Linguistics, Language Teaching and Language Testing

1.1 Introduction:

Linguistics, in the present century, has revolutionized the whole system of language teaching and language testing. The theoretical knowledge of linguistics is helpful in the systematic analysis of language. And unless the language is analysed one cannot be aware of the structural patterns such as phonological, morphological, syntactic organisations of the language. Linguistics has made great contribution to the study of the language scientifically. No language teaching and language testing programme can be pursued successfully without the application of the theoretical knowledge of linguistics to these areas. The application of the theoretical knowledge of linguistics to language teaching has been so vital in the present century that a new area of linguistics has been developed under the title of applied linguistics.

The application of the theoretical knowledge of linguistics to language teaching and some other subjects is nothing but applied linguistics. As Pit Corder (1973:10) suggests, applied linguistics is an "activity" and not a "theoretical study". It makes use of the findings of the theoretical studies. Pit Corder (Ibid) beautifully argues
that, "the applied linguist is a consumer or user, not a producer of theories".

Since the development of linguistic knowledge, there have developed various trends and theories in linguistics. Some basic concepts of linguistic science were developed by Ferdinand de Saussure in mid 20s. Ferdinand de Saussure's views were most modern and had far reaching impact on linguistic science. He is no doubt a trend setter in modern descriptive linguistics. L. Bloomfield, A. Sapir, and Noam Chomsky are also known as the major trend setters of modern linguistics, besides there have developed different schools such as Copenhagen, Prague School, London School, American Structuralism, Transformationalism, etc.

In this chapter the basic techniques and problems in the phonological and grammatical study of language have also been discussed. Attempts have been made to highlight the techniques for the phonological, morphological and syntactic analysis of the language.

Linguistics plays significant role in language teaching. This role simply cannot be ignored. It is true that language teaching can be done without having the theoretical knowledge of linguistics but if a language
teacher is equipped with theoretical knowledge of linguistics, he can be a better teacher. The application of the theoretical knowledge of linguistics can be made in every area of language teaching and at every stage of language teaching.

Similarly, linguistics can also contribute to language testing. Because it is the knowledge of language which is measured under language testing. The knowledge of various levels of linguistics and the technique of the analysis of the structure of language helps in listing various language skills. The issues relating to linguistics, language teaching and language testing form the content of this chapter.

1.2 Various Trends in Linguistic Theory

1.2.1 Some Basic Concepts of Linguistic Science:

Linguistics is an independent field of study of language. During the past decades it has developed different areas of specialization and application. Though the modern linguistics developed in the beginning of the twentieth century, but the history of philosophical interest in the language has been very old. It goes back to Greek and Roman times. Many of the concepts we use today in the
description of Language such as number, gender, person, case, noun, pronoun, verb etc. are ultimately derived from Greek and medieval linguistics philosophy.

Linguistics is usually defined as the 'Science of Language' or the 'Systematic Study of Language'. As a science it cultivates a 'rational outlook' upon language. A linguist takes an objective view of language and all the linguistic phenomena. He does not deny that language has a strongly emotional component and that the language can be valued aesthetically but as a linguist he analyses the structure of language and explains its functions. As Sturn (1983:122) suggests, linguistics is "theoretical science" it formulates explanations "which are designed to account for the phenomena of language". Linguistics also provides theories on the aspects of language and a "general theory of language".

Linguistics is not only a theoretical, but also an empirical science which makes detailed observations on particular language to confirm or refute generalization. A linguist observes and analyses the data found in natural languages. Linguistics, therefore, is also descriptive in
nature as a linguist accepts language as he finds it. His job is to observe and explain what and why it is so. It is not the function of a linguist to improve the language or prescribe rules for the use of language. Bloomfield (1942:16) argues that from the linguist's point of view, "a language is what the speakers do and not what someone thinks they ought to do".

Basically, linguistics is concerned with every aspect of all languages. It makes no value judgements about languages. In older traditions, there was a supremacy of writings over speech. But in modern linguistics the position is reversed. Today the linguists emphasize the importance of speech as it is the natural and the primary medium in which the human thought is manifested.

1.2.2 Trend Setters in Modern Descriptive Linguistics:

1.2.2.1 Ferdinand de Saussure:

Ferdinand de Saussure is called the father of modern linguistics. In the beginning of the twentieth century, modern linguistics began as a reaction against the nineteenth century historical study of languages. DeSaussure delivered a series of lectures on modern linguistics to his students. When he died in 1913, his
lectures were published in the form of a book under title *cours de linguistique Générale*. This book introduced, for the first time, some basic concepts of descriptive linguistics.

(a) **Concept of Linguistic Sign** :

Ferdinand de Saussure introduced the term "Sign" which has two components: "Signified" and "Signifier". His signified is called concept and signifier is termed as sound-image. In other words, we may call "sign" a union of content and expression. The linguistic sign, according to Saussure is the basic unit of communication.

(b) **Theory of Value** :

Ferdinand de Saussure attributed each relationship of signes, Linguistic sign a "value". Value according to de Saussure is determined by its relationship within the total vocabulary in a language. For example, in the French language there is only one word *meuton* which signifies two concepts: 1) The four legged animal sheep and 2) The cooked meat. But in English there are two different signes (words) for these two concepts, these are, 1) sheep and 2) mutton. There is no such distinction in French vocabulary.
(c) **Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relationships**

This is one of the dichotomies introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure. Through this dichotomy, he explains the structure of a language. According to de Saussure, the structure of a language can be segmented into two kinds of relationships: The Syntagmatic and the paradigmatic. Syntagmatic relationship refers to the combinational or chain relationship of words. Words become sentence when they are put together like a chain. For example, *He went to School*, is a sentence and in this sentence all the four words have been chained together one after the other. This is also called the linear 'arrangement of words'. *He* which is subject is correlated with the verb *went* and *to*, a preposition with the noun *School*. Similarly *He went* is correlated with *to School*. The linear relationship is that of subject + verb + preposition + noun.

The paradigmatic relationship is contrastive or choice relationship. This is also called the associated relationship.

(e) **The Parole (utterence) vs the Longue (Language)**:

This distinction introduced by Saussure, has great importance to modern linguistics and also to the
language teaching theory. The parole refers to the flow of living speech that is, it deals with the personalized language. This aspect of language, termed as 'La parole' is of physical reality that varies from person to person.

The 'Longue' is an abstract linguistic system existing quite apart from the individual. It is constant, supraindividualistic and generalized. 'La Longue' is the social phenomena and has our existence limited in time to the society of which it is part. This dual existence of language (the La langue and La parole) is taken over in the transformational generative linguistics from Saussure, but this dichotomy is referred to as 'competence' and 'performance'.

f) The Synchronic vs Diachronic Linguistics:

Saussure was the first person who differentiated between synchronic and diachronic linguistics and emphasized the synchronic study, which is now known as descriptive linguistics.

Synchronic linguistics, is concerned with the analysis of languages of a given point of time. That, it is the study of linguistic events at the same time which can be assumed to be static for a partial linguistic community.
Diachronic linguistics on the other hand studies, the relationship which exists between different stages, different points of time, in the history of the same language, as well as those among different but related languages.

1.2.2.2 **Leonard Bloomfield**

Bloomfield's name is associated with the concept of behaviourism in linguistics and also with the American Structuralism. American structuralism as a school of thought is derived from Bloomfield's *Language* published in 1933. One of Bloomfield's students Bloch (1949:92) writes on the occasion of Bloomfield's death that, "It is not too much to say that every significant refinement of analytic method produced in this century since 1933 has come as a direct result of the impetus given to the linguistic research by Bloomfield's book. If today our methods in descriptive analysis are in some ways better than his, if we see more clearly than he did himself certain aspects of the structure that he first revealed to us, it is because we stand upon his shoulders".

The principal value of *Language* lies in the closely argued and balanced presentation of the essential concepts, which enables the linguist to analyse a language from sound to sentence (Hill 1958). It gives approximately equal weight
to the different levels of analysis such as phonology, morphology and syntax. It omits, however, the Semantic component.

This book presents a remarkable survey of linguistic research done up to 1933, with guidelines for future research. Not unexpectedly, Language is termed the "Bible" of American linguistics.

