in syllabi and course books. The use of these functional and situational aspects of language systematically into the language syllabus gave rise to what became known as functional notional syllabus design.”(35). Functional Syllabi such as Threshold Level provided the first serious alternative to a Grammatical Syllabus as a basis for general-purpose course design and here functions were identified by making an analysis of the purposes for which learners use a second/foreign language. The Functional Syllabi became very popular as a basis for organising courses and materials in 1980s for the following reasons:

- They reflect a more comprehensive view of language than grammar syllabuses and focus on the use of the language rather than linguistic form.
- They can readily be linked to other types of syllabus content .
- They provide a convenient framework for the design of teaching materials, particularly in the domains of listening and speaking.

(Richards 155)

The Functional Syllabus defines the learning units in semantic terms, i.e., it focuses on meaning rather than form. For this, it gives emphasis on analyzing the learner needs. In Functional Syllabus, as said by Nunan, “functions may be described as the communicative purposes for which we use language, while notions are the conceptual meanings (objects, entities, state of affairs, logical relationships, and so on) expressed through language” (35). According to Tickoo, notions encompasses the concepts like time, quantity, location, agent, and so on and functions include greeting, seeking or granting permission, apologising, arguing for or against etc. “The NFS thus organizes the syllabus on meaning-based categories. By paying attention to their what and how, it can ensure that the learner learns language for actual use in life.” (Tickoo 246). Since Functional Syllabus is meaning-focussed, it automatically pays attention to other aspects of language use such as vocabulary, pronunciation etc. Finocchiaro and Brumfit advocated the functional-notional orientation in syllabus designing for the following reasons:

- It sets realistic learning tasks.
- It provides for the teaching of everyday, real-world language.
- It leads us to emphasise receptive (listening/reading) activities before rushing learners into premature performance.
- It recognizes that the speaker must have a real purpose for speaking, and something to talk about.
- Communication will be intrinsically motivating because it expresses basic communicative functions.
- It enables teachers to exploit sound psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, linguistic and educational principles.
- It can develop naturally from existing teaching methodology.

- It enables a spiral curriculum to be used which reintroduces grammatical, topical and cultural material.
- It allows for the development of flexible, modular courses.
- It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language courses.

(17)

iv) Procedural and Task-Based Syllabus

Despite some differences in practice, the principles underlying Procedural and Task-Based Syllabi are very similar. In fact, they are seen as synonymous by Richards, Platt and Weber, who describe them both as follows:

a syllabus which is organized around task, rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary. For example, the syllabus may suggest a variety of different kinds of tasks which the learners are expected to carry out in the language, such as using the telephone to obtain information, drawing maps based on oral instructions, performing actions based on commands given in the target language, giving orders and instructions to others etc. It has been argued that this is a more effective way of learning a language since it provides a purpose for the use and learning of a language other than simply learning language items for their own sake. (289)

The Task-Based Syllabus, where tasks form the basic learning units, is specially designed to facilitate L₂ learning. The Task-Based syllabus is commonly used in CLT classrooms. The Task-Based syllabus is organized around a problem-solving task that students will complete in the target language. Long and Crooks claim that tasks “provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language sample to learners-input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities, and for the delivery of comprehension and

production opportunities of negotiable difficulty” (3). In this syllabus, tasks refer to some activities which are to be carried out by learners using language such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy. 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 an instruction and performing a command”. (Richards, Platt, and Weber 289). It is assumed by the L₂ acquisition theorists that in the process of using their minimal linguistic resources in executing their tasks, learners unconsciously acquire more language. “Tasks are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real life language use.” (Skehan 20)

Nunan defines tasks as- “The communicative task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.” (Nunan 10)

Generally, Tasks-Based Syllabi are based on two types of tasks: pedagogical tasks and real-world tasks. According to Richards, pedagogical tasks (which the learner is required to execute in the classroom) are based on L₂ acquisition theory and are designed to trigger L₂ learning processes. Some of such tasks are as follows:

Jigsaw tasks: These tasks involve learners in combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g., three individuals or groups may have three different types of a story and have to piece the story together)

Information-gap-task: Tasks in which one student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information in order to complete an activity.

Problem solving tasks: Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.

Decision-making tasks: Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.

Opinion exchange tasks: Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.

(Richards 162)

Prabhu speaks about three task types which were used in the “Bangalore Project”:

- i. *Information-gap activity*, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another, or from one form or another, from one place to another- generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language.
- ii. *Reasoning-gap activity*, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns.
- iii. *Opinion-gap activity*, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation.

