CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH
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AND RESEARCH

A brief review of the related literature and researches done earlier is very important. It helps the researcher in research methodology while exploring the problem under study. It gives researcher guidance for research procedure as well as it shows how much research work has been done and how much scope is still there. It is also helpful in identifying the outcomes of the research.

A vast amount of research work has been done in the field of cognitive development and language development. Jean Piaget has propounded a stage theory i.e. cognitive development theory. In India very few researches have filled the line of Piaget’s development theory.

In some aspects the title of Piaget’s first book ‘The Language and Thought of the Child’, was a misnomer, for indeed its main emphasis was on thought through language. This is why it was decided to change the order of the words and to call this introductory paper, “Thought and Language”. Numerous were the books and articles that ensued, none of which dealt specifically with the structure of language as an isolated phenomenon Piaget has always looked upon language as merely one aspect of the overall semiotic function, which is referred to in more detail later.
However, to return to Piaget’s first book, it can be seen that he has already stressed the functional role of verbal contained some insights into child logic and child explanations of physical phenomena and of moral judgement, which Piaget was to develop in far more detail in his later writings. The first book also placed emphasis on the concept that language first accompanies action as if it were a very part of it, whereas with the gradual process of decentation, language can replace affective action.

While we are on the subject of decentation processes, brief reference should be made to Piaget’s concept of the “egocentric speech” of the young child as opposed to the “socialized speech” of the more advanced child.

As is well known, the very notion of egocentricity sparked at a lengthy retort by Vygotsky (1967).

Although Piaget frequently reinterpreted this notion for those who had misunderstood it, it is nonetheless striking to see that still in the 1970s Arthur Blumenthal (1970) wrote “egocentric speech... is the notion that a child first talks only for himself and for his own pleasure.”

For Piaget, egocentric speech does not imply ‘ipso facto’ a lack of desire to communicate; what Piaget wanted to convey was something far more profound about the psychological function of language; that the young child, although of ten attempting to communicate, cannot yet
differentiate between his own point of view and that of others. It is just as if the child assumes that everything that he can see or that he knows is seen or known identically his listener. How often a child has merely covered his eyes to hide from another person (because the child can no longer see the person). The problem of the acquisition processes of the verb to 'see' have since been analysed by Combon and Sinclair (1974).

This admittedly brief discussion of the relevance of Piaget’s early work to later developments, seems to demonstrate that it would be an over simplification to assume, as do many of Piaget’s critics, that he neglected the role of language in cognitive development while simultaneously using language to study child thought. Although it is true that much of the experimental work did include verbal exchange as one of the indispensable tools for attaining child concepts of space, causality, time, and so forth, we rapidly introduced new experimental designs with material that can be manipulated. Furthermore, more recent experimental work on imagery (Piaget and Inhelder, 1966), on memory (Piaget and Inhelder, 1968) and or cognitive strategies (Karmiloff, Smith and Inhelder, 1975, Inhelder, Ackermann-Valladao, Blanchet, Karmiloff-Smith, Kilcher, Mantangero and Rober, 1976) has been almost non-verbal in approach and has confirmed indirectly the basic tenets of Piagetion theory, while breaking new grounds in symbolic representation.
At the term of the century, William and Clara Stern (1907) no longer considered one-word utterances as isolated words but rather as one-word "sentences", whose function it was to enable the child to "take a position" about external events.

There seems to be a universality in the common structures that the human child gradually builds during the sensorimotor period. Contrary to Chomsky's position, Piaget has posited continuity between the sensorimotor action patterns and the semiotic function. If there are "cognitive universals", is it really so surprising that there exist "linguistic universals?" Is it really necessary to invoke innate-linguistic structures, or can we not rather look upon the gradual construction of the early cognitive universals as preparing the ground for the later linguistic ones (Sinclair, 1971, 1973, 1974).

Outside Piaget's school of thought, there has frequently been a tendency to explain cognitive development either by isolated factors or by combinations of factors. For years, philosophers, linguists and psychologists, posited a causal relationship between language and thought.

The importance of sensorimotor actions has been frequently stressed, we should like to quote a simple, yet most telling statement of Piaget's : "Nommer, c'est agir sur les objects." in other words, by meaning an object the child already act on it."
These researches have related the following findings:

i. Egocentric speech... is the notion that a child first talk only for himself and for his own pleasure.

ii. No longer considered one-word utterances as isolated words but rather as one-word ‘sentences’ whose function it was to enable the child to ‘take a position’ about external events.

iii. There seems to a universality in the common structures that the human child gradually builds during the sensorimotor period.

In this chapter, the review of studies is grouped and presented in Six sections as follows:

SECTION – I : COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

SECTION – II : CONSTITUENTS OF A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK APPROPRIATE TO THE SPECIFICATION OF A PERSON’S COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

SECTION – III : COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)

SECTION – IV : THE LANGUAGE TESTING

SECTION – V : RESEARCHES ABROAD

SECTION – VI : RESEARCHES IN INDIA
In trying to develop a programme to improve the English speaking skills of Marathi medium students, it would seem inappropriate to work within one particular linguistic theory. It may will be the case that a theory of linguistics (in the sense of formal linguistics) is neither the necessary nor the sufficient basis for such a study.

'There is no guarantee that generative transformational grammar, or for that matter any other linguistic theory, will be able to account for all the facts about language which native speakers possess', (Jakobovits, 1970). Furthermore, some of the ideas or activities with which this study is concerned may not be dealt with by such existing theories.

It is proposed, therefore, to operate within a theoretical perspective or framework, which will be derived from a particular view of the concept of competence. A theoretical framework will ensure that, in the designing of our model, programme, the researcher was asked appropriate questions from a consistent standpoint. Such a procedure should also have the incidental advantage of allowing the programme, model to accommodate developments without sacrificing the underlying philosophy.

Chomsky (1965) : Chomsky's view of what it means to know a language is reflected in his distinction between linguistic competence
and linguistic performance. (This distinction has a psychological orientation and is not the same as de Saussure’s ‘langue’ and ‘parole’).

In ‘Aspects of the Theory of Syntax’ (1965) Chomsky writes: ‘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 limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

The perfect knowledge referred to here is the mastery of the abstract system of rules by which a person is able to understand and produce any and all of the well formed sentences of his language, i.e. his linguistic competence. The actual use of language, affected by what he terms grammatically irrelevant conditions, and identified with the criterion of acceptability, not grammaticality, is the domain of linguistic performance.

Two major problems arise from the foregoing. These concern (1) two different interpretations or claims that Chomsky makes for competence and (2) his line of demarcation between competence and performance.

Although some kind of competence may underlie the actual use of language, it does not necessarily follow that this consists of the rules of
transformational grammar, at least not as formulated in the Standard Theory. Chomsky’s neutral definition of competence is purely descriptive; his stronger definition is offered as the basis for a theory of cognitive processes – for the actual use of language.

As has been observed, such a claim must be subjected to empirical validation, and in so far as there seems little evidence at present that the rules of TG (Standard Theory) represent how the mind operates, and given that on the contrary such a process seems implausible in that the human mind appears to operate heuristically rather than algorithmically, any ‘stronger’ definition of this underlying linguistic competence must refer to a system of rules that has a form and is organised in a way that has psychological reality.

‘Although a distinction of this kind is undoubtedly both a theoretical and methodological necessity in linguistics, it is by no means certain that Chomsky himself draws it in the right place. It can be argued that he describes as matters of “performance” (and, therefore, as irrelevant) a number of factors that should be handled in terms of “competence” (Lyons, 1970). Hymes, Jakobovits, Campbell and Wales, Widdowson, Cooper and others all reject Chomsky’s restricted view of competence.

Habermas (1970): Habermas preserves Chomsky’s distinction of competence and performance but criticises his conception of competence
as a monological capability, on the grounds that it provides an inadequate basis for the development of general semantics and because it fails to take account of the essential dimension of communication (in a highly idealised sense).

Habermas argues that ‘universal meanings, which return in all natural languages, neither precede automatically all experience, nor are they necessarily rooted in the cognitive equipment of the human organism prior to all socialization. The universal distribution of meanings and even meaning components is not a sufficient criterion for the priorism and monologism of general semantics strived for by the Chomsky school of linguistics.’ Habermas differentiates between ‘semantic universals which process experiences, and semantic universals which make this processing possible in the first place (i.e. a posteriori/ a priori/), and also between ‘semantic universals which precede all socialization, and semantic universals which are linked to the condition of potential socialization (monologic/ intersubjective)’. He shows the four resultant classes as below:

**TABLE No. 3**

**SEMANTIC UNIVERSALS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic universals</th>
<th>a priori</th>
<th>a posteriori</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>intersubjective</td>
<td>dialogue-constitutive universals</td>
<td>cultural universals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monologic</td>
<td>universal cognitive schemes of interpretation</td>
<td>universals of perceptive and motivational constitution</td>
</tr>
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</table>
He illustrates the four classes: for example, dialogue-constitutive universals include personal pronouns, formations for question, imperative, negation, certain classes of performatory speech acts (cf. Searle, 1969) etc. Cognitive schemes of interpretation include causality and substance, space and time; cultural universals are exemplified by the system of kinship word; universals of perceptive constitutions by the system of colour words.

As to his second criticism, that Chomsky's monologic competence takes no account of the inter-subjective dimension, Habermas argues that:

it is not enough to understand language communication as an application – limited by empirical conditions – of linguistic competence. On the contrary, producing a situation of potential ordinary language communication belongs to by itself to the general competence of the ideal speaker. The situation... depends on a structure of inter subjectivity which in turn is linguistic. this structure is generated neither by the monologically mastered system of linguistic rules nor by the language-external conditions of its performance. On the contrary, in order to participate in normal discourse, the speaker must have- in addition to his linguistic competence – basic qualifications of speech and of symbolic interaction (role-behaviour) at his disposal, which we may call communicative competence. Thus communicative competence means the mastery of an ideal speech situation.
(it should be noted that this mastery is not to be equated with production).

A little later he continues. Above all, communicative competence relates to an ideal speech situation in the same way that linguistic competence relates to the abstract system of linguistic rules. The dialogue-constitutive universals at the same time generate and describe the form of intersubjectivity which makes mutuality of understanding possible... Communicative competence is defined by the ideal speaker’s mastery of the dialogue-constitutive universals irrespective of the actual restrictions under empirical conditions.

From the foregoing one can see that Habermas’ conception of competence is pitched at a higher level of idealisation than Chomsky’s. His view of communicative competence as comprising knowledge of the universal formal features of language that make human communication possible has more in common with Halliday at the latter’s most idealised level of theorising.