Trained as an Indo-Europeanist in the great tradition of the neo-grammarian, Bloomfield had also a specialist's knowledge of at least four groups within the general field, namely, Germanic, Indic, Slavic and Greek. Furthermore, he appreciated not only the value of comparative and historical grammar but that of descriptive grammar as well. His interest in descriptive grammar and the depth of insight he brought to it are notably reflected in his book Language, where more than a third of his exposition is concerned with it. (Chapter 5-8 on phonemic and Chapter 10-16 on grammar). Bloomfield did not confine himself within the bounds of Indo-European. His first hand investigation of several Malayo-Polynesian Languages was a pioneer work in a little known field. And his descriptive and comparative studies of Algonquian languages are among the classics of American Indian research.
Bloomfield's lifelong work on the descriptive grammar of the "Menomini" language was posthumously published by his student C.P. Hockett in 1962. This work was modelled after Panini's "Aṣṭadhyāyā". Bloomfield was profoundly influenced by the descriptive techniques of Panini.

Linguistics in Bloomfieldian tradition continued to operate with the concepts developed by him, to refine and use them for more rigorous descriptions of languages. In forties and fifties the outcome was well ordered, objective, detailed and informative presentation of linguistics or particular aspects of language by such linguists as Fries, Joos, Pike Nida, Harris, Gleason and Hockett. It was a period of confidence in what had been achieved.

1.2.2.3 Noam Chomsky: The Transformational Generative Grammar

As Lyons (1970:9) suggests, "Chomsky's position is not only unique within linguistics at the present time, but is probably unprecendented in the whole history of the subject."

No theory created such a stir in the study of language as transformational generative grammar did around 1965. The profounder of this theory was Noam Chomsky, a student of the structural linguist Zeeling Harris. Chomsky's theory of grammar is undoubtedly the most influential.
Chomsky's revolution falls approximately into three phases. The first phase begins from 1957 to the early sixties. It was marked by the publication of Chomsky's first major work entitled *Syntactic Structures* in 1957. In this a violent attack was made on behaviourist view of language. In the next phase, from early sixties to about 1967, transformational generative grammar wide in its scope and much developed in Chomsky's second major work, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965). In the third phase that is from 1967 to early seventies, a new generation of linguists belong to the Chomsky's students, notably Lakoff, Fillmore, McCawley, critically examined transformational generative grammar and developed new directions by shifting emphasis from syntax to semantics.

The generative approach opened a new perspective. Linguistic theories from Saussure to Halliday had treated language as static entity which can be objectively examined, analysed and described. The Chomskyan approach reflected what he called the 'Creativity of language the process of linguistic production and description, which structural linguistics had disregarded.

Chomsky examined the current models of syntactic analysis from generative perspective and found them deficient. Upto some level the 'immediate constituent analysis'
of sentences which was used by structural linguists, proved to be useful and became an essential basis for generative grammar as its phrase structure base component. But this rule can not handle the sentences such as active passive. Chomsky resolves this problem by introducing a transformational component and concluded that two set of rules, phrase structure rules and transformational rules would be necessary elements of syntax.

1.2.3 Schools of Linguistics

1.2.3.1 London School:

(a) J.R. Firth -

The development of a distinctive linguistic theory in Great Britain and the recognition of general linguistics as one academic discipline in that country, owe most of J.R. Firth, Prof. of general linguistics in the University of London from 1944-1956.

Firth was strongly influenced by Bronislaw Malinowski who was a famous anthropologist. In his work Malinowski observed that the language, whose culture he studied could only be understood in closest association with an interpretation of their culture. This view is basic to Firth's concept of the study of language. Firth argued that language must be
studied at all levels in its context of situation and with an emphasis on meaning.

Firth devoted much of his attention to phonology in which he puts forward his theory of prosodic analysis. This was concerned with his general theory which may be called the contextual theory of language. Firth stressed the parallelism between the internal, formal context of grammar and phonology and external context of situation.

Firth's prosodies often overlap with what is termed as supra segmental features (stress, pitch, intonation, tone and juncture) in American structural linguistics. But the prosodies as propounded by Firth means much more than what is understood by supra segmental features in America. The prosodies domain extends from allophony and phonotactics to morphophonemics.

The major writings of J.R. Firth include Papers in Linguistics (1934-57) published in 1957 and the selected papers of J.R. Firth (1952-59) Edited and post humously brought out by Palmar in 1968. In the introduction to selected papers Palmar also gives a brief account of Firth's contribution to linguistics.

(b) M.A.K. Halliday:

Halliday is regarded one of the most significant followers of J.R. Firth. In early sixties a major work
appeared under the title of 'The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching' by Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964). On the basis of Firthian ideas Halliday presents a synthesis of concepts which aims being theoretically powerful and at the same time useful to apply in the description of natural languages. They regarded language description as primary contribution that a linguist can do for language teaching.

According to Halliday, the description of any language requires four fundamental theoretical categories that is, unit, class, structure and system. A 'unit' is a stretch of utterances that carry a grammatical pattern i.e. sentence, phrase. 'Structure' is an arrangement of elements in relation to other elements such as subject, predicate. 'Class' is illustrated by paradigmatic concepts such as tense, aspect and the personal pronoun.

They regarded the description of language which is based on structuralism as unsatisfactory because of their neglect of contextual meaning and their inability to present an integrated picture of a language as a whole.

The study adopted the Neo-Firthian 'scale-and category theory' for two reasons. The first reason is that it gives an adequate place to meaning at all levels of language. Secondly, it gives equal weight to different
levels of language such as the internal structure and the environmental context.

They offer a comprehensive statement of linguistic theory and its application to language teaching. Their work was widely read and even used today as an important source for the relationship between linguistics and language pedagogy.

1.2.3.2 Prague School:

Prague school of linguistics (Prague circle) which was founded in 1929, is best known for functionalism in linguistics, specially for its work in Phonology. The founder of the school was Trubetzkoy. *The grumdzige de phonologie.* Published in German in 1939 and translated into English under the title, *Principles of Phonology* is a classical work on phonological theory in general and on synchronic phonology in particular.

It may be noted that many phonological topics of interest today were first recognised and investigated by him, takes the central place in modern linguistic theory.

Prague phonologists emphasized the function of the sound unit rather than its phonetic characteristics in isolation. That is, there was more emphasis in their work on phonological value than on phonetic substance.
This emphasis can be traced to the concept of linguistic opposition and of the 'langue' and 'Parole' earlier introduced by Saussure. Proponents of Prague school, particularly Trubetzkoy and Jakobson, were devoted to study of phonology and introduced many concepts. For example, for them phoneme was no more a minimal, distinctive sound unit. They regarded phoneme to be a bundle of features, and were able to split it up in terms of oppositions. They found that voiceless sounds (P, T, K) are the basic sounds. The mark of voicing and aspiration turn them into voiced sounds, (b, d, g), aspirated sounds (Ph, th, kh) and voiced aspirated sounds (bh, dh, gh), thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
  p &= p + \text{mark of voicing} \\
  ph &= p + \text{mark of aspiration} \\
  bh &= b + \text{mark of voicing} + \text{mark of aspiration}.
\end{align*}
\]

Prague phonologists believe that communicative or functional load is highest on the first sound unit of the utterance, and then it decreases from sound to sound as we proceed to the word's final position. For example, in the initial position the opposition between b, d, g, and p, t, k are almost fully realized. In German, yielding minimal pairs however, in word's final position, there is no opposition
between these voiceless and voiced stops. As a result, there is neutralization of these opposing phonemes. These neutralized entities, which are voiceless, are known as archiphonemes. This may be illustrated by the following words.

\[ /\text{Rad}/ \quad '\text{wheel}': \quad [\text{Rat}] \]
\[ /\text{gelb}/ \quad '\text{yellow}': \quad [\text{gelp}] \]

The contrast of opposing phonemes can be seen initially by the following pairs of words.

\[ /\text{pair}/ \quad '\text{pair}' \]
\[ /\text{bar}/ \quad '\text{bar}' \]

Unlike American structuralists, who were emphasizing syntagmatic relations, Prague phonologists were mainly concerned with paradigmatic relationship of phonemes in the phonological paradigm. In this respect they were following Saussure, who had introduced the dichotomy of syntagmatic vs associative relations in grammar.