(46-47)

Real world tasks which may be defined as tasks that the learner may perform in real life situation “are designed to practice or rehearse those activities that are

found to be important in a needs analysis and that turn out to be important and useful in the real world”. (Richards 162)

Both Task-Based and Procedural Syllabi share a concern with the classroom processes which stimulate learning. They therefore differ from syllabi in which the focus is on the linguistic items that students will learn or the communicative skills that they will be able to display as a result of instruction. In both approaches, the syllabus consists, not of a list of items determined through some form of linguistic analysis, nor of a description of what learners will be able to do at the end of a course of study, but of the specification of the tasks and activities that learners will engage in class.

v) Skills Syllabus

In language teaching skills always occupy an important place. Traditionally, listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW) have been identified as four important skills in language syllabus design. Skills Syllabus is specified in terms of “the different underlying abilities that are involved in using a language for purpose such as reading, writing, listening, or speaking. Approaching a language through skills is based on the belief that learning a complex activity such as listening to a lecture’ involves mastery of a number of individual skills or micro-skills that together makeup the activity”. (Richards 159). The main focus of Skills Syllabus is how language is acquired.

vi) Situational Syllabus

This learner-based syllabus is organized around the language needed for different situations such as at the airport or at the post office. The assumption behind this syllabus is that it is situation which determines the selection of linguistic forms. Here, situation refers to a setting in which particular communicative acts take place. “A situational syllabus identifies the situations in which the learner will use the

language and the typical communicative acts and language used in that setting” (Richards 156). Situational Syllabi which give emphasis on mastering expressions frequently, encountered in particular situations provide learner with context- based language.

vii) Integrated Syllabus

In the later half of 20th century applied linguists observed that all syllabi designed for language teaching reflect some degree of integration. As a result, applied linguists like Allen and Yalden formed two different syllabus frameworks by integrating some aspects of the Structural Syllabus, the Notional-Functional Syllabus and the Process Syllabus. The syllabus model formed by Allen is known as a Variable Focus Syllabus and Yalden’s syllabus model is called Proportional Syllabus. Yalden’s syllabus is based on three principles:

- i) a view of how language is learned, which would result in a structure based syllabus
- ii) a view of how language is acquired, which would result in a process-based syllabus
- iii) a view of how language is used, which would result in a function –based syllabus

(qtd. in Denise Finney 76)

Yalden gives emphasis on teaching structures before introducing functions and after teaching functions learners should be provided with tasks or topics for applying and using the language creatively. By discussing the merits of Integrated Syllabus Yalden says that it “would seem to allow the syllabus designer the most freedom to respond to changing or newly perceived needs in the learners, and at the same time provides a framework for the teacher who may not be able or willing to “go fully

communicative” (120). Like Yalden, Allen also identifies the need of three components in his variable focus syllabus. He considers that the syllabus should include all levels all the time, but the emphasis has to be changed depending on the stage of learning-

Table-4: Mixed-focused syllabus

<i>Structure/ Function</i>	<i>Function/ Skills</i>	<i>Task/ Theme</i>
Greater emphasis on structure and functions	Targeting specific functions	Remedial structural work
Introduction of learning strategies and techniques	Application through task-based and problem-solving activities	Task-based syllabus, focus on learning processes and strategies to encourage creative language use
<i>Elementary levels</i>	<i>Pre-intermediate levels</i>	<i>Intermediate and above</i>

(Finney 76)

Richards believes that at the first level, a syllabus can be organized grammatically, and then the grammar presented functionally, or the first level may be functional where grammatical items can be included according to the demands of different functions.

viii) Text-Based Syllabus

It is built around texts and sample of extended discourse. This can be regarded as a type of situational approach because the starting point in planning a syllabus is analysis of the contexts in which the learners will use the language. A Text-Based Syllabus is a type of integrated syllabus because it combines elements of different types of syllabi.

3.5. The Role of Teaching Materials in Teaching English as Second Language

3.5.1. Definition of Materials

Materials are main component in most of the language teaching programmes. The term “materials”, here refers to anything that facilitates learning in language teaching programme. In language teaching courses materials are regarded as basis for providing students with the target language exposure within the classroom itself. Materials used for language teaching called teaching materials as well as instructional materials. In this dissertation the words materials, (teaching or instructional) materials, textbook, and coursebook will be used interchangeably.

