Chapter II
Review of literature

2.1 Background

The concept of management education as a discipline of study is of recent origin and it seems to have gained a great deal of popularity in the last few decades. It is well known that management courses have a multi disciplinary curriculum which includes components like organization behaviour, organization communication, human resource management, group dynamics, strategic development, etc. Since these topics are borrowed from social sciences like sociology, educational psychology, economics and language pedagogy, this researcher has reviewed books and research articles related to the subjects mentioned above. For the sake of convenience the books and articles reviewed for the purpose of study are kept under the following heads:

I. Importance of English at the global level
II. Communication in organization
III. Teaching and Testing Spoken English
IV. Second language acquisition

2.2 Importance of English at the global level

2.2.1 Importance of speaking ability in English

Baker, (2003) opines that “educators, governments, ministry of Education and employers of companies and organizations want people who can speak English fluently in order to interact with people in the international market place. Hence those students who speak good English will have a greater chance of further education, more employment and promotional opportunities. He says, “Good English speakers will be in a strong position to help their country’s economic, social and political development” .


2.2.2 English in business organizations

Vanhorne (2009, pg 620 to 630) opines that English is crucial for the survival and the enrichment of global commerce because it has been accepted as the language of global commerce of 21st century. He states that English plays a vital role in “advertising in market and retail/institutional service encounters, and in daily talk at the work place” and helps to build professional identity. According to him though the use of English is vital for Global commerce in Asia, “the use of English in business in Japan, Korea, China, South Asia has become only a source of comment and curiosity” and not the subject for peer reviewed research. He then states that we do not yet have a picture of how English is used “within and between corporations and consumers”. The author cites Connor (1988), Yotsukura (2003) and Stanlaw (2004) who have done cross cultural and intercultural studies in Japan. He states that Connor (1988) has studied letters in English exchanged between America and Japanese; Yotsukura (2003) has studied Japanese telephone interactions and Stanlaw(2004) has documented it. Furthermore the author cites the studies done by Grundy(1998, 628 -630)who has examined parallel memos in Chinese and English in a Hong Kong bank; Bhatia(2000) who has examined English and language mixing in rural advertising and Hartford and Meboob who have examined letters of complaint to the editor in English and Urdu.

2.2.3 Spoken English in commerce

Vanhorn (1990: 620, 28, 29, and 30) opines that meetings and negotiations are two types of spoken language vital to commerce since meetings are central to meaning making and relationship maintenance, and negotiations are vital in producing change that may mean growth and profit. The author quotes Bargiela-chippinie and Harris (1997a:7) to assert that meanings are very essential in business organizations and says that they “are the organizations themselves.”

The author cites the study done by Bargiela-chippinie and Harris who have explained the organization and social structures of Italian and British business meetings and have made a cross cultural comparative study. The author also cites Yamada (1992, 1996, and 1997) who has made an analytical and cross
cultural study of the distribution of topic and turns in Japanese meetings and US settings. Yamada stated that “turns are more evenly distributed in number in Japanese meetings; whereas American meetings are more agenda- driven; secondly he says that Japanese meetings have an initial sounding-out phase which is lacking in American meetings. (1997a).

2.2.4 Business negotiations

Stanley Yunick Vanhorn (2009, 628-629) opines that business contexts, and negotiations may have a variety of meanings, “from simply trying to get a desired something to settling on terms to make a deal”. He cites Charles (1996; Lampi’ 1986), who have presented a two tier model of business negotiation based on her research in the UK. He also cites Stalper (1992) who has made an analytical study of cross-cultural business phone negotiations. According to this researcher “business calls” are more a matter of fact than ordinary calls, and important topics may be resumed out of sequence without the normally requisite face work. Firth (1990, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, and Ehlich and Wagner (1995), have also worked on cross-cultural studies.

2.2.5 Role and nature of English in South Asia

Gargesh (2009: 90-108) cites Kachru (1997) to say that English has been given a special place in South Asian language policies and planning on account of its wide spread functions in the domains of education, social life, and cross cultural communication. Apart from India even in countries like Bangladesh, Bhutan, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, English is looked upon as a “language of power and as a means of economic up liftment and upward social mobility”. He opines that English serves as a link-language among people of different languages and cultures and suggests that instead of treating English as a colonial liability it should be treated as an asset.

In the next part of his article the author discusses the role and functions of English under the sub headings: (a) Multilingualism (b) Language policy in education (c) the use of English in the media and (d) Literary activity.
(1) Multilingualism

The author quotes Crystal (2004: 38) to say that “bilingualism/multilingualism is the common feature among two thirds of the population all over the world”. He cites Srivastava (1994) to say that English performs four clear functions in South Asia namely (a) Auxiliary (b) Supplementary (c) Complimentary (d) Equative.

In this context, auxiliary function refers to the use of English as a library language for acquisition of knowledge; supplementary function refers to the use of English by Indian tourists abroad or tourist guides and taxi drivers in India who use English for ‘restricted needs’ and he calls such users ‘unstable bilinguals’, and complimentary function of English refers to the use of English as a link language among people of different mother tongues and the term equative function refers to the use of English as a substitute language in all contexts where the speakers use their first language. The author opines that equative function creates ‘ambilinguals’. In all these multilingual contexts English exists in a non conflicting situation.

(2) Language policy

Here the author makes a reference to the status of English as an Associate Official Language in India. Gargesh says that there is a significant rise in the demand for teaching of English in class or grade one and this demand ‘signifies the transformation of the society from an agrarian to an industrial and service based one’.

(3) Attitude towards English

Gargesh while describing the attitude of the people toward English quotes Abbiet all (200:20, 22) to say that English is the most desired medium of Education and not desirable as a mother tongue. He also quotes Agnihotri and Khanna(1997:74) to say that people in India learn English for job purposes and learning English serves the instrumental function.
(4) The use of English in Media:

(i) Variations in language use

Gargesh says that several varieties of South Asian English have emerged in the sub-continent and these are seen in phonology, lexicon, syntax and usage. Some of his observations are given below:

a) Phonology

1. The vowels /e/ o/ are realized as monophthongs.
2. The difference between /ʌ/ and /ʊ/, /ŋ/, /æ/, /ɒ/ is not clear cut.
3. The voiceless plosives /p/, /t/, /k/ in a stressed syllable is not aspirated.
4. The alveolar /ʌ/, /d/ become retroflexed.
5. The inter dental fricatives /θ/ (the symbol to be added) are not there.

(b) Lexicon

The author says that English words have acquired fresh meanings in local contexts. And he gives examples of the use of crore and lakh as indigenous words introduced into English language as units of measurements. Some of the words listed in his article are dosa, idli, vada, roti, full boiled and half boiled egg, finger chips, ; innovative compounds like pen down strike, tool down strike, driver cum sales men, to air lift, to air dash, to charge sheet etc.

(c) Syntax

The author reports studies done by B. Kachru (1983, 1994) T. Rahman (1990) S. Shridhar (1996) and Bhat (2004) in the area of syntax. He comments on the use of complex noun phrases like Metro’s Operation Control Centre to concretize a name and he says that it reflects the influence of L1. Secondly he refers to the use of ‘stative verbs’ in present continuous tense, the most popular absence of subject and verb inversion in questions, and the popular use of ‘isn’t or ‘no’ in tag questions.
d) Communicative styles

Gargesh (Kachru, 2003) opines that people use a communicative style appropriate to their socio cultural context and gives the following examples to prove his point:

(a) Matrimonial advertisement: convt. prof. Qlfld. Fair.Bful, Brahmin girl for fair h’some K K B boy, 27/172/, MBA from reputed university with MNC Delhi as International Mkt. Mgr. Send BHP. Write to box No. LUC 510603C, Times of India Lucknow – 01 (the Times of India, August 15, 2004, Matrimonial section Pg 104)

[Convt = convent-educated, Prof.Qlfld = professionally qualified, bful = beauti=ful, KKB = KanyaKubja Brahmin, BHP = Biodata, Horoscope and Photograph]

(b) He comments that, announcements of death are culture specific. He quotes a notification in “The Times of India” (dated August 2004 Pg 4). It says “the sad demise” of a person whose “Pious soul departed for the heavenly abode”.

(c) The author gives several examples of a code mixed style used in informal talk in the news papers. For example, (1) “PM shatters babu’s dreams”, (2) “After laboring hard for 3 days, the BJP fourth day Chintan Baithak has delivered a mouse” (3) A Pepsi advt. says” yeh dil maange more”.

(d) Gargesh remarks that, politeness in Asian society is a conventionalized phenomenon (Kachru, 2003). He gives the following examples:

1. What is your good name, please?

2. Take only this much, just this much, and have some more.

The author concludes saying that English has been given a unique place unlike that of any other local language. He is of the opinion that the main objective of English language Education is to reduce ‘social and economic disparities’ and ‘inequality of
power’ and to provide opportunities for everyone to learn English. He opines that people should exercise regional autonomy for developing a curriculum suited to their culture.

2.2.6 Indian variety of spoken English

Bansal (1985, pg 13-20) says that the Indian variety of spoken English doesn’t differ radically from native speaker’s English in grammar and vocabulary but it differs in their pronunciation both with British and American English. Further he states that there are a large number of regional varieties each different from the other in certain ways. Secondly he opines that not all forms of Indian English can be accepted as models. Therefore he advocates adopting intelligibility as the basic criterion for the efficiency of a dialect. Incidentally he reports a project that he undertook, which culminated with the description of the Indian spoken English variety which now comes to be called General Indian English (GIE).

2.3. Communication in an organization

2.3.1 Nature and process of business communication

Penrose, Rasbery and Myers (2001, pg 3 & 4) opine that communication is a process that oils the gears that turn the machinery of business. Supporting this process are the skills of communication—“skills that occupy as much as 90% of a top executive’s working day”. They cite research evidence in support of the statement. They state that in a study of 139 Texas Business Executives, knowledge of business communication was considered very important by 85%. The study says that the skills of oral presentations, memo writing, basic grammar, informational report writing and analytical report writing require attention. The authors also say that another study of executives in Fortune Five hundred companies, besides supporting the findings mentioned above included skills of external communication and technical applications as worth paying attention to.

Chaturvedi and Mukesh opine that exchange of thoughts and opinions through speech or writing and communication is a way of sharing their feelings and knowledge and by doing so they build a bond among people. They quote
Anderson and Keith Davis in support of their opinion (2006, Pg no 21 to 27). According to the authors communication has the following components: (a) message (b) sender (c)encoding (d) channel (e) receiver (f) decoding and (g) feedback. They present the process of communication diagrammatically as shown below.

**Process of communication**

Vishwanathan (2006 pg 2 and 3) opines that the process of communication many a time explains the difference between success and failure and also profit and loss. He adds that this fact has been accepted as true by both the corporate community and business schools. He cites the results of Harward Business review pool of practitioners and academicians held in 1984 to emphasize the fact that the oral and written skills of MBAs need honing. The author opines that good communication skills are important both for job aspirants and for the proper functioning of an organization. Good communication skills which are tested in a job aspirant’s job application and personal interview decide his/her failure to get selected. Good Communication skills also pave the way for further career advancement.

Robbins et.al (2009, pg 282-83) state that communication is expected to serve four important functions in an organization. They are (a) exercising control over employees (b) keeping employees motivated (c) providing a space for expressing emotions and fulfilment of societal needs (d) disseminating information. Furthermore the authors opine that cross cultural factors come in the way of successful communication. They cite Muntor (1993, pg 75-76) to say that there are four specific problems related to language in cross cultural communications. They are
“(1) Barriers caused by semantics,
(2) Barriers caused by word connotations,
(3) Barriers caused by tone differences, and
(4) Barriers caused by differences among perceptions”.

They opine that there is a lot of variation in the importance given to the context of communication across cultures and so they state that managers have to be explicit and precise in expressing their intended meaning. They cite the case of China, Korea, Japan and Vietnam as instances of High Context Cultures. In such cultures ‘nonverbal and subtle situational cues determine the efficacy of communication. They say that a “person’s official status, place in society and reputation carry considerable weight in communications”, Whereas Europe and North America are considered as low context cultures where communication depends only on words.

2.3.2 Managerial approaches to communication

According to Clampitt (2005, pg 1-22), there are three ways by which managers normally communicate in organizations. They are

(a) Arrow approach
(b) Circuit approach and
(c) Dance approach

(a) He opines that managers who choose the arrow approach for communication consider ‘communication as a one-way activity based primarily on the skills of the sender. The people who receive the messages are viewed as passive information processors who react appropriately if the words are on the mark. Thus arrow managers focus on accurately encoding their thoughts into language much like selecting, aiming and firing arrows at a target’. Such managers probably believe that feedback is not necessary. To conclude for arrow managers:

Effective Expression = Effective Communication
(b) The author opines that the circuit approach is a further development from the arrow to the circle. He reports that ‘circuit managers emphasize feedback over response, relationship over content, connotations over denotations, and understanding over compliance. According to the author circuit managers consider communication as a two way process involving a dynamic interplay of an active sender and receiver’.

c) The author opines that ‘there are many similarities between dance and communication. Some of the similarities are

(1) Communication is used for multiple purposes.

(2) Communication involves the coordination of meanings.

(3) Communication involves co-orientation.

(4) Communication is rule governed.

He concludes saying that ‘managers who look upon communication as a dance look upon the process of communication and use dance as metaphor with which to analyze organizational situations. Such managers foresee potential problems in communication. They are also aware of patterns and unwritten rules. They also foresee the need for co-orientation between employees as well as departments. They also do not wish to be understood at all times and do not also see understanding as the goal of communication. They are neither worried about relationships nor expect immediate results. Therefore their style of communication and the choice of medium vary according to the goals of the context’.

2.3.3 Interpersonal Skills

The authors, Whetten and Cameron (2007, pg 226-257), state that advancements in communication technology have created the following problems:

1. During day-to-day corporate communication an abnormal load of information is transmitted, which the receivers find it difficult to comprehend. Often the information as communicated sounds insignificant or meaningless because it is de contextualized. Consequently their recipient
cannot interpret the message properly and with precision. The sender has to establish a relationship of trust and share the context. Therefore these writers cite Rosen (1998) who says ‘to make the most of electronic communication requires learning to communicate better face to face’. The authors then state that the ability to communicate better involves a range of activities-‘from writing to speech making to body language’. The author cites Crocker’s (1978) study which assessed thirty one skills. It was found that interpersonal communication skills including his name were rated as most important. The authors comment that in spite of the fact that there are academic departments in colleges, universities and business schools engaged in teaching , different forms and modes/ channels of business communication through speech and writing, yet ‘most managers still indicate that poor communication is their biggest problem’ (Schnake et al 1990, quoted in Whetten and Cameron (2007, pg no 231). The authors conclude that ‘proficiency in interpersonal communication is critical to managerial success’ (Spitzberg 1994, quoted in Whetten and Cameron, 2007:231).

In the next part the authors cite three real incidents to argue that inaccurate communication creates havoc because while transmitting information the senders with a view to ensuring accuracy send the message with little alteration or variation from original intent and many a time the messages get distorted because of changes in pronunciation, cultural contexts or variation in language use. The authors give the example of the ‘use of the word table’ in an American meeting if someone says he or she has tabled a subject it means that its discussion is postponed but in a British meeting ‘to table a topic means to discuss it now’. In this context the authors say that though there is a lot of importance given to improving accuracy in communication through the development of a ‘sophisticated information based technology’. ‘Comparable progress has not occurred in the interpersonal aspect of communication and individuals still frequently communicate in abrasive, insensitive and unproductive ways’.
This discussion can be diagrammatically represented as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships Between Unskilful Communication and Interpersonal Relationships</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abrasive, Insensitive, unskilful message delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distant, distrustful, uncaring interpersonal relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restricted, inaccurate information and defective communication flow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next part the authors advocate a kind of interpersonal communication which helps you communicate accurately and honestly without jeopardizing interpersonal relationships.