Finally, the concept of mark and that of neutralization introduced in Prague led Roman Jakobson to the breaking of the phonemes into the distinctive features. Jakobson's distinctive feature analysis is now included in generative phonology.
1.3 Some Basic Techniques and Problems in the Phonological and Grammatical Study of Language

1.3.1 Phonology:

Phonology is the study of the sound structure of language within linguistics as a whole. It has a close connection with morphology, syntax on the one hand, and with phonetics on the other hand. Phonemics is the methodology through which we try to establish the significant or distinctive sound units of a language. When we deal with the sound of a language that how it works within the system of that language, it means that we are dealing with the phonemes of that language. Phonemes are the sound which a language uses to maintain contrast among words and thus to convey meaning differences.

A phoneme may be defined as a significant or distinctive sound unit in the language. In other words we can say that the most basic expression system are the phonemes. These are sound features which are common to all speakers of a given speech form and reproduced in repetition. In any language there is usually small number of phonemes. Gleason (1961:9) defines phoneme as "a minimum feature of
the expression system of a spoken language by which one thing that may be said is distinguished from any other thing which might have been said.

When we analyse the phonemic system of any language, we try to find out that how the phonemes contrast with each other. For example, in English, /p/ and /b/ contrast with each other in the scale of voiceless and voiced, and by replacing one phoneme with the other, this contrast become meaningful. It changes the meaning when /p/ in /pit/ is replaced by /b/ the result will be the word /bit/ with change in meaning. In this way we find that it is necessary to find out minimal pairs to determine whether a sound is a phoneme or not. Minimal pairs are the words which contrast only in a single sound such as /pin/ and /bin/.

In a language there may be variation in pronunciation of a phoneme, and these variations are not significant because they are not responsible for the change of meaning. For example, in English there are three words bit, spit, and lip. Phonetically speaking these are three variants of /p/ sound which are called aspirated /ph/, un aspirated /-p-/ and unreleased /-p/ respectively. However, the substitution of one with other will not change the meaning.
These variants appear in mutually exclusive environment, that is they normally do not occur in each other's place. These are called then positional variants and are in complementary distribution.

1.3.1.1 **Phonemic Analysis**:

Analysis of the phonological structure of a language is known a phonemic analysis. By phonemic analysis, we try to find out the distinctive sound units of a particular language and classify them according to their distribution and function. For the purpose of finding out relevent sounds of a language which are technically known as phonemes, certain methods and procedures are followed. Various linguists have employed different methods and procedures for the phonemic analysis.

The very first step in the phonemic analysis is recording the data. After the data is recorded, a phonetic chart is prepared for all the sounds occurring in the data. Listing of suspicious pairs is next step in the phonemic analysis. Simultaneously listing of non-suspicious sounds is done. The phonemic analysis is based on certain principles which are as follows:

(i) The principle of contrast and complementation.

(ii) The principle of phonetic similarity.
iii) The principle of neatness of pattern.
iv) The principle of economy.

1.3.1.2 **Phonetic Description of Speech Sounds**

Phonetics is the scientific analysis and classification of speech sounds. When we say that phonetics is the scientific study, we mean that it is empirical (based on observation and experiments), exact and objective. Empirical denotes that it is based on experiments and observation, and not on hypothesis and speculation. Exactness denotes that its laws and rules are so accurate that when applied at different times by various persons the result will be the same. The description of speech sounds involves how these are produced and classified. Vowels and consonants are produced and classified differently.

In the production of speech sounds various organs of speech are involved. Their functioning in the process of the production of speech sounds is termed as 'mechanism of speech'.

There are two brand categories of speech sounds:

1. Consonants
2. Vowels
Consonants are classified according to points of articulation and according to the manner of articulation. The consonants classified according to the points of articulation are bilabial, labio-dental, palatal, velar, glottal etc. And the consonants classified according to manner of articulation are stops, fricatives, nasals, laterals, trill etc. The consonants are also classified according to the voicing and unvoicing. Voicing refers to the vibration of vocal cords in the production of speech sounds. When the vocal cords vibrates the sound produced are called voiced.

In many languages the consonants are also aspirated, for example, in Urdu and Hindi and some other Indian languages have aspirates. For example, p, ph, t, th etc. Some languages have retroflex sounds, in the production of which there is the curling of the tongue towards the palate. Such sounds are t, d, th, dh, etc. Indian languages are rich in retroflex sounds.

Vowels are phonetically different from consonants. In the production of vowels the air stream coming from the lungs passes freely without obstruction. This is not the case with the consonants. Vowels are not only different from consonants in terms of their production but they also differ in the way they are classified. In the classification of vowels tongue plays major role. Lips also are important organ in the production of vowel sounds. In the formation of language both
consonants and vowels play significant role. The languages have also lengthen vowels on the basis of which we distinguish short and long vowels. In many languages vowels are also nasalized as in Urdu.

1.3.2 Morphology:

Morphology is that branch of linguistics which studies the shape and sound composition up to the word level in a language. It studies the varying shapes under different linguistic contexts.

In morphology we study how the words are formed. Morphology also studies and classifies the morphemes into those which are grammatically significant and those which are grammatically non-significant. These are called inflectional and derivational morphemes respectively. Further, we classify the words on the basis of morphological analysis, that is inflectional and derivational behaviour of morphemes.

Morphology, is an important branch of linguistics as it describes the grammar of the language to a large extent. Apart from certain important aspects of grammar which are revealed by the order and position of words, the substantial grammatical nature of a language is known through morphology.
Morphology, thus, can be described as an area of linguistics where through different models, the words of a language are studied, combined, analysed, classified and the various forms are described in accordance with the general principles of morphological study.

1.3.2.1 Morpheme:

Morpheme can be defined as the minimal meaningful grammatical unit in the language. Hockett (1970:123) defines morpheme as "Morphemes are the smallest individually meaningful elements in the utterances of a language". Gleason (1961:11) is of the view that, "It is the unit on the expression side of language which enters into relationship with the content side. A morpheme is typically composed of one of several phonemes which has no such relationship with content. That is, phoneme have no meanings; morpheme have meanings".

Different words in the language can be selected and analysed in terms of minimal meaningful criteria. According to definition a morpheme can be identified only if it fulfills both the condition that:

It should be minimal.

It should be meaningful.
If we take for example, post, we find it a meaningful unit. It is also the minimal unit of form because it can not be divided further. If we divide it further it will lose its meaning.

1.3.2.2 **Morpheme Allomorph and Morph**

The morpheme is minimal meaningful unit of form. If morpheme appears in different shapes at various places in a language with the same meaning everywhere, it is called allomorph of that morpheme. We can also say that allomorph is a submember of the given morpheme. Allomorph are also called the positional variants of a morpheme.

The term morph refers to the shape in a language which has a clear cut meaning and some other times it may not have an identifiable meaning. Thus, certain forms will be both morph as well as morpheme. Where as certain other forms will be simply morph but not morpheme. For example, the word 'book' /buk/ is morpheme as well as morph. Where as the "r" in 'children' is simply a morph and not a morpheme. Some times the term morph is used to make a general reference to the shapes in a given linguistic form. In this way something significant in the language can be called a morph. Thus /-en/ in children'. /-s/ in 'books', /-z/ in 'buds'. are called morphs.
A given morpheme at different occasions, or in different environments, may assume different phonemic shapes. When the shape changes in a particular morpheme due to change in linguistic environment, these different shapes are called allomorphs of the same morpheme. These allomorphs can be considered as submembers of the same morpheme. A good example of allomorphs is the plural marker in English. The plural morpheme \( \{-s\} \) in English appears with different shapes, depending upon the neighbouring sounds as shown below:

\(-s/\) in books, cups, cuts etc.
\(-z/\) in cubs, dogs, nubs etc.
\(-iz/\) in houses, judges etc.

In the above example we notice that \(-s/\) occurs in words that end in \( /p\ t\ k/ \). \(-z/\) occurs in the words that end in \( /b\ d\ g/ \). \(-iz/\) occurs in the words that ends with \( /s\ \&\ j,\ z/ \). These different shapes belongs to the same meaning and can be called Allomorphs of the morpheme \( \{-s\} \). Here these various shapes occur due to the phonological conditioning of allomorphs.