3.5.2. Role of Materials in ELT

Sometimes, teaching materials play the role of a primary teaching resource by providing the basis for the content of lessons and the kinds of language practice students take part in. In such cases, teaching materials turn out to be the complete recipes for teaching. But sometimes, materials are used to supplement the teacher’s instruction. Materials, which are the indispensable part of any teaching learning programme, help teachers in converting the content of the syllabus into reality of the classroom teaching. Teaching materials help the learners by providing them with the access to major source of contact they have with the language apart from the teacher.

Jane Crawford says:

Both teachers and materials writers of course, walk a tightrope. The teachers’ challenge is to maintain the balance between providing a coherent learning experience which scaffolds learner comprehension and production and modeling effective strategies without losing responsiveness to the unique situation and needs of each learner. The textbook writer’s challenge is to provide materials which support, even challenge, teachers and learners, and

present ideas for tasks and the presentation of language input without becoming prescriptive and undermining the teacher's and the learner's autonomy. (88)

Teaching materials always play a crucial role in language teaching programme. Materials are used as a basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. As a result, syllabus design and material production are closely connected with one another. However, according to the traditional view, materials and methodology are two different aspects of language teaching programme. But, now it is realized that materials and methodology are closely interlinked. According to most of the ELT experts, material writers should be familiar with the teaching techniques and contents of those likely to use their materials. As Allwright asserts that though materials may contribute to both goals and content, they cannot determine either. What is learnt, and indeed, learnable, is product of the interaction between learners, teachers, and the materials at their disposal. Instructional materials must adequately support the teaching methods adopted by the teachers. Appropriate teaching materials can help inexperienced teachers in their professional development as these materials can provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons selected for the course.

By viewing material design as pedagogic problem, Saraswathi points out that “the theory (approach to learning) is translated into a method, taking into consideration the practical constraints. This method is then implemented through a set of teaching techniques, which determine the nature of the materials”. (112). In her opinion material design in language teaching is influenced by the theory of language, theory of learning, learner needs and objectives of learning.

Traditionally, materials referred to textbooks alone in language teaching programme. However, now-a-days, language teaching materials include authentic materials as well as other specially designed instructional resources, apart from the textbooks. With the introduction of the communicative approach to language teaching in the late 1960s and 1970s, language teaching programmes began to use different form of teaching materials. In talking about “instructional” materials Jack C. Richards has categorized these materials as- (a) printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets or readers, (b) non-print materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer based materials, (c) materials that comprise both print and non print sources such as self-access materials and materials on the internet. In addition, materials not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspapers and TV materials. (251)

Authentic materials refer to such teaching materials which were not originally prepared for pedagogic purposes. V. Swaraswathi has used the term “non-pedagogic” materials for authentic materials. In ELT, newspapers, photographs, brochures, timetables, advertisements, leaflets, memos, visiting cards, etc. are treated as authentic materials. The assumption behind looking for authentic materials in the language teaching course is the belief that these materials can bring the external world into classroom, thereby blurring the boundaries between the classroom and authentic social contexts.

Different ELT experts have used different terms for materials which are specifically designed for facilitating language learning. Jane Crawford calls them “pre-planned materials”, Julian Edge and Sue Garton use the term “published materials”, and Jack C. Richards calls “created materials”. Here the terms “created

materials” or “published materials” will be used to refer to this particular type of teaching material.

Allwright has suggested two different views regarding the role of textbook in the language classroom: “The First- the deficiency view, which sees the role of text books or published materials as being to compensate for teacher’s deficiencies and ensure that the syllabus is covered using well thought out exercises. The difference view, on other hand, sees materials as carriers of decision best made by someone other than the teachers because of differences in expertise.” (qtd. in Crawford 81). Littlejohn (in Hutchinson and Torres 316) shows negative attitude towards created materials when he says that textbooks “reduce the teacher’s role to one of managing or overseeing pre-planned events”.

According to Clark, for the development of “real life” competencies among learners, they should be exposed to such kind of language which takes place outside the course setting and contains a pragmatic value. Clark also asserts that linguistic ability broken down into its different components is not much helpful in developing communicative proficiency. Notwithstanding the diverse attitudes about textbooks, most linguists come to an agreement that these books have role to play in language teaching. As said by McDonough and Shaw, “There are very few teachers who do not use published course materials at some stage in their teaching career. Many of us find that it is something that we do very regularly in our professional lives.” (63)

McGrath holds- “What is important is that teachers should see the course-book not as the course but as an aid to fulfilling the aims and objectives which they have themselves formulated” (4).