They call their model supportive communication. These writers state that (1) ‘supportive communication is based on congruence, not incongruence’. Here congruence means ‘what is communicated verbally or non verbally matches exactly what the individual is thinking and feeling (Dyer, 1972; Hyman, 1989; Knapp and Vangelisti, 1996; Rogers, 1961; Schnake et al., 1990).

(2) ‘Supportive communication is descriptive not evaluative’.

(3) ‘Supportive communication is problem-oriented’.

(4) ‘Supportive communication validates rather than invalidates individuals’.

(5) ‘Supportive communication is specific (useful) not global (non useful)’.

(6) ‘Supportive communication is conjunctive not disjunctive’.

(7) ‘Supportive communication is owned not disowned’.

(8) ‘Supportive communication requires supportive listening, not one way message delivery’.

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2.3.4 English for specific purposes

1) Rus Dana, in her paper discusses the importance of oral communication for engineering students. He/she opines that engineering professionals need to be able to exchange practical information in a correct and comprehensible manner. The author opines that they perceive a sense of reluctance in professional engineers to speak in public about professional matters. The process of globalization has led to ‘revaluation of the engineering professions specific features with greater emphasis laid on intra personal skills. Consequently this has led to reconfiguration of the role of linguistic preparation in a specific EFL class. The scenario of the traditional stereotype of the professional working in a factory surrounded by equipment and coordinating working teams has now changed because of technological development. The author states that employers are looking for employees who have good communication skills. The author cites Kakepoto (quoted in this study, 2012) to say that this researcher uses the terms ‘soft skills, generic skills, or employability skills in an analysis and explanation of the importance of oral skills for the engineering profession’. The author further says that engineering professionals should be able to hold a group discussion, make oral presentation, participate in meetings and negotiations, give instructions and engage in a conversation on the phone and other communication media’.

The author highlights the language teaching process from the perspective of ESP methodology. He opines that the practice of speaking is a complex issue because of a complexity of factors ‘involved in producing speech like mastering pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, register, functions, elements of cohesion and coherence’. He remarks that a language teacher in an ESP class has to face the challenge of creating and maintaining student’s motivation in producing speech.

2) In this paper the Jendrych (2011) while highlighting new developments in teaching English for business communication to pre experienced students presents a historical account of teaching methodologies in Europe in the last forty years. The paper makes an attempt to argue for making out a case for teaching business communication from the perspective of ESP.
The author states that the ESP perspective which includes a combination of a sociolinguistic and a pragmatic component in its curriculum contributes a great deal towards building communicative competence in pre experienced students of business communication. Incidentally, the author states that teaching business English from an ESP perspective entails knowledge of content and business skills. The teachers also need to produce materials based on ‘corpus studies that prioritize the highest frequency business lexis and stream line students’ efforts. The author opines that initially business English course books aimed at developing the linguistic competence of students. Later, in mid eighties the communicative approach to language teaching came into vogue. This approach focused on business communication situations like negotiations, meetings, customer attendance and telephoning’. Thus the focus changed from linguistic competence to communication skills. Later with the onset of globalization a sea change occurred in the global business scenario. Now English has become a lingua franca in international business communication. This has necessitated a reexamination of the needs of pre experienced students and there is a felt need for introducing a new approach to teaching English for business communication. There is a need for us to develop ‘success driven professionals-high performers with excellent communication skills’. The author concludes saying that English teachers have to teach communication skills and ‘when teaching English for business communication the following components must find a place in the course ‘(1) communicative competence, (2) Intercultural communication (3) Business Etiquette, (4) Numeracy skills, (5) Business skills, (6) Writing skills, and (7) Managerial skills.

Sampath and Zalipour, (2010) in their paper examine the advantages of teaching business communication as ‘ENGLISH FOR GENERAL BUSINESS PURPOSE’ (EGBP). The authors state that ‘in the context of ESP, EGBP targets those learners who have lack of working experience (pre-experienced or low experienced learners). While ESBP (English for Specific Business Purposes) is designed to train those professional people who have business working experience (Job experienced learners). In their paper they present insights and experiences of teaching business English
communication to a group of undergraduates in Malaysia. The students are pursuing their studies in business fields such as Marketing, Accountancy, Finance, and Business Administration. The authors state that the business English curriculum does not focus on developing English language ability per se. The course developers use authentic materials—articles or excerpts from newspapers, magazines and business English journals. They use advertisements, illustrations, commercial documents or diagrams to demonstrate business concepts. They also use short video clips, and other materials taken from BBC channel. The BBC channel provides materials for teaching oral communication skills such as presentations, negotiations, dialogues, conversations and meetings in its talking business section. The authors also highlight the need for using ICT tools in Business English communication courses.

2.3.5 Problems of cultural differences in communication

Lesikar, Flateley, Rentz and Pandey, (2009, pg 554-570), opine that people generally consider cultural differences as the root cause of miscommunication. But the authors opine that it is the problems of the human behaviour that can cause break downs in communication and not the cultural differences. In every culture the behaviour of people is the same. ‘People can be ‘belligerent arrogant, prejudiced, insensitive or biased.’ Further they suggest that, it is not advisable to assume that the traits of the people in a particular culture are common to every member of the culture because there can be several subcultures in a culture and common practice in one segment of a culture may be unheard of by other segments’.

The authors define culture as ‘a way of life of a group of people …the stereo typed patterns of learning behaviour, which are handed down from one generation to the next through means of language and imitation’. According to the authors a modern definition of culture is ‘the shared ways in which groups of people understand and interpret the world’. The authors state that people living in different countries have habits, values and ways of relating to one another which are unique to their culture. Secondly, every culture has its own way of interpreting events. Therefore the authors feel
that it is these differences that cause problems of communication. Most people are ethnocentric in their views and consider behaviour patterns of people belonging to other cultures as bad, wrong, peculiar etc. Therefore the authors suggest that we become more sensitive to these cultural differences which can be broadly classified as body positions and movements.

(a) Views and practices related to time, space, intimacy etc.

In some cultures like ours we tend to be monochromic. We consider time as something that must be planned for making the best use of it. We try our best to meet deadlines, to be punctual, to conduct business quickly and to work on a schedule. On the contrary, in some other cultures people are polychromic and view time in a more relaxed way. In business negotiations the people in these cultures move at a deliberately slow phase engaging in casual talk before getting into main issue. One can infer how this difference in people’s attitude towards time can create serious communication problems. Similarly, people differ from culture to culture in their attitudes towards space: Whereas in some cultures people want to be far apart, in other cultures they want to be close. Similarly, in some cultures people consider space as belonging to all. That is why they do not hesitate to jostle for space when boarding trains, standing at ticket counters, shopping in stores and so on. These habits of such people naturally upset other workers in a work place and are likely to be misinterpreted.

(b) Odours:

There can be cultural differences in our attitudes towards body odors. In some cultures people try to neutralize body odors since they consider body odors as dirty and unsanitary. On the other hand people in many other cultures do not think so and they do not try to hide their body odour. Naturally, encounters between such people can be a potential source of serious miscommunication.

(c) Frankness:

Based on our willingness to be frank or exquisite in our relationship with others we tend to call cultures as either low context cultures or high context cultures. These authors say that Americans belong to a low context culture and
so explicitly share all relevant background information in their communication whereas Asians belong to a high context culture communicating more implicitly. Therefore, Asians ‘may appear evasive roundabout and indecisive to North Americans who may appear harsh, impolite and aggressive to Asians.

(d) Intimacy of relationships:

‘In many cultures because of the existence of social classes the class status determines how intimately people are addressed and treated in communication. Consequently, people from such cultures ask questions regarding occupation, income, title, origin etc so as to determine the class status of a person. Naturally, such instances can lead to serious problems in communication. Similarly, there can be differences with regard to superior subordinate relationship and the role of women in job situations. Such differences can turn out to be a potential source of miscommunication.

(e) Values:

These authors say that the way we look upon values also matters a great deal in communicative situations. Whereas Americans who normally develop the protestant work ethic believe in working hard, planning and maximizing production, whereas people in India normally believe in spiritual and human well being. They generally have the relaxed attitude towards work and productivity is secondary concern.

(f) Expression of emotions:

The authors report that while people from Asian cultures strongly frown upon ‘public display of affection and consider them as crude and offensive westerners approve of a moderate display of affection. In some cultures ‘laughter is spontaneous display of pleasure, in other cultures laughter appears to be a controlled behaviour in some situations’. From the foregoing one can infer that unless a prospective employee familiarizes himself/herself with these facts, it will be difficult for such people to communicate efficiently in their work places.
(g) Problems of languages:

These authors opine that because people all over the globe use more than 3000 languages ‘problems of miscommunication are bound to occur in international communication’. Consequently, since work places have become global in nature bringing together people from different cultures under the same roof, naturally the language habits of these people become the major source of communication problems. The techniques of communication that we normally use may not be acceptable to everyone. This is so because there is a lack of language equivalency. These authors opine that our differences in communication are traceable to the way that our languages articulate concepts, experiences and views in our culture. These authors say that ‘super market has no equivalent in some languages; the French have no word to distinguish between house and home, mind and brain, and man and gentleman; similarly, the Spanish have no word to distinguish between a chairman and a president. Further, they say that Italians have no word for wishful thinking and Russians have no words for efficiency, challenge and having fun. Besides, these the authors say that grammatical and syntactic differences among languages, multiple word meanings, certain manners of expression and like-meaning words can also create problems of miscommunication.

2.3.6 Rules of Speaking

Nessa Wolfson(1983’ pgs 61-71) draws attention to the potential difficulties in second language learning and communication created by differences between L1 and L2 conventions for rules of speaking. She states that from the perspective of language learning and of intercultural communication anybody who wishes to learn a new language must also learn the rules of speaking. As suggested by Hymes (1972a) in short the individual must learn the patterns of socio linguistic behaviour of the target language.

Further she states that there is a difference between two languages not merely in phonology, syntax and lexicon but in using these linguistic resources. Speech communities differ from one another in their patterns of interaction. Lack of knowledge of another culture in their patterns of interaction specific to a particular language may lead to miscommunication. She says that “The sort
of miscommunication which occurs when people transfer the rules of their own native speech communities to what seems to them to be a corresponding situation in a new speech community may be termed as communicative interference as suggested by Hymes.”

The writer presents research evidence to prove her point. She discusses differences between linguistic norms for the realization of particular categories of speech acts and shows how such differences can lead to misunderstanding in cross cultural communication. She states that while interacting with foreigners, native speakers tolerate errors in pronunciation or syntax as bad manners. She cites Paulston (1994), Wolfson and Taylor (1978) in support. She later stresses the need for systematic empirical evidence of everybody’s speech behavior of native speakers so as to understand and teach the speech patterns of native speakers. She opines that a start has been made in the analysis of sociolinguistic usage of Native American speakers. She presents a review of some of the findings. Firstly, she talks about a study done by Roger Brown and Marguerite Ford about a model of reciprocal and non reciprocal patterns of address found in the speech of middle class Americans. The researchers found that the people followed a reciprocal pattern addressing each other by mutual first name or by mutual title + last name. Then she refers to Ervin-Tripp (1969). The writer says that Ervin-Tripp’s discussion is very useful because it gives a detailed description of occupational titles. She says that it is important for learner of American English to know for example that “A priest, physician, dentist or judge may be addressed by title alone. But a plain citizen or an academic person may not.

She gives the following examples

[Cardinal]: Your Excellency

[US presidency]: Mr. President

[Priest]: Father (+ LN)

[Nun]: sister (+ religious name)

[Physician]: Doctor (+ LN)
The writer presents a research study which reports on ethnographic study of the forms of address used to women in service encounters. The aspect of address rules has to do with the way Americans address strangers in public situation and specifically in service encounters. For ex: Address by writers, sales clerks, Gas station attendants etc. the writer says that though it is generally assumed that where names are unknown the respect forms ‘mam’ and ‘sir’ would be used but in actual fact a woman whose name is unknown may be addressed as mam as zero address or by a so called term of endearment. What is particularly interesting about this usage is that it is non-reciprocal and therefore carries with it the implication that the address is in some sense subordinate to the speaker. Thus the fact that females of all ages and occupations are a sign that females as a group are taken less seriously in American society than are males. Since individual speakers who use these terms of endearment to women are merely following a general pattern of speech usage. The learner of American English should be warned not to take offence when she is addressed in this way. On the other hand, it must be pointed out that since many American women are irritated by being addressed in this way and since the usage clearly has sexist overtones, it would be much better for learners to avoid these forms.

Then she refers to Borkin and Reinheart’s (1978) study of the analysis of two formulaic expressions ‘Excuse me’ and ‘I am sorry’ associated with apologies. She states that the two phrases are not expressions of apology at all. She states that the research has found that I am sorry is basically an expression of dismay or regret about a state of affair viewed or portrayed as unfortunate. The form “excuse me” on the other hand is found to be specifically used to “remedy a past or immediately forth coming breach of etiquette” on the part of the speaker. The researcher says that the basic meanings of the forms differ. They
say that “excuse me” is more appropriate in remedial exchanges when the speakers main concern is about a rule violation on his or her part while “I am sorry” is used in remedial interchanges when the speakers main concern is about violation of another person’s feelings. In other words the basic concern behind excuse me is ‘I have broken or the basic concern behind I am sorry is “you are or you may be hurt”.

2.3.7 Communicative Competence

According to Troike (2012, pg 180-184), ‘the concept of the communicative competence (and its encompassing congener, social competence) is one of the most powerful organizing tools to emerge in the social sciences in recent years’. The author opines that communicative competence includes ‘both knowledge and expectation of who may or may not speak in certain settings, when to speak and when to remain silent, to whom one may speak, how one may talk to persons of different statuses and roles, what non verbal behaviours are appropriate in various contexts, what the routines for turn taking are in conversation, how to ask for and give information, how to request, how to offer or decline assistance or cooperation, how to give commands, how to enforce discipline and the like-in short everything involving the use of language and other communicative modalities in particular social settings. Clear cross-cultural differences can also produce conflicts or inhibit communication. The author gives an outline that summarizes the broad range of shared knowledge that is involved in appropriate communication. The inventory given below expresses an ethnographer’s perspective of shared knowledge involved in communication:

1. Linguistic Knowledge
   a. verbal elements
   b. Non verbal elements
   c. Patterns of elements in particular speech events
   d. Range of possible variants
   e. Meaning of variants in particular situations
2. Interaction skills

a. Perception of salient features in communicative situations

b. Selection and interpretation of forms appropriate to specific situations, roles and relationships (rules for the use of speech)

c. Discourse organization and processes

d. Norms of interaction and interpretation

e. Strategies for achieving goals

3. Cultural knowledge

a. Social structure (status, power, speaking rights)

b. Values and attitudes

c. Cognitive maps/schemata

d. Enculturation processes (transmission of knowledge and skills)

2.3.8 Ethnographic approach to cross cultural work place communication research

This researcher reports the findings of ethnographic research study conducted in Hong Kong. The author states that this project was commissioned by the Vocational Training Council, Hong Kong. It is learnt that VTC statistics department conducts a regular survey of the employees of technical institute, Hong Kong. The survey report informed Hong Kong employers that from their survey it was clear that the employees subject competence was satisfactory but when it came to be expressed ‘in the work place through the medium of English’ their performance was not satisfactory. Therefore, with a view to ascertaining whether there was a ‘perceived gap between employers’ and English competence of that particular section of VTC graduates entering employment’ the VTC commissioned this project.
The following procedures were followed in the investigation:

1) ‘Setting up sampling,

2) Gathering prior information through informal questioning,

3) Observation and a literature search,

4) Designing a pilot project the findings of which are fed into the design of the main project’.