1.3.2.3 Inflection and Derivation:

Morphemes can be of two types, that is bound and free morphemes. Bound morphemes are those which depend on
the free morphemes for their occurrence but free morphemes can occur freely in language. Bound morphemes can be divided into two groups.

a) **Inflections:**

As Hockett (1970: 209) defines, "Inflection is that part of morphology which involves inflectional affixes". Inflections are bound morphemes. These are grammatical in nature. It means that they are grammatically significant morphemes. A change or replacement of a word having inflectional morphemes by a simple one will make the sentence ungrammatical. For example, in the following sentence 'I am going', the word "going" contains a bound morpheme "-ing". Now if we replace the word 'going' by simple word 'go', 'come' etc. The sentence will become ungrammatical, i.e. "I am go". However, the criterion for these morphemes cannot be the simple substitution method. In the above example, it has been shown that replacement of inflections by simple words make the sentence ungrammatical. This may not be true everywhere. Specially parts of speech can be substituted, for example, In the above sentence "I am going" the word going can be replaced by "Slow, fast, late etc.

b) **Derivations:**

It is also known as derivational affixes. Derivations are not grammatical in nature. A replacement of a word containing
derivation by a simple morpheme word, will not make the sentence ungrammatical. For example, in the sentence "They regained the lead" or "They derecognised theme", In the word "regained" and "derecognised" the morphemes "re-" and "de-" are derivational because we can replace the word "regained" by "gained" and the word "derecognise" with "recognise" without making the sentence ungrammatical.

Derivations change, the major class of the words for example "-ly" changes the word class 'noun' of 'man' to adverb. Similarly the word "high" is 'adjective' becomes 'noun' in "height".

Derivations not necessarily close the construction as inflection does, for example, in the word 'international', the forms 'inter-' and 'al' are derivational affixes. But we can add more derivational affixes like "-ize" and it is still open. Derivational affixes are found both as suffixes as well as prefixes.

1.3.2.4 Word Paradigm:

Paradigm is set of words or lexical items which have a common base. Thus the following may be considered as a paradigm of the word "go" go, goes, going, went, gone. Paradigms can be of two types i.e. Inflectional and derivational.
In inflectional paradigms, words with inflections are included. The above set of 'go' is an inflectional paradigm.

In the derivational paradigms the set of words of lexical items have the same base, but these affixes are used to be derivational in nature. Therefore, these paradigms are called derivational paradigms. For example, the paradigm of 'friend' friend, friendly, friendliness, friendship etc.

When we consider the list of lexical items with a common base, we can refer to the set as a paradigm.

1.3.2.5 Stem Root and Base:

A stem is a unit consisting of at least one of root morpheme and which may contain other roots and affixes, and which fills a nuclear slot.

Roots are single morpheme which function on the core in a word. Roots may be free or bound.

The term base is often used in place of root. However, the term base should be avoided when the terms stem and root are used.

The study of stem structure is often called derivation. Stem and roots, may be the same in certain
context. However, in certain other context they can be
differentiated. For example, 'book' is a stem because
we can add inflectional and derivational affixes to it.
For example: we can have 'book' by adding.

book + /-s/  'books'
(Inflection)

book + /-ish/ 'bookish'
(derivation)

Thus 'book' is a stem and at the same time 'book' is the
minimal form and it carries the basic meaning in any derived
stem. Therefore it is also a root.

1.3.3 Syntax:

Syntax is an important area of linguistics which
studies the arrangement of words into sentences. Syntax is
closely related to morphology. The combination of syntax
and morphology is sometimes called grammar. Grammar is con­
cerned with the structure of utterances. It deals with how
the structure of utterence are grouped and classified. The
grammar of a language is organised on the basis of two dimen­
sions namely syntagmatic and paradigmatic. There are various
approaches for the grammatical analyses of the utterances of
language. The scholars of linguistics and grammarians have
also framed grammatical rules for the generation of the
utterances of the language.
In the linguistic description of language there is much importance of descriptive grammar which is based on the observable forms and structural function of language. It also deals with the interrelationships of the components of sentences or stretches of utterances. Descriptive grammar is based on the notion how people speak rather than how people ought to speak which is the concern of the traditional grammar. Traditional grammar considers the word as the basic unit. Whereas the formal grammar recognises morpheme as the basic units. There is no doubt that linguistically, morpheme is the minimal unit of grammar.

As said earlier the grammar of a language consists of morphology and syntax both. Morphology deals with the study of the grammatical structure of words and syntax is concerned with the study of the grammatical structure of sentences as built up of words. A sentence is a complete utterance. It is the longest structure within which a full grammatical analysis is possible.

1.3.3.1 Word Classes:

Words are differentiated formally into sets or classes by paradigmatic variations in word forms. In English we can find out classes of the type; horse, horses, hot, hotter, maintain, maintains, as well as strictly limited classes of words such as I, we, us, me, and he, him, they, them. Similar
classes with more complex paradigms are found in German and Latin.

In the grammatical analysis of language words are assigned to word classes on the formal basis of syntactic behaviour, supplemented and reinforced by differences of morphological paradigms, so that every word in a language is a member of a word class. Word class analysis has long been familiar in Europe under the title of parts of speech.

The most general word class distinction in languages seems to be that between the classes designated nominal and verbal.

As many classes are set up as words of different formal behaviour. This means that some words in many languages have to be classified under more than one head. For e.g. in English words like 'Work' belong both to the noun and verb classes (he works well, his work is good, their works are good). The word round' belongs to five classes: noun in 'one round is enough', verb in 'you round the bend too quickly, adjective in 'a round tower, adverb in 'he came round,' and preposition in 'he wondered round the town'.

1.3.3.2 Grammatical Categories

The term 'categories' in modern treatment of grammatical theories is employed inconsistently and without
uniformity. Sometimes it is employed like 'class' or 'set' to refer to any group of elements recognised in the description of particular language. Some other times it is referred as 'part of speech'. But here it is being used traditional sense of parts of speech.

Grammatical categories can be divided into two categories:

a) primary categories
b) secondary categories

Primary categories are basically 'parts of speech' which includes noun, adjectives, adverb, verb, preposition, article, model, pronoun, conjunction, etc.

Secondary categories include: number, gender, case, tense, mood, aspect etc.

1. Number:

Number is the category of noun its most common manifestation is the distinction between 'plural' and 'singular'. Which rest up on the recognition of persons, animals, and objects which can be counted and referred to by means of nouns. In English and Hindi there are only two numbers i.e. 'singular' and 'plural'. But there are various languages such as Sanskrit and Greek which has three numbers, singular, dual, and plural.
ii) **Gender** :

Gender is another important grammatical category related to the sex. There were three genders in the classical Indo-European languages, masculine, feminine and neuter. Languages such as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin have three genders. Where as Hindi, Urdu, French etc. have only two genders i.e. masculine and feminine. Gender is a noun category. In Urdu gender is very important. It is not only that nouns 'laṛka' and 'laṛki' are masculine and feminine but the distinction of gender is also made in adjectives (aṛxa:, aṛxii:), pronouns (mera:, meri), genitives (ka, ki) verbs (gaya, gai) and auxiliaries (tha, thi, ga, gi) etc.

Gender differs from language to language. For example, the nouns of Russian and German are classified into three genders. Where as nouns of Swahili into six genders.

iii) **Case** :

Cases are inflectional forms of nouns which fit them for participation in key constructions related to verb. Case is the most important category of noun. The category of case, involving different forms of nouns, pronouns, adjective, and some other classes of words is prominent in the grammar of Latin, with six different cases, Greek with five and Sanskrit with eight.
The most common cases are nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative, agentive, and locative.

1.3.3.3 Concord and Government:

Concord can be defined as the requirement that the forms of two or more words of specific word classes that stand in specific syntactic relationship with one another shall also be characterized by the same paradigmatically marked categories.

English nouns and verbs in the sentences such as 'Man eats' and 'Men eat' show concord in number, in that both noun and verb in this construction must be either singular or plural.

Concord of category between pronoun and verb can be seen in English in what is usually called person, as well as in number 'I', 'you', 'we', and 'they' are followed by 'eat' and 'he', 'she', 'it' are followed by 'eats', and with one verb, to be I, you, and he. She, it are distinguished by three fold verbal concord: I am, you are, he is.