By discussing the role of published materials in teaching English Cunningsworth says that a textbook can serve the purpose of a storehouse of

presentation material, a means for self-directed learning, and a prop for less experienced teachers, provided it is considered as an aid to teaching. In the same way, Rea-Dickins and Germaine state, “materials are only part of the cooperative management of language learning” (29).

Tomlinson has identified some shortcomings inherent in such materials which hinder language acquisition. To him, the language presented in the materials is basically “simplified” and “de-contextualized” which denies the learners opportunities to encounter real language. Moreover, the materials provide some practice tasks which are too controlled and mechanical and such materials aims at producing “accurate outputs rather than successful outcomes.” (Tomlinson 8)

Thus, though textbooks are recognized as an indispensable part of language teaching, the ELT experts advocate for judicious use of such created materials. Moving beyond criticisms, different linguists have come up with various proposals for preparing effective materials. Tomlinson has presented a comprehensive list of general theoretical principles. Some of the characteristics of good teaching materials as pointed out by Tomlinson are:

- Materials should achieve impact.
- Materials should help learners feel at ease.
- Materials should help learners to develop confidence.
- What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.
- Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.
- Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.
- Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.
- The learners’ attention should be drawn to linguistics features of the input.

- Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.
- Materials should take into account that learners have different learning styles.
- Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

(qtd. in Richards 263)

Crawford remarks that “Effective teaching materials, by providing cultural and linguistic input and a rich selection of integrated activities, are thus a professional tool which can actually assist teachers to be more responsive; both by leaving them time to cater to individual needs and by expanding their teaching repertoire” (88). Crawford goes on to say that language activities incorporated in materials should be contextualized, realistic, meaningful, and purposeful.

Bolitho’s proposals emphasises on incorporating such “language awareness activities” in textbooks which will make the students think critically “about how language is used for different purposes” and provide them with a “real context to their struggles with language systems” (425). Mares thinks that as language learning is an unpredictable and non-incremental process, the materials should not be prescriptive in nature. Rowntree summarizes the role of good materials in the learning process in the following way:

- Arouse the learners interest
- Remind them of earlier learning
- Tell them what they will be learning next.
- Explain new learning content to them
- Relate these ideas to learner’s previous learning
- Get learners to think about new content

- Help them get feedback on their learning
- Encourage them to practice
- Make sure they know what they are supposed to be doing
- Enable them to check their progress
- Help them to do better.

(92)

Jack C. Richards has given importance on designing quality teaching material which should reflect following principles:

- Gives learners something they can take away from the lesson.
- Teaches something learners feel they can use.
- Give learners a sense of achievement.
- Practices learning items in an interesting and novel way.
- Provides opportunities for self-assessment.

(264)

Richards further comments that “No matter what form of materials teachers make use of, whether they teach from textbooks, institutional materials or teacher-prepared materials, the materials represent plans for teaching As teachers use materials they adapt and transform them to suit the needs of particular groups of learners and their own teaching styles. These processes of transformation are at the heart of teaching and enable good teachers to create effective lessons out of the resources they make use of.” (270)

According to Dudley Evans and St. John, good provider of materials can make maximum use of existing materials by selecting appropriately from what is available for teaching as well as by modifying existing materials to suit the need of the learner.

But they have observed that “only a small proportion of good teachers are also good designers of course materials” (173).

Shulman’s views on teaching can be applied to the processes of materials development- “The key to understanding the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by students” (15).

CLT- which focuses on communication as its organizing principle advocates that teaching materials should be “authentic-like” i.e., learner should be exposed to that type of target language input which is not artificially constrained. It gives importance on using authentic materials in order to overcome the problem associated with created materials. In language teaching, created materials refers to textbooks and other materials which are specially designed for language teaching purpose. The adherents of CLT believe that created materials fail to equip learners with the skills required for day to day world. Nunan remarks- “Course book do not always explicitly state what it is the learner should be able to do as a result of undertaking a particular activity or unit of work. However, it should be possible to rewrite course book content in the form of objectives i.e., in a form which states what learners will do in and out of class” (127). In the post-method era, materials designers have given importance on using “sourcebook” instead of a “course-book”. It is assumed that teachers will be able to choose activities and tasks according to their need as a sourcebook can provide a rich source of activities and tasks.

