Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This Chapter gives an outline of ELT and evolution of vocabulary. The subsequent sections include the need for learning English in India, importance and types of language tests, vocabulary tests and English language teaching in engineering colleges of Tamilnadu. Then, it discusses the need, objectives, significance of the present study followed by the statement of problems, research questions, hypotheses, scope of the study and resume of succeeding chapters.

1.2 Overview of English Language Teaching

The information below is mainly from Stern (1983) as quoted in EFL University PGCTE Course material. A discussion by Stern begins systematically from 1880. He has divided the history of ELT into four periods.

Period I: 1880 to World War I

Period II: World War I and the Interwar Years to 1940

Period III: World War II and Post War Decades to 1970

Period IV: Seventies and Early Eighties

1.2.1 Period I: 1880 to World War I

1880 is significant because the reform of language teaching was at its height in Western Europe. The phonetic alphabet was felt to an important need particularly in France, Germany and Scandinavia. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was
adopted in Europe by the The International Phonetic Association. A serviceable international system of writing speech sounds was discussed in terms of spelling reform and shorthand systems. It was the French Linguist, Paul Passy, who in 1880 was instrumental in the adoption of the IPA system by the International Phonetic Association.

The IPA was based on Henry Sweet’s “Romic”. Sweet was an academic language teacher, who stands out in this period as a reformist language teaching. Other academicians like Sweet, Victor, Jespersen and Passy were prominent teachers in secondary schools. This period also witnessed founding of the first of the famous Berlitz schools, in Providence, Rhode Island, USA, with seventy of such schools in operation by 1900. This was also the period, which witnessed the influential work of Francis Gouin (1892). The founding of Modern Language Association of America (MLA) took place in 1883, and the Modern Language Association of Great Britain was established in 1892. Certainly, this period was one, which looked at modern language teaching as opposed to earlier preoccupations with classical languages, more scientifically and rigorously than before.

1.2.2 Period II : World War I and the Interwar Years to 1940

In this period, language teaching developed the basic tenets of vocabulary selection and graded readers. The famous word counts by Thorndike (The Teacher’s word Book, 1921) and West (GS List) and Ogden and Richard’s ‘Basic English’ (1930) together with Palmer’s publication (The Scientific Study and the teaching of Languages, 1917; ‘The Oral Method of Teaching Languages’, 1921; The Principles of Language Study, 1922) and West’s publications ( Bilingualism, 1926; Learning to Read a Foreign Language, 1926) were all instrumental in establishing the basic principles and tenets of
the structural approach to language teaching. Behaviorism offered a model of language learning that upheld the pedagogic principles of spaced, controlled, meaningful, repetition. Graded vocabulary based on frequency counts, and graded readers (to support the reading method, essential for ESL development) together with teaching and drilling of the structures of the language received premium. Centralized material production was at its height. Syllabuses and materials were produced centrally and “scientifically” by experts, taking into account the learners’ cultural, cognitive and linguistic needs and expectations.

Linguistics, which began as philology, also had come into its own. Bloomfield’s influential ‘Language’ came out in 1933, and its impact was felt in the next period.

**1.2.3 Period III: World War II and Post War Decades to 1970**

In this period, American wartime language programs gave the onus of language learning, planning and teaching to the linguistics, and at the same time placed great emphasis on language teaching. Indeed, this period witnessed the great linguistic paradigm shifts from philology, to descriptive linguistics, to transformational generative grammar. In fact, the same year, 1957, reflected the publications of the work of two great theoreticians: B.F. Skinner’s Verbal Behaviour and N. Chomsky’s Syntactic Structures. The debate between behaviorism, on the one hand, and cognitive psychology and the creative construction of the LAD Hypothesis on the other, proved to be a “watershed” of ideas, from which emerged the new TG paradigm in linguistics. Language teaching was certainly influenced by these changes, although Chomsky himself in his address to the teachers at northeast conference in 1966 said, “I am, frankly, rather skeptical about the significance, for the teaching of languages, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology” (Chomsky 1966: 43)
How exactly was ELT influenced by linguistics? Before 1957, Fries and Lado had developed a language pedagogy based on behaviorist psychology and linguistics at the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Michigan, USA. In 1942, Bloomfield published his Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Language and in 1953 T. Anderson had launched the FLES hypothesis with his book the Teaching of Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools. In India, Michael West was working in Bengal, and had started the discussion of the structural approach as the valid form of teaching language on the sub-continent.

After 1957, linguistics developed as a discipline in different ways. Universities established Department of Linguistics (Edinburgh and Washington)/ and Tesol was founded in the USA in 1966. Linguistics and language teaching were brought closely together, as seen in Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens’ influential book ‘The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching’ (1964). The first language laboratory was established at Earlin College, UK in 1961. The period also witnessed major experiments already referred, to on comparative methodology experiments, e.g., the Scherer- Wertheimer experiments at the University of Colorado in 1961 (published in 1964).

In language teaching, major publications like William E Mackey’s ‘Language Teaching Analysis’, a definitive book on language methodology came out in 1965, and the first experiments in Immersion classes began at Montreal, Canada in 1965 where the question of bilingualism was beginning to be addressed. In 1968, the modern language center of Ontario Institute of Studies was established. In the same year the Bilingual Education Act was passed in USA, whilst in 1969, the Official Languages Act established French and English as official Languages.
In India, post-independence or post 1946 scenario, established the need for link language, which had been English, but which was considered to be also a colonial reminder of the British dominance. The three-language formula was finally proposed after much debate (Kothari Commission 1966) which even today is still hotly discussed. In terms of language teaching methodology, there was a clear establishment of structural approach. Jean Foresster’s Teaching Without Lecturing. Brendan J, Carroll’s support of the structural method, madras, the snowball effect), Ken Moody’s substitution tables and focus on low cost aids, all supported structural approach. However, language teaching was seen to be primarily the teaching of literature, till about 1958, with the founding of CIEFL and the influential book published by CIEFL-‘Language Through Literature.’ The focus on language teaching, after this date, however, divided English teachers in universities into two definite camps: the teachers of language and the teachers of literature, which bifurcation unfortunately persists even today, though not as strongly as before. Literature too, has developed its own methodologies. The CIEFL influenced publication of ‘The Study Group Reports (1967and 1972) which are perhaps the first documents that laid stress on the skills of language and the need for focusing in these.

1.2.4 Period IV: Seventies and Early Eighties

This period was a period of a great “happenings” in ELT.