The author reports that the project team was given a list of one thousand one fifty one names and addresses of the employers along with the names of their graduate employees and their jobs. The team also learnt through informal questioning that there were some unspoken assumptions and preconceptions like ‘falling educational standards and employers’ unrealistic expectations’. They also learnt from many English lecturers that they had not received any in service training and had no ‘access to suitable materials and language teaching technology’. They also reported that since their students showed resistance to communicative language teaching, they felt helpless. They also did not know the actual vocational needs of their students-information on job content and English work place communication requirements. Finally, the project team also learnt that the supervisors of the employees spent a lot of time virtually doing their English work for them. In view of the above findings through informal questioning the project team decided to conduct an investigation of job content and English work place requirements of fifteen different work sectors: from design through to accountancy, industrial technology, hotel keeping, and tourism to computer studies.

Then the author explains why the employers did not go in for ‘a standard approach of needs analysis by means of company language audits’. According to the author the employers did not accept a company language audit because of the following reasons:

1) It is a top down approach carried out by linguists in cooperation with decision makers and therefore they might miss important data and insights.
2) Such audits generally show a lack of concern with the individual and actual work place practice.

3) In the last eighty years a decided shift has been seen from ‘narrow technical focus towards the principles of the HUMAN RELATIONS SCHOOL which require a clear understanding of the capacities, abilities and needs of the individual’.

4) ‘Work place reality is increasingly dynamic and businesses must respond to shifting contexts’.

5) ‘Lack of awareness of psychological social and cultural variables which affect organizational behaviour’.

Considering the arguments given above, the VTC commissioned this ethnographic research project. The project made use of multiple triangulations ‘in order to achieve greater reliability and a deeper level of understanding’. It made use of the following:

1) Subject group triangulation: Employers, employees, their supervisors

2) Triangulation of informants from eastern and western cultures

3) Triangulation of information sources

4) Methodological triangulation: the survey, case studies and the repertory grid

5) Data triangulation: quantitative and qualitative, including perceptual data

6) Investigating triangulation

The project group gathered employee’s views about the following five work place activities using English.

1) Conversational activities involving clients or colleagues followed by writing/reading/speaking

2) Correspondence activities involving clients or colleagues followed by speaking/reading/writing
3) Extracting or receiving information followed by writing/ speaking

4) Providing information to others in written or spoken form

5) Giving personal reactions in spoken or written form to something read/ heard/viewed

The team then realized that in order to ‘process meaningfully the language they were dealing with the employees also required knowledge of the world, organizational and thinking skills, knowledge of different accents and different culture related behaviour’. Therefore the project team included the following activities in the repertory grid.

6) Activities which involve the general knowledge of the world and the way it functions. For example addressing letters, use sorting references while when talking and different life styles for product/fashion design

7) Activities which include dealing with the different English accents, cultures, and what is acceptable behaviour or not

8) Activities which involve organizational and thinking skills

The team collected a huge amount of descriptive and statistical data. The analysis of the data revealed the following:

(a) Recruiting criteria: English language skills rank second to technical/vocational skills followed by interpersonal and management skills.

(b) Promotional criteria: Demand for English increases with job experiences and steeply upon first promotion

(c) English skills need more improvement before entry to the work place: Listening ranked first as being in need of improvement, then reading, followed by speaking and writing, applicants lack productive skills

(d) A large majority of the respondents ‘reported that English is not only been important or very important to their career, but also beyond an immediate practical work related use’.
The author concludes saying that from the research it became clear to them that the introduction of new technology demanded productive language skills even from junior personnel when using faxes, email, and in direct customer contact. This necessitated greater cross cultural knowledge for being able to give personal reactions.

(Triangulation is the use of as many methodological perspectives as possible when studying some phenomena to avoid bias)

2.4 Teaching and Testing spoken English

2.4.1 Nature of speaking skill: psycholinguistic perspective

Bygate (1987, pgs 5, 6, 12-21) opines that the skill of speaking includes two components:

(1) Motor perceptive skills and

(2) Interaction skills

(1) Motor perception involves skills of perceiving, recalling and articulating in the correct order sounds and structures of the language when someone hears what someone else says.

(2) Interaction skills refer to the ability to control one’s own language production and having to make one’s own ideas. Thus interaction skill is the skill of using knowledge and basic motor perception skills to achieve communication. Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication such as what to say, how to say it and whether to develop it in accordance with one’s intentions while maintaining the desired relations with others. Bygate identifies two demands in interaction: processing conditions and reciprocity conditions which are met by the ability to use the interaction skills. Further the author cites Brown and Yule’s use of short speaking turns and long speaking turns which the speakers tend to workout extemore, the subject matter as speaking proceeds. Long turns tend to be more prepared. The differences in form reflect the differences in decision making on the part of the speaker. This is what the author means by processing conditions. The ability to master the processing conditions
of speech enables speakers to deal fluently with a given topic while being engaged in conversation. Communicative skill of producing ability covers the basic communicative skill of producing speech at a normal speed under pressure of time. The reciprocity condition of speech refers to the relation between the speaker and listener, in the process of speech. The term reciprocity enables us to distinguish between situations in which both the speaker and the hearer have speaking rights, as during a speech. The reciprocal dimension affects speech because there is more than one participant. The business of making sure that conversation works is shared by both participants. There are at least two addressees and two decision makers.

2.4.2 Differences between speech and writing

Bygate attempts to clarify the difference between speech and writing. He opines that speech is not spoken words written. The two main characteristic conditions of speaking are

(1) Processing and

(2) Reciprocity.

This fact affects the speakers. In speech the words are being spoken as they are being decided and as they are being understood. This fact affects the speaker’s ability to plan and organize the message and control the language being used. The speaker’s sentences are not as long and as complex as those of written English. In speech we often make mistakes in the grammar of our utterances. Mistakes are also made in both the message and the wording; we forget things we intended to say; the message is not as economically organized as it might be in print; we may even forget what we have already said and repeat ourselves. Thus, formal spoken language is affected by time limitations and the associated problems of planning, memory and of production under pressure. The resulting conventions are also different in certain important respects from those of written language.
2.4.3 Reciprocity conditions of speech and writing

In most speaking situations, the person we are speaking to is in front of us and will be able to correct us if we show disagreement and misunderstanding in comprehension. Both the readers and writers should have the ability to imagine the others’ point of view. A writer has to anticipate the readers’ understanding and predict potential problems. In doing this the writer has to make guesses about what the reader knows and doesn’t know, about what the reader will be able to understand and even about what the reader will want to read.

Speakers on the other hand are in a different position. They may need patience and imagination too. But to make sure that communication is taking place they have to pay attention to their listeners and adapt their messages to their listener’s reaction. With the help of these reactions the message can be adjusted from moment to moment, understanding can be improved and the speaker’s task is therefore facilitated. (pg no.5-8, 11-13)

2.4.4 Production skills

The way the language is organized in speech is typically different from the shape it takes in writing. The size and shape of its sentences tends to be different. The reason for this is largely to do with the time constraints under which the language is produced. Time pressure tends to affect the language used in at least two main ways. Firstly, speakers use devices in order to facilitate production and secondly they often have to compensate for the difficulties. There are 5 main ways in which speakers can facilitate production of speech: by simplifying structure, by the use of fillers and hesitation devices, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, and time creating devices:

(a) Parataxis which refers to the way new sentences are connected to previous ones by the use of coordinating conjunctions like and, or, but, or indeed no conjunction at all. In addition to parataxis speakers often avoid complex noun groups with many adjectives preceding them. They tend to repeat the same sentence structure to add further adjectives separately. As a result oral language tends to be more “spread out” and less dense than written language.
(b) Ellipsis which is used to facilitate production when time is short. This consists of the omission of parts of a sentence like syntactic abbreviations. Examples are “who?” on Saturday”, “the big one”, “does what”, “why me”, “green”. In order to understand a listener must have a good idea of background knowledge assumed by the speaker. In most speech situations this can be counted on. In order to speak economically it is necessary and normal to exploit ellipsis: we do not always speak in sentences.

(c) Formulaic expressions: a third tool for facilitating the production of spoken language which consists of sets of conventional, colloquial or idiomatic expressions or phrases. These are sometimes called formulaic expressions.

(d) Time creating devices are the final set of strategies used to facilitate production of speech. These tend to give speakers more time to formulate what they intend to say next. Features here include the use of filler pauses and hesitations. One kind of filler is the use phrases like ‘well’, ‘erm’, ‘you see’, ‘kind of’, ‘sort of’, ‘you know’ and so on. Another kind of filler arises when speakers rephrase or repeat what they (or) their interlocutor are repeating words while trying to find a needed word. By doing this, they give themselves more time to find their words or organize their ideas.

(e) Compensation: It refers to speakers correcting or improving what they have already said. In a sense what they are doing is compensating for the problems which arise out of the time pressure. Time pressure also increases pressure on memory. With a view to ensuring clear understanding, speakers therefore use a lot of repetitions and rephrasing. Such alterations or rephrasing are permitted in speech and are quite common. The speaker usually substitutes a noun or an adjective for another or repeats a noun group, adjective or adverb with additional elements in order to alter some aspect of what he or she has said.

The second way in which time pressure affects oral language production is that the gist of the, whole transaction has to be held in the speaker’s memory. In order to make this easier speakers tend to rephrase and reformulate what they say. They do so in order to give people time to understand, to remind them of things that were said.
2.4.5 Interaction skills

Morrow (1981:63) observes that “what you said to somebody depends not only on what he has said to you but also on what you want to get out of the conversation. The strategies and tactics involved in using language this way is of fundamental importance in communication. Bygate opines that “communication of meaning depends on two kinds of skills: Routines “(Widdowson 1983) and negotiation skills.” Routines refer to the way speakers organize their message in typical patterns. Examples of routines are story telling or joke telling; “descriptions (or) comparisons,” and instructions.

There are three kinds of routines:

(a) Information routines,

b) Interaction routines and

c) Evaluative routines.

(a) Information routines refer to information structures, including stories, descriptions of place and people, presentation of facts, comparisons and instructions. Broadly speaking information routines are usually expository or evaluative. Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that the main types of expository routines are narration, description instruction.

(b) Interaction routines: These interaction routines are not based on information content but on sequence of kinds of terms occurring in typical interactive situations like “service encounters,” telephone conversation, interview situations, casual encounters conversations at parties, conversations around the table at a dinner party, lesson, radio and television interviews.

(c) Evaluative routines: These routines involve drawing of conclusions usually requiring the expression of reasoning. Predictions, explanations, justifications, preferences and decisions are examples of evaluative routines. Brown and Yule also state that a narrative consists of the following essential components: setting, time, participants, event, and a plot.
2.4.6 Negotiation skills

(a) Negotiation skill refers to the skills developed by the speaker to enable themselves clearly understood whatever the interaction is and to deal with communication problems that may occur. Example of negotiation skills are checking on specific meaning, altering wordings, correcting mistaken interpretations, finding words for ideas for which the speaker does not already have some generally accepted phrase. Negotiation skills may almost be called thinking skills. Negotiation skills help in two ways: management of interaction and negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning refers to the skill of communicating ideas clearly. This includes the way participants, signal understanding during an exchange. Management of interaction refers to the business of agreeing who is going to speak next and what he or she is going to talk about. The speakers can negotiate on several levels. For instance they can:

1. Influence the level of understanding
2. Try to take control of the conversation
3. Be hostile to the other speaker
4. Intercept
5. Add information
6. Ask for or give clarification

At any of these levels, the speaker must pay attention to the listener’s reaction, otherwise things may go wrong. There are two important factors in negotiation of meaning

1. Level of explicitness
2. Procedures used for ensuring understanding

Level of explicitness refers to the speaker’s choices of expression taking into consideration what the listener knows and what he or she can
understand. Lack of explicitness may appear arrogant and aggressive and certainly uncooperative. Too much explicitness might make the listener feel bored, provoked or confused.

2.4.7 Procedures of Negotiations

Speakers generally use paraphrase, metaphor and vocabulary to varied degrees of precision with which they want to communicate. Given below are some characteristic features of interaction routines.

From speaker’s point of view the following are considered important:

1. Announcing and indicating one’s purpose in advance;

2. Indicating friendliness;

3. Checking that the other person has understood;

4. Asking the other person for information or language that he or she has forgotten

5. Asking the other person’s opinion;

6. Responding to requests for clarification from the listeners, for instance by rephrasing, repeating, giving example or analogies;

7. Checking common ground;

8. Adapting to points made by the interlocutor and

9. Clarifying meaning or intention by summarizing.

From the listener’s point of view the following responses are considered important:

1. Indicating understanding by gestures, facial expression, or markers as the speaker proceeds;

2. Checking or indicating understanding by summarizing the speaker’s meaning or intention;
3. Indicating uncertainty about comprehension;

4. Indicating incomprehension;

5. Asking for clarification;

6. Indicating current interpretations;

7. Expressing appropriate agreement reservations or appreciation of speaker’s point and

8. Interrupting where necessary to express any of the foregoing.

2.4.8 Management of Interaction

This refers to the kind of freedom, participants enjoy when involved in a conversation as contrasted with lectures. In both the cases the participants can intervene as and when they wish, but the degree of freedom varies. Interaction management has two aspects,

(i) Agenda management  and

(ii) Turn taking.

(1) Agenda management

It refers to participant’s right to choose the topic, the way the topics are developed and to choose how long the conversation should continue. In agenda management we are concerned with the basic freedom to start, maintain, direct and end a conversation without conforming to a script, and without the intervention of a third party.

(2) Turn taking

It refers to how a participant in a conversation can negotiate control of conversation. Efficient turn taking requires five abilities:

(a) Knowing how to signal that one wants to speak

(b) Recognizing the right moment to get a turn
(c) Knowing how to use appropriate turn structure in order to use one’s turn properly and not lose it before finishing what one has to say

(d) Recognizing other people’s signals of their desire to speak

(e) Knowing how to let someone else has a turn

2.4.9 Learner’s strategies of oral communication

A study (qtd in Bygate) by Farch and Caspa (1983) identifies the following communication strategies:

(a) Achievement strategies and

(b) Reduction strategies.

(a) Achievement strategies include the following

(1) Guessing strategies

(2) Paraphrase strategies and

(3) Co-operative strategies

(b) Reduction strategies include avoidance strategies.