The ELT experts like Philips and Shettlesworth, Clark, and Peacock have identified some advantages of authentic materials which are summarized in the following way:

- They have a positive effect on learner motivation because they are intrinsically more interesting and motivating than created materials. There is a huge supply of interesting sources for language learning in the media and on the web and these relate closely to the interests of many language learners.
- They provide authentic cultural information about the target culture. Materials can be selected to illustrate many aspects of the target culture, including culturally based practices and beliefs and both linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour.
- They provide exposure to real language rather than the artificial text found in created materials that have been specially written to illustrate particular grammatical rules or discourse types.
- They relate more closely to learner needs and hence provide a link between the classroom and students needs in the real world.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching. In using authentic materials as a source for teaching activities, teachers can develop their full potential as teachers, developing activities and tasks that better match their teaching styles and the learning styles of their students.

(qtd. in Richards 252- 253)

Commenting on the use of language teaching materials which are mixture of both created and authentic materials, Clarke says, “ Such books (begin to) take on the area, if not the activity, of authenticity, containing considerable amounts of photographically reproduced ‘realia’, in the form of newspaper articles, maps, diagrams, memo pads, application forms, advertisements, instructional leaflets and all the rest. Some books indeed, almost entirely consist of authentic material, including illustrations, extracted from newspapers or magazines.” (79)

Cunningsworth asserts that course materials for English should be regarded as the teacher's servant and not his master. Cunningsworth summarizes the role of materials in language teaching as:

- a resource for presentation of materials (spoken and written)
- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation etc.
- a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities
- a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives)
- a support for less experience teachers who have yet to gain in confidence

(15)

Cunningsworth again suggests some criteria for textbook evaluation:

1. They should correspond to learner's needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language learning program.
2. They should reflect the uses (present and future) that learners will make of the language. Textbooks should be chosen that will help equip students to use language effectively for their own purposes.
3. They should take account of students' needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a rigid "method".
4. They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

(qtd. in Richards 258)

3.5.3. Teaching Aids as Supplementary Materials

The effectiveness of teaching materials can be enhanced by using teaching aids or "non-print materials" as supplementary materials. Teaching aids can be used "to transmit learners' skills, attitudes, knowledge, facts, understanding and

appreciation” (Krishnan 87). Teaching aids can be used to bring more variety into language lessons. Apart from the traditional teaching aids, application of technological aids such as audio cassettes, video, and computer can foster language learning. Video can be used as a form of entertainment for motivating students. It is because of the visual potential of the video, the teacher and learner can explore both verbal and non-verbal aspects of language.

Teacher can use audio cassettes to give students access to the most appropriate forms of spoken language. It can be used to develop listening and speaking skills of the learner. The computer can be used as one of the versatile teaching aids which can supplement instruction and enhance instructional capabilities. It can be used to develop different communication skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Computer with multimedia facilities can be used to facilitate interaction among the learners. “Instructional materials are no longer confined to the printed ones; audio and video cassettes, educational programmes on radio and television are becoming sources of much valued support as are the texts becoming available on the computer.” (Tickoo 276). According to Jesa, all kinds of teaching aids such as audio, visual and audio-visual aids can be used to:

- Improve teaching-learning process
- Set readiness
- Help easy understanding
- Aid memory
- Provide recreation
- Create interest
- Effect stimulus variation
- Give clarity, precision and accuracy

- Provide concrete experiences
- Development of language skills through repetition
- Improve quality of language

(Jesa 92)

In language teaching-learning, computers were widely used as teaching aids in Computer Assisted Language Instruction (CALI) in 1960s. Over the last two decades CALI has been replaced by Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). It is resulted in the shifting of focus from teaching to learning. Some of the beliefs discussed in this segment will be considered as the basis for determining the relevant evaluation framework for the present research. These assumptions are presented in Figures-