On the other hand Government may be defined as the requirement that one word of a particular class in a given syntactic construction with another word of a particular class shall exhibit the form of a specific category. Common examples are prepositions, which in languages like
German and Latin require the noun associated with them to be in a specific case form. Latin /ad/ to, requires or governs an accusative case (/ad montem/ to the mountain); /de:/ down, from, requires or governs an ablative case (/de:monte/from the mountain). In more general sense words, like prepositions, that regularly presuppose the presence of another word of a particular class in a specific relation with them in sentences are said to govern the whole word; the two uses are combined when it is said that a particular preposition governs a noun in the accusative case.

In English government only applies to pronouns among the variable words. Prepositions and verbs govern particular forms of the paradigms of pronoun according to their syntactic relation with them: to me, to us, I helped him, he helped me, we came, etc.

1.3.3.4 Constituent and Their Type:

Constituents are basically units. When two or more constituents are put together it is called sentence. For example.

'The scooter's key is on the table.' The construction takes place in a systematic way. Those constituents which are immediate to each other are known as immediate constituents. Now we can break the above sentence.
There is no further possibility for division. These finally divided constituents are called ultimate constituents.

A constituent, the part of which is separated by another constituent, is called a discontinuous constituent eg.

Are you ready

you are ready

you are ready
If the number of constituents in any construction is more than two, then such constituents are called multiple constituents eg.

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1.3.3.5 Constructions and their types:

Gleason (1979: 132) defines construction as, "a construction is any significant group of words (or morphemes)" construction is a relationship among the constituents. When two constituents are joined together by two lines, these constituents are said to be in construction with each other. A single word cannot be called a construction.

Example:

Thus, the utterances in any language are made up of constituents in construction with each other and these constructions occur in hierarchies.
There are two types of constructions:

a) Endocentric construction.

b) Exocentric construction.

a) **Endocentric Constructions**:

As Hockett (1970: 183) suggests, an endocentric construction is one which may be replaced by one of its immediate constituents or by a member of the same major word class as one of its immediate constituents. For example,

'Beautiful girl came yesterday'.

'Girl came yesterday'.

Here the beautiful is replaced by the 'girl' or we can replace the word 'girl' by 'Hema' eg.

'Hema came yesterday'. Because both the 'girl' and 'Hema' belong to noun clause which is feminine.

An endocentric construction may be of two types.

1) **Co-ordinative Endocentric Construction**:

It is that type of construction in which both or all of the immediate constituents may replace the whole construction. In this construction there is a 'head' and 'co-ordinator'. For example,
"Ladies and gentleman" may be replaced by either 'ladies' or 'gentleman'.

2) **Subordinative Endocentric Construction:**

This type of construction is one in which one of its immediate constituents can stand for the whole construction. In this construction there is a 'head' and 'attribute'. For example.

'Bald gentleman' can be replaced by just 'gentleman', not by 'bald'.

b) **Exocentric Construction:**

It is one which cannot be replaced synthetically by any of its immediate constituents or by a member of same major word class as one of its immediate constituents. For example, "on the buses" cannot be replaced by anything, but an adverb 'these', and this is not an immediate constituent of the construction.

1.3.3.6 **Immediate Constituent Analysis:**

Immediate constituent analysis was evolved with a view to work out a scientific 'discovery procedure', to find out the basic linguistic units. The purpose of this theory is to break a sentence into its constituents till we
reach the ultimate constituent. This analysis is simply the division of sentence into grammatical categories. As Robins (1964: 231) suggests, "Immediate constituent analysis is basic to syntax, and is one of the means where by native speakers form and understand longer sentences". Verma and Rama Swamy (1989:79) are of the view that "The aim of immediate constituent analysis (i.e. analysis) is to analyse each utterance and each constituent into maximally independent sequences. The ultimate constituents are the smallest meaningful units which any given construction can be broken down to, consisting of a morpheme at morphological level and a word at syntactic level." It is a well-known fact that there is a hierarchy of structuring in sentences and I.C. analysis helps us to discover that how the units are layered in sentences that is each lower constituent being part of a higher level constituent.

1.4 Role of Linguistics in Language Teaching

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It describes and classifies the language. It studies the language at various levels such as phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic. The knowledge of linguistics is essentially important for a language teachers. As Pit Corder (1973:276) suggests "A teacher cannot teach a language by any
of the current techniques without linguistic knowledge and that he does make constant use of what are basically linguistic concepts in his teaching*. For example, the language teacher talks about speech sounds, intonation, parts of speech, noun, verbs, adjectives, agreements, concord, prefixes and suffixes, tenses, cases, gender, number, subjects and objects and about interrogative, imperative and declarative sentences. These are all abstract concepts about language.

As Pit Corder (1973) says, linguistics is called the study of what a native speaker knows about his language in order to speak it. Any one who claims that he has been teaching language for years but knows nothing about linguistics is mistaken. What he does not know is the meaning of the word linguistics. Linguistics gives the theoretical basis and the technical means to make descriptions of the languages we are teaching, and the means to compare them and contrast them with other languages.

As Wilkins (1975:222) suggests, "The product of the linguist's work has its most obvious application through the descriptions of languages that he makes. Language descriptions provide the input to the construction of teaching materials". Language teacher, in the construction of the teaching material organises the language material on the basis of the informations provided by the description of the language.
Language teaching cannot be effective without organisation of language material. In order to organise teaching material of a language we have to decide about the selection, gradation and presentation of the language material.

In brief, by selection of the teaching material, we mean that we have to select language material for teaching purpose, since, it is impossible to teach the whole language. Here, our problem is to select the variety of language, amount of language to be taught. For selecting a particular variety and amount of language to be taught, we have to care about three things:

1. Purpose of the language teaching
2. Level of the learners
3. Duration of the language course.

Here we have to know that for what purpose we are going to teach the language i.e. examination, travel, business etc. And how far the learner is familiar with the language to be taught, the length of the time covered by the course.

After knowing the purpose, level and duration of the course we can decide that what type and amount of language to select that is dialects, register, style etc. For selecting amount of language we have to decide that how much of language to teach. There are two factors that govern the selection of the amount of the language. These are:
1. External factors related to purpose, level and duration of the language course.

2. Internal factors related to the structure of the language such as number of items, frequency, compossibility, combinability.

To be confident that what ever we have selected is sound we have to care for these criteria, that are frequency, availability, coverage, definition, similarity with the mother tongue, clarity, brevity etc. Gradation involves arrangement of teaching material in to a particular order. It should be based on the psychological principle, should be such that what have been taught earlier should be easy. Gradation involves two things,

1. grouping
2. sequencing

Grouping refers to what should be taught together, that phonology, grammar, morphology, meaning etc.

Sequencing means to decide which items (sounds, words, phrases) have to be taught first.

Presentation means communicating something to some one. Presentation involves, the teaching of form and teaching of meaning. Teaching of form means three things;
(a) Number of form of the language.
(b) Order of the teaching of the form.
(c) Space between teaching of these forms.

By the number of the teaching form of the language means how many forms of language we are teaching, that is spoken or written or both. The order of the teaching of form means that in which form we are presenting the language material first, that is in spoken form or written form. Here one thing is important that order of the presentation of the language forms depend upon the age and ability of the learner because the pre-school children cannot be taught written form. For them we have to begin with spoken form of language.

By the space between teaching these forms means time interval between written and spoken form. Here one thing is important that whatever the form order we adopt we should present the primary, simple and frequently used items of the language.

1.4.1 Teaching Listening:

As Mackey (1965:257) suggests, "the ultimate aim of a language teaching course is to teach the learner to use the language accurately, fluently and independently. To achieve
accuracy, errors or their repetition must be avoided; to achieve fluency, a great amount of practice is needed".

The skill of listening and understanding a foreign language involves the immediate and unconscious recognition of its significant elements and the comprehension of the meaning.

Recognition drills may include phonetic identification and phonetic transcription.

(a) **Phonetic Identification**:

In phonetic identification drills, learners may be drilled in identifying contrasting sounds by a same/different type of exercise in which the learner simply checks whether two sounds are the same or different. Here contrasting sentences with one different element can also be used. The sentences can be uttered and numbered in sequence. The learner is required to identify, in the text, the sentence which he hears.