1. First, psychology made an impact on language teaching with several new methods: The Silent Way (Gattegno), CLL or Community Language Learning (Curran), TPR or Total Physical Response (Asher) and Suggestopedia (Lozanov)
2. In spite of these methods, however, there was an emphasis on individualization of learning, which resulted in a reaction against methodologies, but which focused more on learners. Stren describes this as a break with the method concept where learners centeredness removed the focus, as it were, from a teacher’s performance.

Individualization or learner centered classes, focused on learners’ needs, and purposes for language learning, which had several consequences. One of these was the establishment of ESP courses. The emphasis on social contexts and needs, and appropriacy of use, brought into the prominence the concept of communicative competence (Dell Hymes) as opposed to the earlier grammatical competence), where situations, and domains of use were the categories that decided appropriacy. Fluency replace the notion of grammatical correctness, as an aim in teaching, and meaning based study replaced form focused study. The communicative approach, or CLT as it called, took off very richly from work done at the council of Europe in the early seventies, resulting in the publication of the Notional Syllabus (1976), which talked of functions of language as the unit of categorization in a language syllabus. Halliday, Dell Hymes and other sociolinguists, had a great role to play these developments.

1.3. Aspects of English Language Teaching in India

Aspects of English Language Teaching in India are best represented in the article by Dr. Ram Sharma as following:

Multilingualism with 1652 mother tongues including dialects according to 1982 census is the uniqueness of India. It can be witnessed in the India’s long history and the rudimentary structure of the Indian languages is made up of Indo-Aryan and Dravidian
families. Indo-Aryans form the biggest of the language groups in India, accounting for 75 percent of the total population. The significant languages for this group are Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Kashmiri, Sindhi and Urdu. The Dravidian family of languages account for 25 percent of the entire population. The main languages in this group are Telugu, Tamil, Kannada and Malayalam. English came to India with the English.

Since the English had come here for the purpose of trade, in the beginning, they concentrated their attention only on trade and did not bother to encourage the teaching of English, but with them had come some missionaries who started schools where English was imparted as one of the subjects. The fear is sole reason for the English for not encouraging the teaching of English in the starting days and moreover they feared that they might lose their colonies in India as they did in America. This fear was expressed by Randle Jackson, a member of the House of Commons, Who said “We lost our colonies in America by imparting our education there, we need not do so in India too.” However, after the battle of Plassey in 1757, the situation started to change. The traders occupied themselves in the position of rulers. In order to have complete control over the people whom they had begun to govern they decide to open educational institutions. Couple of institutions were Calcutta Madrassa started in 1781 and Benares Sanskrit College founded in 1791. They were the institutions to impart classical learning, but they also made a place for the teaching of English. By this way, the teaching of English in India was begun by the British rulers.

The significance of English went on mounting up with the passage of time. A great demand for the spread of English education begun to be raised from the various
parts of the country. Raja Ram Mohan Roy established the Hindu College in 1817 to meet this demand. The number of schools and colleges were opened by the missionaries where the teaching of English was given prime importance. In 1835, Macaulay, in his famous minute, strongly recommend that the spread of western learning could only be possible through the medium of English language. Macaulay argued that, “English is better worth knowing than Sanskrit and Arabic” That “the natives are desirous to be taught English” and that “it is possible to make natives of this country thorough good English scholars”. Macaulay’s recommendation gave an impetus to the study of English as a result of this, the study of the regional languages got marginalized. By 1837, the missionaries had begun to offer a significant part of the facilities for teaching English. Not very long thereafter, English developed as the language of administration and judiciary in India even as the vernaculars continued to be used in several instances. Almost simultaneously subordinate level positions in the judicial and administrative institutions were thrown open to Indians by a government resolution. In 1853, the year when the Company’s charter was renewed once more, under the pressure of government personnel to manage the widening domain of its, “India activities” the company decided to open up its highest Civil Service appointments to Indians by allowing them to appear for a competitive examination set up for this purpose. As a follow up of the Wood’s Dispatch of 1854, the first formalized and formulated education policy statement of the East India Company three universities were established in 1857 at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras respectively. However, the Indian Education Commission (1882) expressed its dissatisfaction at the exclusive use of English as the medium of education. The Indian Universities Commission (1902) recorded its opposition against the neglect of regional
languages. The Calcutta University Commission (1917-1919) tried to strike a balance by observing that, “The educated classes in the various provinces of India will wish to be bilingual, to use their mother tongue for those dear and intimate things which form part of life and to use English as a means of inter-communication necessary for the maintenance of the unity of India, and of touch with other countries.” Favoring the idea of encouraging the teaching of regional languages in scholars and colleges the commission recommended, “We are emphatically of the opinion that there is something unsound in a system of education which leaves a young man, at the conclusion of his course, unable to speak or write his own mother tongue fluently and correctly. It is thus beyond controversy that a systematic effort must henceforth be made to promote the serious study of vernaculars in secondary schools, intermediates colleges and in the university.” As a result of this recommendation, the medium of English was restricted only to the colleges and universities from 1920 onwards throughout the country.

India got independence in 1947. Commissions and Committees and the leaders of public opinion took a close at the value of English and tried to strike a balance between gains and losses. People like C. Rajagopalachari preferred the continuance of English language, but there were persons who, under the influence of nationalism, advocated that English should go with the English as it had come with them. They argued that English being a foreign language was accountable for the waste of student’s time and energy. They declared that students could learn and express their ideas more easily in their mother tongue. Consequently, it was decided that regional languages should be developed and Hindi should replace English. The University Education Commission (1949) suggested, among other things, that English be replaced, as easily as practicable,
by an Indian language as the medium of instruction of higher education. The constitution of India, adopted in 1950 provided for English to continue as the official language of the country for a period of fifteen years to be replaced by Hindi at the end of that period. Parliament later decided to permit English to continue as the associate official language of the Union till such time as Hindi began to be used for administrative purpose all over the country. During the fifties, the three language formula was formulated. It gives due importance to the regional languages and strives to promote national integration and national identity through a national link language that serves as a “Window of the World”.

1.4 Evolution of English Vocabulary

Records of second language learning spread back at least to the second century B.C., where Roman children learnt Greek. Mastering the alphabet, progressing through syllables, words, and connected discourse were the methods used by students to learn in early schools. Some of the texts provided students lexical help by offering vocabulary that was either alphabetized or grouped under various topic areas (Bowen, Madsen & Hilferty, 1985). It can only be assumed that lexis was considered important at this point of time, as the art of rhetoric was highly valued, and would have been impossible without a vastly developed vocabulary.