Both these types of strategies aim to compensate for a problem of expression. A speaker may compensate for her language gap by improvising a substitute. This involves attempting to find a way of conveying a message, often by guess work, intuition, feel or various kinds of analogy. Such a strategy is called an achievement strategy. Sometimes a speaker may use a reduction strategy. For instance they may manage only a partial solution and so fail to communicate their intended message or they may find no solution at all. In using achievement strategies speakers do not lose or alter any of their message (quoted in Bygate).
Bygate’s model of speech is given below. This model states that speech involves the use of production skills notably facilitation and compensation devices. It also involves the skill of resolving specific kinds of communication problems. Skills are dependent on some appropriate knowledge resource. They involve using known conventions for communicating specific meanings. The exercise of the skills however can increase the knowledge store. The second aspect of the diagram is that the skills are interdependent. They consist of decision-making processes for deciding on messages, formulating them, and executing them, all while monitoring the state of play. The spoken skill, taken as a whole involves the ability to handle all the sub-skills, taken as a whole, involves the ability to handle all the sub-skills from the top of the diagram to the bottom. In other words, accuracy skills on their own are not sufficient.
### Knowledge planning

- Knowledge of routines:
  - informational
  - interactional
  - knowledge of the state of the discourse

### Skill

- Message planning:
  - information plans
  - interaction plans management
  - skills agenda management
  - turn-taking

#### selection

- Lexis
- phrases
- grammar resources

#### Negotiation of meaning

- explicitness skills
- procedural skills

### Production

- Production devices

### Production skills:

- Facilitation
- Compensation

### Accuracy skills
2.4.10 Speaking Skills as Discourse

Brown and Yule (1983) opine that human beings engage in communication both at personal and social levels to communicate information, ideas, beliefs, emotions and attitudes so as to enable them to construct and maintain their positions within various social contexts. They do so employing appropriate language forms and performing speech activities which helps in building solidarity, harmony and co-operation or to show disagreement or displeasure when called for. In this context they agree with the views of Widdowson (1984:215) who states that “when language is used for communication the co-participants typically employ one or more skills simultaneously: listening, reading, speaking, or writing. They often switch quickly from one role to another (e.g., from listening to speaking and back to listening again), or they are engaged in a task that involves carrying out several skills simultaneously (e.g., listening, and note taking/writing). The language produced interactively by such co-participants is discourse (i.e., language in use.” According to these authors a piece of discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor which is determined by the context and participants.

2.4.11 Types of Discourse

There are many different ways to classify discourse. One dimension is the written/spoken distinction resulting in written or spoken texts. Both types of text can be further distinguished according to register (level of formality) or genre (communicative purpose, audience, and conventionalized style and format). Also, some discourse is largely monologic (where one speaker or writer produces an entire discourse with little or no interaction).

The distinction made between speech and writing is often referred to as a channel (Hymes 1968). Yet it is clear that we can have written language that is intended to be spoken and spoken language that is designed to be read (or which was first spoken and spoken (and then written down). These distinctions further interact with register and genre as can be seen in table 1.
Table 1. The Oral-literacy Continuum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Literacy Channel</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>Written</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orotate</td>
<td>e.g. Conversation</td>
<td>e.g. informal letters, drama, poetry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literate</td>
<td>e.g. Lectures, sermons, speeches</td>
<td>e.g., expository essays, articles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discourse can also be either planned or unplanned (Ochs, 1979). Unplanned discourse includes most conversations and some written texts such as informal notes and letters edited or published written work. The dimension of discourse planning could be added to the features of Table 1.

Most everyday interactions, whether written (e.g., notes, shopping lists, ads, etc) or spoken, take place in familiar situations. The interlocutors rely heavily on social convention and contextual information. This type of discourse is considered context-embedded and is probably most relevant to the orate /spoken and some orate/written types of discourse.

Discourse has also been described as transactional versus interactional (Brown and Yule, 1983), where transactional discourse involves primarily the transmission of information or the exchange of goods and services, and interactional discourse is those instances of language use that shape and maintain social relations and identities and express the speaker’s /writer’s attitude toward the topic or toward the interlocutor(S). Most of these different discourse types represent continua rather than hard and fast dichotomies. For example, a conversation where one speaker dominates can be somewhat monologic, and a letter to a friend can exhibit both interactional and transactional features.

2.4.12 Information structure

The major concern of the area of discourse analysis referred to as information structure is the presentation of “old” (known) information versus “new” (unknown) information. Languages use grammatical and discourse features in order to indicate which bits of information are known and which are new. European researchers often use the terms theme and
rheme, while in North America topic and comment are more common. It seems that the basic principle for information structure is that themes/topics (old information) generally precede rhemes/comments (new information) in order of presentation.

In spoken discourse, old or given information is frequently recoverable from the situation.

2.4.13 Turn-taking in conversation analysis

In conversation, in addition to managing new and old information in a coherent way, the interlocutors also have to take stock of and constantly monitor each other to control the turn-taking system of the target language in question since this is another feature of discourse in oral interaction. The conversational turn-taking system (Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson, 1974) of any language includes conventions governing matters such as the following: how conversations open and close, who speaks when and for how long, who can interrupt (and how this is done), how topics get changed, how much time can elapse between turns or between speakers, whether or not speakers can overlap and whether or not speakers can complete or repair each other’s utterances. There are often important cultural (and subcultural) differences in the way discourse communities do turn-taking. A lack of understanding of these differences can cause problems in cross-cultural communication.

One important source of organization in the turn-taking system is the “adjacency pair.” Where the first speaker says something that conventionally requires of the interlocutor a response that is often partly predictable.

In any given speech community such adjacency pairs can have highly conventionalized and formulaic phrases associated with them. Needless to say, mastering these conventions and phrases in a second language will contribute greatly to oral fluency and communication competence.

2.4.14 Shared knowledge

In a communicative exchange both interactants rely on their prior knowledge, which may or may not be shared. Shared knowledge is
perhaps most important for everyday communicative exchanges. When such exchanges take place between participants who are familiar with each other, they rely on their shared knowledge.

2.4.15 Speaking as a communication skill

Widdowson (1978) observes that we need to be aware of the difference between labelling speaking and writing as active or productive skills and listening and reading as passive or receptive skills as is usually treated by English language teaching professionals. He says that although it is convenient to categorize language skills in this way it will be unhelpful or slightly misleading to label them in this way when one looks at the language skills from the point of the way we use them in communication. The author suggests that we should consider the skill of speaking in terms of use as an act of communication. He states that “speaking is commonly performed in face to face interaction and occurs as a part of dialogue or other form of verbal exchange. Speaking as an instance of use therefore is part of a reciprocal exchange in which both reception and production play a part. The act of speaking involves not only the production of sound but also the use of gesture, the movements of muscles of the face, and indeed of the whole body. All of these “non vocal” accompaniments of speaking as a communicative activity is transmitted through the visual media”.

Morrow (1981) opines that in real life communication takes place between two or more people, one of whom knows something that is unknown to others. The purpose of communication is to bridge this information gap. The information which is transferred may be of the “interpersonal”. (Social) type rather that the “ideational” (factual). In other words the speakers are exchanging or configuring information about their social relationship. Incidentally the author highlights the importance of “choice” as a crucial element in the communication process. He opines that the participants have a choice both in terms of what they will say and more particularly how they will say it.

Furthermore, he says that from the speaker’s point of view it means that he has to choose “ideas” as well as linguistic forms which express meanings. The speaker also has to decide his choice under severe time pressure. Finally
he states that what a speaker says to someone depends on not only on what he has just heard but also the strategies and techniques that are involved in using language. Therefore he concludes that strategies and tactics involved in language use are of fundamental importance in communication.

2.4.16 Style of teaching spoken English

Burns (2001) is of the opinion that spoken English teachers even now base their class room methodology on “idealized spoken texts” which include written dialogues composed by writers depending on their intuitions about spoken interactions. She also feels that students who study such materials find it very difficult to use language in authentic social contexts outside the classroom. The author also provides a typology of spoken interaction based on the model given by Brown and Yule (1983) and McCarthy (1991). Accordingly spoken interactions are categorized as

1. Interactional and

2. Transactional.

Transactional interactions refer to conversations which happen around exchange of goods and services whereas interactional interactions refer to the act of creation and maintenance of social relations (Burns, 2001, Pg no 113,117).

2.4.17 Communicative language teaching: changed perspective

In this article Andrews (2014, pg no 5-11) reviews the principles and objectives of grammar Translation method, the audio lingual method and the communicative approach to language teaching. He asserts that “the classic era of CLT in the last decade of the 20th century was the era of the native speaker teacher par excellence which was mainly due to the economic clout of the USA.” He also says that irrespective of the place of the native speaker model of English, the communicative approach inherited the audio lingual methods greater focus on oral skills but with a new focus on the functionality of language. The use of authentic language and real communication or at least a convincing simulation of it became standard classroom practice. Participation in a communicative situation on the part of the learner took center stage. The
The teachers role, alongside native speaker, was to facilitate the learners as a native speaker, was to facilitate the learners performance, to help them interact in the communicative process. He concludes saying that the main aim of this method was to prepare learners for a role in the foreign language speech community, whether that community was geographically defined, or whether it was corporate speech community, ie the language of communication goal was to enable the learner to operate efficiently in the said community. To this end, it required social language appropriate to that speech community and some familiarity with the culture of the language studies, which could be taken as the culture of the workplace, as well as of a nation or region.

The author states that though there is a change in the social context the aim of learning English may still be to improve communicative competence with a change in the goals. “the typical scenario of the language learner is no longer that of the skilled worker sent abroad to an English speaking country. The skilled worker, learner may still be in his own country and may be working in a multinational company. Nevertheless the company has chosen English as a lingua franca as the main form of communication among its workers. He argues that what has happened in business and commerce is reflected in education. English has come to be regarded as an essential element in higher education and English teaching is evidently undergoing a process of devolution. He concludes saying that corporate English and English in academic and higher professional education are two main contexts in which English is being used today. He has listed some features and priorities of English as a lingua franca.

In writing he says that minor grammatical inaccuracies are today considered to be tolerable. Example, Consistent use of the third person, prepositions and complicated use of articles. He states that clear organizations and development of ideas through logical coherence and consistency count for more than the traditional nuts and bolts of grammar. Secondly teaching English as lingua Franca has less room for idioms and for idiomatic language in general. English as lingua franca is enriched by metaphorical language imported or quasi translated from a variety of which has given rise to new English expressions.

As far as speaking skills and pronunciation are concerned use of Shwa, weak forms, assimilation, elision, coalescence and linking will be given a lower
priority. ELF is slow English and is the language of public speaking, of the business meeting or negotiations, of the university seminar where clear enunciation, a manageably deliberate and slow delivery and rhetorical devices such as repetition and paraphrasing count more. As such audience awareness is a central factor in this kind of communication.

The changing goals in post communicative English teaching are also reflected in the extension and variety of competencies that have been incorporated into teaching in the last decade, most notably intercultural awareness, global issues and study skills.

2.4.18 A pedagogical perspective on communicative competence

The major goal of taking a language course is to enable students to develop communicative competence. The term “communicative competence” was first coined by Dell Hymes (1967, 1972) and his colleagues (anthropological linguists, sociolinguists, and functional linguists), who argued that language competence consists not only of Chomsky’s (1957, 1965) grammatical competence but also of sociolinguistic or pragmatic competence, which covers all situated aspects of language use and related issue of appropriacy: the speaker (and, if different, the original author), the addressee(s), the message, the setting or event, the activity, the register, and so forth.

A pedagogical framework based explicitly on the notion of communicative competence could be described as consisting of at least four components.

(1) Linguistic or grammatical competence, which consists of the basic elements of communication: sentence patterns, morphological inflections, lexical resources, and phonological or orthographic systems.

(2) Sociolinguistic competence, which consists of the social and cultural knowledge required to use language appropriately with reference to formality, politeness and other contextually defined choices.

(3) Discourse competence, which involves the selection, sequencing and arrangement or words, structures and sentences/utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written whole with reference to a particular message and context.
(4) Strategic competence, which includes the strategies and procedures relevant to language learning, Language processing, and language production. It activates knowledge of the other competencies and helps language users compensate for gaps or deficiencies in knowledge when they communicate.

2.4.19 Cooperation and implicature

Human communication is based on the fact that, as a rule, human beings want to communicate with one another successfully and want social harmony while doing so. It stands to reason, therefore that during routine communication the participants involved in the interaction are willing and perhaps even eager to cooperate so as to ensure successful communication. It seems that most exchanges are characteristically, to some extent, cooperative efforts, and each participant tends to recognize some common purpose. On this premise, Grice (1975) developed the cooperative principle for conversation. This rather general principle maintains the following: “Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you engaged.” It seems that interactants base their expectations on the cooperative principle which consists of four maxims:

(1) The maxim of quantity

- Make your contribution as informative as required.

- Do not make your contribution more informative than required.

*The mutual expectation of the interactants is that quantitatively the speaker’s contribution is just right for the interaction at hand. More would be too much and less would be too little for successful communication to take place.*

(2) The maxim of quality

- Try to make your contribution one that is true.

- Do not say what you believe to be false.

- Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
The mutual expectation of the interactants is that the speaker makes propositions or provides information that s/he believes to be true.

(3) The maxim of relation

- Be relevant.

The mutual expectation of the interactants is that the speaker makes a contribution to the communication exchange that is relevant to the topic and the situation of this exchange.

(4) The maxim of manner

a. avoid obscurity

b. avoid ambiguity

c. be brief

d. be orderly.

The mutual expectation of the interactants is that the speaker makes his/her contribution as clear and as comprehensible as possible and that while doing so, s/he takes all precautions to ensure such clarity in terms of performance and delivery.

It is, therefore, generally assumed that communication is successful because interactants adhere to the cooperative maxims. When they don’t the assumption may be that they deliberately violate a maxim. When they don’t, the assumption may be that they deliberately violate a maxim in order to convey additional (implicit) information or add some special meaning, i.e., implicature, beyond what is actually said.

Within each culture there are acceptable ways to “deliberately” violate maxims. For instance, when complimenting a person, one is not expected to adhere fully to the maxim of quality. Similarly, when thanking someone for an unusually nice gift, the receiver might deliberately violate the maxim of quality and say more than necessary in order to express a deeper
sense of gratitude. Since such a “violation” is usually recognized by both interactants. It has added communicative value.

When communication takes place between two interactants who do not share the same language or the same culture, unintended violations of the maxims can easily occur. Here we assume that the four maxims apply to all cultures but that their interpretation may be quite different. Being informative or relevant in some cultures may sound crude and inappropriate in others, but there would still be some mutual expectation with respect to the maxims that would make communication more or less successful. Furthermore, the value related to each maxim might be quite different in different cultures.

2.4.20 Speech acts serve social functions

As we have seen, successful communication takes place when speakers share knowledge, beliefs and assumptions and when they adhere to similar rules of cooperative interaction. Language, however, is not only a vehicle to exchange thoughts and ideas; we often use utterances in order to perform social actions or functions.

When one friend tells another, “you look great today,” this utterance serves not only as a description but functions mainly as a “compliment” and as such fulfills a social function. Social actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts. All cultures use speech acts in order to perform social functions and in most languages there are some performative verbs that directly represent the speech acts (Austin, 1975) such as: apologize, complain, compliment, request, promise, and so forth.

A speech act is usually performed within a situation that provides contextual elements that help interpret the speaker’s intention. Contextual and social information make it possible for interactants to interpret each other’s intentions even when these intentions are not explicitly stated.

When a speech act is uttered, the utterance carries locutionary meaning based on the meaning of the linguistic expressions. Thus, our earlier example “I am hungry” is a basic description of the speaker’s state. However, it takes on
Illocutionary force when it acts as a request and the illocutionary force has the intended meaning of “please give some food.” Furthermore, since a speech act is directed toward an addressee who “suffers the consequences” of the act, it also has perlocutionary force, which is the effect the act has on the addressee. Every realization of a speech act has therefore three dimensions: locutionary meaning, illocutionary force, and perlocutionary effect.

Speech acts can be classified according to how they affect the social interaction between speakers and hearers. The most basic categorization (Searle, 1969) consists of five different types of speech acts: declaratives, representatives, expressive, directives and commissives.

**Declaratives** (also called **performatives**) are speech acts that “change the world” as a result of having been performed. Some good examples of such declarative speech acts are when the jury foreman announces, “We find the defendant not guilty!” and when the justice of the peace says, “I now pronounce you man and wife.”

**Representatives** are speech acts that enable the speaker to express feelings, beliefs, assertions, illustrations and the like. An example of such a representative speech act would be a statement made by a speaker at an agricultural convention such as “Today, tomatoes can be grown in the desert.”

**Expressives** are among the most important speech acts for learners of a second or a foreign language. These speech acts express psychological states of the speaker or the hearer. Apologizing, complaining, complimenting and congratulating are examples of expressive.