Habermas sees his initial ideas for a theory of communicative competence as providing the kind of basis he thinks necessary for developing general semantics, and he is interested in the possible application of such a theory for social analysis. One can leave him now with the question, to be answered later, whether a perspective resulting from such a socio-philosophico-semantic approach is appropriate for our purpose.
Halliday (1970) : Deriving from Firth, Halliday is interested in language in its social perspective and so he is concerned with language use to account for the language functions, realised by speech. As Sinclair, Forsyth, Coulthard and Ashby (1972) point out, these language functions are defined in terms of formal features of language which enable communication to take place – which enable the ‘sine qua non’ relations or universals of Habermas' communicative competence to be expressed.

In this sense Halliday’s macro-language functions relate to Habermas' communicative competence, and the approach is at the same very high level of idealisation. But his approach is not always so general or idealised (social theory requiring a much lower level of idealisation), and he is also concerned with the very low levels as when describing the grammar of the clause.

Halliday’s approach to the question of the language user’s competence is different from the others discussed in this chapter in the important sense that he rejects the distinction between competence and performance as being of little use in a sociological context.

Here we shall not need to draw a distinction between an idealized knowledge of a language and its actualized use : between ‘the code’ and ‘the use of the code’ or between ‘competence’ and ‘performance’. Such a dichotomy runs the risk of begin either unnecessary or misleading : unnecessary if it is just another name
for the distinction between what we have been able to describe in the grammar and what we have not, and misleading in any other interpretation (1970).

One may agree with the reason he gives for rejecting such a dichotomy as unnecessary but it is difficult to see that 'any other interpretation' should be misleading.

In recent writings (1971, 1972) Halliday has developed a sociosemantic approach to language and the speaker's use of language. At the heart of this approach is his language-defining notion of 'meaning potential', the sets of options in meaning that are available to the speaker-hearer. This meaning potential relates behaviour potential to lexico-grammatical potential: what the speaker can do – can mean – can say. These stages display systematic options at the disposal of the speaker. That is, a social theory determines behaviour options (what the speaker can do) which are translated linguistically as semantic options (what he can mean) which are encoded as options in linguistic forms (what he can say), the options at each stage being organised as networks of systems. 'The study of language as social behaviour is in the last resort an account of semantic options deriving from the social structure (1971).

Halliday points out that his notion of meaning potential is not the same as Chomsky's notion of competence: what the speaker can do in the special linguistic sense of what can mean is not the same as what he
knows. Halliday’s ‘can do’ interacts with ‘does’ in a simple and direct relation as potential to actualised potential; whereas Chomsky’s ‘knows’ is distinct from his ‘does’, with a far from clear interaction, which requires a separate theory of performance to account for the ‘does’.

Halliday says that his meaning potential ‘is not unlike Dell Hymes’ notion’ “communicative competence”, except that Hymes defines this in terms of “competence” in the Chomskyan sense of what the speaker knows, whereas we are talking of a potential—what he can do, in the special linguistic sense of what he can mean—and avoiding the additional complication of a distinction between doing and knowing’ (1971).

This appears to be a misleading representation of Hymes (whose criticism of Chomsky’s demarcation of competence and performance is summarised above and below) in that although Hymes does retain the notion of competence, he completely recasts it to include much more than Chomsky’s ‘knows’, so that the resultant communicative competence is in fact not unlike the notion of meaning potential, as Halliday remarks before severely qualifying his statement. And as Hymes’ recast notion of performance is not the same as Chomsky’s, it does not follow, as might be construed from Halliday’s statement above, that Hymes retains Chomsky’s ‘additional complication of a distinction between doing and knowing’.
The interactional aspect of Halliday’s notion of meaning potential has clear pedagogic possibilities, one of which will be indicated below. Although he himself cautions about the limited applicability of his sociosemantic networks — ‘We should not be able to construct a sociosemantic network for highly intellectual abstract discourse, and in general the more self-sufficient the language (the more it creates its own setting, as we expressed it earlier) the less we should be able to say about it in these broadly sociological, or social, terms (1992) — one should note the insights it provides for the language learning experience.

Hymes (1971): Summarised above is Hymes’ (1971) criticism that Chomsky’s categories of competence and performance provide no place for competence for language use, i.e. the theory fails to account for a whole dimension, the socio-cultural. It is interesting to note that some Transformational Generative grammarians now claim that the theory will eventually deal with sociocultural rules of use (perhaps as part of performance-constrained competence) but they insist that that time is still well over the horizon. Hymes, however, points out that the Standard Theory’s failure to provide an explicit place for sociocultural features is not the result of such a scientifically justifiable simplifying assumption, since no mention to that effect was made. The reason, he claims is to be found in an ideological aspect to the theory (a ‘Garden of Eden view’) which also affects its view of performance. He criticises this view of performance because of its implicit ideological identification with the
imperfect state resulting from the fall of the perfect speaker-hearer from grammatical competence, and also draws attention to Transformational-Generative Grammar's generally disparaging attitude to performance as a residual category for the theory (what we might call the 'dustbin view') essentially concerned with memory and perceptual constraints and ignoring social interaction. He also points out that Chomsky's notion of performance, as used in 'Aspects', seems confused between actual performance and underlying rules of performance ('stylistic rules of recording'). As these latter look like rules of use (Chomsky does not develop this notion), one would agree with Hymes that this should be part of competence.

The Chomskyan restriction of the concept of competence to the perfect knowledge of an ideal speaker-listener, in a homogeneous speech community, unaffected by sociocultural or psychological constraints, cannot account for the communicative function of language. Applied linguistic needs a theory that, in Hymes words, 'can deal with a heterogeneous speech community, differential competence, the constitutive role of sociocultural features', that can cope with phenomena such as White Thunder (a forty-year old Menomini (cited by Bloomfield) who spoke no language tolerably), relativity of competence in two, three or four languages (e.g. a Western Nigerian Muslim who speaks Hansa Arabic and English as well as his mother-tongue Yoruba), contextual styles etc., etc. Hymes does not underestimate the vast scale
of the task for research but points out that linguistic theory itself needs such a theory for its foundations to be secured — for example, one needs to study the rules of speech acts, discourse units, since ‘they enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole’ and he suggests that the key may be provided by the notion of competence itself, which he recasts as communicative competence, as follows.

If an adequate theory of language users and language use is to be developed, it seems that judgements must be recognized to be in fact not of two kinds (grammaticality and acceptability) but of four. And if linguistic theory is to be integrated with theory of communication and culture, this fourfold distinction must be stated in a sufficiently generalized way:

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 observes that a normal member of a community has both a knowledge of and a capability with regard to each of these aspects of the
communicative systems available to him. These four sectors of his communicative competence reflect the speaker-hearer’s grammatical (formally possible), psycholinguistic (implementationally feasible), sociocultural (contextually appropriate) and de facto (actually occurring) knowledge and ability for use. The fact that the grammatical sector is only of four parameters of communicative competence shows the extent of this recasting of Chomsky’s notion of competence, which consisted only of grammatical competence.

It may help here to clarify Hymes’ use of the terms for the competence, knowledge and ability for use. He says

I should take ‘competence’ as the most general term for the capabilities of a person... Competence is dependent upon both (tacit) ‘knowledge’ and (ability for) ‘use’. ‘Knowledge’ is distinct, then, both from ‘competence’ (as its part) and from systemic possibility (to which its relation is an empirical matter)... Knowledge also is to be understood as subtending all four parameters of communication just noted. There is knowledge of each. ‘Ability for use’ also may relate to all four parameters. Certainly it may be the case that individuals differ with regard to ability to use knowledge of each: to interpret, differentiate, etc. The specification of ‘ability for use’ as part of competence allows for the rule of non-cognitive factors, such as motivation, as partly determining competence.
He also states that 'in speaking of competence, it is especially important not to separate cognitive from affective and volitive factors, so far as the impact of theory on educational practice is concerned.'

Of 'performance', Hymes says that this now refers to actual use and actual events, with certain reminders and provisos.

The 'performance models' studied in psycholinguistics are to be taken as models of aspects of ability for use, relative to means of implementation in the brain, although they could now be seen as a distinct, contributory factor in general competence... Here the performance of a person is not identical with a behavioural record, or with the imperfect or partial realization of individual competence. It takes into account the interaction between competence (knowledge, ability for use), the competence of others, and the cybernetic and emergent properties of events themselves.

In sum, the goal of a broad theory of competence can be said to be to show the ways in which the systematically possible, the feasible, and the appropriate are linked to produce and interpret actually occurring cultural behaviour (Hymes, 1971).

SOME RELATED VIEWPOINTS

Cooper's (1968) view of communicative competence is very like Hymes' although he is concerned only with the sociolinguistic and grammatical parameters. He reinforces Hymes' points that effective communication requires more than linguistic competence: 'To
communicate effectively, a speaker must know not only how to produce any and all grammatical utterances of a language, but also how to ‘use’ them appropriately. The speaker must know ‘what’ to say, with ‘whom’, and ‘when’, and ‘where’. Cooper talks about two grammars or sets of rules, the speaker’s linguistic and contextual competencies, as comprising the two components of communicative competence. With reference to second language testing, where the two sets of competencies may be acquired disjunctively, he points out that since both components are a necessary condition for communicative competence, though neither is sufficient, one cannot assume that information gained from testing one will necessarily tell us anything valid about the other. Existing testing frameworks, concentrating as they do on linguistic competence, do not necessarily assess a person’s communicative ability. Knowledge of the target language may not be sufficient for effective communication to take place in that language, and our ability to predict communicative competence depends upon the test content being based upon the specific communication requirements of the particular category of learner. Cooper further points out that the social situation in which the second language speaker is to participate may require more than one variety of the language, i.e. he will need a linguistic repertoire (in Gumperz’s (1964) sense) from which to select appropriately. In this case it will be no good constructing a test within a framework of the target language ‘as a linguistically undifferentiated, single code.’
Another linguist with an essentially Hymesian view of communicative competence, although deriving more from rhetoric and discourse analysis, is Widdowson (1971 and 1975). He disagrees with the Chomsky/Katz and Postal view of performance as a residual category for everything unsystematic and therefore not accountable under competence, since some of their so-called performance features are in fact systematic and should therefore be regarded as part of a person's competence. A speaker's competence includes knowing how to recognise and how to use sentences to perform what he calls rhetorical acts—e.g. defining, classifying, promising, warning, etc. This is knowledge of the rules of use in particular social situations, which is what Widdowson means by communicative competence, and which he distinguishes from the rules of grammar, the speaker's grammatical competence, both components being involved in a speaker's competence. He makes the important point that for learners outside the European cultural tradition such rules of use need to be carefully taught, which means, among other things, giving as much attention to communicative competence as to grammatical competence. Of course, in order for rules of use (rhetorical rules) to be taught they must first have been described, and the current sparsity of our knowledge of discourse represents an obvious impediment to immediate and widespread implementation. But it should be emphasized that this is only temporary—rules of use can be, and are being, precisely described—
for 'there seems to be no reason why rhetoric as the description of communicative competence should not achieve similar standards of precision as grammar has in the description of grammatical competence.' Widdowson also provides an interesting insight when he says, 'My guess is that the best way – perhaps the only way – of characterising different language registers is to discover what rhetorical acts are commonly performed in them, how they combine to form composite communication units' (e.g. a scientific report), 'and what linguistic devices are used to indicate them.' This is illuminating not only of possibly the most significant distinguishing characteristics of register but also of the important place of discourse, and the rules and characteristics of its units like the speech (or rhetorical) act and the speech event in communicative competence.

