CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

Normative survey method and experimental method of research were used to test the effectiveness of the development model using pre-test post-test control group design.

3.2 Experimental Design

The experimental method having pre-test – post-test research design was used to investigate the problem. The experiment was conducted on 100 secondary school learners who were assigned to two Groups. Experimental Group and Control Group, each group having 50 students. The basic design of the study was:

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<tr>
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<th>Experimental (E) N = 50</th>
<th>Control (C) N = 50</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>1. Written English Communicative Competence Test</td>
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<td>2. Diagnostic Need Assessment Test</td>
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<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
<td>Conventional Method of Teaching English</td>
<td>Treatment to be given on 30 working days</td>
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<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>Written English Communicative Competence Test</td>
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3.3. Sample (Population)

The primary purpose of any research is to discover principles that have universal application, but to study a whole population to arrive at generalizations may not be possible. A sample is a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis. By observing the characteristics of the sample, one can make certain inferences about the characteristics of the population from which it
is drawn. In the present study, 100 students of 9th class of a sub-
urban secondary school were randomly selected and were assigned
to two groups, EG and CG, each group having 50 girls and boys. 25
teachers of English who were teaching English at Government
Senior Secondary Schools in Sonepat District of Haryana state were
randomly selected and were given questionnaires and interviewed in
order to find out students’ communicative needs and teaching
strategies.

In the present research study, the sample consisted both of
students and teachers.

3.3.1 Students’ Sample

In this study, 100 students of 9th class of a sub-urban senior
secondary school were randomly selected and were put into two
groups, Experimental Group and Control Group. Each group
consisted of 50 students. The Random sampling method was
employed for the purpose. The distribution of the sample was as
follows:

Student’s Sample
9th Class Student
(100)

Experimental Group
(50 students)          Control Group
(50 students)

3.3.2 Teachers’ Sample

25 teachers of English who were teaching English at
Government schools were randomly selected to find out students’
communication needs in written English in the social context, and
teaching strategies which the teachers were using to teach English in their classrooms.

3.3.3 Various Stages of Sample Selection

The sample selection was done in three stages.

i) In the first stage, 30 students of 9th class of co-educational government secondary schools were selected. These 30 students were given questionnaires to find out their present and future communicative needs in written English in social context. The sample consisted of both boys and girls who belonged to middle income groups. Thus, their socio-economic status was approximately the same.

ii) During the second stage of the sample selection, 25 teachers of English teaching in government schools were given questionnaires. When their responses were analyzed, they (teachers) were again contacted and interviewed in order to find out the teaching strategies they were using or would like to use to teach English in their classrooms. The selection of this sample was also done randomly. Both male and female teachers were included in the sample.

iii) The third and final stage of the sample selection was the random selection of 100 students of class IX Co-educational Senior Secondary School, Sonapath district, Haryana. The experiment was conducted with these 100 students.

3.3.4 Selection of School

This particular school was selected for the experiment because of the following reasons:

i) The school selected was a co-educational school and had 5 sections of 9th class, each section having over 45 students.
ii) This was the only school that accorded permission to the investigator to conduct experiment with 100 students of 9th class in the zero periods for 30 working days continuously.

iii) In addition to it, the other teacher who taught the Control Group (Traditional Approach) was in the teaching staff of the school. His cooperation was an added advantage.

iv) The investigator, working as a lecturer in a local College of Education in the same town did not find it difficult to walk down to the school for conducting the study. This made possible for the investigator to carry on the experiment scientifically, objectively and methodically.

3.4 Variables
A concept that can take on different quantitative values is called a variable. Variables are the conditions or characteristics that the experimenter manipulates, controls or observes.

a) The Independent variables are the conditions or characteristics that the experimenter manipulates or controls in his or her attempt to ascertain their relationship to observe phenomenon.

b) The Dependent variables are the conditions or characteristics that disappear or change as the experimenter introduces, removes or changes independent variables.

Independent Variables

- Communicative Approach to English Language Teaching
- The Traditional Approach to English Learning Teaching
- Communicative Competence in Written English
**Controlled Variables**

The extraneous variables such as teacher competence, enthusiasm, subject, age and their socio-economic level and academic ability and the intervening variables including motivation, anxiety, fatigue, interest, etc. were controlled for reasonably valid and reliable experimentation and results.