**Directives** are speech acts that enable speakers to impose some action on the hearer.

**Commissives** are speech acts that enable speakers to commit themselves to future actions. Promises and refusals are commissives.

(i) **Politeness**

The area of politeness deals with perceptions, expectations, and conventional realizations of communicative strategies which enhance social harmony.
In acquiring one’s first language, a person also acquires these rules of politeness as part of one’s socio cultural and pragmatic competence.

2.4.21 Teaching Spoken English

Burns (2001) opines that in the current English Language teaching scenario students should be made to involve themselves in speaking activities with other speakers of the target language. She also says that it is inevitable in the current global job scenario that non-native speakers of English have to communicate with native speakers for business purposes across national boundaries. Consequently, the models of spoken dialogues and other tasks based on the written mode of English currently being used will not be sufficient for teaching speaking skills. Therefore, she insists that teachers ‘need greater understanding of the recent insights provided by discourse analyses. She also presents some useful insights for spoken language teaching.

The author says that developments in systemic functional linguistics, exchange structure analysis, pragmatics, conversational analysis, and critical discourse analysis have contributed significantly to the field of discourse analysis. She opines that tools derived from these areas can be used to teach spoken discourse. Further, she says that systemic functional linguistics ‘provides insights in to the ways in which language is socially constructed and embedded in culture. It highlights the functional nature of language and the linguistic difference between unplanned conversation and formal written language’. She also says that genre analysis will help us understand the macro structure of spoken discourse. Further, she says that systemic functional linguistics will also help us understand the micro structures of the grammar of text.

In the next part she refers to the work done by Brown and Yule (1983) and Eggins (1990). She reports that Brown and Yule say that spoken interactions can be classified under two major categories: transactional interactions and interactional interactions. Whereas transactional interactions refer to exchange of goods and services, interactional interactions refer to creation and maintenance of personal and social elements. Similarly, the author refers to Eggins(1990) and says that she uses the term ‘pragmatic’ for transactional exchanges and ‘interpersonal’ for casual conversations. Burns (2001) has given the following classificatory typology:
Spoken interaction

- Conversations (Interpersonally motivated)
  - Casual transactional
  - formal
- Encounters (Pragmatically motivated)
  - (Information Oriented)
  - factual

(The above given typology can be used for analyzing speaking activities in order to highlight the following):

- The functional motivation of the text (e.g. pragmatic)
- The general social purpose of the text (e.g. factual encounter or polite casual conversation)
- The genre and therefore the schematic structure of the text
- How the context and the language work together through the register variables of field, tenor and mode.
- How the variables of field, tenor and mode are realized through grammatical and lexical (vocabulary) choices in the text
- The social role relationships dimensions of tenor.
The author concludes arguing that “a discourse based approach to the teaching of speaking is long overdue in language teaching”.

2.4.22 Teaching conversational skills intensively

In their article, Dornyei and Thurrell (1994, pg 40), opine that communicative language teaching methodology has not achieved much because it has not specified conversational skills and the kind of language input teachers can focus on. Therefore in their paper they present an overview of some components of oral discourse theory and conversation analysis so as to suggest how those ideas can be practiced in the class room. Then they cite Brown and Yule (1983), Cook (1989) and Richards (1990) to say that ‘conversation is a highly organized activity which requires certain skills on the part of the speakers’. Then they state that speakers need to practice these specialized skills so as develop conversational fluency. Then the authors make a reference to Richard’s work (1990:76) who suggests two important approaches teaching conversational skills: Indirect and Direct approach.

In the indirect approach teachers’ aim at developing conversational competence by engaging the learners in conversational interaction using situational role plays, problem solving tasks and information gap exercises. The authors then state that the direct approach as suggested by Richards (1990:77) ‘involves planning a conversation programme around the specific micro skills, strategies and processes that are involved in fluent conversation. They also state that in the direct approach the learners are provided with specific language input. In the next part the authors state that with a view to specifying the relevant issues they conducted a review of research findings from ‘linguistic fields such as discourse analysis, conversation analysis, communicative competence research, socio linguistics and pragmatics and identified four topics for discussion:

a. Conversational rules and structure

b. Conversational strategies

c. Functions and meaning in conversation

d. Social and cultural context
In the next part the authors say that teachers must pay attention to the following aspects of conversational rules and structure:


They suggest that linguistic expressions which exemplify the following need to be given to the learner for intensive practice. The following topics are listed under conversational strategies for explicit teaching:

1. Message adjustment or avoidance
2. Paraphrase
3. Approximation
4. Appeal for help
5. Asking for repetition
6. Asking for clarification
7. Interpretive summary
8. Checking understanding
9. Use of fillers

The following topics are listed under functions and meaning in conversation for explicit teaching: language functions, indirect speech acts, difference in intended meaning. The following topics are listed under social and cultural contexts:

1. Participant variables - office and status
2. The social situation
3. The social norms of appropriate language use
4. Cross cultural differences
In the last part of the article the authors state that the direct approach is not completely different from the indirect approach but is only ‘an extension and further development of communicative language teaching methodology’.

2.4.23 In this paper Weihong and Xuedong (2012, pg 699-704), present a report of the study undertaken to examine the spoken English teaching methods and techniques used by English teachers in a public school in Beijing. The report is based on data collected from eight teachers and one hundred questionnaires answered by students in a spoken English training school. The paper begins with the observation that Chinese public education system does not seem to be able to cater to the needs of the learners in spoken English. Their inference is based on their perception that quite a good number of college students are abstaining from their English classes showing a preference for tuitions in an English language training school. Further they opine that the teaching procedures in such training schools seem to be more beneficial to the students than their regular classes in school. Hence this research study intends to investigate the teaching methods deployed by teachers in the training to Beijing English training schools.

In the next part of the article researchers present a brief historical overview of the teaching methods in English language teaching that have been in practice all over the world. The researchers claim that they have employed a deductive approach to identify the problems faced by the teachers in Beijing English training schools. On analyzing the data the researchers state that the spoken English training school has been successful because they have put in place a system where there is a ‘interlocking of various elements which influence the teaching directly’. The researchers infer that a proper understanding of the teaching environment is very important for success. The researchers have also mentioned that from the responses of the learners they learn that ‘learners prefer more practice time to teacher’s long lecture in the spoken English class’. Secondly the researches state that 70% of the learners believed that the learners face a mixture of problems in learning spoken English. Some of them believed that their problems were due to inaccurate use of grammar, poor understanding, limited vocabulary and incorrect pronunciation. The researchers remark that the spoken English training school built their classroom methodology taking into account all the problems mentioned above. The teachers in spoken English
school made provision for intensive practice of communicative abilities, grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. From an analysis of the data obtained from teacher’s interviews, the researchers concluded that the teachers in the training school created a learner centered environment for teaching. They used communicative activities like role play, games, answering questions, group discussions and retelling activities. Researchers also learnt that the teachers in Beijing English training school used modern technology like computer assisted language learning tools, multi media facilities and teaching software extensively. The teachers cite Cook (2001) who says that CALL provides information for learner enhances that learner’s motivation and reinforces the learning. They also cite Stil and Borne (1996), who say that ‘the internet provides learners with online text, libraries, databases, news, travel, cooking, hobbies and sports which enlarge the knowledge range of learners speech’.

2.4.24 Teaching and Testing speaking skills: Implications

Weir and Bygate (1992-93, Pgs 27-43) present a task based approach to test spoken language performance.

The authors argue that, tasks developed within this paradigm should be

1. Purposive, interesting and motivating

2. In terms of interlocutors, setting, instrumentality and task dimensions, the task should provide the realistic context.

3. Processing should be done in real time.

4. Accepted conventions for routines should be followed.

5. There should be a degree of inter subjectivity (reciprocity) amongst participants in the interactions.

6. Interaction should be adequately managed.

7. The interaction and its output should be authentic and to a certain extent unpredictable.
8. The task as a whole must approximate as closely as possible to a real world task.

Regarding criteria of assessment the authors opine that the performance in the test must be measured in terms of linguistic, elocutionary, sociolinguistic and discourse competences and interactional ability.

The authors identify two aspects of speaking skills

1. Motor perceptive skills and
2. Interaction skills

Motor perceptive skills refer to correctly perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the right order, the sound and structures of language: a context free kind of skill. The interaction skill requires decision making ability. Speaking as interaction then must include motor perceptive skills but also include various decisions regarding what to say in a given situation, how to say it, whether develop it in line with initial purpose while maintaining the desired relationships with the other speakers, how to respond and adjust to interlocutor feedback. Thus speaking as interaction involves the ability to use language to satisfy two particular demands.

1. Processing conditions
2. Reciprocity conditions

The authors also opine that if we wish to make an ecologically valid test there should be no interviewer and there should be two participants involved in spoken interaction and reciprocal exchanges. Besides the above we need to consider other factors that might influence the interaction like the parameters of interlocutors, setting, role, purpose, instrumentality and dimensions of input.

(a) Quality of output

The final element that needs to be considered in test task design is how we are to measure the quality of output which will result from the spoken language tasks performed under specified conditions in our tests.
Normal spoken interaction is performance based ie it involves memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and errors. We must not lose sight of this in assessing non-native speakers (see Fulcher 1987). When assessing the product of tasks it is important not to overlook the normal characteristics of native-speaker speech such as facilitation features, simplification, eg parataxis, ellipsis, formulaic expressions and the use of fillers and hesitation devices. It is also characterized by compensation features such as self correction, false starts, repetition, rephrasing and circumlocutions.

In order to measure quality of the output, we need criteria of assessment. It may well be that in any one situation not all the criteria suggested for assessing routine skills, improvisation skills and micro linguistic skills would be applied by assessors. The criteria used would depend on the nature of the skills being tested and the level of detail desired by the end-users. Tasks need to be devised to reflect various combinations of conditions and operations and criteria developed applicable to the output obtaining. The dimension of practicality cannot be ignored here and the criteria developed would need to be readily deployable by teachers.

Overall effectiveness in the task is the most general criterion of performance. It is generally effectiveness with which appropriate messages are communicated that is normally of interest in testing spoken interaction.

**(b) Proficiency in handling routines: -**

1. To what extent the candidate can demonstrate an ability to **meet effectively** the demands of required routines: informational (eg narration, description, instruction, comparison) or evaluative (eg explanation, justification, prediction and decision) or interactional in specified service or social encounters.

2. Normal time constraints would have to be observed in all required routines, leading to fluency as overall smoothness of execution of the task.

3. In addition one might want to comment on the discoursal **coherence**, that is, the internal organization of the stages of the discourse. This may be especially relevant in longer turns.
4. Socio cultural proficiency (appropriacy): this would include the ability to adjust topic and register (especially) in the light of contextual features such as purpose setting, status of interlocutors, and role relationships. Due observance of the norms of interaction in terms of silence and proximity might be looked for.

5. Improvisational proficiency: - This would take account of two important improvisation abilities:

1. Ability to negotiate meaning in cases of comprehension or production difficulties manifested on the part of the candidate or his/her interlocutor, and would include the ability to use communication strategies effectively when in difficulties.

2. Ability to manage interaction (agenda and turn taking) actively and flexibly, particularly important where speakers can be expected to be active participants.

These could be assessed according to the criteria of:

1. Effectiveness: as reflected in both economy of effort and result.

2. Appropriacy: of the improvisational skills deployed.

3. Fluency: that is, smoothness of execution.

(c) Linguistic proficiency:

1. Accuracy, focusing on both Pronunciation (intelligibility), Grammar

2. Range: Adequacy and variety of vocabulary
   Adequacy and variety of structures employed

3. Fluency: Ability to utter turns smoothly

4. Appropriacy: Ability to adjust grammar and vocabulary of utterances to topic, setting and speech event
2.4.25 Testing Spoken English skills: communicative competence

Bachman (1990) opines that before developing language tests it is important to understand what factors affect students’ performance on language tests and how they affect test scores. Incidentally he states that testing specialists have recommended the “incorporation of a theoretical framework of what language proficiency is along with the methods and technologies involved in it”. He states that according to him using language communicatively involves both knowledge of or competence in language and the capacity for implementing or using this competence (pg 81, 82, and 1990).

Further he comments that the earlier models of language proficiency proposed by Lado (1961) and Carrol (1961, 1968b) distinguished language skills LSRW from components of language: grammar, vocabulary, phonology, graphology, but did not indicate how skills and knowledge are related. Furthermore he remarks that the earlier models failed to recognize the full context of language use: the context of discourse and situation. He states that Halliday’s (1976) description of language functions both textual and illocutionary and Vandijk’s (1977) delineation of the relationship between text and context clearly recognizes the context of discourse. Hymes (1972b, 1973, and 1982) further recognizes the socio cultural factors in speech situation. Bachman states that these ideas have resulted in an expanded conception of language proficiency. Its distinguishing characteristic is the recognition of the importance of context beyond the sentence. Further Bachman says that there is also recognition of the dynamic interaction between the context and discourse. He opines that communication has something more than the simple transfer of information. He supports his statement quoting Hymes(1972b), Savignan and Kramch(1996).

According to Bachman communicative language ability has three components: - language competence, strategic competence and psycho physiological mechanisms. Language competence comprises a set of specific language competencies that are utilized in communication via language. He uses the term strategic competence to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language. Psycho physiological mechanisms refer to the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon. The interactions of the components of
CLA with the language use context and language users, language structures are illustrated below.

![Knowledge structures diagram]

Knowledge of the world

Knowledge of Language

Strategic Competence

Psychological Mechanisms

Context of Structure

Bachman further classifies language competence into two types:

Organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Each of these in turn is said to consist of several categories.

2.4.26 Organizational competence

Organizational competence comprises those abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences and comprehending their propositional content and ordering them to form a text. These abilities are of two types: grammatical and textual. Grammatical competence includes the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology/graphology, whereas textual competence includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text which may be spoken or written. The text is structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical structure. Cohesion comprises semantic relationship indicators such as reference, substitution, ellipses, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Rhetorical organization refers to methods of developing texts such as narration, description, comparison, classification etc.
2.4.27 Pragmatic competence

Bachman states that pragmatic competence refers to the relationship between utterances and the acts or functions that speakers intend to perform through these utterances which can be called the illocutionary force of utterances and the characteristics of the context of language use that determine the appropriateness of utterances. Thus the notion of pragmatic competence includes illocutionary competence and socio linguistic competence.

2.4.28 Strategic competence

According to Bachman, Strategic competence does a compensatory function when the linguistic competence of the language users is inadequate. He quotes Canale and Swain (30, 1980) in support, “Strategic competence will be made up of verbal and non verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables (or) to insufficient competence. He further states that “strategic competence assists enhancement of production strategies (Canale pg no 339, 1983). According to Bachman strategic competence includes an assessment component, a planning component, and an execution component. He states that the assessment component enables to identify the information that is needed for realizing a particular communicative goal in a given context, to determine what language competence is at our disposal, to ascertain the abilities and knowledge that are shared by our interlocutor and to evaluate the extent to which the communicative goal has been achieved. The planning component retrieves relevant items-grammatical, textual, illocutionary and social linguistic from language competence and formulates a plan to achieve the communicative goal.