Jakobovits, whose reasons for rejecting the Standard Theory view of (linguistic) competence accord broadly with Hymes, Cooper and Widdowson, specifies four aspects of knowledge that he considers part of a person's communicative competence (1970). These concern paralinguistic, kinesic, sociolinguistic and psycho-linguistic factors. Although Jakobovits view is wider than Cooper's or Widdowson's and includes the psycholinguistic aspect, his set of parameters is not the same as that of Hymes, the most important difference being his omission of grammatical knowledge from communicative competence. This must necessitate his retention of linguistic competence, in the restricted sense
of grammatical competence, in addition to the concepts of communicative competence and performance. Hymes' formulation is to be preferred since, by incorporating grammatical competence under communicative competence as one of its parts, it emphasises the all important 'relationship', rather than the pedagogically less relevant contrasts, between the grammatical and the sociocultural and psycholinguistic aspects of a person's competence. Also Hymes' set of parameters of communicative competence seems nationally a little more substantial (at least for our purposes). It further avoids two possible and misleading conclusions that might arise from separating grammatical competence and communicative competence: (i) that grammatical competence and communicative competence should be taught separately, or in that order (this actually happens); and (ii) that grammar is not an essential factor in communicating through language, or that it is somehow not related to communicative ability. It must be stressed that Jakobovits himself, a leading advocate of the cause of communicative competence in teaching does not draw any such conclusions, and his discussion makes it clear that he would disavow them - in fact he expressly condemns the first on more than one occasion. The point is just that Hymes' formulation, apart from the merit of its interactional goal, logically does not admit of such conclusions.

Jakobovits makes some important points about the relation of communicative competence to language testing. In discussing the
inadequacy of the discrete-point approach (still the major one today) to language testing and teaching, he points out that experience has shown that 'performance on these language tests and the ability to make use of the language for communicative purposes are not necessarily related, indicating that the former is not a good measure of the latter.' In view of the importance of the latter, and the current lack of a clear and comprehensive answer to the question of what it is to know how to use a language, he suggests the pragmatic strategy of making detailed definitions of 'specific communicative goals and of assessing the extent to which an individual is capable of meeting these goals.' He also recognises that there are different levels of communicative competence and, like Hymes, allows for less than native language competence in the specification that should be made of different levels of proficiency, that are relevant to a second language learner.

SUMMARY

It can now be seen that, from views on knowledge and communication as discussed above, it is possible to derive insights for the formation of a theoretical framework. Such insights stem from views of competence (in the broad sense) that are motivated by the same basic concerns, and it is therefore possible to describe the resultant orientation as predominantly linguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, etc. One should perhaps stress the word predominantly, since it is of course
possible to have an orientation that is socio-psycholinguistic, but the comprehensiveness of this term blurs the focus which a theoretical perspective is intended to provide. The question is one of emphasis rather than synthesis or antithesis. When Campbell and Wales state (1970) that communicative competence is the primary goal of the psychology of language, one should remember that they are two cognitive psychologists for whom communicative competence is central in the study of language acquisition, with which they are concerned. Therefore, the environmental factors, which consist of both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic features will be considered from the point of view of language acquisition. Hymes, on the other hand an anthropologist and sociolinguist, whilst including a psycholinguistic component in his conception of communicative competence, is mainly concerned with the fact that a language user's competence entails judgements and abilities related to, and interdependent with, sociocultural features. Communicative competence is central to such sociolinguistic study, and so will be looked at from such a viewpoint. Some environmental or contextual factors may be common to both conceptions of communicative competence, but they may have different implications and receive different emphases depending on whether the fundamental concern is sociolinguistic or psycholinguistic in nature.

The Chomskyan position has already been evaluated above and an attempt made to show that the basically linguistic orientation, with his
psycholinguistic extensions, that stems from Chomsky's conception of competence is inappropriate here. This is important, for Chomsky's unique contribution has been to revitalise theoretical linguistics, and without his having done this we might not now be in a position to appraise the problem as we can. Basically, however, his notions of competence and performance do not, or cannot, handle the sociocultural dimension that is essential to any study concerned with the communicative aspects of language.

Nor will a perspective resulting from the socio-philosophico-semantic approach of Habermas be appropriate for our task. Habermas is concerned with an ideal speech situation, eschewing the constraints of the real world as does Chomsky's view of competence, which he considers inadequate. His introduction of the intersubjectives and a posteriori dimensions into his conception of semantic universals provides insights into studying the prerequisite features of human communication, but it is of little practical use to restrict the concept of communicative competence to the ideal speaker's mastery of dialogue-constitutive universals and to ignore actual speech situations. Despite his concern with communication, his decontextualised view of communicative competence is too idealised.

What is needed is a theoretical framework that stems from a socio-linguistic view of knowledge and communication, where the contextual or environmental factors which constrain competence, or are
involved in the development of communicative competence in the realisation of meaning potential, are predominantly sociocultural. This brings us to Halliday and to Hymes.

At a very high level of idealisation, Halliday’s language functions are concerned with the same issues as Habermas’ conception of communicative competence, which is very different from Hymes’ conception. But at a lower level of idealisation Halliday and Hymes are similarly concerned with language in use. At this lower level Halliday is more detailed than Hymes but within a smaller area, whereas Hymes explores an overview, indicating what a broad theory of communicative competence ought to cover. Hymes’ sociolinguistic view emphasises the interactional aspect of a person’s competence that is necessary for actual communication, a theoretical preposition that has important pedagogic significance, as has the interactional aspect of Halliday’s motion of meaning potential. Here it should again be mentioned that this important concept of meaning potential seems closer to Hymes’ communicative competence than is maintained by Halliday.

Hymes’ retention of competence and performance, albeit completely recast enables his approach to affect and be affected by developments in major theoretical fronts such as Case Grammar and Generative Semantics – providing, hopefully, a much needs sociolisation of such grammatical theory. One might argue that Halliday can do just this, but his rejection of any distinction (in a non-trivial sense) between
competence and performance makes his theory to that extent less accessible to the desired two-way influence possible with Hymes.

Both contribute major insights for the formation of our theoretical framework. In particular, Hymes spotlights the vital factor of contextual (socio-cultural) appropriacy and Halliday brings out the sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge. Both these features have important pedagogic implications, as may be seen below.

One other point is worth noting here. This concerns discourse. Although Hymes includes discourse within the context to be covered by a theory of communicative competence, he has not got beyond suggesting lines of investigation; and Halliday, concerned as he is with intersentential cohesion, has restricted his actual analysis of language in use to the level of the clause. For insights into discourse as a central factor in competency for use, it will be necessary to turn to other sources (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Widdowson, 1977a and b; Candlin, Leather and Bruton, 1974, 1976 and b).
SECTION - II

CONSTITUENTS OF A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK APPROPRIATE TO THE SPECIFICATION OF A PERSON'S COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

• SOCIOCULTURAL ORIENTATION

COMPETENCE AND THE COMMUNITY

As Hymes point out, one is not dealing with perfect competence in a homogeneous speech community but the reality of differential competence, and relativity of competence, in a heterogeneous speech community. This needs to be borne in mind when considering matters such as the nature of communication needs and the establishing of target levels that are relevant to them.

CONTEXTUAL APPROPRIACY

Knowledge about the target language, in the sense of knowing whether and to what extent something in that language is systemically possible may not be sufficient for effective communication. Hymes, Cooper, Widdowson and others have drawn attention to the equally important factor of contextual appropriacy: 'There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.' Therefore we should teach the rules of use and language features appropriate to the relevant social context. It follows that in specifying communicative competence which, as we have seen, subsumes both grammatical and
contextual competence, dealing with one component alone will usually not be valid.

A word needs to be said about the concept of 'language variety', in the intra-lingual sense as used and clarified by Gregory (1967) and Crystal (1971). Although it is clear that in a language such as English there is a great deal of stylistic variation, the difficulty is in the assumption that a putative variety exists, i.e. that the specific situation really does have a necessary and sufficient set of 'distinctive' forms and rules of use to warrant the term variety. In this sense it seems unlikely that 'Diplomatic English', for example, is a variety of English except at so high a level of abstraction as to have little practical use; on the other hand, it is possible to specify the English required by diplomats for specific diplomatic purposes. Whether that is a variety or not might then be said to be irrelevant. Where the concept of language variety is required, however, it is perhaps best characterised by its selection and use of linguistic forms for its constitutive communicative acts or functions, neither the forms nor the functions necessarily being situation-specific since they usually occur across social situations.

COMMUNICATION NEEDS

A sociocultural orientation focuses on the social function of language and displays a learner-centred approach. Before deciding what to teach the learner one wants to know his requirements in terms of, for
example, communicative mode and activities, and the relationships between him and his interlocutors. In other words, the specification of communication requirements or needs is prior to the selection of speech functions or communicative acts to be taught. By drawing up a profile of communication needs one can more validity specify the particular skills and linguistic forms to be taught.

- **SOCIOSEMANTIC BASIS OF LINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE**

LANGUAGE AS SEMANTIC OPTIONS DERIVING FROM THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Halliday’s concept of meaning potential draws attention to the sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge and indicates the central and metamorphosing role of the semantic options (available to a person) in translating options in behaviour into options in linguistic form. At each stage these options are organised at networks of systems. At present, the significance of this for pedagogic purposes lies not in attempting to construct such system networks for the diverse social contexts with which our categories of learner are concerned (Halliday, who is concerned with understanding the language system, himself warns about the limited amount of adult speech that is accessible to this approach (Halliday, 1972) but in the theoretical support it gives to programme designers, materials, produces, teachers and testers, to approach linguistic form in a different way, i.e. from the standpoint of meaning, ‘abinitio’.
A COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

Wilkins (1972) advocated a semantic or notional approach to the specification of language to be taught, which ensures the consideration of the communicative value of such content. He later called this a communicative approach (1974). In this, one starts from the notional categories which a learner needs to handle (the things we use language for) and then selects, from the sets of linguistic forms for encoding the categories or sub-categories, those that are appropriate to his level and requirements. This is much more relevant to the development of the communicative competence of the learner, and therefore less wasteful, than the common place grammatical syllabus where one starts from the linguistic forms themselves, which are regarded like Everest, to be taught because they are there (or accorded the status of scientific truths that must be taught), and where the problem is thereafter seen as one of sequencing according to the competing criteria of relative simplicity and high functional load. The communicative syllabus has potentially wider applicability, and is less likely to omit appropriate items, than the situational syllabus of recent times whose basic problem has been that not all of a person's language needs are relatable to situation (The term 'situation', as used in the context of the situational syllabus, should be interpreted to mean 'setting') or predictable from an analysis of situational needs. Wilkins' framework, which will be considered later, involves three sets of notional categories and their sub-categories (with
no claim to be exhaustive), of which his categories of communicative function are specially important.