Table 3.2 presents the independent and dependent variables, which were taken care of in the present experimental study.

**Table 3.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
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<tr>
<td>C L T</td>
<td>Test Scores</td>
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<td>T L T</td>
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<tr>
<td>Instructional Materials</td>
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<td>30 Days Exposure</td>
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</table>

The EG was taught by the Communicative Approach and the Control Group was taught by the Traditional Approach (TLT) by their own teacher as usual. The instructional materials were the same for both the groups that were given 30 days' exposure followed by post-tests.

**3.4.1 Controlling Extraneous Variables**

Theoretically speaking, extraneous variables are those uncontrolled variables (i.e. variables not manipulated by the experimenter) that may have a significant influence upon the results of a study.

In the present study, the following extraneous variables were controlled:
1. Teacher Competence
2. Enthusiasm
3. Subjects’ (students’) Age
4. Subjects’ Socio-economic level
5. Subjects’ Academic Ability

These extraneous variables were controlled in the following ways:

i) The extraneous variables of Teacher Competence were controlled by employing a well-qualified teacher for the Control Group. The teacher was a M.A. (English), B.Ed. (ELT), M.Ed. and was teaching English to secondary and higher secondary classes in the same school selected for the study. He knew everything about the ELT but the CLT. This fact was discovered while interviewing him.

The researcher himself, who is an M.A. (English), B.Ed., M.Ed., M.Phil, and has experience of teaching English, both at school and college levels, has studied the CLT in great details and then used it with the EG learners for the study. Both the teachers who worked on the project were of the same age group.

ii) The students selected for the study were almost of the same age (14-15 years old).

iii) The students selected were of the same socio-economic level. Only the middle class level students were studying in the school selected for the study.

iv) The students (subject) selected for the present study were neither very weak at studies nor very intelligent. They were a mixed ability group. There was not much difference of academic ability between the student-subjects of the control and experimental group.
v) The student subjects were selected and assigned to experimental and control group on the basis of randomization. Since two groups were involved in the present study, randomization was achieved by tossing a coin, assigning a subject to one group if heads appeared and to the other if the toss were tails.

Random method was selected because randomization “provides the most effective method of eliminating systematic bias and of minimizing the effect of extraneous variables” (Best & Kahn, 1986).

vi) The extraneous variables of enthusiasm in the teacher for the EG was controlled by motivating him to teach the EG which would learn something in the experiment and would perform better in their final examinations. This helped motivating enthusiasm in him to take up the challenging task of teaching the EG. Feeling motivated him taught the EG enthusiastically.

3.4.2 Controlling Intervening Variables

Motivation, Anxiety and Fatigue are called the intervening variables. These intervening variables were also controlled in the study.

i) The student subjects too were motivated to learn by telling them that they would be taught some interesting and exciting things in English which they might have not heard about till then. In addition to it, the use of various attractive and interesting audio-visual teaching aids also aroused in the students enthusiasm and motivation for the study.

ii) The factor of anxiety in the student subjects was controlled by telling them that even if their performance was poor during the said experiment, it would not in any way affect their final examination
result. This helped the investigator to establish good rapport with
the students and give them a sense of participation and
achievement as well.

iii) The factor of fatigue was also controlled by giving the
experimental treatment to the student subjects in the morning
hours and well before their regular school teaching. The students
were taught in the zero periods everyday.

Although it is practically impossible to eliminate all extraneous
and intervening variables, particularly in the classroom based-
research, an honest attempt was made to control these variables to
the extent possible.