Later, in the medieval period, the study of grammar became conspicuous, as students studied Latin. Language instruction during the Renaissance continued to have a grammatical focus, although some reforming educators agitated against the overemphasis on syntax. In 1611, William of Bath wrote a text that concentrated on vocabulary acquisition through contextualized presentation, presenting 1,200 proverbs that
exemplified common Latin vocabulary and demonstrating homonyms in the context of sentences. John Amos Comenius created a textbook drawing on this idea of contextualized vocabulary. He advocated an *inductive* approach to language learning, with a limited vocabulary of eight thousand common Latin words, which were grouped according to topics and illustrated with labeled' pictures. The notion of a *limited* vocabulary was imperative and would be developed further in the early twentieth century as part of the "Vocabulary Control Movement". Scholars such as William and Comenius endeavored to raise the status of vocabulary, while promoting translation as a means of directly using the target language, getting away from rote memorization, 'and avoiding such a strong grammar focus'.

Unfortunately, the emphasis of language instruction remained firmly on *deductive*, rule-oriented treatments of Latin grammar. This pre-occupation filtered over to English as well. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries brought the Age of Reason where people believed that there were natural laws for all things and that these laws could be derived from logic. Language was no different. Latin was held up as the language least corrupted by human use, so many grammars were written with the intent of purifying English based on Latin models. It was a time of recommendation, when authors of grammar books took it upon themselves to decide correct usage and to condemn what seemed to them to be improper. Usually, they had no qualifications to do so, other than being significant men in the world. Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762) 'was one of the most influential of the prescriptive grammars, outlawing features in common use, such as double negatives (I *don't* want to study *no* more grammar rules!). These grammars established general acceptance, which aided prolong the domination of grammar over vocabulary.
Attempts were also made to standardize vocabulary, which resulted in dictionaries being produced. The first was Robert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabetical* (1604). (Kelley [1969] notes that the first bilingual lexicology dates from around 2500 B.C.) Many others followed until Samuel Johnson brought out his *Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755, which soon became the standard reference. With the exception of printing in general, his dictionary did more to fix standard spelling and lexical usage than any other single thing in the history of English. Johnson's genius lay in his utilization of contemporary pronunciation and usage to guide his spellings and definitions. Only in ambiguous cases did he resort to arbitrary decisions based on logic, analogy, or personal taste. The result was a dictionary that would remain unchallenged in influence until Noah Webster published an American version in the following century.

The main language teaching methodology from the beginning of the nineteenth century was *Grammar-Translation*. A lesson would naturally have one or two new grammar rules, a list of vocabulary items, and some practice examples to translate from L1 (first language) into L2 (second language) or vice versa. The approach was originally reformist in nature, an attempt to make language learning easier using example sentences instead of whole texts (Howatt, 1984, p. 136). However, the method developed into a very controlled system, with a heavy emphasis on accuracy and explicit grammar rules, many of which were quite obscure. The content focused on reading and writing literary materials, which emphasized the obsolete vocabulary of the classics. In fact, the main criterion for vocabulary selection was often its ability to elucidate a grammar rule (Zimmerman, 1997). Students were largely expected to learn the essential vocabulary themselves through bilingual word lists, which made the bilingual dictionary imperative reference tool.
As the method became increasingly pedantic, a new pedagogical way was needed. One of the key problems with Grammar-Translation was that it centered around on the ability to *analyze* language, and not the ability to *use* it. In addition, the emphasis on reading and writing did little to promote an ability to communicate orally in the target language. By the end of the nineteenth century, new use-based ideas had merged into what became known as the *Direct Method*. It highlighted exposure to oral language, with listening as the primary skill. Meaning was related directly to the target language without the step of translation, and explicit grammar teaching was downplayed. It imitated how a native language is naturally learned, with listening first, then speaking, and only later reading and writing. The focus was directly on use of the second language, with some of the stronger supporters banishing any employment of the L1 in the classroom. It was considered that vocabulary would be acquired naturally through the interaction during lessons. Concrete vocabulary was explained with pictures or through physical demonstration, with initial vocabulary being kept simple and familiar, for example, objects in the classroom or clothing. Thus, vocabulary was linked with reality as much as possible. Only abstract words were presented in the traditional way of being grouped according to topic or association of ideas (Zimmerman, 1997).

Like all other approaches, the Direct Method had its problems. It required teachers to be proficient in the target language, which was not always the case. It imitated L1 learning, but did not take into account the differences between L1 and L2 acquisition. One major difference is that L1 learners have plentiful exposure to the language, whereas learners of a second language typically have little, usually only a few hours per week for a year or two. In the United States, the 1929 Coleman Report took this limited instruction
time into account, and decided that it was not sufficient to develop overall language proficiency. It decided to recommend a more limited goal: teaching secondary students how to read in a foreign language. This was thought the most useful skill that could be taken from schooling, particularly as relatively few people traveled internationally in the early twentieth century. At the same time, in Britain, Michael West was underlining the need to facilitate reading skills by improving vocabulary learning. The result was an approach called the *Reading Method*, and it held sway, along with Grammar-Translation and the Direct Method, until World War II.

During the war, the shortfalls of all of the above approaches became obvious, as the American military found itself short of people who were conversationally fluent in foreign languages. It wanted a means to quickly train its soldiers in oral/aural skills. American structural linguists stepped into the gap and developed a program that borrowed from the Direct Method, especially its, stress on listening and speaking. It drew its rationale from behaviorism, which essentially said that language learning was a result of habit formation. Therefore, the method included activities that were believed to strengthen "good" language habits, such as close attention to pronunciation, intensive oral drilling, a focus on sentence patterns, and memorization. In short, students were expected to learn through drills rather than through an analysis of the target language. The students who went through this "Army Method" were mostly mature and greatly motivated, and their success was dramatic.