- DISCOURSE LEVEL OF OPERATION

There is a need here, perhaps, for a terminological note. Discourse is written as well as spoken, and terms like *speech act, speech event, speech situation* should be understood to apply to both media of communication. Sinclair et al. (1972), in their seminal work on discourse analysis, postulate discourse as the level between grammar and non-linguistic organisation. Hymes (1972) puts it another way when he says that 'the level of speech acts' (which we understand him here to mean a communicative unit at the level of discourse) 'mediates immediately between the usual levels of grammar and the rest of speech event or situation in that it implicates both linguistic form and social norms'. It is possible to relate these terms. For example, if we take the system of analysis set up by Sinclair et al. for classroom discourse (using the following rank scale of discourse units: *lesson, transaction, exchange, move, act*), their discourse unit lesson (not necessarily the same as the pedagogic unit period) might be regarded as the speech situation since it also is apparently not rule-governed. That is, there are no rules of occurrence for the transactions that comprise a lesson. On the other hand, the different transaction types seem to operate at the level of the rule-governed speech events that exist within speech situations.
Transactions are made up of different types of exchange, which could be regarded as operating at the same level as Hymes’ speech acts that are embedded within speech events. Speech acts have formal features and rules of occurrence; so do exchanges, which consist of different types of more and act, and rules of occurrence state how the acts combine to form moves and how the moves combine to form exchanges. Whatever the terms used, the concern here is with units of communication, distinct from and generally above the level of the clause, units which have formal characteristics and are governed by rules of occurrence.

It seems clear that communicative competence includes the ability to use linguistic forms to perform communicative acts and to understand the communicative functions of sentences and their relationships to other sentences. This happens at the level of discourse and involves, inter alia, knowledge of the rhetorical rules of use that govern the patterning of such acts, the interpretative strategies of the language user (Widdowson, 1975), and also what Candlin (1976) has described as the contextual meaning of an utterance (the value derived from its positional significance in the discourse). These discourse units (rhetorical acts, speech acts, speech functions) have characteristics and formal rules of occurrence that can be and need to be made explicit. More analyses and descriptions are needed, such as those provided by Sinclair et al., Candlin et al. (1974) and, on a smaller scale, Ervin-Tripp (1972).
The implications for the model include the following:

- Selecting communicative units, such as speech functions or rhetorical acts, rather than grammatical elements in the specification of a syllabus, takes place at the level of discourse.

- Rhetorical rules and contextual meaning are as important as grammatical rules and referential meaning, so they should be taught as appropriate to the required acts and functions.

- A concern with communicative competence indicates the need for redefining the dimensions of syllabus specification to take account of the communicative value of discourse level units.
SECTION - III
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a very exciting development in the field of language teaching. In the recent past, language teaching seems to have shifted the emphasis away from 'accuracy' to 'fluency' and from 'structural competence' to 'communicative competence'.

K. Johnson and K. Morrow define the CLT as one which "recognizes the teaching of 'Communicative Competence' as its aim. It is on this level of aim that such a language teaching distinguishes from more traditional approaches where the emphasis is on teaching structural competence" (1981 : 10).

According to D. L. Freeman in CLT, "almost everything that is done 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" (D. L. Freeman, 1986, Page 132).

Freeman further observes that the CLT stresses "the use of authentic materials. It is considered desirable to give students an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding language as it is actually used by native speakers.”

In his book entitled, “Communicative Language Teaching : An Introduction” T. W. Littlewood discusses the aims of CLT and writes, “the CLT pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural
aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view.” He further adds that the CLT, “encourages us to go beyond structures and take account of other aspects of communication. It can therefore help us to match the content more closely with the actual communicative uses that the learners will have to make of the foreign language” (1981: i).

In his article on ‘speaking’ in K. Johnson and K. Marrow’s book (1981), Roger Scott explains the concept of the Communicative Approach in the following words, “the focus changes from the accurate production of isolated utterances to the fluent selection of appropriate utterance in communication. The learner is now concerned with using language, not English usages.”

William Littlewood is of the opinion that the CLT, “makes us more strongly aware that it is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language. They must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time” (1981: x-xi).

In order to understand the basic idea behind the CLT, it must be clear about the following terms which are often used while talking about CLT:
A. Linguistic Competence
B. Communicative Competence/ Performance
C. Accuracy
D. Fluency
E. Appropriacy
CLT PRINCIPLES

The CLT principles discussed by D. L. Freeman (1986) are as follows:

i. Whenever possible, 'authentic language' at it is used in real context should be introduced.

ii. Being able to figure out the speaker's or writer's intention is part of being communicatively competent.

iii. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study.

iv. One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the courses on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together.

v. Students work with language at the discourse or super-sentential (above sentence) level. They must learn about cohesion and coherence, those properties of language which bind the sentences together.

vi. Games are important because they have certain features in common. In real communicative events there is a purpose of the exchange...

vii. Errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills.
viii. One of the teacher's responsibility is to establish situations likely to promote communication.

ix. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterance.

x. The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors... (1986: 129-130).

COMMUNICATIVE MODEL OF TEACHING

Some fruitful attempts have been made to design a communicative model of teaching. C. J. Brumfit and K. Johnson are considered pioneers in the field of designing a model of communicative language teaching. The model they have outlined is as follows:

FIGURE No. 9
COMMUNICATIVE MODEL OF TEACHING

Communicative Model of Teaching

1. Communicate as far as possible with all available resources
2. Present language items shown to be necessary for effective communication
3. Drill, if necessary

The model suggests that the teacher should set a task for his pupils who should be asked to communicate as far as possible with all available
resources. If the teacher feels that his students are not in a comfortable position to communicate due to lack of linguistic support, then he must present the necessary language items, both structural and lexical, for effective communication. The teacher can provide drills, if necessary. This is the pedagogical and methodological framework in which communicative language teaching must be conducted (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979: 183).

THE CLT PROCEDURE

Attempts have been made to prepare a CLT procedure. Hubbard et al. have proposed the following procedure for consideration:

FIGURE No. 10
CLT PROCEDURE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communicative Task 1</th>
<th>Presentation and Drilling</th>
<th>Communicative Task 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students use whatever Language they have at their disposal. Errors are not corrected</td>
<td>The teacher presents the required forms and drills to fluency. Errors are corrected</td>
<td>Students are given an opportunity to use the new forms</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If necessary
Hubbard et al. explain the procedure in the following words:

"1. The teacher sets up a community activity which demands ability to express the function(s) to be taught. At this stage, the teacher does not supply the language forms which the students require for expression of this function. Instead, the students have to cope with whatever language resources they have available. In performing this task they will inevitably produce errors, mistakes and much inappropriate language.

2. The teacher introduces the required language form(s) and does sufficient drilling to achieve a reasonable degree of fluency. Since a model interaction might be the best way to introduce these forms, a suitable way to do this would be to play a taped dialogue illustrating use of the forms and functions to be presented.

3. The teacher gives students a fresh communication task so as to provide them with an opportunity and motivate to use the language forms they have learnt. If serious errors occur, the teacher goes back to the drilling stage again" (1983: 252-253).

Finnocchiaro and Brumfit 1983 illustrate how the procedural phases of instruction are handled.

i. Presentation of a brief dialogue or mini-dialogues.

ii. Oral practice of each utterance in the dialogue.
iii. Questions and answers based on the topic and situation in the dialogue.

iv. Questions and answers related to the student's personal experience but centred on the theme of the dialogue.

v. Study of the basic communicative expression used in the dialogue or one of the structures that exemplify the function.

vi. Learner discovery of generalisation or rules underlying the functional expression of structures.

vii. Oral recognition, interpretative procedures, and

viii. Oral production activities proceeding from guided to free communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 27).

**THE ROLE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN CLT**

It is noteworthy that CLT is not averse to the use of mother tongue in teaching. D. L. Freeman who is regarded as one of the exponents of CLT spells out the role of the mother-tongue of students and writes that the first language, that is, mother-tongue, "should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for example, in explaining the activities to the students or in assigning framework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, just an object to be studied" (1986: 135).
COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

Communicative activities are very much a part of CLT and are always purposeful and objective-based.

The following diagram presents types of communicative activities.

**TABLE No. 4**
COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-communicative Activities</th>
<th>Structural Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quasi-Communicative Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative Activities</td>
<td>Functional Communication Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Interaction Activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


PRE COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

According to William Littlewood, pre-communicative activities aim at equipping the learner with some of the skills required for communication, without actually requiring him to perform communicative acts. The criterion for success is therefore not so much whether he has managed to convey an intended meaning, but rather he has produced an acceptable piece of language (1981: 89).
COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

In these activities language functions are emphasized over forms. Typically, although not always, a functional syllabus is used. To William Littlewood, “a variety of forms are introduced for each function. Only the simple forms would be presented at first, but as students get more proficient in the target language, the functions are reinforced and more complex forms are learned... students work with language at the ‘supra-sentential’ or discourse-level... They learn about cohesion and coherence... students work on all four skills form the beginning” (Freeman, 1986: 135).

ROLE PLAY AND SIMULATIONS IN CLT

In his article on “Role Play and Simulation”, Gill Sturidge discusses the importance of role-play. The communicative approach emphasizes the importance of games and role-play as a way of setting limits to activities that are sufficiently well-defined, yet also sufficiently wide, to promote practice in using language freely over longer period of time.

Gill Sturidge writes, “Among classroom activities role-play and simulation rate highly suitable vehicles to use in a communicative approach to language teaching. Used well, they can reduce the artificiality of the classroom, provide a reason for talking and allow the
learner to talk meaningfully to other learner” (K. Johnson and K. Morrow, 1981: 77).

In a role-play, learners are expected to plug certain roles in certain situations. The learner performs the role according to the available situation. While in a simulation the learner is given a task to perform or a problem to solve; the background information and the environment of the problem is simulated. Simply speaking, in a simulated situation, a learner pretends to do something as if he is doing it in a real sense. Children tend to enjoy simulations very much.