3.5 Conceptual Framework of Language Learning

3.5.1 Approaches to Language

Language can be studied at least from two points of view: its
use or its structure. Language use is the concern of scholars in
many fields, primary among them literature, communications,
speech and rhetoric, sociology, political science and psychology.
Included in it are content analysis and criticism of literature, studies
of the history and changes of meaning of words and descriptions of
the social factors that determine what appropriate speech behaviour
is. The fields of speech and rhetoric include studies of the ways in
which language can influence behaviour. For literary specialists,
language consists of words arranged to produce a logical or
harmonious effect. For lexicographers, it is an inventory of
vocabulary, including the meanings, origins and histories of words.
Language is also the particular way words are selected and
combined that is characteristic of an individual, a group or a literary
genre.
Language structure is the concern of linguistics. Within the field of linguistics the definitions of language vary and linguistics differ in approach according to the definitions they use. Those who study language as a written communication are interested in structure of what they call ‘text’ – how sentences and their parts are organized into coherent wholes – and concerned with how on language can be accurately translated into another. In the field of machine translation, computers handle the vast amount of data needed for such studies. Comparative linguists seek to identify families of languages descended from a common ancestor.

Structural and descriptive linguists view spoken language as having a hierarchical structure of three levels: sounds, sound combinations (such as words), and word combinations (sentences). At the phonemic level, sounds are analyzed; at the morphemic level, the combination of sounds into meaningful units of speech (morphemes, that is, words or word-building units) is described; and at the syntactic level, the combination of words in sentence and clauses is the focus.

Linguists who define language as knowledge are transformational generative grammarians. They study both the nature of human capacity to acquire language and the language acquisition process.

**3.5.2 Written and Spoken Language**

When individual languages have a written as well as a spoken form, it is often the case that the writing system does not represent all the distinctive sounds of the language. The writing system of one language may make use of symbols from the writing system of another language, applying them to sounds, syllables, or morphemes for which they were not originally intended. Written and
spoken forms of the same language can be compared by studying the ‘fit’ between the writing system and the spoken language.

Many kinds of writing systems exist. In Chinese, a written character is used for every morpheme. The written form of the Cherokee language has a symbol for every consonant-and-vowel syllable. Japanese is also written with such a system, which is called a syllabary. In writing systems using an alphabet, such as the Latin alphabet, each symbol theoretically stands for a sound in the spoken language. The Latin alphabet has 27 letters, and languages written with it generally use all 26, whether their spoken form has more or fewer sounds. Although it is used for written English, the Latin alphabet does not have symbols for all the sounds of English. For example, for some sounds, combinations of two letters (digraphs), such as ‘th’, are used. Even so, the combination ‘th’ does not indicate the spoken distinction between ‘th’ in “thin” and ‘th’ in “this”.

The written form of a language is static, unchanging, reflecting the form of the language at the time the alphabet, syllabary, or character system was adopted. The spoken form is dynamic, always changing; eventually, the written and spoken forms may no longer coincide. One of the problems with the English written language is that it still represents the pronunciation of the language several centuries ago. The word light, for example, is today pronounced “lite”; the spelling “light” reflects the former pronunciation. In languages with writing systems that have been recently developed (such as Swahili) or reformed (such as Hebrew), the written and spoken forms are more likely to ‘fit’.

Unlike speech, writing may ignore pitch and stress, omit vowels, or include punctuation and capitalization. The written and
spoken forms of a language also differ in that writing does not incorporate spoken dialect differences. Speakers of mutually unintelligible Chinese dialects, for example, can read one another’s writing even though they cannot communicate through speech. Similarly, speakers of the different German dialects all write in High German, the accepted standard form of the language.

3.5.3 Language and Communication

The Collins Cobuild Essential English Dictionary (1988) defines Languages as “a system of communication which consists of a set of sounds and written symbols which are used by the people of a particular country for talking or writing”. Communication means “the act of communicating”. Communication is “the activity or process of giving information to other people or to other living things”.

The American People Encyclopedia (1963) defines communication as “the sharing of thoughts, ideas or knowledge by two or more people. It includes the devices, process and institutions by which individuals and groups exchange all kinds of information.

According to the OAL Dictionary (1984), ‘Communicative’ means to be “ready and willing to talk and give information”. ‘Communicative’ is “the ability to communicate”. “Someone who is communicating is able to talk to people easily”. The term ‘Communicative’ means to “Pass on (News, information, feelings, heat, motion and illness, etc.) ... Share or Exchange (News, etc.)”. “If you communicate with another person or place, 1.1. You use signals such as speech, radio signals, or body movements, to give them information ... 1.2. You write a letter to them or you telephone them... 2. If you communicate an idea or a feeling to someone, you
make them aware of it... 3. If people communicate, they can understand each other’s feelings or attitudes”.