This success meant that the method naturally sustained on after the war, and it came to be known as *Audiolingualism*. Because the focus in Audiolingualism was on teaching structural patterns, the vocabulary wanted to be relatively easy, and so was
chosen according to its simplicity and familiarity (Zimmerman, 1997). New vocabulary was rationed, and only added when necessary to keep the drills viable. "It was assumed that good language habits, and exposure to the language itself, would eventually lead to an increased vocabulary" (Coady, 1993, p. 4), so no clear method of extending vocabulary later on was spelled out. A similar approach was current in Britain from the 1940s to the 1960s. It was called the *Situational Approach*, from its grouping of lexical and grammatical items according to what would be required in various situations (e.g., at the post office, at the store, at the dinner table) (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Consequently, the Situational Approach treated vocabulary in a more systematic way than Audiolingualism.

Noam Chomsky's attack on the behaviorist underpinnings of Audiolingualism in the late 1950s proved decisive, and it began to fall out of favor. Displacing the behaviorist idea of habit formation, language was now seen as ruled by cognitive factors, particularly a set of abstract rules that were assumed to be innate. In 1972, Hymes added the concept of *communicative competence*, which stressed sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors. This helped to swing the focus from language "correctness" (accuracy) to how suitable language was for a particular context (appropriateness). The approach that developed from these notions highlighted using language for meaningful communication *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT). The attention was on the message and fluency rather than grammatical accuracy. It was taught through problem-solving activities, and tasks that required students to transact information, such as information gap exercises. In these, one student is given information the other does not have, with the two having to negotiate the exchange of that information.
In any meaning-based approach, one would expect vocabulary to be given a prominent place. Once again, however, vocabulary was given a secondary status, this time to issues of mastering functional language (e.g., how to make a request, how to make an apology) and how language connects together into larger discourse. CLT gives little direction about how to handle vocabulary, other than as support vocabulary for the functional language use mentioned above. As in previous approaches, it was presumed that L2 vocabulary, like L1 vocabulary, would take care of itself (Coady, 1993). It has now been realized that mere exposure to language and practice with functional communication will not guarantee the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary (or an adequate grammar, for that matter), therefore current best practice includes both a principled selection of vocabulary, often according to frequency lists, and an instruction methodology that encourages meaningful engagement with words over a number of recyclings.

One of the most important current lines of thought is the realization that grammar and vocabulary are fundamentally connected. Evidence from large *corpora* (language databases) displays that there is more lexical patterning than ever imagined, and that much of what was previously considered grammar is actually constrained by lexical choices. In effect, this makes it difficult to think of vocabulary and grammar as separate entities. Rather, one must conceptualize them as partners in synergy with no discrete boundary, sometimes referred to as *lexicogrammar*. Pursuing this idea should finally put to rest the notion that a second language can be acquired without both essential areas being addressed. The next we will see about the Vocabulary Control Movement.
1.4.1 The Vocabulary Control Movement

This survey has shown that language teaching methodology has swung like a pendulum between language instruction as language analysis and as language use. Similarly, vocabulary has had divergent fortunes in the various approaches. However, a recurring thread is that most approaches did not really know how to handle vocabulary, with most relying on bilingual word lists or trusting it would just be absorbed naturally. Systematic work on vocabulary did not begin in earnest until the twentieth century. One major strand of lexical research concerns the patterning of vocabulary in discourse, flourishing from about the 1980s with the advent of computer analysis techniques. The other high profile element of lexical research concerned efforts to systematize the selection of vocabulary. Because it also encompassed an attempt to make vocabulary easier by limiting it to some degree, the research came to be collectively known as the Vocabulary Control Movement.

There were two competing approaches. The first attempted to limit English vocabulary to the minimum necessary for the clear statement of ideas. C K. Ogden and I. A. Richards developed a vocabulary with only 850 words (known as Basic English) in the early 1930s, which they claimed could be quickly learned and could express any meaning that could be communicated in regular English. This was done by paraphrasing, for example, the words ask and want were not included in Basic English, but could be expressed as put a question and have a desire for, respectively (Carter, 1998, p. 25). Basic English consisted of 150 items representing Qualities (essentially adjectives), 600 Things (nouns), and 100 Operations (a mixture of word classes). However, the suffixes -ed and -ing could be attached to the Things, and so many could be used as verbs (dust-duited).
For a number of reasons, however, it turned out that Basic English did not have much long-lasting impact. First, it was promoted as a replacement language for English itself, which was never going to happen. More significant, perhaps, despite the small number of words, it was not necessarily that much simpler to use. The same number of concepts existed in the world that needed to be addressed, but instead of learning many words to cover these concepts, Basic English merely shifted the learning burden to learning many meaning senses. In fact, it has been estimated that the 850 words of Basic English have 12,425 meanings (Nation, 1983, p. 11). Learning multiple meaning senses is not essentially any easier than learning multiple words, so Basic English's apparent simplicity is largely an illusion. Two practical problems also counted against the adoption of Basic English. First, teachers would have had to be retained to use this essentially "new" language. Second, it was not very apposite for social interaction, as key items such as Good-bye, Thank you, Mr., and Mrs. were not included, nor were very common words such as big, never, sit, or want. In the end, Basic English produced what seemed to be "unnatural" English, and many teachers felt that "if courses were offered which claimed to teach Basic English, they should in fact teach basic English" (Howatt, 1984, p. 254).

The second (more successful) approach in the Vocabulary Control Movement was to use systematic principles to select the most useful words for language learning. This was partially in reaction to the Direct Method, which gave little direction on the selection of either content or vocabulary. Several researchers had been working in this area during the first part of the twentieth century, and their efforts merged in what came to be referred to as the Carnegie Report (Palmer, West, & Faucett, 1936). The report suggested the development of a list of vocabulary that would be useful in the making of
simple reading materials. Word frequency was an important criterion for the choice of words on this list, but it suffers from the fact that, apart from the most frequent words, the vocabulary required in any situation depends on the context it is used in. For example, *pencil, valve,* and *pint* may not be particularly frequent words in general English, but they are essential in classrooms, automobile repair garages, and British pubs, respectively.

Thus, the eventual words on the list were selected through a wide-ranging list of criteria: 1. Word frequency 2. Structural value (all structural words included) 3. Universality (words likely to cause offence locally excluded) 4. Subject range (no specialist items) 5. Definition words (for dictionary making, etc.) 6. Word-building capacity 7. Style (“colloquial” or slang words excluded) (Howatt, 1984, p. 256). The list ended up having about two thousand words, and was finally published as the *General Service List of English Words* (GSL) (West, 1953). The advantage of the GSL is that the different parts of speech and different meaning senses are listed, which makes the list much more beneficial than a simple frequency count. A major feature of this second approach to vocabulary control is the use of frequency information. The practice of counting words to see how frequently they occur has a long history, dating as far back as Hellenic times (DeRocher, Miron, Patten, & Pratt, 1973). In 1864, Thomas Prendergast, objecting to the archaic word lists used in the Grammar-Translation Method, compiled a list of the most common English words by depending solely on his intuitions (which proved to be surprisingly accurate) (Zimmerman, 1997, p. 7). However, the first modern frequency list, compiled by counting a large number of words (11 million), was developed by Kaeding in Prussia in the 1890s (Howatt, 1984, p. 257). Michael West is
probably the best-known scholar to harness the idea of frequency to second language learning. In addition to compiling the GSL, he was active in promoting reading skills through vocabulary management.