(b) **Phonetic Transcription**:

In phonetic identification drills, some methods arrange the sounds in minimal pairs such as into words or phrases with only one difference in sound. For example, pairs like thin-thin, nut-not, I am leaving there-I am living there etc. In
this way we can present all relevant sound contrasts with one another, until all the phonemes of the language are identified.

Auditory comprehension involves the understanding of both the form and the meaning of utterances. It can be practiced through listening exercise, look and listen exercise, read and listen exercise etc.

1.4.2 Teaching Speaking:

Speaking is the most complex linguistic skill. Mackey (1965:363) is of the view that, "it involves thinking of what is to be said while saying what has been thought. In order to be able to do this, structures, it seems, must be chosen in the decreasing order of size. Words must be put in at rapid rate and with a spacing of about five to ten words ahead of the utterance."

In order to be able to speak language fluently one should have the knowledge of its structure and vocabulary. And it requires a great deal of practice. It includes pronunciation and expression.

(a) Pronunciation:

In order to teach the pronunciation various
pronunciation drills may be given in the form of recordings or in text. These drills may include sound bracketing drills, minimal pair drills, oral reading listen and repeat drills etc.

b) **Oral Expression** :

Oral expression involves not only all the features of auditory comprehension, but also the choice of words', inflections and their arrangement in the right order to convey the right meaning.

Oral expression may be practiced through verbal or pictorial exercises with or without recordings. It may include model dialogues, pattern practice oral drill tables, look and say exercises and oral composition.

1.4.3 **Teaching Reading** :

Reading is an important language skill. It involves the visual recognition of words and the comprehension of their content.

a) **Visual Recognition** :

Reading is ultimately based on the recognition of written symbols. For those learners who are unfamiliar with the symbols of script used, the method may include books of exercise in visual recognition based on phonic or whole sentence principle. In visual recognition we
teach the learner to recognise various graphemes of target language. Words and sentence recognition may also be practiced through flash cards, reading cards, films and film strips etc.

b) **Reading Comprehension**:

The main activity of reading is putting meaning into word groups, which involves a certain amount of expectation, visual skipping, and intelligent guessing. Reading comprehension can be practiced through Intensive reading materials which include, textual aids, pictorial aids, recorded aids; and materials for extensive reading. Some extensive readers include a series of questions to enable the learner to test his comprehension of the text.

1.4.4 **Teaching Writing**:

According to Mackey (1965:282) writing involves the ability to shape the letters of the alphabet, (Graphics) knowledge of the right combination of letters (Spelling) and skill of expressing oneself through the written word (composition).

a) **Graphics**:

These methods are not profitable for those learners whose mother tongue and target language uses same alphabet.
These methods are likely to be used by persons with different scripts. As Mackey (1965:283) suggests, "a certain amount of preliminary muscular drill will be necessary, especially for young beginners who have to learn to control the small muscles of the hand and arm". This can be practiced through tracing drills, copying drills and transcription drills.

b) Spellings:

Once the learner can shape the letters, he must learn which ones to use for each sound or word. In languages like English with a little regularity in the relation between sound and letter, it might be preferable to practice the spelling of many words separately. Spelling drills may include oral and written exercises in completion, translation, dictation.

c) Composition:

We can start written work with the vocabulary and structure which the learner has either learned to use orally or simply learned to read. These exercises can be of various types, such as sentence composition, paragraph writing, sentence modification.

In sentence modification drills we can use multiple choice, conversion, matching, alteration etc.
Sentence composition drills include caption writing, sentence translation, etc.

Composition exercises at the paragraph level may include precis writing, narration, description, free composition, translation etc.

1.4.5 **Contrastive Analysis**

Linguistics, by enabling us to compare the systems or rules of different languages, permits us to predict what errors will be made. This has been one of the major fields of the application of linguistics to the language teaching (contrastive linguistics). The insight offered by contrastive linguistics enables the teacher to discover the problem areas in language teaching.

Contrastives analysis is concerned with the comparison of two or more languages at various levels of linguistic description of language. Such a comparison serves to show how languages differ in their sound patterns, grammatical structure and in vocabulary. This analysis can be used in language teaching to point out the similarities and differences between the native language of the learner and the target language. As Nickel (1971:2) is of the view, "contrastive linguistics is not merely relevant
for foreign language teaching. It can make useful contributions to machine translation and linguistic typology. The stimulus to all this study was provided in 1957, by the publication of Robert Lado's book *Linguistics Across Culture.*

As we know that when a child learns his native language, he develops his native language habits. Gradually this language habit becomes stronger. In learning the second language, the learner is influenced very much by his native language behaviour. When the structure of native and target language of the learner are same, no difficulty is anticipated. But when the structure of the second language differs from the native language of the learner, we can expect both, the difficulty in learning and errors in performance. Learning second language is essentially to overcome these difficulties. In other words, learning a second language means changing one's native language behaviour to that of the speakers of the target language.

At this stage contrastive analysis will be more useful to the language teacher. On the basis of contrastive analysis he will discover the differences between the native and target languages and will predict the difficulties that learners will have. Hence, teaching will be directed at those points where structural differences exist.
Contrastive analysis is based on the assumption that certain errors committed by the learners of second or foreign language can be predicted well in advance. This analysis points out the differences between native and foreign language at various linguistic levels. These differences cause difficulties in learning to speak or write the second language or acquiring the ability to express in sounds, words and grammatical patterns of a different language.

Any sound, word and grammatical item of the native language may or may not have their counterparts in the second language. These counterparts may differ in one or other respect. On the basis of their similarities and differences one can predict the problematic areas of learning.

A major advancement has been achieved in language teaching due to contrastive analysis. The teacher who is well equipped by the contrastive study of both native and target language of the learner, knows in advance the various problems that are likely to occur and on the basis of his knowledge, he can focus his attention to those areas which are difficult to the learners.
1.5 Linguistics and Language Testing:

1.5.0 Introduction:

Applied linguistics is a very wide area of the application of linguistics and covers a wide range of topics. Language teaching is an important aspect of applied linguistics. Language teaching has also many dimensions and language testing and evaluation is an area which is covered under this aspect. Language teaching can be divided into three kinds of activities:

A. Before actual teaching takes place.
B. Actual teaching.
C. After actual teaching has taken place.

Selection and gradation of the linguistic items is an activity which takes place before the actual teaching starts. Similarly testing and evaluation are those activities which take place after the actual teaching has taken place.

Language testing is an important part in almost every educational field, so it occupies a central place in language teaching. Testing can be defined as 'measuring device' as Ingram (1974:313), suggests, "tests, like examination, invite candidates to display their knowledge or skill in a concentrated fashion, so that the results can be graded, and inferences made from the standard of performance in the
test about the general standard of performance that can be expected from the candidate, either at the time of test or at some future time". In other words testing can be defined as a set of techniques of questioning, asking and observing for finding out that how far learning is taking place, whether the students are following and what are the problems of the students. Testing is an important aspect of language teaching because without testing and evaluation, language teacher will not be able to find out that how much effective his teaching is and at what level learning has taken place. Without testing he is not able to predict the problems that his learners face. Test is a 'measuring device' which is used to compare one individual to other individual who belongs to the same group of learners in order to put them into categories.

Testing is also useful before language teaching programmes. Here testing precedes language teaching, various tests are designed and used before language teaching programme inorder to predict about the learner that upto which level he is able to learn. These tests are called prognostic tests. It provides the information about the learners ability to learn the language and helps the language teacher in order to prepare the language teaching material.
Another test, known as proficiency test, is constructed to find out how much of the language a person actually knows. This test is generally used before language teaching programme in order to prepare the teaching material for the learning programme. On the basis of the information collected through this test, language teacher use to prepare his teaching material. This test is very helpful inorder to organize teaching material.

After the actual teaching takes place, acheivement tests are constructed to find out that how much of a course, a learner has actually mastered. This test is usually based on what actually taught in language learning programme. The amount of language learned in a course can be measured by giving the same test at the end of the language course.