2.5 Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

2.5.1 Importance of social factors:

Rod Ellis (1985 A) says that external factors play a vital role in the acquisition of Second Language. He says that social factors cumulatively control the acquisition of a second language. He opines that social factors influence individual learner factors. Social factors /settings play a vital role in controlling
or regulating the quality of exposure to second language learners received. The author considers age, sex, social class, and ethnic identity as important variables in Second language

2.5.2 Acquisition poor environment

Tickoo (2009:225 -238) in his paper, while stating that teachers in Kashmir have a ‘poor opinion of Kashmiri language’ says that teachers in Kashmir tend to question the very status of Kashmiri as a language and are skeptical about the utility of teaching it. In this context he examines the idea of ‘productive and unproductive languages’ and the suitability of using ELT methods borrowed from L1 English speaking countries in India. He opines that Indian learners learn English ‘in an acquisition poor environment’. Further, he offers a definition for ‘acquisition poor environment’ (APE). He says that “it is one where an “other” language is taught in the classroom without reinforcement from life outside”. He states that “the shape, size, and organization of classrooms, lack of essential educational resources, teaching materials, instructional aids, and under qualified or untrained teachers make a significant contribution to make the ‘learning environment even poorer’. He concludes saying “the vast majority of Indians are taught English in an APE and as a result the language does not become a usable means of communication”. He states that this is true of learners in villages where they do not get opportunities to listen to English spoken.

2.5.3 Second language acquisition research in India

(1) Most of the research studies widely reported so far are from UK, USA, Canada and the Middle East countries. A major chunk of these studies is related to second language acquisition at the pre- primary, primary and secondary level. Moreover, the subjects involved in these studies are monolingual native speakers or bilingual immigrants learning English as a foreign or as a second language. Furthermore, Sridhar.K and Sridhar S. N opine that
“Theories of second language acquisition (SLA), by and large have been developed and tested without serious reference to data from the acquisition of English in those settings where indigenized varieties of English (IVE) such as Indian English, Singapore English, Nigerian English and Filipino English play institutionalized roles. On the other hand, most studies dealing with the description and acquisition of IVEs do not engage current theoretical concerns or employ empirical methods. He further observes that the field of SLA over the last two decades has moved rapidly and decisively to embrace empirical methods, where as research on the acquisition of IVE’s has remained descriptive and intuitive. With the exception of Apte (1980) and Walwadkar (1984), most studies in the area analyze random examples from student’s speech (or more commonly writing), without giving a systematic account of such crucial details as the source of the data, the elicitation procedure employed, the regularity and representativeness of the phenomenon in question etc. Their contribution to the dominant research questions in the field of SLA remains limited. Therefore, he feels that there is an urgent need for detailed studies of the acquisition of IVE’s using systematic data collection procedures, rigorous analytical methods, and explicit reporting conventions (pp161-162)

(2) In this paper Canagarajah, (Pg nos 197-218), expresses his view of how English which is playing the role of a lingua franca in communication at the global level serves to express local values, identities and interests. He states that ‘when English is considered as a transnational contact language (English as a lingua franca) even the intra national varieties of world Englishes face new challenges while engaging with local Englishes for transnational communication. He says that there is a dilemma faced by the public and the policy makers. At the one end of the spectrum policy makers are faced with the challenge of planning the status and the acquisition of English relative to local interest. At the other end there are ‘challenges
for personal relationships and identity representation as English is used in oral, written and digital media’. The author says that in his article there are three main strands- theoretical debates, scholarly exploration and negotiation strategies. Incidentally, Canagarajah refers to Kachru’s (1986) three circles models of World Englishes. Kachru identifies three circles: the Expanding Circle-where English was used as a foreign language, Outer Circle- where English was used as a second language with well established local norms, and Inner Circle which claimed ownership and the establishment of norms. Accordingly, Kachru called the Expanding Circle users as norm dependent, Outer Circle users as norm developing and the Inner Circle users as norm enforcing. Canagarajah (2006, pg no 198), in this context remarks that ‘recent geopolitical changes have altered these relationships and assumptions’. He opines that though Kachru’s World English model recognizes the outer circle varieties they have now started leaking outside their borders, creating a need for inner circle speakers too to negotiate outer circle varieties in everyday communication. Then he cites Seidlhofer, (2004), to say that there is empirical evidence to suggest that ‘multilingual speakers adopt independent norms to achieve intelligibility and the currency of English in the expanding circle out paces the use of English in the inner circle since multilingual speakers out number native speakers (quoted in Crystal, 1997 and Graddol, 1999 for statistics). Thus the ownership and norm enforcing status of the inner circle is being questioned’.

In the next paragraph the author reports that, scholars are now attempting to develop ‘alternate models of global English which can chart the relationship between communities in more fluid and egalitarian terms’. The author then says that though there are ‘several issues in the post modern world to negotiate the place of English in their collective life, individuals find ways of accommodating their interests into English in interpersonal relationships and everyday performance. Then he states that even the research on lingua franca has implications for how multilingual people resist the norms of dominant communities and attain their personal goals. They use phonological and grammatical norms that reduce ambiguity, enhance redundancy, and focus on intelligibility as they seek to accommodate their
social and cultural objectives. In relative terms this is a localization of English, an establishment of interpersonal norms suitable for each context of interaction’. He concludes the discussion on oral communication saying ‘we need more studies on the new context of communication spawned by globalization ie in the domains of diaspora, outsourcing, and business and production networks. Such interactions must be observed closely to develop taxonomy of the strategies of multilingual employees to represent identities in ELF’. In his final remarks Canagarajah opines that at the global level we do not find a homogeneous English speech community but people with different modes of competence in English. In-spite of this it is well known that ‘speakers across national borders achieve effective communication using socio linguistic, pragmatic and discourse strategies. He feels that we need to look at our use of English with such an orientation.

2.5.4 Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement

Cummins and Swain (1986, pg no 138-156) state that the debate about the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement has been going on for more than 20 years and there is no consensus about the right way of understanding what language proficiency means. Secondly the question of conceptualizing language proficiency in bilingual individuals has also remained unresolved. Closely related to this issue are questions like what the effect of bilingual education on scholastic achievement is, what the appropriate age to begin teaching L2 is and what are the consequences of different patterns of bilingual language on students’ achievement. Therefore these authors with a view to finding an answer for the questions mentioned above came out with a theoretical frame work to conceptualize the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement in both monolingual and bilingual contexts. It can be diagrammatically represented as shown below.
In this framework, language proficiency is represented along two continua. The horizontal continuum relates to ‘contextual support available for expressing or receiving meaning’ and so the two ends of the continuum are termed ‘context embedded and context reduced communication’. In context embedded communication, the participants receive help in the form of paralinguistic and situational cues whereas in context reduced communication, there are no linguistic cues. Generally speaking, in context embedded communicative situations, the participants are aware of the outside world as the context in which communication is taking place. Hence, negotiating meaning is easy. On the other hand, in a context reduced communicative situation, the participants cannot assume the real situational context and therefore ‘linguistic messages’ must be given a great deal of clarity and precision. For example, engaging in a discussion and writing a letter to a close friend can be taken as examples for context embedded communicative situations, and writing or reading an academic article can be taken as an example for context reduced communicative situation.

The two ends of the vertical continuum are termed as ‘cognitively undemanding’ and ‘cognitively demanding’. This continuum is meant to represent the ‘developmental aspects of communicative proficiency’. These
terms refer to the ‘degree of active cognitive involvement in a task or activity’. The upper part of the vertical continuum includes activities and tasks which can be performed automatically without much cognitive effort. At the lower end of the continuum activities which require a great deal of active cognitive involvement. For example writing an essay on a complex theme and arguing with another person that your point of view is correct or examples of activities which demand a great deal of cognitive involvement. By and large this framework makes an attempt to integrate the difference between ‘basic interpersonal communicative skills’ (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) proposed by Cumins in 1980.

2.5.5 Social- Psychological perspectives in Second-language learning

Khanna and Agnihotri(1998, pgs 79-98) make a reference to Gardener and Lambert’s work, which investigated the importance of attitudes and motivation in language learning they say that Gardener and Lambert have emphasized the importance of studying each language learning setting in its own right and have suggested that the configuration of variables obtained in one setting may not be valid in another setting. They take the Indian situation as a case in point. They state that English in India is taught as a major second language that is taught in schools and colleges for historical, political, social and cultural reasons and which is radically different from those underlying the introduction of French in USA or Canada or English in Philippines. Incidentally they state that “there are only a few studies which have examined the learning of English in India in a social psychological framework. They make a reference to studies by Agnihothri, Khanna and Mukherji(1982-1983) Khanna-1983, Khanna and Agnihothri(1982).[Sahgal-1983] who have examined achievement in English and noted that more than the psychological variables (attitudes and motivation), it is the social variables which are important for success in learning English. They point out that ’Lukmani’ found that instrumental motivation correlated significantly with English proficiency course. These authors point out that Lukmani’s study completely ignored the social variables.

The authors assert that Gardener and Lambert’s distinction may not capture the motivation complexity obtaining in the Indian situation. Hence they decided to explore the motivational patterns of Indian students in some detail. They
state that the purpose of their paper is to determine the cluster of variables which optimally co-relates with achievement in oral skills in English and to determine the relative weight of each variable in the cluster. The large number of social and psychological variables included in this study reflects an attempt to capture the complexity of learning situation in India. Their sample included 86 undergraduate students [86 1 yr undergraduate students of Delhi University as subjects]. The students had completed 12 to 14 yrs of school education and were in the age group of 16 to 18 yrs. The researchers used 2 sets of tools namely achievement measures eliciting speech data and social psychological measures about learner. These researchers decided to get speech of the students recorded and evaluated by a group of lecturers who were reputed to have a fairly good command of spoken English. They used an evaluation scale which was based on Harris (1969). This scale consisted of a set of qualities to be rated and a series of possible ratings. The ratings had numerical values ranging from 1 to 5 points. Each point on the scale was defined by a short behavioural statement. The set of qualities to be rated in the speech were: pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension.

(a) Socio psychological Information

The questionnaire eliciting socio psychological information was based on a pilot questionnaire and the final questionnaire consisted of 3 parts.

1. Proficiency in English

2. Personal Data

3. Attitudes and motivation

They used a cloze procedure developed by ‘Wilson Taylor’ to measure their proficiency in English.

Personal Data: - Overall marks in the previous board examination were converted into % s and used as continuous variables. Schooling was categorized in terms of primary schooling, post primary schooling and total schooling. The medium of instruction and other facilities were seen as indicators of the type of the school that the subject attended. The score for each stage of
schooling was obtained by multiplying the number of years the subject had spent in a particular type of school with the score of the school. The score for total schooling was obtained by adding up the scores for both the stages of schooling. The questionnaire also included the following.

1. Claimed control over English
2. Time spent on reading English newspapers and magazines
3. Exposure to English through Films and novels
4. Claimed use of English among languages
5. Desire to study additional languages
6. Father’s and mother’s knowledge of English
7. Use of English in the family
8. Socio-Economic background

The questionnaire included one question on attitudes and motivation. The scale consisted of 10 statements and was based on some linguistic attributes, which correlate with one another significantly. The data was subjected to correlation analysis. In order to determine the predictive value of each of those learner variables which were found to have significant correlation with the speech skill, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was carried out with the speech scores as dependant variables or (criterion variables) and social and psychological variables as independent variables (or predictor variables). It was noticed that out of 68 social and psychological variables initially selected for correlations only 26 variables were found to correlate significantly with six speech variables. Thus for the stepwise multiple regression there were 32 variables in all. The inter-correlations among 26 predictor variables showed that proficiency in English, previous performance, schooling, claimed control over English, exposure to English, claimed use of English among friends” and socio economic status correlated significantly with one another. The authors opine that “claimed use of English among friends as the best predictor of the speech skills and its qualities. As it explains a considerable amount of
variance, secondly it showed significant correlation with other social variables like schooling, claimed control over English, exposure to English and use of English in the family and socio economic status. The authors also infer that subjects from upper class families where English is used extensively and who send their children to good English medium schools would be exposed to English more extensively than other and may use English among friends frequently. Furthermore they state that the scores for “Exposure to English through English novels and films and “proficiency in English” both separately account for 3 to 8 percent of the variance in the speech skill and its qualities. The item post primary schooling accounts only for two percent of the variance in the vocabulary score of the speech skill. The authors state that primary schooling is suppressed because of a very high correlation between primary schooling and post primary schooling. The authors opine that in the Indian context it is presumed that going to an English medium school gives greater exposure to English, and the students come from a relatively high socio economic status, highly educated parents and also there is a greater use of English in the family and amongst friends. Moreover good public schools make available comprehensible input in a relaxed atmosphere. On the contrary children in ordinary government schools most often belong to relatively poor socio economic background are normally exposed to teaching of discreet grammar items and very little exposure to English language.

According to the authors the item claimed control over English explains only two percent of variance in the vocabulary scores and the item “Marks in English in the previous board examinations accounts for one to two percent of the variance in the comprehension and fluency scores respectively. Further, they say that the item overall marks in the previous board exams explains three percent of variance in the fluency and speech skill. Moreover while mother’s education explains two percent of the variance of comprehensive scores, father’s income accounts for one percent of variance in the comprehension scores. The authors also opine that psychological variables like attitudes and motivation do not appear to influence the speech skill amongst the undergraduates of the University of Delhi. The authors conclude that psychological variables like authoritarianism, ethnocentrism, motivation and motivational intensity did not seem to have any predictive value for the speech skill.
2.5.6 Speech acts

Kachru and Nelson (2009) present a review of research done on speech acts, politeness, conversation analyses and cross-cultural rhetoric. The author opines that the conventions differ across varieties because all users of English in the outer and expanding circles are bi/multilingual. The different messages come from cultural values of the communities and conventions of language use largely based on concepts of polite and appropriate behavior.

The author says that although there is a large body of research available on speech acts across languages, not much has yet been published comparing speech acts across varieties. She cites Adegbija (1989), Bailey (1998), and Y Kachru (1998) to say that a beginning in this direction has been made. She asserts that studies in conversational analysis, business and commercial negations and professional encounters also give insights into how acts are performed through speech. She cites Firth (1995), Stubbe and Holmes (1999) in support. She concludes saying that their specific speech acts that are not shared across languages and cultures. (1990:366, 67)

2.5.7 In this article titled the “Toast masters approach,” the author presents a report of a study made of a class of EFL learners in Taiwan. They were taught public speaking skills so as to be successful in work places. The author opines that in an academic setting giving formal public speaking training to first yr college students who have little or no formal public speaking experience can be beneficial to them. In this context the author intended to make use of the toastmasters approach to teaching public speaking. The author gives a brief description of classroom procedures followed by the toastmasters club. He says that there is no instructor in a T.M. club and the members learn public speaking by doing. They host a variety of sessions in each meeting deliver prepared speeches and evaluate each other’s oral presentations. The member is given a different role in each meeting which can be as

1. Officiator of meetings

2. Joke teller

3. Presenter impromptu
4. Presenter of prepared speeches and

5. Speech evaluator

The T.M. approach provides a co-operative, supportive and dynamic environment. The writer states that though the T.M. programme has been offering systematic training for effective public speaking skills there is a paucity of research on the integration of T.M approach into the language class room and the efficacy of the integration. The current study examples and reports on how T.M. training model can be effectively integrated into an EFL speech class. The questionnaire contained a 33 item 5 point Likert scale whose responses ranged from one (strongly disagree), to 5 (strongly agree). The questionnaire also contained two ranking questions and one open ended question. The author says that after analyzing the results he found that the toast masters approach enhanced students learning and the students responded positively to the ‘in class T.M’s approach. He asserts that a T.M’s approach improves oral production and oral communication. Further he adds that the T.M’s approach proved to be beneficial because it integrated various tasks into each meeting and hence there was an improvement not only in the students’ public speaking skills but also in their English proficiency, their affective competence and their social competence. He concludes saying that the T.M.’s based speech class differed from traditional speech classes in the following ways. It was a student cantered approach and they were autonomous learners. There was ample brain storming process. Subsequently a second group of experts are asked to validate the competencies by the previous group. The second group had to determine if the tasks were entry level, if they were important for the particular occupation, how frequently the tasks were performed and if certain tasks are missing. In the study there were stages:

1. a preliminary Interview

2. a validation process

3. a questionnaire

4. semi structured interviews with a focus group
2.5.8 Findings

The expert respondents in group

1. Agreed that oral communication in English played a significant role for PR jobs.

2. They stated that PR job candidates would be tested for both their English oral and written English competencies in the recruitment process and a job interview was normally used to test the candidates’ English oral competencies, their knowledge, personality and attitude. All experts opined that the PR workers needed oral communication skills in English because it was essential to communicate with their foreign clients, the press, their executives and colleagues.