To improve the readability of his *New Method Readers* texts, he substituted low-frequency "literary" words such as *isle, nought*, and *ere* with more frequent items such as *island, nothing*, and *before*. This followed the ideas of Harold Palmer, with whom he collaborated. The next step was to limit the number of new words occurring in the text. He increased the length of the overall texts compared to others current at the time, and also decreased the number of new words. This had the effect of dramatically reducing the percentage of new words that a reader would encounter in a text. Whereas a reader would be introduced to a new word every 5-20 words in previous texts, in West's readers the reader would encounter a new word every 44-56 words on average. This gave readers an opportunity to improve their reading fluency without constantly having to cope with new words in every sentence, and it also meant that previously met words would be recycled at a higher rate. The readers would presumably also be able to comprehend more of what they read.

**1.5 The Need for Learning English in India**

Man turned to be cultured only after creating language for that it took thousands of years where every language has taken hundreds of years to flourish. As need is the mother of invention, every language must have acquired decent status only because of the need. The need for teaching English is boundless because nothing will take place in the world without language where English enjoys the prominent place. Words, crucial part of a language, are fundamental that only enable the mankind to communicate with others.
When a person finds it difficult to communicate, words occupy the pivotal role in it. In the olden days the need for teaching and learning English was only for pleasure especially to read the English literature that is why still we could find more English literature courses in India. We started learning English for colonial purpose afterwards English slowly sent all other Indian languages to the back sheet and it has comfortably occupied the front sheet. East India Company brought English to India and made us to learn English for their commercial purpose especially to mediate East India company and common public. British slowly grabbed the complete power of the nation and became the ruler of the nation along with them English became the rule language of India. In earlier times, the need for learning English was very limited but now globalization and commercialization have made learning English as inevitable. English became the lingua franca of the entire world. Therefore, it is a quintessential need to learn English in India.

1.6 The Importance of Language Tests

A test, as one type of measurement, is “an instrument designed to elicit a specific sample of an individual’s behavior” (Bachman 1990, p. 20). A test, in simple terms, is defined as “a method of measuring a person’s ability, knowledge, or performance in a given domain” (Brown 2004, p. 3). Testing, including all forms of language testing, is one form of measurement. It is a universal feature of social life (McNamara 2000, p. 1). There could be no science as we know it without testing or measurement (Henning 1987, p. 1). This can also be real for language testing.

Language tests play a powerful role in many people’s lives (McNamara 2000, p. 4), and an important part of every teaching and learning experience (Madsen 1983, p. 3). Without testing, there is no reliable means of knowing how effective a teaching sequence
has been. A language test is important not only in language learning and teaching but also in conducting research. In language learning and teaching, testing provides a form of feedback, both for learners and teachers (Thornbury 2002, p. 129).

This is consistent with Madsen (1983, pp. 4-5) who asserts that good tests can benefit students, teachers, and even administrators. Well-made tests of English can at least help students in 2 ways: 1) to create positive attitudes toward language classes with the help of their teachers to provide positive classroom experiences for them; and 2) to master the language by requiring students to study hard, emphasizing course objectives, and showing them where they need to improve (Madsen 1983, p. 5). Similarly, in the field of vocabulary learning, testing helps to motivate language learners to review vocabulary in preparation for a test (Thornbury 2002, p. 129).

Madsen (1983, p. 5) indicates that language tests can also help language teachers reflect on their teaching methods, and make decisions in administering tests on the placement of students for particular purposes. With regard to language tests used to serve some particular purposes in research work on language studies, McNamara (2000, p. 5) points out that some researchers may want to have measures of the language proficiency of the subjects under their investigation. Therefore, an understanding of language tests and testing is helpful for researchers in creating language tests, and using tests or the information they provide, in practical and research contexts. In addition, a language test plays three essential roles as gateways at important transitional moments in education, in employment, and in moving from one country to another.
1.7 Types and Purposes of Language Tests

Not all language tests are of the same kind. They vary with respect to how they are designed, and what they are for in respect of the test method and test purpose. There is no best test or best technique existing (McNamara 2000, p. 5). A test which proves ideal for one purpose may be quite useless for another; a technique which may work very well in one situation can be entirely inappropriate in another (Hughes 1989, p. 6). Normally, the main purpose of testing is to determine a learner’s potential talent or capacity for learning languages, and to determine someone’s proficiency in a language (Bailey 1998, p. 37). Therefore, comprehending test types can be very helpful to the test constructor since tests of one kind may not be successfully substituted for those of another kind. Some researchers, such as Hughes (1989; 2003); Millman and Greene (1993); Genesee and Upshur (1996); Bailey (1998) and Brown (2004), have classified language test types in a similar way. Hughes (1989, p. 9), categorises four main types of tests: *proficiency tests*, *achievement tests*, *diagnostic tests*, and *placement tests*. Like those of Hughes’ categories, Millman and Greene (1993), Genesee and Upshur (1996, p. 153), and Brown (2004, pp. 43-47) add one or two more type of other tests. Millman and Greene (1993) add progress tests; Brown (2004) - language aptitude tests while Genesee and Upshur (1996) – *performance tests* and *screening tests* apart from the four main types of tests proposed by Hughes (1989).

These test types are indeed differently designed in order to provide information for different kinds of educational decisions, and existing tests may prove to be beneficial but the researcher must decide whether an existing test is apposite for a particular
purpose, or it is necessary to write appropriate new tests. It is suitable to look at each language test type that the researcher kept in mind in deciding in what test should be used to serve the particular purpose of the present investigation:

1) Placement tests are used to identify a particular performance level of the students and to place them at an appropriate level of instruction (Carroll 1980, p. 75; Henning 1987, p. 2; Brown 2004, p. 45) at the beginning of a course (Heaton 1990, p. 15). Such a test should be as general as possible and should focus on testing a wide and representative range of ability in English. It is better to avoid concentrating on narrow area of language and specific skills. Consequently, questions measuring general language ability can form a useful part of a placement test. These questions often consist of filling in blank items and tests of dictations.