In order to know that what remains to be taught in language course, diagnostic test are constructed. It measures that what remains to/taught. In other words we can say that by the help of this test language teacher can know where the learner needs more attention and which area of language skill has to be practiced more. It enables the teacher to adopt certain remedial methods in order to remove the learning difficulties.
Thus, testing and evaluation is an important aspect of language teaching. It is very useful in preparation of language teaching materials as well as after the actual teaching has taken place these tests are used to put the students into categories as well as to judge the problems of teaching. On the basis of these tests language teacher focuses his attention towards the areas of difficulties which learner face in any language teaching programme and these areas of difficulties can be predicted by the help of language tests. So without effective testing any language teaching programme cannot be successful.

1.5.1 Application of Linguistics to Language Testing:

1.5.1.1 Testing and evaluation/examination:

Testing is an essential part of almost every educational system. It occupies an important place in language teaching. Testing has been described by the scholars of the linguistics as a 'device' or 'instrument' which measures linguistic knowledge or competence of the learner.

A test has been defined as a "measuring device". As Ingram (1974:313) is of the view that, "tests, like examinations, invite candidates to display their knowledge or skills in a concentrated fashion, so that the result can be graded, and inferences made from the standard of performance that can be expected from the candidate, either at
the time of the test or at some future time". A test is conducted to measure the knowledge of an individual and to compare him with other individuals who belong to the same group. According to Carrol (1965:364), "the purpose of testing is always to render information to aid in making intelligent decisions about possible courses of action. Sometimes these decisions affect only the future design or used of the test themselves, in which case we are dealing with solely experimental uses of tests. Sometimes the decisions have to do with the retention or alteration of courses of training, as when one decides that poor tests results are due to ineffective training." Whereas Pit Corder (1973:351) is of the view that, "language tests are measuring instruments and they are applied to learners, not to teaching materials or teachers. For this reason they do not tell us 'directly' about the contribution of the 'teacher' or the 'materials' to the learning process. They are designed to measure the learner's 'knowledge of' or 'competence' in the language at a particular moment in his course and nothing else. The knowledge of one pupil may be compared with the knowledge of others, or with that of the same pupil at a different time, or with same standard or norm, as in the case of height, weight, temperature etc". According to Halliday
et al. (1966:215), "tests are an attempt to construct an instrument for measuring attainment, or progress, or ability in language skills".

Thus, testing occupies a central place in language teaching. Testing is a set of techniques of questioning and observing to find out that how for learning is taking place, whether the students are following and what are the problems of students. It is also used to assess the knowledge of the students in order to compare one individual to another individual in the same group.

1.5.1.2 Tests designed for various purposes:

Tests are designed for different purposes which help in making decisions about possible course of action. Keeping in view the purpose, the tests may be characterized into:

1. **Proficiency Test**:

   It is designed to find out how much of a language a person has mastered. As Davies (1977:46) suggests, "proficiency tests, as we see it, are concerned with assessing what has been learned of a known or an unknown syllabus". This test is used to put students into categories according to their knowledge of the language which they are learning.
2. **Achievement Test:**

As Paterno (1965:376) is of the view that, "An achievement test is an inquiry to see if what has been taught is retained". It determines that how much of the material of a course has actually been mastered by the learner. This includes only what has been taught to him. These tests are generally given at the end of the teaching programme.

3. **Prognostic Test:**

These tests are designed to predict the knowledge of a person that up to which level he is able to learn. It is used to select the students in any language learning programme and the material of teaching which is sufficient to the learner in any teaching programme.

4. **Diagnostic Test:**

Diagnostic test differs from other tests on the basis of the use of the information obtained and to the absence of a skill in the learner. The purpose of a diagnostic test is to find out what remains to be taught during the course of learning. As Davies (1977:47) points out that, "a diagnostic test may be constructed for itself or it may be an additional use made of an achievement or proficiency
test. If it is specially constructed it could perhaps be argued that some element of learner’s skill, or rather absence of skill, is involved because the tester is concerned with discovering what might be termed non-achievement. Through this test a teacher can know where the learner needs much attention and which area of language skill has to be practiced more. Through this test the teacher is able to judge the shortcomings of the learners and of teaching materials so that he could adopt certain remedial methods.

1.5.1.3 Test and Evaluation:

In modern educational practice the term 'evaluation' is used in place of 'test' or 'examination'. This does not mean only a change in nomenclature. It implies an important change in the concept as well. The term 'evaluation' is much more comprehensive term than either test or examination. It is concerned not only with the measurement of the extent of learning but also determining the value of that learning.

1.5.1.4 Test and Examination:

Tests and examinations are widely used tools of evaluation. However, sometimes distinction is made between
these two. A test is regarded as an attempt to see whether
the things which are taught have been learned. While an
examination is regarded as an attempt to find out that
whether students have attained certain objectives or pre-
determined standard. So the test is directly concerned
with teaching while an examination is linked with an exter­
inally fixed standard of achievement. Since tests and exami­
nations have the same common function, viz, evaluation, it
has become conventional to call them tests. According to
Davies (1977: 49), "In common usage the term 'test' and
'exam' are often used synonymously". Because the famous
'eleven plus' test in the United Kingdom was sometimes
called an exam. Examination is usually considered as an
achievement, but not always because the university scholar­
ship examination is more a proficiency or even aptitude
type test. The type of achievement test referred to above
in certainly not clearly seen as an examination. According
to Halliday et al. (1966: 215) by examination we mean
"institutionalized tests", tests which have an official or
administrative function over and above their task of measu­
ring performance. A test is also school leaving certificate,
or a university entrance qualifications, or a matricula­
tion equivalent is in fact an examination.
1.5.1.5 Characteristics of Test:

As Bachman (1992:119) suggests, a language test can be classified in terms of five characteristics. Which are as follows -

1) Test can be distinguished according to their intended use, such as selection, entrance, readiness, placement, diagnosis, progress, attainment, and mastery.

2) Tests can differ in content; achievement tests are based on a syllabus, while proficiency tests derive a theory of language ability.

3) Different frames of reference can provide the basis for test development and score interpretation. Norm referenced tests are developed to maximise differences among individual test takers and a test score is interpreted in relation to the score of other test takers.

4) Tests can be classified according to the scoring procedure; objective tests require no judgement on the part of the scorer but in subjective test, the scorer must judge the correctness of the test takers response.

5) Tests may employ different testing methods, such as dictation, cloze, multiple choice, completion composition and oral interview.
These above characteristics are neither mutually exclusive nor independent of one another. A participator test may be useful for more than one purpose, such as entrance and placement, and either an achievement or a proficiency test might be used for placement depending on the specific situation.

1.5.2 Types of Test:

1) Oral and written Test:

Tests may be written or oral. Listening and speaking are two important objectives to teaching language. Oral tests have an important role to play in this regard. However, it may not be practicable to have oral tests at the public examinations, but it should not reduce its importance in the class tests. With the help of little planning it is possible to have oral tests in annual examinations. This will provide strong incentive for the pupils to learn the 'oral skills' and for the teacher to teach these skills. On the other hand written tests are the most popular testing tools in schools, all over the world. They can be used to test most of the objectives of teaching language.

2) Essay Type Tests:

Essay type test involves a written response ranging in length from a page to two or more pages. One of the
most important features of essay type test is that the students answer on the relatively small number of items and they organise and explain things in their own words. In essay type tests there is much freedom and it leads to the answer which is neither completely right nor completely wrong.

Essay type tests are now a days considered least satisfactory and criticized on various grounds. Such as it is widely believed that essay type tests are very effective for testing language ability. It is widely used and highly respected. But the ability to write a good composition does not run parallel with the ability to speak, understand, read or even write a foreign language. If a student can not write good composition in his native language we cannot expect from him to write a good composition in the foreign language. Furthermore a good composition can be written without using a single question pattern or a single request. That is, a composition is often a very poor sample of the elements of a language.

Finally, compositions are difficult to score and time consuming. These tests, if given to evaluate to the different judges, the score will vary. So these tests lack validity.
This discussion does not mean that we condemn essay type test for all purposes. Essay type tests are probably most effective as a test of the ability to write essay rather than as a measurers of proficiency in a foreign language. However, if carefully given, essay type tests appear to be valid test of communicative competence in writing. Therefore, by removing some major defects of the traditional essay type tests we can make them an effective tool for evaluating language skills. For instance, to remove subjectivity in scoring, an essay type test may be broken down into a number of short answer items with detailed marking scheme.