The second research question was ‘what are the competencies in oral communication in English needed to get a PR job and to work effectively as entry PR personnel. Based on the preliminary interviews the authors made a list of competencies as needed for a job interviews. The four competencies are:

1. Can introduce themselves, describe their educational backgrounds, their participation in extra curricular activities and job experiences.

2. Can talk about their abilities, their hobbies, their strengths and weakness, as well as their likes and dislikes.

3. Can give some information about the organization they are applying for.

4. Can use a few proper communicative strategies to help them when they are asked some difficult/problematic questions.

The experts proposed the following eight competencies as essential for entry level OPR work. They are

1. Can use basic courtesy etiquette and carry on small talk.
2. Can handle phone conversations and give standard replies, i.e., receiving a telephone call, taking messages, and making a basic phone call to invite guests to press conferences or arrange appointments.

3. Can welcome company guests and assist them when they pay a visit to the company or when they come to join the company events.

4. Can group important points from information received and be able to communicate them to their bosses, their colleagues and the press.

5. Can answer and give information about company products and services to clients and the press.

6. Can describe marketing contexts of clients and their client’s rivals to their colleagues and their superiors.

7. Can share their opinions plus supporting reasons in a meeting.

8. Can persuade, convince or negotiate (e.g., taking basic complaints from clients or from the press or persuading/convincing the press to come to the press conference or to publish their press release).

The study also administered a student questionnaire to survey the students’ needs, wants/expectations. The researchers inferred that all the competencies validated by the experts were essential and wanted them to be included in the English course.

As regards the third research question

1. The experts opined that fresh PR graduates in local Thai programmes were not quite ready in terms of their competencies in oral communication in English.

The study concluded that their experiment had provided information on the competencies needed for oral communication in English among UG PR students. They also concluded that the curriculum for the English course needed to be ESP. They opined that a bridge between the academic world and the business world is required to deliver education to serve real needs.
2.5.9 Spoken Competencies: Public Relation Students

In this article the authors investigated the competencies needed for oral communication in English among Thai UG public relations job, interviews and performing entry level public relations work.

- The study used the DACUM strategy used for identifying the competencies. The DACUM technique is a research based methodology to identify important competencies and to reach a consensus. It develops a curriculum that guide a formal analysis of positions or occupations at professional, managers, and technical skill and semi skilled levels. This strategy involves a group of 6 to 12 experts (employers, supervisors, or full time workers) to review and analyse the competencies needed through a two day brainstorming process. Subsequently a second group of experts are asked to validate the competencies by the previous group. The second group had to determine if the tasks were entry level, if they were important for the particular occupation, how frequently the tasks were performed and if certain tasks are missing. In the study there were 4 stages:

- A preliminary Interview
- A validation process
- A questionnaire survey of the students’ need and
- Semi structured interviews with a focus group

The study intended to answer the following research questions:

- How is oral communication in English important for PR jobs?
- What are the competencies in oral communication in English needed by Thai UG, PR students to get a PR job and to work effectively as entry level PR personnel in International organizations?
- What are the perceptions about the readiness of the PR students in terms of their competencies in oral communication in English for PR jobs?
To define the term competency the study used the definition given by the US ‘Competency is a combination of skills, abilities and knowledge needed to perform a specific task. The study used the competencies listed by CEFR [communication European Framework of Reference for Languages] and the Association of language testers in Europe (ALTE). The authors say that these competencies have now become the way of benchmarking language ability all over the world. The two scales ALTE and CEFR scales range from A, for beginners to C2 for those who have mastered a language. The levels are described by a series of ‘can do’ statements. These statements describe what language users can typically do with the language at different levels and in different context (General, Social, work and study).

Findings: - The expert respondents in group

- Agreed that oral communication in English played a significant role for PR jobs.

- They stated that PR job candidates would be tested for both their English oral and written English competencies in the recruitment process and job interviews normally used to test the candidates’ English oral competencies, their knowledge, personality and attitudes. All the experts opined that the PR workers needed oral communication skills in English because it was essential to communicate with their foreign clients, the press, their executives and colleagues.

- The second research question was ‘what are the competencies in oral communication in English needed to get a PR job and to work effectively as entry level PR personnel. Based on the preliminary interviews the authors made a list of 4 competencies as needed for a job interview. The four competencies are:

  - Can introduce themselves, describe their educational background, their participation in extracurricular activities and job experiences.

  - Can talk about their abilities, their hobbies, their strengths and weakness, as well as their likes and dislikes.
• Can give some information about the organization they are applying for.

• Can use a few proper communicative strategies to help them when they are asked some difficult/problematic questions.

  o The experts proposed the following 8 competencies as essential for entry level PR work.

  o They are

• Can use basic courtesy etiquette and carry on small talk.

• Can handle phone conversations and give standard replies, i.e. receiving a telephone call, taking messages and making a basic phone call to invite guests to press conferences or arrange appointments.

• Can welcome company guests and assist them when they pay a visit to the company or when they come to join the company events.

• Can group important points from information received and be able to communicate them to their bosses, their colleagues and the press.

• Can answer and give information about company products and services to clients and the press.

• Can describe marketing contexts of clients and their client’s rivals to their colleagues and their supervisors.

• Can give their opinions plus supporting reasons in a meeting.

• Can persuade, convince or negotiate (e.g., taking basic complaints from clients or from the press of persuading/convincing the press to come to the press conference or to publish their press release).

  o The study also administered a student questionnaire to survey the students’ needs, and wants/expectations. The researchers inferred that all the competencies validated by the experts were essential and wanted them to be included in the English course.

  o As regards the third research question
• The experts opined that fresh PR graduates in local Thai programmes were not quite ready in terms of their competencies in oral communication in English.

• The study concluded that their experiment had provided information on the competencies needed for oral communication in English among UG PR students. They also concluded that the curriculum for the English course needed to be English for specific purpose. They opined that a bridge between the academic world and the business world is required to deliver education to serve real needs. Further there was need for further research on ethnographic and discourse analysis of the English language used in the PR work place.

2.5.10 Bambacas and patrickson (2008) state that their study was intended to gather information about interpersonal communication skills that enhance the organization commitment of the employees. They conducted a series of in-depth semi structured interviews with 32 Senior HR managers in public and private organizations with over one hundred employees. The purpose of the interviews was to find out how the senior managers selected new managers and how they prepared managerial staff to implement HR practices.

In this paper they cite the studies done by Boyatzis, (1982); Whetten and Cameron (2002), and Robbins and Hunsaker (2003) who reviewed a total of one fifty studies with a view to identifying interpersonal skills essential in people management. The researchers made a list of the interpersonal skills and kept them under three categories:

a. leadership b. the process of communication  c. motivation

According to these researchers interpersonal/leadership skills were ‘related to style of leadership, handling conflicts, running meeting, team building and promoting change’. The category process of communication ‘refers to sending messages, listening and providing feedback’. The skills of motivation included ‘goal setting, clarifying expectations, persuading, empowering and providing feedback’. Besides, these interpersonal skills included empowering others, persuading, politicking and negotiating.
The authors opine that in the existing literature we find information on ‘general aspects of interpersonal communication rather than communication skills’. The authors cite Robbins and Hunsaker(2003) to say that key interpersonal skills in the process of management requires competency in sending messages and listening and providing feedback; they cite Downs and Adrian(2004) to say that ‘skills in message clarity, developing and maintaining credibility and obtaining feedback are essential as they have profound ramifications in coordinating and controlling organizations’. The researchers state that it is not clear as to how they should measure and improve the interpersonal skills needed to maintain effective communication. The authors are also of the opinion that active listening skills are more valuable than passive listening skills as they do not judge but probe, reflect and deflect reinforced global messages.

The researchers found that their interviewees {senior HR managers} stated that managers had to express their ideas not merely clearly but even more critically. One of the interviewees actually explained communication skills needed by managers which are given below:

‘the ability to communicate clearly what the business issues are, and to ensure that the staff understand the business realities, the business context that we are in and ability to translate those into actions and outcomes that relate to the team’.

The authors held that the tone and choice of language directed to employees was another important factor. One senior manager stated that managers needed to ‘to think through issues and communicate them back in simple user friendly language’.

The researchers conclude saying that the results they obtained in the study demonstrated that ‘some interpersonal communication skills more than others are considered to be important in enhancing employee commitment’.

2.5.11 Surve and Pradhan (2013) opine that there is going to be an increase of 26% in Indian IT exports and IT enabled services. Consequently the IT sector will be expanding its work force. The researchers state that India would not be able to find qualified workers as forecasted by NASSCOM because only one
fourth of graduates who pass out of the university every year have the ability to work in IT/ITES/BPO industries. They opine that our country needs to ‘Harness and Update ‘the employability skills especially the communication skills of its future work force’. Further they state that ‘radical changes are needed in the education system if India’s economic growth is to be sustained. The authors claim that they intend to prove that there is an urgent need for training the work force in communication/employability skills for global competitiveness. They also claim that their paper would suggest the changes in the design of communication skills in the basic curricula of professional UG, PG, and diploma courses with a view to meeting the needs of the industry.

The authors cite Pearce, Johnson and Braker (1995), to say that there is a huge gap in competence between managers and employees in the area of communication and listening skills. They cite Fordham and Gabbin (1996) to say that ‘business students were found to be very apprehensive about communicating and are less likely to develop communication skills. Further they cite Lanier, Taanner, Zhu and Heady (1997) who say that teachers of management courses believe that their students have poor writing and verbal skills. They cite Brodowsky and Anderson (2003) to say that students of business courses themselves believe that they do not have adequate competence in communication. They cite Maes, Weldy and Icenogle (1997) who stated that oral communication as one of the top three competencies needed for successful functioning of a manager. Finally they cite Ulinski and O’Callaghan (2002) to say that MBA students and employers do not consider communication skills as important. They also cite Pittenger, Miller and Mott (2004) to say that communication skills should be taught with a focus on real world standards and ‘operational skills outcomes.’

2.5.12 Bolton (2008) in this article makes an attempt to discuss issues concerned with English across Asia. He also discusses some approaches to Asian Englishes as ‘localized varieties of English’. Bolton opines that south Asian nations like Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal and Sri-Lanka fall in the ‘Outer-Circle’. These countries happen to be erstwhile colonies of English speaking colonial forces. He further states that in these countries ‘English has been
there is a *de jure* recognition of English in domains as government, law, education and mass media.

The author cites Graddol (2006) to say that the use of English across Asia has been triggered by economic and social factors, technology and educational trends. Consequently in these countries instruction in English is begun at an even earlier age. Endorsing the opinion of Graddol (2006:72) the author says that English is becoming ‘a near universal basic skill’. In this context he says that though there is a great deal of interest shown in investigating the spectacular spread and use of English across Asia there is also an element of discontentment regarding the ‘abilities or proficiency of English users across the region’. He opines that there is an increasing demand for proficient speakers of English. Further he says that in Singapore, Hong Kong, Philippines and India, ‘the governments are making efforts to improve standards of English at work and in the public domain’. He also states that in industry circles there is apprehension about the ‘availability of good English speakers’. He quotes McCue (2005) to say that ‘only a small percentage of the two million English speaking graduates turned out each year by Indian universities have good enough language skills to work in customer facing operations’. Further he quotes a report (Call center.net, 2005) from Philippines to say that ‘call centres might already be scraping the bottom of the barrel for qualified employees, particularly those with adequate English comprehension, speaking and writing skills. In this context the author opines that we have yet to come across hard evidence relating to ‘comparative levels of proficiency’. He states that though TOEFL scores for individual Asian countries are available; these scores are not useful for drawing inferences about the proficiency of Asian students as compared with students of other nations because there is no detailed information about the demographic, educational and social characteristics of candidates in the Asian societies. He then states that the subject of proficiency might trigger research into ‘individual bilingualism and multilingualism’ within outer circle societies. He concludes the article stating that in ‘many Asian contexts individual language learning takes place in complex multilingual and functionally differentiated settings which poses a challenge for second language acquisition research.
2.5.13 Mohanraj (2015, pg no15-17) opines that teaching written as well as spoken communication is the main aim of teaching. In this context she says that strategies of communication are one of the main components of communicative components. She cites Canale and Swain (1980) to say that the ‘construct of communicative competence comprises four components, namely

a. Grammatical competence

b. Discourse competence

c. Sociolinguistic competence

d. Strategic competence’

Mohanraj states that teaching communicative strategies has become a very important component of professional courses. Then she says that though language courses in professional colleges aim to teach language skills, it remains doubtful whether there is a correlation between stated objectives and language course books. According to the author the text books and the methodology in use in professional colleges are not geared to teach communicative strategies. In this context she quotes Indira (2003, pg 137) to highlight the fact that the English course books focus only on developing reading and writing skills and spoken skills are given very little importance. Further, she says that the text book activities meant for developing oral fluency, discussion and role plays do not seem to be beneficial for developing the requisite language competency in students. Next she cites the results of a survey conducted by a management Institute (The Hindu, 2009 pg 3) to say that ‘students need focused intervention across communication skills, technical skills and problem solving skills’. Finally she argues that ‘management strategies like building a positive attitude, persuasive communicative strategies, planning and execution of a plan, interpersonal skills, conflict resolution and problem solving and presentation skills can be taught effectively even using Shakespeare’s plays. She supports her argument citing Corrigan (1999).

2.5.14 Nguyen (2011, Pg 17-30) presents findings of a study which examined the efficacy of a series of text books which were meant to teach ‘speech acts’ to class 10, 11 and 12. The author opines that it is a speaker’s pragmatic
competence that helps one to express one’s meanings and intentions through speech acts like requests, invitations and disagreement etc, accurately and appropriately. However performing speech acts for L2 learners is a difficult task because of the cultural differences that exist between one’s native culture and the target language culture. Many a time speech acts with a slight degree of inappropriateness performed by L2 learners are not tolerated by native speakers. Therefore in this context the author Nguyen argues that language pedagogy should enable L2 learners to learn the socio cultural norms of the NS community (quoted in Rose and Casper in 2001). In this context Nguyen also highlights the fact that ‘raising learners’ awareness of NS socio cultural norms is a difficult task with regard to English language because English language NS community is not a homogeneous group and new English varieties come into being very often. He quotes Kachru (1989, 1999), Yano (2001) and Graddol (2006) in support of his views. Nguyen opines that there is a need for redefining pragmatic competence. In the next part he presents the findings of the study. He says that in the study they examined a total number of 27 speech acts spread over 3 text books. The speech acts ranged from conversation skills like ‘opening and closing a conversation to expressing agreements and disagreements, apologizing etc. The study found that the distribution of the speech acts was not patterned and there was no justification for teaching them. Secondly the speech acts were taught and practiced out of context. Furthermore meta pragmatic information about speech acts was inadequate. He concludes stating that there is a need for providing realistic pragmatic models presented along with proper explanation of rules of use.