2) Achievement tests tend to be given at the end of the course (Alderson et al 1995, p. 12). They are associated with the process of instruction. They accumulate evidence during, or at the end of, a course study in order to see whether and where progress has been made in terms of the goals of learning (McNamara 2000, p. 6). A test of achievement measures a student’s mastery of what had been taught. It is thus concerned with covering a sample (or selection) which exactly represents the contents of a syllabus or a course book (Heaton 1990, p. 14). It is also used to measure the extent of learning in a prescribed content domain, often in accordance with explicitly stated objectives of a learning programme (Henning 1987, p. 6).

3) Progress tests are given at various phases throughout a language course to measure to what extent learning goals are being learned or achieved (Carroll 1980, p. 80; Alderson et al, 1995, p. 12) during the course of instruction. Tests or quizzes are used
as part an ongoing assessment procedure. It facilitates teachers to determine how well their students are doing with the materials that have been covered (Bailey 1998, p. 39), and it should produce a cluster of high mark. If teachers test what has recently been taught and practised, they should then expect students to score fairly high marks. If most of the students fail to score high marks, something must have been erroneous with the teaching, the syllabus or the materials (Heaton 1990, p. 9).

4) Diagnostic tests are used to identify students’ strengths and weaknesses (Carroll 1980, p. 81; Heaton 1990, p. 11; Henning 1987, p.1; Alderson et al, 1995, p.12; Hughes 1989, p.13). Diagnostic tests also seek to identify those areas in which a student needs further help. This test, for example, can show whether a student needs specific help with a range of skills, or they can be more specific, seeking perhaps to identify weaknesses in the students’ uses of grammar or vocabulary (Alderson et al, 1995, p. 12).

5) Proficiency tests are designed to test the ability of students with different language training background (Alderson et al, 1995, p.12; Bailey 1998, pp. 37-38). In other words, it is designed to measure students’ ability in a language irrespective of any training they may have had in that language. The content of a proficiency test, therefore, is not based on the content or objectives of language courses which students taking the test may have adopted. Rather, it is based on a specification of what students have to be able to do in the language in order to be considered proficient (Hughes 1989, p. 9), and to measure how suitable students will be for performing a certain task or following a specific course (Heaton 1990, p. 17).

6) Aptitude tests are intended to measure capacity or general ability to learn a foreign language and ultimate success in that undertaking, and to apply to the classroom
learning of any language (Brown 2004, p. 43). A language aptitude test may also be used to predict the possibility of success of a candidate in learning a foreign language or a second language (Henning 1987, p. 6; Madsen 1983, p. 200).

7) Performance tests are used to elicit information about students’ ability to use the language to perform authentic tasks, for example, work as a telephone operator or in a bank (Bailey 1998, p. 39; Genesee and Upshur 1996, p. 153).

8) Screening tests (which are sometimes referred to as admissions tests by Bailey 1998, p. 38) are used to admit or reject students for participation in particular courses or programmes of instruction or to award a certificate of success or completion (Bailey 1998, p. 38; Genesee and Upshur 1996, p. 153.).

As reviewed above, we can see that different types of language tests and testing carry a particular purpose, and test constructors use tests to elicit information from the target subjects.

1.8 Vocabulary Tests

As mentioned earlier, even though vocabulary is a sub-skill of a language, it has been viewed as a foremost part in language learning and teaching. Without vocabulary, understanding any language is impossible whether in the spoken or the written forms, and language skill improvement is impossible. Therefore, knowledge of vocabulary is essential to the development and demonstration of linguistic skills. It is hoped that the more English words students know, the better they can perform the English skills (Hughes 1989, 146). This means that knowing words helps students perform the language
skills well. In essence, the attitudes held by teachers and learners of a foreign language are that vocabulary enrichment contributes to language proficiency (Barrow et al. 1999, pp. 223-247; Lee 2003, pp. 537-561).

As vocabulary has been seen as a priority area in language learning and teaching, tests to monitor learners’ progress in vocabulary learning are crucial. In the field of L2 vocabulary assessment, Koda (2005, pp. 55-56) indicates that the current L2 vocabulary measures used in research and instruction can be classified into three major categories: assessing vocabulary as an integral aspect of general L2 proficiency; estimating vocabulary size (number of words known); and measuring vocabulary depth (how well one knows each word). In order to test students’ knowledge of vocabulary, researchers have to put it into perspective and have been attempting to determine what constitutes knowing a word. This is because word meanings can be ‘known’ to varying degrees.

In doing so, some researchers, (e.g. Laufer et al., 2004; Doff, 1988; Nation, 2001; and Qian, 2002), have divided vocabulary knowledge into different dimensions with different names. Nation (2001, pp. 26-28) classifies it into “receptive” and “productive”, whereas Doff (1988, p. 19); Ellis and Sinclair (1989, p. 28); Laufer et al. (2004, p. 203) call ‘receptive’ as “passive” and ‘productive’ as “active” vocabulary, with the former referring to the ability to recognise forms and meanings of a word while the latter involves the ability to use a word correctly in free production. Furthermore, Qian (2002, p. 515) proposes that vocabulary knowledge could be regarded breadth and depth. The former refers to the knowledge of word meaning of which one has at least some superficial knowledge while the latter refers to how well one knows a word. This could contain such components as pronunciation, spelling, meaning register, morphological syntax and collocation.
In respect of vocabulary testing, deciding how to test vocabulary is related to how we teach it (Madsen 1983, p. 13). Since many researchers (e.g. Carter, 1998; Chapelle 1994; Gu, 2003; Hulstijn, 1992; Madsen, 1983; Nagy, 1997; Nation, 1990; Read, 1997; 2000; Sökmen, 1997; Sternberg, 1987; Thornbury 2002) affirm that an effective strategy for learning vocabulary items is guessing the meaning of words presented in context. Similarly, testing vocabulary items should be through the context of the sentence related to the aspects of what constitutes of knowing a word. Read (2000, p. 61) further insists that language learners who were presented with the words in a rich context were significantly better at guessing what they meant than those who did not have the benefit of contextual clues. In brief, testers need to avoid presenting or testing words in isolation.