Essay type tests have several advantages, e.g. in essay type tests or subjective tests blind guessing is not possible. An other advantage is that it is efficient to test 'achievement' of objectives which involve the ability to organise information and to communicate the information.

It is also useful to provide an estimate of standard ability to organise and combine. It is very useful to determine the learners creative ability.

Scoring of essay or subjective type tests is unreliable. Different examiners will score the same question
in different ways. Scoring requires lot of time and energy. These tests provide a relatively small sample of students knowledge of language.

3) Short Answer Type Tests:

This type tests require short answers. The length of the answer in most cases is a matter of subjective judgement. The short answer type tests combine the advantages of objectivity and wide coverage of the syllabus of the objective type tests, and same amount of comprehensiveness of the essay type tests. Therefore, it seems to be a happy compromise between two extreme types, and greater reliance should be placed on them for evaluation of language skills.

4) Objective Type Tests:

These tests have maximum objectivity. It takes less time in evaluating the answer. Objective type test is constructed in such a way that scoring can be done by observing a single word or phrase. According to Halliday, et al. (1966:219), "An objective test is one in which marks are gained (or lost, as the case may be) solely by reference to the subjects performance in such a way that all examiners would agree on the apportioning marks". According to Ingram (1974:319), "the search for 'objective' testing methods is
the direct outcome of dissatisfaction with the unreliability of the marking of traditional examination. Tests are set up so as to eliminate any differences in results due to variations between different markers or due to variations in the judgement of one marker at different times".

The objective type tests derive its name from 'objectivity' in scoring. There is only one correct answer to each question. The answer is given alongwith the test and the candidate is simply required to indicate the correct answer with a tick or number. As far as scoring is concerned these tests are highly reliable.

Robert Lado (1961) has discussed the merits and demerits of objective tests in great detail. Group objective tests are frequently used in U.S.A. where they receive greatest attention and support. In other countries they are increasingly coming into use. Some people criticize these objective tests on various ground. The first usual objection to objective tests is that they are too simple, second is that they do not require real thinking but simply memory, and thirdly, that they are not testing the ability of the students to organise thoughts.
The first criticism, that they are too simple, is not correct. They may appear to be very simple and usually the first few items of these tests are purposely very simple but the range of difficulty of objective tests can reach as high as any other test and usually goes higher in good tests than any student will go. In construction of objective type tests the items of middle ranged difficulty is pruned, leaving the difficulty items and few simple one in order to increase the discriminating power of the test.

The second criticism, that they do not require thinking on the part of the student, depends entirely upon the type of items and the type of the test. Objective test items can be excellent measurers of the ability to think when they are properly devised. The criticism must be reserved for those objective tests that encourage memory only but it can not be linked with all objective tests.

The third criticism, that they do not test the ability to organize thoughts in a logical sequence, is true. Special items could be devised that would test at least part of the ability to organise, one's thought but normally objective tests are use to be collection of unrelated items, each of which constitute a mini items test of itself. To
test the ability to organise thought, other type tests should be used in addition to objective tests.

Actually the format of objective test cannot guarantee any thing except that the scoring will be objective and that a good many items can be included in the test.

When objective tests of the language are purposely made, they have two important values:

I. They can test in short time the entire range of the sound system of a language, or the major grammatical patterns, or representative sample of vocabulary taught during the course of a whole year or several years.

II. They can be scored with ease and speed. One hundred tests of one hundred items can be served by one person in one hour or less. Scoring by machine is not primary interest yet these can be scored by machine. It makes them useable for mass students on a scale that would be impossible otherwise.

In recent years the objective type tests have become very popular. Various intelligence tests and quiz competitions have increased their popularity even with the people who are not directly concerned with education.
There are basically two formats of objective type tests:

1. **Open ended Tests**:

   In open ended objective test, the student writes his own answer which is often a single word, never more than a sentence, in the space provided eg.

   a) Write down the meaning of each of the following words as has been done for the first word.

   1. **Connect**———link up———
   2. **Junk**———
   3. **Coal**———
   4. **Mercy**———

   b) Change the following sentences into negative.

   1. She dances well———
   2. He is eating very fast———
   3. I like apple very much———
   4. I am very happy———

   c) Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks.

   1. ________ do you live?
   2. ________ did you go to Delhi?
   3. ________ you done your home work?
   4. ________ is your name?
2. **Multiple Choice Tests**

In multiple choice tests 3 or 4 answer are provided and the candidate is to select one of them, eg.

a) Following sentence has four underlined, parts, marked A, B, C and D. You have to identify the one underlined part which would not be accepted in formal written English.

1. **At first the old woman seemed unwilling to accept**
   
   A. anything that was offered by my friend and I
   
   B. 
   
   C. 
   
   D. 

b) What do you need if you want to buy a house?

   A. ( ) Money
   
   B. ( ) a coat
   
   C. ( ) a book
   
   D. ( ) a bed

C) Read the following sentences. If you think a statement is TRUE then mark the box under TRUE, if you think it is FALSE, mark the box under FALSE.
1. The sun rise in the east ( ) ( )

2. The stars shine in the day (True) (False)

3. Pandit Nehru was the father of Nation ( ) ( )

The construction of these tests requires more amount of time, practice and certain amount of creative ability. On the other hand they measures the knowledge of the learners very accurately and with utmost precision.

1.5.3 **Requirements of Test**

A test has been characterized by certain features which can be termed as "requirement of a test". Ingram (1974: 313) has discussed about the requirements of tests in great detail. A good test must meet at least six requirements which are discussed below:

1) **discrimination**

Discrimination is one of the most important requirement, which is necessary for a test. It means that a test must be designed in such a way that it can discriminate among the students. If we want to measure the height of the school children, we should use such a measuring device which is suitable for the students whom we are going to measure.
2) **Reliability**

It refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument, that is if a student is tested again and again the result or score must always be the same, regardless of who is giving and marking it. As Paterno (1965: 379) suggests that, "A test that lacks reliability is as useless as a thermometer that gave different readings when the temperature of the air was the same. A test is reliable if it will always give the same results under the same conditions". We can measure reliability of a test by giving the test to a group of students, giving it to them again a short time later and then correlating the score.

A test must have consistency in it as Davies of (1977:57) is the view that, "A reliable test possesses consistency of results. An inconsistent test would give meaningless, random results. Before looking at the meaning of results it is important to ensure that they are reliable".

3) **Validity**

Validity means that a test should measure the same for which it has been devised. If it does, it is a valid test. If a test of pronunciation and nothing else,
it is a valid test of pronunciation. Paterno (1965:378) suggests that, "validity can only be obtained when we state clearly the objectives of our teaching, break them down into the skills and abilities involved, and define them in separable elements; and then to measure each in situations which come as close as possible to the real circumstances in which they will be used". For instance if listening comprehension in English is aimed at, it must be tested in a variety of ways that approach the actual, normal use of language. Ingram (1974:315) is of the view that, "the most obvious way of achieving validity is to arrange for a job sample. If you want to know how good a person is at writing essays, you ask him to write an essay, if you want to know how fluent he is in a foreign language, you ask him to talk to you. The trouble is that validity is limited by reliability; no test or examination can be any more valid than it is reliable. So if it turns out that the reliability of marking essays or of rating command of spoken language is low, then the validity of the marks or ratings must be correspondingly low".

If the reliability of a test ensures its consistency, validity ensures its meaningfulness. A test is
meaningful, within the terms of what is wanted from the test. Validity may be of various types such as predictive, concurrent, content, construct and face validity.

4) **Scorability** :

It refers, that the test should be scored with ease so that the users may be able to handle it. Subjective tests are not easy to score as compared to objective tests. Secondly, there should not be differences in scoring. The differences will effect the accuracy of the test.

5) **Economy** :

This is practical criterion. The test should measure what it wants to test and it should also measure in a reasonable time. If it does, the test is practical and economical.

6) **Administrability** :

It means that a test should be such that it may be given under the conditions that prevail and the personnel (person who is conducting the test) that is available. For instance, if a test requires electronic equipment and the service of highly trained technician, then it is not administrable since these facilities are not available in most schools and even most colleges and universities.