TEACHER’S ROLE IN CLT

Several roles are assumed for teacher in Communication Language Teaching. M. Breen and C. N. Candlin describe teachers role in the following terms, “The teacher has two main roles: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning teaching group... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner” (1980: 99).

The other roles assumed for teacher are ‘needs analyst’, ‘counsellor’ and ‘group-process manager’. According to William Littlewood, a teacher is a ‘facilitator of learning’ and he may need to perform in a variety of specific roles, separately or simultaneously.
These include the roles as (1) general overseer (2) classroom manager (3) language instructor, and (4) co-communicator.

William Littlewood adds that “the teacher’s role in the learning process is recognised as less important. More emphasis is placed on the learner’s contribution through independent learning.” In short communicative teaching methods leave the learner scope to contribute his own personality to the learning process. They also provide the teacher with scope to step out of his didactic role in order to be a ‘human among humans’ (1981: 94).

LEARNER’S ROLE

According to J. C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, the emphasis in CLT is on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language forms. And it leads to different roles for learners from those found traditional second language classrooms.

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

“The role of learner as negotiator-between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning-emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way” (1980: 110).
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TESTING

The communicative language testing has also been discussed by many linguistics including D. A. Wilkins, D. L. Freeman, K. Morrow, B. J. Carroll, etc.

Explaining the concept of communicative language testing D. A. Wilkins writes that it aims at testing “learner’s ability and capacity” to construct grammatically (and phonologically) wellformed sentences, to select these forms in order to express many different kinds of conceptual model and functional meaning” (1976: 81-82).

In D. L. Freeman’s view, in the communicative language testing, “a teacher evaluates not only his (student’s) accuracy, but also his fluency. The student who has the most control of structure and vocabulary is not always the best communicator. A teacher can informally evaluate his students’ performance in his role as an advisor or co-communicator. For more formal evaluation, a teacher is likely to use a communicative test... This is an interactive test which has real communicative function” (1986: 135).

K. Morrow (1979) also touches upon the issue of communicative testing and expresses the opinion that, “the concept of ‘pass : fail’ loses much of its force; every candidate can be assessed in terms of what he can do. Of course, some will be able to do more than other; and it may be decided for administrative reasons that a certain level of proficiency
is necessary for the awarding of a particular certificate" (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979: 155).

**SUMMARY**

CLT is best considered an approach rather than a method. It pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view. The CLT aims at developing learner’s communicative competence and bridging the gap between linguistic and communicative competence. To put it in a nutshell, CLT is a learner-central approach.

The CLT has also come under some constructive criticism. J. C. Richards and T. S. Rodgers discuss the criticism in the following terms:

“Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language programme, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. These kinds of questions will doubtless require attention if the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain momentum in the future” (1986: 83).
SECTION - IV
THE LANGUAGE TESTING

Testing is a significant aspect of any teaching programme. In language testing, it is the language that must be tested. Testing the second language is different from that of the testing the first language. The variables in language testing are as follows:

A. The elements (grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation)

B. The skills (LSRW)

According to Robert Lado, "Language is built of sounds, intonation, stress, morphemes, words and arrangements of words having meaning that are linguistic and cultural. The degree of mastery of these elements does not advance evenly but goes faster in some and slower in others. Each of these elements of language constitutes a variable that we will want to test. They are pronunciation, grammatical structure, the lexicon and cultural meanings." (‘Language Testing’, 1961: 25).

The skills which should be tested are:

1. Listening
2. Speaking
3. Reading and
4. Writing

Language tests should be carefully designed keeping in view the following criteria according to Adrain Doff (1988):

1. Validity
2. Reliability
3. Scorability
4. Economy (of time)
5. Administrability
6. Backwash (Washback - effect refers to the effect of a test or teaching)

WHY TESTING?

Testing has a great value for the teacher and the students as well. According to Adrian Doff, "They (tests) tell the 'teacher' what the students can and cannot do, and therefore how successful the teaching has been; and they show what areas need to be taught in the future. They tell the 'students' how well they progressing, and where they need to focus their attention as learners. Regular tests also encourage students to take their learning seriously, and give them a series of definite goals to aim towards" (1988: 257).

Language teachers should test both skills and knowledge of the language. All the four skills are important. It is not wise to avoid any of them. Listening helps one in understanding spoken English on radio and television. Reading is essential for study purposes (books, journals, etc.) and for understanding written instructions in English. Speaking is important for social contact with foreigners. Writing is useful probably only for study purposes. The receptive skills-listening and reading are especially important because they will enable students to continue learning the language on their own.
TYPES OF TESTS

According to W.F. Mackey, "Language tests may differ in (1) purpose, (2) design, and (3) suitability" (1965:404).

A) Proficiency Tests

A proficiency test aims at finding out how much of a language a person has mastered. It is not connected with a particular course and is not necessarily based on what the learner may have studied.

B) Prognostic Tests

A prognostic test aims at getting an idea of how much of it he will learn.

C) Achievement Tests

An achievement test determines how much of the material of a course has actually been mastered. They include only what has been taught.

D) Diagnostic Tests

A diagnostic test aims at discovering what remains to be taught.

TESTING LANGUAGE SKILLS

The four language skills viz. LSRW are divided into two parts:

A. Receptive Skills - i. Listening
   ii. Reading

B. Productive Skills - i. Speaking
   ii. Writing
(1) LISTENING TESTS

They are of two types:

i. Listening (pure listening) tests.

ii. Listening comprehension tests.

i. Listening tests:

Listening tests aim at finding out whether students can hear certain English sounds and discriminate between them (The teacher can use a tape-recorder for the purpose).

(A) Sounds:

Example:

1. The teacher says four words and asks the class to mark the ones that are the same:

   a) cat b) cat c) cat d) cat

2. The teacher says a whole sentence and asks the class to mark the word in their test frame:

   She liked the ..

   a) sheep b) ship c) shop d) shape

Raju went to Japan when he was ......

   a) four b) forced to c) forty d) fourteen
3. The teacher reads three words and asks the class to check the number of the words that are the same. He/She asks them to check the zero if no two words are the same:

(a) (i) Cat (ii) Cat (iii) Cot
(b) (i) Run (ii) Sun (iii) Run
(c) (i) Last (ii) Last (iii) Lost
(d) (i) Beast (ii) Best (iii) Best
(e) (i) Pair (ii) Fair (iii) Chair

(Robert Lado, 1965: 74)

4. The teacher instructs the class to circle the word they hear.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cat</th>
<th>cut</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ship</td>
<td>sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bit</td>
<td>beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lid</td>
<td>lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chair</td>
<td>share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>slip</td>
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<tr>
<td>hit</td>
<td>heat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rid</td>
<td>read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mill</td>
<td>meal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neat</td>
<td>knit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boat</td>
<td>vote</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. The teacher asks the class to tick the sentences they hear:

(a) 1. Will he sleep?
    2. Will he slip?
(b) 1. They beat him.
    2. They bite him.
(c) 1. Let me see the sheep.
    2. Let me see the ship.
6. The teacher shows the class two or three pictures and asks the class to choose the one that fits the words or the sentence:

(a) i) ship ii) sheep

(b) i) He is washing the car.
   ii) He is watching the car.

(c) i) pin, pen, pan
   ii) ship, jeep, sheep

(B) Stress:
Example:

i) The teacher reads aloud a word and asks the class to mark the main stressed syllable on their test paper.

\[ \text{I m p o s i b l e} \]
1 2 3 4

ii) The teacher reads polysyllabic words and asks the class to mark the main stressed syllable on their test paper.

Constitution, examination, photography, development.

(C) Sentence Stress

The teacher gives the class a short passage and then reads it out. He/She instructs the class to mark the stressed syllables in the passage.

"This is what I like the most."
(D) Intonation

i) The teacher reads out some words, phrases/sentences and asks the class to identify and mark the last stressed syllable in an utterance and indicate whether it is rising or falling.

a) They are taking their breakfast now.
b) Can you drive a car?
c) a pencil.
d) a pencil?

ii) The teacher reads out a phrase/sentence and asks the class to check the sequence of numbers that best represents the intonation as read.

/1/ = low,  /2/ = mid,  /3/ = high
/4/ = extra high,  /4/ = final fade out
/-/ = final sustain,  /+-/ = final rise
'/ / = intonation centre.

Item: The examiner reads
3 Good ‘morning.’
Choices: The student has to choose from the following:
1. 2, 3, 1
2. 2, 3, 2
3. 2, 3, 3
4. 3, 1, 1
5. 3, 1, 1

Response = 5

(Note: The above example occurs in Rober Lado’s books, “Language Testing” page 128).

ii) Listening Comprehension

(a) The teacher provides the class with a street map and dictates directions. The students mark the route with their pencils.
(b) The teacher reads aloud a passage. The students do not have the text with them. They just listen to the teacher. Then they are asked to answer the questions based on the text. The teacher can use the multiple choice format.

The teachers should ask only simpler questions which should not be too many. They should ask only those questions which can be answered directly from the text. Teachers should avoid giving students too much to write; so open-ended questions should have very short (one or two word) answers.

2. SPEAKING TESTS
A. ROBER LADO (1961: LANGUAGE TESTING LONDON, LONGMAN). SUGGESTS THE FOLLOWING TESTS:
   
i) The teacher asks questions and the students reply to them.
   
ii) The teacher shows the students some pictures and asks them to say what is there in picture or what is happening.
   
iii) The teacher gives a printed text to the learners and asks them to read it aloud.
   
iv) The teacher gives some words, phrases or sentences in the students’ mothertongue and asks them to translate them.

B. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE TEST

These tests are based on the communicative approach to language teaching. The tests take into account (i) grammatical accuracy (ii) situational appropriacy, and (iii) fluency.
The learners' responses are evaluated in terms of the following:

i) setting
ii) topic
iii) function
iv) status (role)

Linguistically speaking, it is not easy to test one's communicative competence. It has been established that communicative competence is linguistic competence plus an understanding of the appropriate use of language in its various contexts.

According to Peter Hubbard et.al., "The speaker, or writer, who has adequate communicative competence as an extension of linguistic competence is still liable to make mistakes in performance but they will be mistakes, lapses or social gaffes and not errors" (1983:287).