Basically, the purpose of vocabulary tests is to “measure the comprehension and production of vocabulary items used in speaking or writing” (Madsen 1983, p. 12). There are different test types for testing vocabulary items, including multiple choice tasks, completion, translation, or matching tasks (Read 2000, p. 2). Short answer questions, cloze test, multiple-choice questions, selective deletion gap filling and C-test are also suggested by Weir (1993); Read (2000); and Thornbury (2002). Additionally, Madsen (1983, p. 12) presents four general kinds of vocabulary tests: limited response, multiple-choice completion, multiple-choice paraphrase, and simple completion. What follow are brief descriptions of each vocabulary test type proposed by Madsen (1983, p. 12):

1. Limited Response is a vocabulary test for children or beginners. These test items require either a simple physical action like pointing at something or a very simple verbal answer such as ‘yes’ or ‘no’. This test type can be used as individual testing or group testing.
2. Multiple-choice completion is a test in which a sentence with a missing word is presented, and testees choose one of four vocabulary items given to complete the sentence.

3. Multiple-choice paraphrase is a test in which a sentence with one word underlined is given. Testees choose which of four words is the closet in meaning to the underlined item.

4. Simple completion (words) is the test that require testees to write in the missing part of words that appear in sentences.

In the present research Paul Nation (2001) Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) have been used. The detail description of this test is presented in the Chapter 2.

1.9 Background of ELT in Engineering Colleges of Tamilnadu

There are over 550 engineering colleges, affiliated to Anna University, in the southern State of Tamil Nadu in India. In addition to these self-financed (private) and government-funded engineering colleges there are about more than ten private universities (Deemed Universities) that offer engineering degrees. Students of engineering and technology studying at these institutes are offered the Technical English (Engineering English) course for two semesters during their first year programme. The aim of the course is to encourage learners to do participative learning of the English language and help them in acquiring communication skills. One of the main objectives is to help learners improve their vocabulary and to enable them to use words appropriately in different contexts.
Though the aim of the course is to enable the students of engineering to learn certain basic-skills in the English language and use them effectively, most students and practicing engineers/technologists who have studied the course are not capable enough to communicate effectively in the language. Only a few colleges out of about five hundred such colleges in the state of Tamilnadu in India have a good placement record. Most of the final year undergraduate students of these colleges are recruited by reputed IT and core-engineering companies. In some of these colleges more than 90 per cent of the students are placed and recruiters attribute the success of the students to their ability to communicate well. The on-campus recruitment process consists of three or four stages: 1) aptitude test, 2) group discussion, 3) technical interview, and 4) HR interview. During the four stages the candidates' technical knowledge, analytical, verbal reasoning, critical thinking, communication and group skills are assessed and at each stage the unsuccessful candidates are filtered out. Those educational institutions which impart employability skills in their students are successful in getting most of their students placed in top companies. In many engineering colleges communication skills trainers have been employed on full-time basis to train their students. If we analyze deeply, the root cause of communication problems is lack of vocabulary stock. “Even the basic vocabulary is not known to some of the students” (Guduru, 2007). Even though India produces more than five lakh engineers annually, only 17.45% of them are employable for the IT services sector, while a dismal 3.51% are approximately trained to be directly deployed on projects. Further only 2.68% are employable in IT product companies”. (National Employability Report Engineering Graduates, 2011) NEREG says that Lack of English communication is one among the important factors in getting employment.
1.10 Need for the Study

Students’ vocabulary knowledge is highly associated with their language learning and their academic success. Students those who have high vocabulary stock can comprehend the new ideas and concepts more quickly than students with limited vocabulary stock. Vocabulary stock is essential to appear competition exams like GRE, GMAT, TOEFL, IELTS and for the placement purpose. But, most of the students do not have proper awareness about their vocabulary stock. A detail study on this may help the students to acquire proper awareness about their vocabulary stock which will help them to move in the right direction of improving their language. The study of this kind is the need of the hour to address the aforementioned issues. It is hoped that the study will bring out clear picture about vocabulary stock of II year engineering students and outcome of the study may help the students to prepare well for their placements and higher studies. Language teachers may be able to make use of the findings to realign their vocabulary teaching and they may also be able to help to change the misconceptions about vocabulary learning of their students, if any exists at all. Therefore, the present study is much needed to assess the vocabulary stock of engineering students and to spell out the vocabulary stock of engineering students.

1.11 Objectives of the Study

Advent of internet and other technologies lead the international boundaries to shrink where all the countries started to come under one roof that paved the way to the concept of global village which demanded a common lingua franca. At this juncture, English language occupied the position of common lingua franca. It has resulted to develop English language proficiency to facilitate communication and make it more
practical for the people of various linguistic backgrounds (Crystal 1997:10). Japanese and Chinese never accepted English in the early period now they started to learn English to do business. Once it was the language of elite, now it is most required even to common man. Without knowing English language, one cannot survive in this modern world. It is not the language of option but necessary. It does not mean that with English language alone everything can be done but it is essential at this point of time. If one wants to move beyond the boundaries of the country, English language is very much needed for communication. It is essential for engineering students to equip their English language skills for their success for which vocabulary is essential. Hence, the following objectives have been taken for the present study.

1. To assess the productive and receptive vocabulary stock of students

2. To identify the difference, if any, between productive and receptive vocabulary stock of students

3. To study the various factors influencing vocabulary stock of the students

4. To integrate activities to improve vocabulary stock of students

The present research study is important and useful for both language teachers and learners because it will highlight the vocabulary level of the students, shed light on the conceptions and misconceptions of vocabulary level of the students. Language teachers may be able to make use of the findings to realign their vocabulary teaching and they may also be able to help to change the misconceptions about vocabulary learning of their students, if any exists at all. Knowing original level of their vocabulary, students can appropriately improve their knowledge of vocabulary.
1.12 Significance of the Study

Substantial numbers of Microsoft Employees are Indian engineers. It is the testimony of Indian technical expertise. Nurturing the technical potential of India lies probably in the hands of technical institutions in which Engineering institutions occupy the conspicuous position. It is encouraging to note that Indian Engineers are holding key positions in USA and other western countries. At the same time, another side of the coin too must be known, NASSCOM and McKinsey Report says that only 25% of Indian graduates are employable whereas others are unemployable. Poor communication skill is the major cause of unemployability. It is expected from every technical institution in India to prepare its stakeholders employable. The present study address the most important issue in higher education unemployability due to lack of English communication skills in which vocabulary stock plays pivotal role therefore it gains a social vitality and it provides adequate insights about vocabulary stock of BE/B.Tech students.