Figure- 1: Material Should

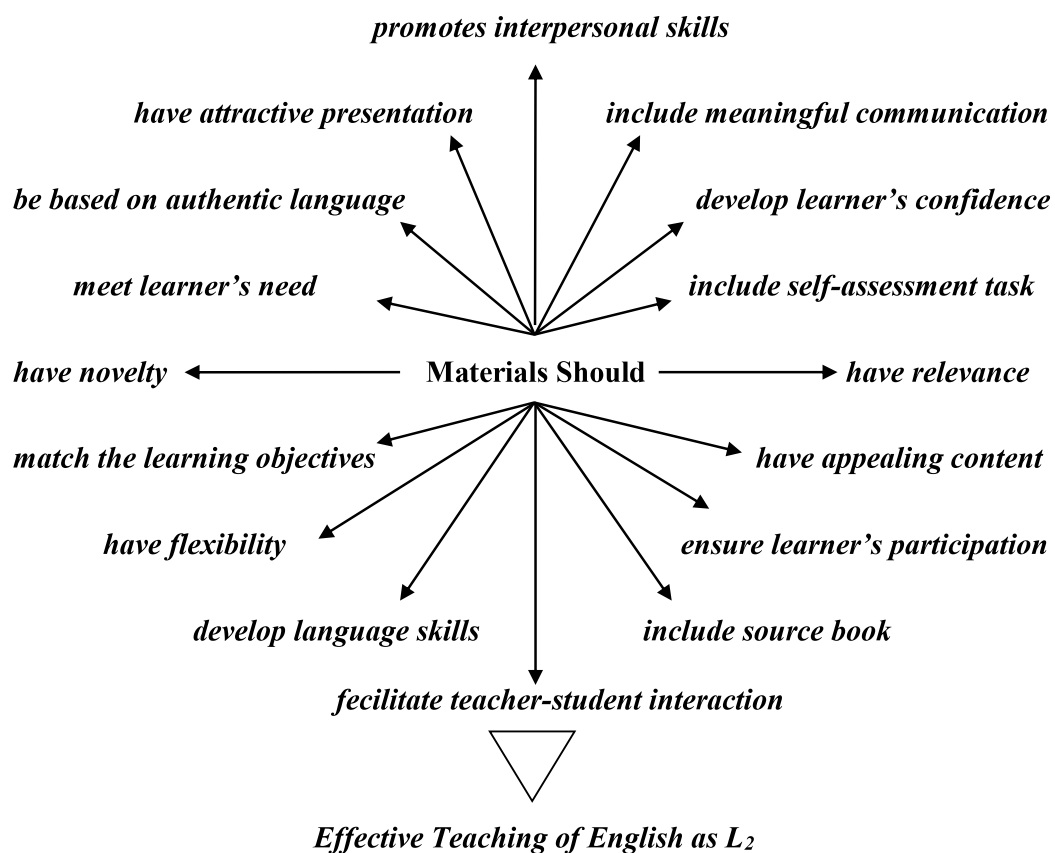
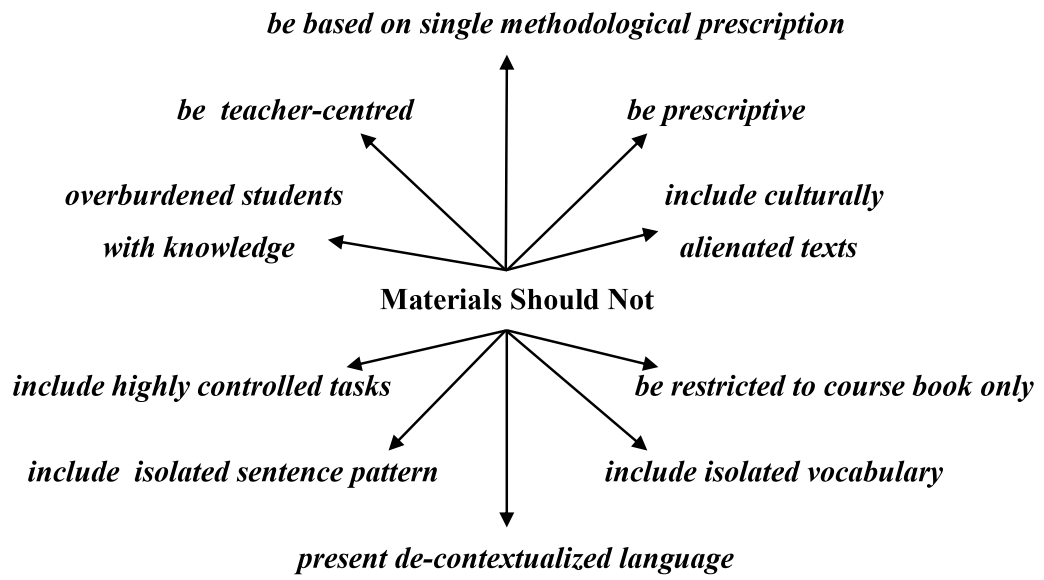


Figure- 2: Material Should Not



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