C. COMMUNICATIVE PERFORMANCE TESTS

These tests aim at testing learners' communicative performance, that is, how much and how well they can perform communicatively. Some of the tests are as follows:

i. The teacher gives a communicative task to the learners to perform
   e.g.
   a) Can you tell me the way to your house?
   b) Imagine you are a customer and I am a shop assistant. You want to buy some toothpaste. Can you say the right things? Try.
c) You want to look up a word in the dictionary, but you’ve left yours at home. Your teacher has got one. What would you say in this situation? (C.J. Brumfit and K. Johnson, The CALT, 1979:221).

ii. The teacher asks a student to read a dialogue with him/her. The student is not given time to prepare his/her part.... he/she has to respond spontaneously.

iii. The candidate is given a dialogue, or a dialogue format, with his own part missing. He is given a certain amount of time to study the material to enable him to anticipate some of the examiner’s responses.”

(Peter Hubbart et.al, 1983:288).

iv. The student is told in advance what the topic is going to be for role-playing.

v. The examiner engages the student in a conversation. The examiner may begin like, “Tell me something about......”
D. TESTS GIVEN IN TEACHERS HANDBOOK OF MAHARASHTRA STATE BUREAU OF TEXT BOOK PRODUCTION AND CURRICULUM RESEARCH, PUNE.

How to Conduct the test and set the question paper:

**TABLE No. 5**
TEST FORMAT IN MSBTBP&CR*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill being tested</th>
<th>Question Type</th>
<th>How many can answer at a time</th>
<th>Expected response: oral/written</th>
<th>Marks reserved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1. Give a short conversation (10-15 lines) and set a number of yes/no questions. OR 2. Give a recipe/Describe a process and set multiple choice questions asking the students to tick the correct answer.</td>
<td>Entire class</td>
<td>Written</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>1. Listening and repeat (words/short phrases) 2. Read aloud with proper stress/intonation (words/sentences) 3. Recite a poem 4. Speak about yourself/your pet animal/friend/favourite games etc.</td>
<td>One Student  One Students  One Student One student</td>
<td>Oral  Oral  Oral  Oral</td>
<td>2  3  5  6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>1. Students should be asked to read aloud part of conversations/ passages included in part 3 of each units.</th>
<th>One student</th>
<th>Oral</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. A passage can be reproduced from the text book (Part 3 of any unit). Objective questions based on the passage can be used for testing reading comprehension.</td>
<td>Entire class</td>
<td>Written</td>
<td>12.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Writing

(Select a few question types each from (A), (B) and (C) to make up a total of 16 marks).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>1. Dictation of simple words</th>
<th>Entire class</th>
<th>Written</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Rearranging words in the alphabetical order.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Picture puzzles based on familiar words.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>1. Rearranging sentences in the proper sequence by looking at the pictures.</th>
<th>Entire class</th>
<th>Written</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. One line descriptions of pictures e.g. 'The farmer is ploughing the field.'</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Identifying mistakes in a picture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>1. Written 5 lines about topics handled in the text book, self, school etc.</th>
<th>Entire class</th>
<th>Written</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Describing a scene etc.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Writing a story with the help of pictorial and verbal clues.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After thus considering the various question types in terms of the skills involved, the questions can be separated into two categories: those with a written response and those with an oral response. Now our oral test for this experimental research would include those questions which expect oral responses. Approximately 30 marks can be reserved for such oral tests, the skills involved being those of speaking, conversation and reading aloud. This test may be conducted with a group of five students each at one time. It is possible to test 2 or 3 such groups every day (if necessary, after school is over), in about 15 minutes. In this way the entire class may be tested within one week.
Morton (1969): Morton was the first to develop ‘the theory of perception’ or rather recognition of lexical items. For each item in our mental lexicon we have formed a recognition device or logogen which lists specification features for that word. When listening to a speech all logogens are excited and they count the features in the input signal. That match their own specification. If the features match beyond a certain level, the logogen exceeds its threshold and word springs to consciousness i.e. the word is recognized.

Bever (1975): Bever said, if a subordinate clause comes first in listening a message, that clause is stored in short term memory until the main clause is processed, then in the light of the main clause the subordinate clause is understood, it is called ‘serial interpretation theory’.

Wilson (1975): Wilson argued for parallel interpretation theory, according to this theory the listener not only lexically and phonologically analyses each word as he hears it, but also simultaneously extracts its syntactic and semantic implication.

Wanner and Morsos (1978): Wanner and Morsos established ‘the hold mechanism theory’, here a listener may store a sentence in short memory in order to process in subsequently to its perception.
Wilcox (1978): Wilcox conducted an experiment in Singapore to test students’ ability to comprehend various accents of English. His variables were four accents of English. He found that there is no correlation between the variables and discrepancies might be due to the following reasons:

a. the problem presented by the number of variables,
b. the types of tests might have measured other things.

Otto (1979): Otto conducted an experiment in University of Taiwan, China, on developing four types of listening skills through listening exercises and found that listening abilities can be developed by listening exercises.

Rivers (1980): Rivers argued that listening is not a passive skill, not a receptive skill, but it is a creative skill. It is dependent on three factors (a) linguistic information, (b) the situational context and (c) the intonation of the speaker. Foreign language learners need a wide range of vocabulary rather than a sophisticated knowledge of syntax.

Kalivoda (1980): As per Kalivoda’s research study we lack the ability to comprehend the spoken language due to the following areas:

a. the difficulty of remembering the message contained in the external speech,
b. the rapid sounding pace of the speech with its accompanying slurred qualities which contrast with the deliberate and well articulated talk most often heard in the classroom,
c. and the overwhelming number of unfamiliar words heard.
While listening to second language we chunk information and these chunks would help in LC (Listening Comprehension) through association.

Zappolo (1981) : Zappolo investigated that 45% of the time is spent in listening and to develop the listening skill a graded listening programme including listening exercises and simulation activities must be developed. This programme must be regular, frequent, graded, interesting, stimulating and challenging.

Bott (1982) : Bott reported that second language learners must know the plot of the listening passage, so that, while listening to the passage, they will concentrate on the language of the expression rather than what is expressed. He used cloze type exercises.

Dore (1985) : Dore justified that, in our normal speech experience in mothertongue the language grows out of context, in understanding a foreign language we use these experiences along with listening to a new stream of sounds.

Sheerin (1987) : Sheerin asserted that all the listening material for foreign language or second language must be carefully contextualized.

Nicholas (1988) : Nicholas found that listening is an internal process he constructs message based on sound clues he receives from interlocutor. A listener organizes sound and imposes some kind of structure on the stream of sound, then recirculates it in the mind, and in recirculating the knowledge of phonology or sound system works.
The research works that are related to the speaking skills and teaching of English as a second language in the Indian context are very few and they are reviewed by the researcher for his study related to improve English speaking skills.

Nair N. S. (1966) : The main aim of this research was to study the Common Language Difficulties in English of Secondary School Pupils in Kerala.

The objectives of the investigation were to find out the common language difficulties in English of secondary school children of Classes VIII, IX and X in Kerala. The objectives were to find out the causes of these difficulties and to suggest methods to prevent these difficulties.

The difficulties located were with structures and patterns, in the area of verbs, verb-forms, with words, phrases, idioms and difficulties with spellings and punctuation.

The findings were:

1. More than 65% of the total errors were committed in the area of grammatical structure. Pupils tried to do literal translation of their mother tongue into English.

2. About 20% of the total errors are of the use of articles.

3. About 15% of the total errors are in the area of preposition.
4. Nearly 26% of the total mistakes were from the script of spelling construction of sentence, syntax of the language.

5. Pupils understanding of the verb and verb-form is quite shaky and the learning of the same is unsystematic.

6. The difficulty regarding the proper use of articles is because of the fact that articles do not exist in native (Indian) language.

7. The pupils are unable to fix the prepositions in the groups of the words. They are unable to understand the function of the preposition in a group of words.

8. The lack of sufficient vocabulary and ignorance of the proper use of words in sentences, causes, mistakes in writing.

9. The inadequacy of reading material, defective methods of instruction in spelling, poor reading habits and lack of awareness of the importance of spelling contribute to the difficulties of pupils in spelling.

10. The mistakes in punctuation reveal that nothing systematic is done in this area. Most of the pupils know the use and significance of the full stop. The comma and other marks of punctuations are not used properly.

11. The pupils are ignorant of the proper use of ‘object’ after the transitive verb. These errors are committed because of the misapprehension among the pupils regarding the use of ‘objects’ in sentences.
The wrong practices of correcting the mistakes as well as the desirable methods of correcting them are suggested. Classification of the errors are based on the writing but the speaking skills are totally ignored.

In this present study classification of errors in English is focussed, by the researcher.

**Shukla S. K. (1968)**: This research was a study of problems of translation and the implications of its use as a Teaching Device with special reference to the Teaching of English to Hindi Speakers.

The main aim of the study were to examine the problem involved in the process of translation and the implication of its use as a teaching device. The study was made with reference to English, Hindi translation. It was taken for granted that the study may indicate the way in which the translation device of teaching a second language should be used.

The major findings were:

1. The translation device can be used as an aid to create meaningful context.

2. This device is not complete method of teaching a second language. It helps for the presentation and practice of language items.
3. This device cannot be adequate in teaching items which do not have their equivalents in the pupils' first language. The teacher using this device must be aware of the limitations of translation.

By this research, we should know that the translation device is not suitable to improve the English speaking skills. This research was helpful to prepare the programme.

Murthy R.V.S. (1968): This was the study of the Direct Method and the Bilingual Method of Teaching English.

The main purpose of the investigation was to compare, under experimental conditions, the effectiveness of the Bilingual Method and the Direct Method in teaching English to Telgu speaking pupils. It was the purpose of the study to verify the validity of Dodson's claims regarding the effectiveness of the Bilingual Method in the realistic setting of a classroom.

The important findings were:

1. The Bilingual Method is more effective than the Direct Method in developing the pupil's ability in oral reading, oral comprehension and expression.

2. A considerably greater frequency of contacts with English, per pupil, per lesson can be obtained under the Bilingual Method. It was 14 as against 7 under the Direct Method.
3. The burden on the teachers in terms of the amount of time spent in preparing lesson plans is less in the case of the Bilingual Method. It is 33 minutes as against 52.4 minutes under the Direct Method.

By this research, we should know that Bilingual Method is useful to teachers to prepare lessons and lesson plans and understanding the contents. But it is less useful to acquire the English speaking skills while this was an experimental study, it would helpful to this present research work.

Indapurkar C. D. (1968): It was a linguistic study of errors in English of middle school pupils of Chandrapur (Chanda) District of North-East Maharashtra.

Conclusions of his studies are as follows:

The lexical errors were not frequent in any standard as revealed in oral test. The error of verbal inflection type was very frequent. There were errors of pronouns, articles etc. There were errors regarding nominal phrase structures, verbal phrase structure and prepositional phrase structure.

The researcher classified the errors in English but those were in reading and writing. Speaking skills were given less attention. The remedial programme is not suggested by the researcher.
Mishra J. N. (1969) : This was a study of the Problems and Difficulties of Hindi, English and Sanskrit Language teaching at Secondary Stage.