The present study is considered to be significant for some major reasons. It can offer pedagogical applications for teachers, students, parents, institutions and policy makers. First of all, the results will help teachers to have a better view on students’ vocabulary stock. This study may also reject some teachers’ opinions regarding the impracticality of the activities in classroom. Activities help the teachers to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. Secondly, activities have many benefits for students as well. The use of activities in classrooms brings about a sound competition among the students. In a similar way, it can reduce inhibition among shy and weak students calling them to participate in the activities.
1.13 Statement of the Problems

It is known fact that tertiary level students have completed twelve years of school studies where they have studied English as one of the subjects. But, their inability of writing even simple sentences in English is much prevailing issue in the present scenario. Even if they write something in English, numerous fatal errors can be found in their sentences, which prevent them from writing in English. Students are not at all having any exposure to listening to English and the poor reading habit in English is another major problem. They find it so difficult to comprehend even simple sentences in the reading and so they never make an attempt in reading in English. Many of them are struggling a lot to pronounce the words correctly. It can be seen students using common phrases to all sorts of letter writing due to inadequate vocabulary knowledge. They never exposed to LSRW skills properly, the curriculum too neglects listening and reading permanently but to some extend reading and writing have been taken care of. But, it has been taken care based on the examination purpose only so it fails to facilitate the real language learning. Students know neither synonymous knowledge nor polysemous knowledge of the word. It is highly unfortunate to note that students do not possess even survival vocabulary knowledge. They are unable to use the word in right context so they miserably fail in their communication. It can be understood that majority of the above-mentioned problems occur due to poor vocabulary stock.

1.14 Research Questions

The dissertation attempts to find answers for the following questions

1. Do the engineering students have necessary English Vocabulary Stock?

2. What is the receptive and productive vocabulary stock of engineering students?
3. What are the various influencing factors of engineering students’ vocabulary stock?
4. What is the impact of incorporating activities in the vocabulary teaching?

1.15 Hypotheses

The formulation of hypotheses or propositions as to the possible answers to the research questions is an important step in the process of formulation of the research problem. Keen observation, creative thinking, hunch, wit imagination, vision, insight and sound judgment are of greater importance in setting up reasonable hypotheses. A thorough knowledge about the phenomenon and related fields is of great value in its process. The formulation of hypotheses plays an important role in the growth of knowledge in every science. The following hypotheses have been framed for the research process.

According to Goode and Halt (1952) ‘a hypothesis states what we are looking for. It is a proposition which can be put to test to determine its validity. It may prove to be ‘correct or incorrect’. There are four types of hypotheses. They are:

1. Questionnaire form
2. Declarative statement form
3. Directional Statement form and
4. Null form

The Null hypothesis assumes that observed difference is attributable by sampling error and true difference zero. The statistical test of significance is used to accept or reject the Null hypothesis. For the present study the investigator formulated Null hypothesis Ho and Alternative Hypothesis H1 to test the statement of the problem.
**Hypothesis 1a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between gender and the **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between gender and the **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 1b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between gender and the **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between gender and the **productive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 2a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between medium of instruction and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is no significant relationship between medium of instruction and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 2b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between medium of instruction and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is no significant relationship between medium of instruction and **productive vocabulary stock**.
Hypothesis 3a

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between board of study and receptive vocabulary stock.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is a significant relationship between board of study and receptive vocabulary stock.

Hypothesis 3b

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between board of study and productive vocabulary stock.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is a significant relationship between board of study and productive vocabulary stock.

Hypothesis 4a

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between location of school and receptive vocabulary stock.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between location of school and receptive vocabulary stock.

Hypothesis 4b

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between location of school and productive vocabulary stock.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between location of school and productive vocabulary stock.
**Hypothesis 5a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between admission category and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between admission category of and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 5b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between admission category and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between admission category and **productive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 6a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between boarding and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between boarding and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 6b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$ : There is no significant relationship between boarding and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$ : There is significant relationship between boarding and **productive vocabulary stock**.
**Hypothesis 7a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between father’s education and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between father’s education and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 7b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between father’s education and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between father’s education and **productive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 8a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between mother’s education and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between mother’s education and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 8b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between mother’s education and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between mother’s education and **productive vocabulary stock**.
**Hypothesis 9a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between father’s occupation and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between father’s occupation and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 9b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between father’s occupation and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between father’s occupation and **productive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 10a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between mother’s occupation and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between mother’s occupation and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 10b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between mother’s occupation and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between mother’s occupation and **productive vocabulary stock**.
**Hypothesis 11a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between monthly income of the family and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between monthly income of the family and **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 11b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant relationship between monthly income of the family and **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is significant relationship between monthly income of the family and **productive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 12a**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant impact of department in **receptive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is a significant impact of department in **receptive vocabulary stock**.

**Hypothesis 12b**

Null hypothesis $H_0$: There is no significant impact of department in **productive vocabulary stock**.

Alternative hypothesis $H_1$: There is a significant impact of department in **productive vocabulary stock**.
1.16 Scope for Further Study

The present study offers wide scope for further research. Scope to delimit the area of study and the research subjects is possible. It can also be extended to identify synonymous and polysemous word knowledge of the students. Inflectional and derivational knowledge can be studied. The study can be possibly extended to other professional courses also. This can also provide an approach to proceed with other linguistic levels like semantics, morphology and syntax. Other than testing, methodology like case study can be adopted. Apart from Chi-square other statistical tools like Sequential Equation Modelling (SEM), factor analysis can be adopted.

1.17 Resume of Succeeding Chapters

The Second chapter describes about what is word, what involves knowing a word, what are vocabulary learning goals and major studies related to vocabulary.

The methods of investigation employed at various stages of the study like measurement of variables, selection of the samples, tools of data collection are described in the third chapter.

The fourth chapter presents overview of testing and interprets the actual data, testing the hypotheses and so on.

The fifth chapter introduces the activities to improve vocabulary stock of engineering students.

The last chapter offers major findings and implications for students, teachers, parents, Institutions and policy makes.
1.18 Chapter summary

In this chapter, overview of ELT, evolution of English vocabulary, language and vocabulary tests have been discussed. And the need, objectives, significance, statement of the problems and all other things have been justified. At last resume of succeeding chapters are noted.