2.5.15 Oladipupo (2015) presents the results of a study in which researchers analyzed speech features in Nigerian English so as to find out in what ways Nigerian English differed from Received Pronunciation. The author says that the propriety of accepting RP and General American (GA) as models of pronunciation in ‘non native’ English settings are being debated. Further, the author adds that there is a diversity of opinion among scholars on this subject. The author states that though there is not much agreement on this issue yet RP has been accepted as a ‘targeted accent’ in Nigerian schools for teaching and learning purposes, hence this study. In this study the researchers examine the speech features of Nigerian English in the areas of ‘assimilation and elision’.
They collected speech data from 360 educated Nigerian speakers of English and analyzed it statistically. The researchers found that there were ‘varying degrees of proximity between Nigerian English and RP-regressive devoicing, progressive devoicing, regressive place etc’. It was also found that Nigerian English speech features deviated from RP norms in progressive voicing and regressive place.

2.5.16 Rajput (2014) presents the report of a study conducted on 400 students of engineering and management colleges of Indore. The survey was intended mainly to assess the speaking skills of the students, find out the types of errors and propose teaching strategies to improve their communication efficiency. The students’ performance in oral communication was evaluated while they were ‘performing specific oral tasks’. The analytic scale took into account the following aspects of communication: speech delivery rate, grammatical range and structure accuracy, discourse management and pronunciation. The study also categorized the fluency level of the participants as weak, satisfactory, good and excellent. It was found that 39.5% of the population fell under the category weak, 31.2% showed satisfactory performance, 20.5% were found to be good and only 8.7% were found to be excellent as regards fluency. Though the paper states identifying the types of errors, reasons for these errors, discovering correction methods and proposing teaching strategies for improving communication of the students as the objectives of the study, the paper does not give specific examples taken from the target sample population about spoken errors and information about teaching strategies in the classroom.

2.5.17 Walker (2014), opines that teaching pronunciation is ‘usually done’ on an adhoc basis’ though pronunciation plays a very important role in the learning process. He states that poor pronunciation affects seriously everything else done in the English language classroom. Poor pronunciation impacts all the four language skills. It often causes incomprehension and undermines speakers’ fluency and confidence. Listeners fail to understand the importance of specific patterns of sentence stress. Secondly it affects the listener’s ability to comprehend extended speech patterns because on account of their poor pronunciation skills learners will have to spend the processing power of their short term memory to recognize ‘complete words’ in the flow of speech.
Consequently they miss out some parts of the whole text. Further he states that poor pronunciation impacts negatively both on reading and writing especially learners from beginner to intermediate level. He opines that teaching pronunciation should be considered as a serious matter otherwise it will affect students’ progress in all other areas.

2.5.18 Communicative competence

Bagaric and Djigunovic (pg 94-103, 2007) in their review paper present a brief discussion of the term ‘communicative competence’ as defined by Chomsky, Canale and Swain (1983), Hymes (1972), Savignon (1972), Widdowson (1983), Taylor (1988), Bachman (1980) and Bachman and Palmer (1996), in order to have a clear understanding of the term communication competence which they found it useful for a scientific research project titled English in Croatia.

In this article, the authors opine that ‘communicative competence’ is one of the most controversial terms in the field of general and applied linguistics and usually it is associated with Chomsky. They state that it is generally agreed that it is Chomsky who made a distinction between competence (the monolingual speaker listener’s knowledge of language) and performance (the actual use of language in real situations) which was strongly disapproved by Savignon and a few others in 1972. Instead they approved of Hymes’s concept of communicative competence who defined communicative competence not merely as an inherent grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations. By doing so they also added the socio linguistic perspective to linguistic view of competence advanced by Chomsky. In 1983 Widdowson, made an attempt to explain competence and capacity as two separate notions. According to him ‘competence’ refers to the knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic conventions and ‘capacity’ refers to the ability to use knowledge as a means of creating meaning in a language. He defined capacity as procedural or communicative capacity. On account of this distinction Widdowson is considered as the first applied linguist who paid more attention to performance or real language use (pg 95).
Further these authors cite Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) who considered communicative competence as a synthesis of ‘an underlying system of language and skill needed for communication’. In their view ‘knowledge refers to conscious or unconscious knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. According to Canale and Swain (1980) there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfil communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles. According to Canale (1983) skill requires a further distinction between underlying capacity and its manifestation in real communication (performance).

Further the authors cite Savignan (1979, 1983) who emphasized ‘on the aspect of ability in her concept of communicative competence’. Savignan defined communicative competence as ‘the ability to function in a truly communicative setting—that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and para linguistic, of one or more interlocutors’. (Savignan 1972:8, quoted in pg 96). These authors then state that ‘the nature of communicative competence is not static but dynamic; it is more interpersonal than intra personal and relative rather than absolute. It is also largely defined by the context’. The authors cite Taylor (1988) who suggested that the term communicative competence be replaced by communicative proficiency and Bachman (1990) who suggested the use of the term communicative language ability for communicative competence. The authors further opine that like Hymes, Widdowson, and Candlin, Bachman defined ‘communicative language ability as a concept which included both knowledge and capacity for appropriate use of knowledge in a contextual communicative language use’. The authors point out that in the theoretical frame work or model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980, 81), there are three main components: fields of knowledge and skills: grammatical, socio linguistic and strategic competence. According Canale and Swain grammatical competence is concerned with the mastery of the linguistic code which includes knowledge of vocabulary, morphological, syntactic, semantic, phonetic, and orthographic rules; the socio linguistic competence includes knowledge of rules and conventions which underlie appropriate
comprehension and language use in different socio linguistic and socio cultural contexts, and discourse competence refers to the mastery of rules that determine in ways in which forms and meanings are combined to achieve a meaningful unity of spoken or written texts. Further, they add that strategic competence refers to knowledge of verbal and non verbal communication strategies that are recalled to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence in one or more components of communicative competence. They state that, communication strategies include ‘paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, reluctance, avoidance of words, structures or themes, guessing, changes of register and style, modification of messages etc’.

The authors remark that in a qualitative sense strategic competence is different from the other three components of communicative competence in that it is not a type of stored knowledge and it includes non cognitive aspects such as self confidence, readiness to take risks etc.

Later they cite Bachman and Palmer (1996), who stated that some general characteristics, their topical knowledge, affective schemata and language ability influence the communicative language ability. According to them the crucial characteristic is one’s language ability which has two broad areas- language knowledge and strategic competence. Language knowledge includes organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge.

Finally the authors refer to communicative competence as defined by council of Europe Frame Work (2001). The authors opine that according to CEF frame work ‘communicative competence is conceived only in terms of knowledge which has three components- Knowledge competence, socio linguistic competence and pragmatic competence. They highlight that in this model there is no component named strategic competence. The article also includes a diagram illustrating the models discussed above.
They conclude the article stating that ‘theoreticians especially those in the field of applied linguistics………have reached an agreement that a competent language user should possess not only about language but also the ability and skill to activate that knowledge in a communicative event. They opine that ‘it is not that simple to understand, describe, and evaluate the ability for use’. They also state that we should assume that they are in agreement with Skehan (1998) who states that ‘the ability for use refers to the application of different cognitive processes and affective factors in language use. They conclude saying that our inferences about ‘communicative competence of learners should be drawn by observing and testing their communicative performance and it is not necessary and practically impossible to measure all components of communicative competence ie communicative performance that are stated in the theory. The authors finally state that for the purpose of their project they decided to measure components of communicative competence either as isolated or integrated competences depending on the activity listening, reading, speaking and writing- the language tasks involve’.

2.5.19 Language proficiency of second language learners

(a) Challenges and strategies

Baden Horst and Merwe (2015, pg no 173-184), in their study investigated the practices of Foundation Phase teachers of English so as to ‘ascertain how the school has managed to maintain a consistently high academic standard, despite the language difficulties of their learners. They began their investigation with two research questions. (1) ‘What challenges are indicated by the learners’ lack of proficiency in English in the Foundation Phase, and what are the implications for teaching and learning? (2) Which strategies are the Foundation Phase teachers implementing to improve the proficiency of their learners in English?’

The two investigators considered the works of Vygotsky (1896-1934) and Jim Cummins (2014-2015). In their article the authors state that vygotsky held that language it was the main tool of communication and it promoted thinking, reasoning, reading and writing. The authors highlight the fact that vygotsky declared that learning occurs in the social context and teachers should create a collaborative environment so as to optimize learning.
The investigators state that Jim Cummins’s work is very important as regards the teaching of bilingual learners. They state that Cummins also held that ‘language plays a central role in a child’s educational development and attempted to identify the ways that language can be developed to facilitate success in education. The authors further state that Cummins made a distinction between BICS (Basic interpersonal communicative skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). The authors then state that all children acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in a monolingual context in their L1 whereas CALP is acquired in a context reduced academic situation. Therefore the language abilities required for success in the educational contexts ‘are very different from those in an everyday conversational context’. These authors wished to use these two theories as a frame work for exploring ‘the English proficiency of L2 Foundation Phase learners’. The investigators state that the learners in the Foundation Phase found it difficult to understand and interpret English, despite the continuous efforts of experienced, well trained, dedicated teachers.

(b) Second Language acquisition studies in India

Sridhar. and Sridhar opine that’ Theories of second language acquisition (SLA), by and large have been developed and tested without serious reference to data from the acquisition of English in those settings where indigenized varieties of English (IVE) such as Indian English, Singapore English, Nigerian English and Filipino English play institutionalized roles. On the other hand most studies dealing with the description and acquisition of IVEs do not engage current theoretical concerns or employ empirical methods. He further observes that the field of SLA over the last two decades has moved rapidly and decisively to embrace empirical methods, where as research on the acquisition of IVE’s has remained descriptive and intuitive. With the exception of Apte(1980) and Walwadkar (1984), most studies in the area analyze random examples from student’s speech (or more commonly writing), without giving a systematic account of such crucial details as the source of the data, the elicitation procedure employed, the regularity and representativeness of the phenomenon in question etc. Their contribution to the dominant research questions in the field of SLA remains limited. Therefore, he feels that there is
an urgent need for detailed studies of the acquisition of IVE’s using systematic
data collection procedures, rigorous analytical methods, and explicit reporting
conventions (pp161-162).

(c) The other tongue: by Braj K Kachru

Kumara Vadivelu (2002, pg 38) observes that ‘It is crucial to conduct and
disseminate cross sectional and longitudinal studies that can reveal adequate
insights into the acquisitional aspects of English language in India. He states
that ‘the only substantial value titled SLA edited by Agnihotri and Khanna
(1994) includes articles which are conceptual and descriptive in nature. Further
he draws attention to an observation made by Sridhar and Sridhar (1986) that
‘the inter language perspective adopted by western SLA researchers ignores
the acquisition and use of indigenous variety of English thereby rendering
western oriented SLA theories counter intuitive. He also cites why Kachru
reminds that most SLA studies conducted in the west suffer from mono lingual
bias and ignore learning and teaching a second language in multilingual
environment such as India’s.

2.6 Summary of Review of literature

A review of secondary sources (books and research articles) revealed the following
facts:

2.6.1 Importance of English in Global Business

1. Speaking ability in English is much in demand because it enables interaction
with people at the global level. Consequently, there is an urgent need
for speakers of fluent English. This in turn has led to the establishment of
English teaching centers on a commercial basis all over the globe. There is
also a perceptible increase in the demand for higher education in the field
of management and other allied courses as a result of English becoming the
global medium of business and commerce.

2. The use of English is crucial for the survival of global commerce because
English language as medium of advertising helps build professional identity
nevertheless, a lack of adequate research studies which can inform us how
English is used between consumers and within business organizations is yet to emerge.

3. Speaking ability in English is vital for conducting meetings and business negotiation successfully. Though a few cross cultural comparative studies of the spoken language used in business meetings between Italian and British business men and Japanese and US business men are available, they reveal that there are cultural differences in the way the Japanese and Americans conduct their business meetings. Secondly research reveals that negotiations have a variety of meanings apart from negotiating to get something desired.

4. In South Asian countries English serves as a link language and is considered as a language of power and a means of upward economic and social mobility. It performs four clear functions.

a. It is used as a library language for acquisition of knowledge.

b. Used by tourist guides and taxi drivers for transacting business and interacting with foreign tourists.

c. Used by the common people as a link language with the speakers of other Indian languages.

d. There is a rise in a demand for teaching of English in class one itself.

English has been nativized and a great deal of variation in the use of English in phonology, lexicon, syntax and usage and a distinctive Indian variety of spoken English is seen.

2.6.2 English in Business Communication

1. Research studies reveal that communication skills in business constitute the vital skills required of a business executive and play a crucial role in the success or failure of businesses. This being the case good communication skill in English is important for job aspirants and also for the proper functioning of businesses.
2. Communication serves four functions namely:

   a. Exercising control over employees.
   
   b. Keeping them motivated.
   
   c. Full filling their emotional and societal needs
   
   d. Providing information

However there are problems related to cross cultural differences in expressing and understanding meanings (China, Korea, Japan, Vietnam and Europe and North America). Differences between L1 and L2 conventions also create problems in communication between native and non native speakers of English. There is a strongly felt need for research about native speaker’s speech behaviour.

2.6.3 Teaching and Testing Spoken English

There is great deal of secondary literature available which deal in depth with the psycholinguistic nature of the sub skills of speaking. A study of this literature can provide useful insights for designing a successful spoken English course for all kinds of speakers of English. Secondly, from a study of this literature one can infer that the existing courses for teaching spoken English seem to be focusing more on motor perceptive skills and less on interactive skills. Besides this, awareness about the differences between speech and writing does not seem to have been addressed by teachers of spoken English.

2. Though there is a lot of information available about the structure and strategies for conducting negotiation and interaction, teachers of spoken English do not seem to have taken care of teaching strategies for learning these skills. Similarly, studies on discourse analysis of spoken English have brought in deeper insights into the purpose of our spoken acts of communication. Spoken English teachers do not seem to be aware of this.

3. Ever since English language attained the status of a global language the objectives of teaching spoken English have changed drastically. Now there is no need for a learner to learn English for the exclusive purpose of
communicating with a native speaker of English. As a result a programme of spoken English teaching need not focus on giving the learner the nuances of the standard language of an educated native speaker. But on the contrary the learner needs to be exposed to different varieties of world Englishes and only aim at making his/her ability to communicate intelligible to others. Furthermore a spoken English course designer has to take into account that communicative competence includes the following components, namely linguistic and grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. He/she also needs to understand the structure and nature of speech acts. They should also consult existing research studies available for teaching and testing spoken English skills.

2.6.4 Second language acquisition

1. Research acquisition studies say that social and educational factors cumulatively control the acquisition of English. Prof Tikkoo (2009, 225-238), has argued that Indian learners learn English in an ‘acquisition poor environment (APE) and as a result the English language they learn in class does not become a useable means of communication.

2. Sridhar and Sridhar (161-162), opine that there is an urgent need for ‘detailed studies of the acquisition of indigenized variety of English using systematic data collection procedures, rigorous analytical methods and explicit reporting conventions’.

3. Canagarajah (197-218), opines that ‘multilingual speakers now outnumber native speakers of English and hence the ownership and norm enforced status of the inner circle is being questioned. Therefore, there is need for ‘studies on the new context of communication spawned by globalization in the domains of Diaspora, outsourcing and business of the production network.

4. Cummins and Swain (1986, 138-156), have come out with a theoretical frame work to conceptualize the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement in both monolingual and bilingual contexts.
5. Khanna and Agnihotri (1998, 79-98), also opine that there is evidence in their study to prove that students who come from public schools and English medium schools come from an acquisition-rich-environment where they are exposed to a greater use of English in the family and among friends. Secondly, their schools make available comprehensible input in a relaxed atmosphere. On the contrary, children who come from ordinary government schools belong to relatively poor socioeconomic background and get very little exposure to English language.