This study aimed at:

i. illustrating the importance of language in all round development of child's personality;

ii. finding out the reasons of deterioration of the standard of Hindi, English and Sanskrit languages among the students at higher secondary stage;

iii. Knowing the practical problems and difficulties of Hindi, English and Sanskrit language teachers in their daily language teaching and,

iv. giving the various practical and constructive suggestions for improving the standard of Hindi, English and Sanskrit languages among the students.

A questionnaire containing twenty nine different common parts of Hindi, English and Sanskrit language teaching was developed. It was sent to 1000 HES teachers of higher secondary schools of Madhya Pradesh. Data were collected through interviews, observation and a survey of literature of Hindi, English and Sanskrit language teaching.
The main findings were as follows:

i. Ninety per cent teachers experienced the difficulty of explanation in prose teaching; more than seventy per cent teachers used translation method.

ii. Only thirty-two per cent teachers inspired the students for general reading.

iii. Nearly ten per cent of the teachers were found to motivate the students to not certain important language material in the class.

iv. Forty per cent of the teachers did not give practice of loud reading and less than fifty per cent of the teachers asked the students to memorise certain good pieces of prose and poetry.

v. Very few teachers gave practice of correct pronunciation.

vi. Seventy five per cent of the teachers recommended oral and writing practice to improve upon correct spelling.

vii. Most of the teachers considered Inductive Method of grammar teaching more suitable in language teaching.

viii. Eighty per cent teachers found Deductive Method more useful for teaching of grammar.

ix. Majority of the teachers did not find time for correction of translation work due to heavy work-load.

x. Majority of teachers adopted dictation method in essay writing.
xi. Almost all teachers were of the opinion that homework was essential but only 25% were able to check and correct homework of the students.

xii. All the teachers felt that the courses of all the languages were too vast to finish in time before the commencement of examination.

xiii. Ninety per cent teachers pointed out that the lesson in the textbooks were above the mental level of the students.

xiv. Ninety-five per cent of the teachers accepted the language examination to be essential.

It was a survey to study the problems and difficulties of language teaching. It focussed all around the language teaching and opinions of the language teachers. We should come to know that very few teachers gave practice to correct pronunciation (Finding No. V). Mean the speaking skills were less important than others.

Sharan P. B. (1971) : It was a contrastive study of Bhoipuri and English with special reference to the Teaching of English and to the Influence of Hindi on Bhoipuri Speakers.

The aim of the study were : 

i. to locate the area of difficulty faced by the learners of English in Bihar (especially those who speak Bhoipuri as the first language and Hindi as the regional language); and

ii. to study the Bhoipuri speakers’ use of English.
The study is based on the preparation of descriptive sketches of phonology, morphology, syntax and vocabulary of Bhojpuri, Hindi and English and the contrastive studies following therefrom. In order to study Bhojpuri, Hindi, Bhojpuri English and Hindi English forms, the towns of Bihar were visited. The library was also one of the important sources of data Descriptive and contrastive analysis of Bhojpuri, Hindi and English were made.

The study revealed that:

i. there were number of similarities and similarities among Bhojpuri, Hindi and English.

ii. these created areas of difficulty and brought about problems of language learning for the speakers of Bhojpuri and Hindi.

iii. the affricate in English as compared to that in Bhojpuri and Hindi was an area of difficulty for the learners of English, at though not a very significant one as the English affricates were different from the Hindi palatals in respect at structural features and articulation;

iv. the subjectives posed a great problem for the Hindi and Bhojpuri learners of English because these were absolutely absent in Hindi and Bhojpuri;

v. the habit of ‘rawing back’ on the mother tongue accounted for another difficulty in this connection;
vi. the system of aspect caused a major problem for the English learners of Hindi or Bhojpuri origin; they usually confused between the present perfect and past tense in English, which had no parallel in Bhojpuri and Hindi.

vii. the use of auxiliaries created another significant problem for the English language learners of Bhojpuri and Hindi origin.

This was a contrastive study of Bhojpuri, Hindi, and English. We should come to know that the effect of mother tongue and regional languages occurs on English teaching and English speaking skills.

Shastri S. V. (1972): This research was related to the Teaching of English as a Second Language in Bombay with special reference to Structural Approach at work.

The purposes of the study were:

i. to ascertain the existing position of teaching English as a foreign language in the secondary schools in Bombay.

ii. to detect and locate the areas of students' weaknesses with regard to their knowledge of certain structures and vocabulary at the secondary school level; and

iii. to provide a basis for teaching English to the first year college students.
The study was divided into two phases, namely, the pilot study and the final investigation. For the pilot study, a proforma for collecting data was prepared and sent to 261 secondary schools in Bombay. A supplementary survey was conducted after a period of three years with the same proforma and the same schools. The data were analysed quantitatively. The second phase started with the construction of an exploratory test in English meant to serve as a tool for collecting data. The test was first administered to forty-two Gujarati speaking students and forty Marathi speaking students, who had completed their S.S.C. course and were about to appear for the public examination. It was also administered to a batch of 96 students attending the practice teaching classes attached to the Summer Institute in English Language Teaching.

In the light of the students obtained the test was modified and finally administered to a sample of first year arts and science college students. The sample was planned to be representative of all the three classes of first, second and pass classes on a proportional basis. The size of the sample was planned to be ten percent of the total college population. The four parts of the test constructed on the basis of the Helen Bernard's Vocabulary Test, covered 1,200 vocabulary items and 108 verb form items. The test was designed to be a test of recognition consisting of four sections. In order to analyse the data, simple frequencies and product-moment corrections were used.
The major findings of the study were:

i. the performance of the students on the vocabulary test had a significant correlation with their performance at the S.S.C. examination;

ii. the average vocabulary of a student was 1,800 assuming the first 1300 untested words; the range of the vocabulary was from 1,000 to 2000;

iii. nearly a quarter of the tested vocabulary was known by sixty percent of the students;

iv. over half of the tested vocabulary was known by forty percent of the students;

v. over three quarters of the tested vocabulary was known by twenty percent of the students;

vi. out of every 100 items answered, only sixty were correct;

vii. the frequency distribution curves for all the sections-separately and put together were skewed to the left;

viii. a closer analysis of several random scripts revealed a variety of errors which the students had committed.

It was a survey of the teaching of English Language teaching to detect and locate the areas of students weaknesses with regard the knowledge of certain structures and vocabulary at the secondary school level.
Rajgopalan S. (1972) : It was a critical study of the English curriculum English at the primary and secondary stages of education in Tamil Nadu.

The main purpose of the study was to examine and identify inadequacies in respect of objectives of teaching English, present English syllabus, text books used, audio-visual aids available, methods of instruction followed, the evaluation procedures utilized etc.

The findings of the study revealed that:

1. nearly 29.3% English teachers are untrained.
2. majority of teachers and supervisors are yet out of pail of inservice training.
3. majority of the teachers, supervisors and parents supported English to be compulsory at school stage.
4. use of translation method, poor knowledge of English on the part of the teachers have caused the fall in standard of learning English.
5. inadequate syllabus unsuitable text-books and very poor methods of instruction are some of the most potential in deteriorating the learning situation.

This survey focussed on the situation of subject and its parts on a these days. But now situation is changed. There are many trained
teachers and text-books are skill-based, those are useful to learn English as communicatively.

**Pattayak Dave, Varadbuttachar and Upadhyaya (1972):** They carried out a project work, and conducted an experiment on PUC students. The findings related to this study are taken here (a) there would exist significant difference between the language skills of males and females (b) parental income, education and occupation affect on the development of language skills.

**Vora J. A. (1973):** It was a critical study of the present position of teaching English in secondary schools at Gujrat State.

This aimed at providing a broad picture of the various dimensions pertaining to the teaching of English as a second language in Gujrat in 1973:

The major findings of the study were as follows:

i. Only 30% of the teachers had their training in English and the rest of the teachers had their training in subjects other than English.

ii. The syllabus revised in 1962 was found to be unscientific. It was done by the Committee appointed by the board, while framing the text-books the sociological background of the students and the psychological factor of the particular age group did not seem to be taken into consideration.
iii. Teachers in Gujarat were provided with a handbook for the textbook to be used in the classroom.

iv. Teachers had no choice of the instructional material as the only material available in the market were some workbooks and copybooks.

v. Forty percent of the teachers had favoured structural approach to teach, composition work was the weakest link in the teaching programme which was not associated with the textbooks.

Like Tamil Nadu, in Gujarat also the position of teaching English in secondary schools was very poor. But now situation is changed.

Abraham (1974) : He studied 820 class students’ achievement and investigated that attitude towards English, personal adjustment, social adjustment socioeconomic status, sex, area, (rural or urban) type of schools and age factors affect on second language learning.

Seth (1974) : Seth used socio-economic status scale (Kuppuswamy) and intelligence test of Valentine to study the effect of audio visual aids on 30 students learning process and investigated that (a) the audio-visual aids found to be more beneficial for the girls of lower IQ but increased the achievement scores of the high IQ girls.

Dewal O. S. (1974) : This was a study of difficulties in Teaching English and effectiveness of Programmed Teaching.
The major objectives of the study were:

i. to study teachers' perception of difficulties which hampered effective teaching and learning of English; and

ii. to study the effectiveness of programmed teaching.

For the first part of the study 93 English teachers of Udaipur constituted the sample. A total of 160 students of class VIII of four government schools of Udaipur city were employed as the sample for the second part of the study. As for tools, a questionnaire was administered to the teachers for the purpose of data collection. A pretest, programme and the post-test were administered to the students.

The study revealed that:

i. the difficulties hampering effective teaching and learning of English were due to the shortage of trained teachers lack of subject competence in teachers, dearth of good teaching-learning material, lack of individual attention, and poor socio-economic background;

ii. programmed teaching overcome some of the felt difficulties of the teachers and helped students to perform significantly better than those who were taught by conventional method; and

iii. the strategy proved useful in a situation where teachers were under qualified and untrained in teaching English.
We should come to know that there are many difficulties in teaching English due to the shortage of trained teachers, lack of subject competence in teachers, lack of individual attention and poor socio-economic background. And programmed teaching is very useful and helpful to overcome these difficulties. But here the researcher did not think of improving the language skills.

Gadgil (1978) : Gadgil studied the causes of failure in English in S.S.C. examination. He studied 26924 candidates and 100 answer scripts and investigated that, due to inadequate attention paid to comprehension is one of the causes of failures.

Phukan (1979) : Phukan made a longitudinal study of 18 preschool children and invented that-

a. bilingualism is not a serious handicap in linguistic development.

b. there was no detrimental effect in learning more than one language at the same time provided they are taught correctly,

c. slurred communication, in correct pronunciation, poor inaccurate grammatical form practised by the adults influence a child’s speech,

d. the types of speech a child developed is closely linked to the kind of speech he heard around him.
Gallon (1982): Gallon conducted an experiment in 20 schools by using audio-visual aids and found that audio-visual aids helped in developing clear concepts and stimulated learning.

Gaikwad M. A. (1982): It was a comparative study of efficacy of the Direct Method and the Bilingual Method of Teaching English to Lower classes of secondary schools in Rural Areas of Maharashtra State, an Experiment.

The objectives of the study were:

1. To examine the comparative efficacy of the Direct Method and the Bilingual Method under experimental condition for teaching English as a second language to lower classes of secondary schools in rural area.

2. To compare the achievement of pupils in language learning gained the Direct Method and the Bilingual Method in respect of four basic skills of learning namely l, s, r, w and in the case of structure and vocabulary comprehension.

3. To observe the efficiency of the methods in respect of suitability of the methods to the teacher in realistic rural conditions and in terms of time, energy required for preparation and presentation of teaching material by the teacher.

4. To observe the efficiency of the methods in respect of suitability of the methods to the learners in terms of their difficulties in comprehension.
The major findings of the study were-

1. The Bilingual Method was superior to Direct Method in developing linguistic skills of understanding, speaking and writing.

2. The Bilingual Method was also superior to the Direct Method so far as developing the language elements of structures and vocabulary in the pupils was concerned.

3. Both the methods were equally effective so far as reading skills were concerned.

4. From the view point of suitability of the method to the teacher as well as learner, the Bilingual Method was more suitable than the Direct Method.

5. The Bilingual Method enabled the teacher and the pupils to speed up inter-communication among themselves.

By this experiment we should come to know that the Bilingual Method was superior to the Direct Method in developing linguistic skills of understanding, speaking and writing.

**Bhattacharjee, R.** (1984) : It was an investigation into the teaching of English in Highschools of East Koshi Hills District of Meghalaya.
The major conclusions of this study were:

1. The majority of the teachers of English were not professionally equipped to teach English.

2. Teaching at the foundation stage was neglected.

3. There was no uniformity regarding work load of teachers of English in different categories of schools.

4. English readers were written according to the latest approach to the teaching of English, the readers were not accompanied by teachers' handbooks.

5. The mean overall score in English in classroom teaching was between poor and satisfactory.

6. Experience and professional training played significant roles in the teaching of English.

7. The majority of the teachers were not aware of appropriate methods and not clear about the fourfold objectives of teaching English. They did not use teaching aids and other materials. They did not give assignments, evaluate students' progress and take remedial measures in the English class.

8. Training in selected skills through microteaching was effective in improving teaching competence of the teachers of English. Microteaching supplemented training in English teaching methodology.
The researcher investigated that the majority of teachers of English were not professionally equipped to teach English. English readers were prepared according to the latest approach to the teaching of English, but the majority of teachers were not aware of appropriate methods and not clear about the fourfold objectives of teaching English.

Karande, Ashok (1984) : The purpose of his M.Phil research being very limited, it will confine itself to the description of deviations from the native variety as well so called G.I.E. and E.I.E.

Conclusion : The linguistic habit which gets fixed because of using ones mother-tongue gets hundred day by day and when this speaker attempts to acquire a new language the mother-tongue linguistic habit begins to interfere i.e. apparently similar phonemes of one’s mother-tongue are used in place of phonemes of the new language. However when the learner tries to suppress the $L_1$ sound system, its influence is not removed. Consequently it affects the whole process of the $L_2$ speech.


The main aim of the research was to study the position of English in India and the problems of its teaching/learning in the schools.
The major findings of the study were as follows:

1. During the past three decades there had been a gradual lowering of the standards of English due to various reasons like socio-political problems of teaching.

2. Efficient teaching of English was lacking. There was a shortage of trained and qualified teachers. Traditional methods and conservative based of teaching were in commensurate with language needs to learners.

3. Misconceptions regarding English language teaching faulty teaching methods, unpalatable text books and their mishandling, etc. were the main problems at middle and highschools.

4. Students faced difficulty in picking up correct pronunciation of English. Sounds of already acquired languages mainly interfered with their pronunciation of English.

5. There was confusion about the aims and objectives of teaching English at the various stages.

The position of English in India was very poor and there were many problems of teaching, learning English in the schools. Misconceptions regarding English language teaching, faulty teaching methods, unpalatable text-books and their mishandling etc. were the main problems tat middle and highschools. Students faced difficulty in picking up correct pronunciation of English. Sounds of already acquired
languages mainly interfered with their pronunciation of English. There were many problems to improve the speaking skills.

**Apraj S. A. (1992)**: The main objectives of his research for Ph.D. were:

1. To investigate micro-listening abilities of listening skill of secondary school students who are studying English as a second language.

2. To devise various listening language exercises to develop the micro-listening abilities.

3. To find out the relationship between the micro-listening abilities and the listening language in secondary schools.

4. To prepare a listening test of English as a secondary language for testing the developing of micro-listening abilities.

5. To compare the achievements in listening abilities of the control group and the experimental group pupils who are studying English as a second language.

The main findings of the study were:

1. Second language listening is not a passive skill. It is an active skill and it can be developed by a systematic training programme having listening language exercises.

2. Second language listening skill involves language elements like phonology, vocabulary, grammatical and syntactic notes.
3. Listening language exercises are of great use in developing the listening skill of second language learners.

4. Listening skill can be tested without activating other language learning-skills i.e. speaking, reading and writing.

5. Bottom up theory of listening comprehension is useful in developing listening skill of the learners of English as a second language.

By this research, we should come to know that listening skill can be developed by a systematic training programme having listening language exercises. Listening skill are measurable without activating other language learning-skills i.e. speaking, reading and writing. And bottom up theory of listening comprehension is useful in developing listening skill of the learners of English as a second language.

Chougule S. S. (1992) : For his M. Phil. study he studied critically of teaching English at the upper primary stage (Stds. V to VII).

The objectives of the study were:

1. To study critically different methods of teaching English at the upper primary stage and to find out the shortcomings, if any, in teaching of English so as to improve upon them to realise the objectives of teaching English.

2. To study the methods used for teaching English at the upper primary stage.
3. To study the preparation of teachers who teaches English at the stage.

4. To study the use of educational aids while teaching English at the stage.

5. To study the ways and means of evaluating the students’ achievements in English at the stage.

6. To find out the shortcomings, if any in teaching of English.

7. To make suggestions regarding the ways and means and measures to be adopted to improve the present position of teaching English.

The major findings of the study were:

1. The objectives of teaching English are to enable the students to develop the four basic skills namely l, s, r, w.

2. Teachers felt that 'no atmosphere of English outside the school and at the school' also.

3. Teachers felt that 'insufficient provision of audio-visual aids and shortage of time' are the causes for not realising the objectives properly.

4. Teachers used 'classroom speech' and reading aloud to develop the sound system and are made efforts by presenting minimal pairs, by giving pronunciation drill and by presenting models of sounds.
5. Teachers are facing the problems of new habits of pronunciation, stress and intonation, changes due to adjacent sounds, some new clusters of sounds, some new vowel sounds.

6. Teachers agreed that it is necessary to teach English by the multiskill situational approach i.e. l & s, l & r, r & w.

7. Teachers used the following techniques for developing the listening skill of the pupils.
   a. Making the pupils to listen to Radio lessons.
   b. By exercises in fluency.
   c. Conducting the entire lesson in English only.
   d. By articulation exercises.
   e. Making use of audio-visual aids such as tape-recorder, gramophone etc.
   f. By ear-training exercises.
   g. Mimicry exercises.

8. Following are the difficulties that the teachers faced in developing listening skill of the pupils.
   a. The pupils are not capable to understand English.
   b. Teacher themselves don’t speak English.
   c. Lack of knowledge of proper method.
   d. Lack of audio-visual aids.
   e. Lack of own in competency in speaking English.
   f. Lack of suitable atmosphere in school and outside the school.
9. Teachers used the following types of techniques to develop the speaking skill of pupils.
   a. Giving picture lessons.
   b. Giving objects lessons.
   c. Giving saying and doing exercises.
   d. Giving opportunities for speaking and conversation.
   e. By arranging questions and answers among the pupils.
   f. Arranging oral composition.
   g. By dramatization.
   h. By language games.
   i. By arranging talks and discussions.

10. Teacher had opined that 'Teaching of English' should begin with oral work and all lessons in the beginning should be oral lessons at least for a period of two months.'

11. Following are the difficulties that the teachers faced while developing the speaking skill of the pupils.
   a. Ignorance of various methods.
   b. Lack of time.
   c. Lack of audio-visual aids.
   d. Ignorance of Language games.
   e. Ignorance of various techniques to be followed for oral work.
   f. They themselves, don't speak English correctly and fluently.

By this research we should come to know that the objectives of teaching English are to enable the students to develop the four basic skills
namely l, s, r, w. There are many difficulties in developing Listening and speaking skills of the pupils.

**Karande Ashok** (1994): This investigation for Ph.D. carried out by the present researcher in phonological analysis of English spoken by ten Marathi speaking professionals, settled in district place i.e. Satara provided the necessary background for this study. This work focuses on the 'Acoustic Aspect.'

The major findings of the study were:

There are certain features of speech which are out of the scope of articulatory phonetics. The acoustic phonetics is much more accurate than the articulatory phonetics.

Most of the EIE (Educated Indian English) speakers use the eight grammatical category of words in the eight place by shifting stress whenever it is necessary.

**Kulkarni K. V.** (1995): This M.Phil. research is the modest and sincere attempt to describe the weak forms of English words as pronounced by Indian speakers. It is generally agreed by all that Indian English is a different variety like American English and British English. This study is based on the description of weak forms which occur frequently in the use of English.

The major findings of the study were:

1. It is evident that the Indian speakers of English are unaware of the use of weak forms.
2. T.V. news reader is a drained user of language. It is likely the news readers, being professional are aware of the supra-segmental features.

3. Some weak forms are frequently used by speakers, some weak forms are rarely used and weak forms are never used.

By these two M.Phil researcher we should be come to know that, how mother-tongue affects to learning English speaking-skills in Indian context but these researcher were related to Indian people (Adult) not to pupils in Indian context.

IMPORTANCE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Though there are studies that are directly related and some indirectly related to this study, the research designs, methodology, sample show wide variations and no definite conclusions can be drawn. They have enabled this researcher to plan this study properly and execute it.

Moreover no study of this nature and design (experimental design) for studying the English speaking skills of VIII standard Marathi medium students have been done earlier.

Hence, the research problems can be said as original and as pointed out in the first chapter in the significance of the study there is definite need of conducting research work on the topic selected for this study.