3.5.4 Communicative Ability and Competence

In Widdowson’s (1978) opinion, Communicative abilities are “Those skills which are defined with reference to the manner and mode in which the system is realized as use... Communicative abilities embrace linguistic skills but not the reverse”. “Essentially the (Communicative abilities) are ways of creating or recreating discourse in different modes”. These abilities “operate on everything that is “communicative in the discourse as a whole”.

The term ‘Communicative Competence’ is defined by the International Encyclopedia (1985) as, “the effective use of language in social contexts”. According to Stevick (1982), communicative competence is “… a kind of knowledge which is different from and broader than linguistic competence”. Further, “Communicative Competence consists of, after all, in knowing what to do with (grammatically correct) sentences in larger contexts”. Littlewood (1981) defines communicative competence as “... a degree of mastery of a very considerable range of linguistic and social skills which depend in part on the learner’s sensitivity to meaning and appropriacy in language and on his/her ability to develop effective strategies for communicating in the second language”.

Widdowson (1978) is of the view that Communicative Competence is “… the ability to produce sentences for communicative effect”. Johnson and Morrow (1981) say that Communicative Competence is “… the ability to be appropriate, to know the right thing to say at the right time”. According to Munby (1988), “Communicative Competence includes the ability to use linguistic forms to perform communicative acts and to understand
the communicative functions of sentences and their relationship to other sentences”.

Defining Communicative competence, Kohli (1989) says, “Communicative Competence is linguistic competence plus an understanding of the appropriate use of language in its various contexts”. In Hymes’ (1971) view, Communicative Competence is developed by learning the rules of use of language. The notion of Communicative Competence can be characterized in terms of the following:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;

2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;

3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated; and

4. Whether (and to what degree) something is, in fact, done, actually performed, and what its doing entails”.

Chomsky’s (1965) views on Communicative Competence are very significant. Discussing Chomsky’s view of communicative competence, Rivers (1983) writes, “To Chomsky, competence was internalized knowledge of the system of syntactic and phonological rules of the language that the ideal speaker-hearer possess in the native language; and performance was language in use by the individual ...”

Clarifying the concept, Freeman (1986) writes, “Communicative Competence involves being able to use the language appropriate to a given social context”.

The definitions given above make us conclude that Communicative Competence is:
i) The effective use of language in social contexts.

ii) The ability to use the language appropriate to a given social context.

iii) The ability to produce sentences for communicative effect.

iv) The ability to be appropriate, to know the right thing at the right time.

v) A kind of knowledge which is different from linguistic competence.

vi) The internalized knowledge of the system of syntactic and phonological rules of the language that the speakers-listeners, or/readers-writers possess.

vii) Linguistic competence plus and understanding of the appropriate use of language in its various contexts; and,

viii) The ability to say or write something which is grammatical, appropriate, fluent, formally possible, feasible and socially and contextually acceptable”.

Apart from the term ‘communicative competence’, there is another term ‘Linguistic Competence’ which has been widely used. It is defined below.

**3.5.5 Linguistic Competence**

According to Stevick (1982), “for many years this was the only kind of competence to which language teachers gave serious attention” Hymes (1971) writes, “linguistic competence is understood as concerned with the facet knowledge of language structure that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the (ideal) speaker-listener can say ...”
Rivers (1983) writes that linguistic competence is the ability “to communicate naturally” by using, “the forms of the language native speakers normally use in all kinds of circumstances” and possessing “linguistic” skills and expressing “one’s” own intention and feelings and “understanding” those of others, whose “cultural background and ways of conveying meaning may be different”.

Conclusively, one can say that ‘linguistic competence’ is learning the language while ‘communicative competence’ is using the language to learn.

3.5.6 Communication Needs

Students can convey their ideas, etc. in a better way if teachers spell out their ‘Communication Needs’. For that purpose, these communicative needs are to be identified by the teacher and the framer of the syllabus.

Richterich's (1973) says, “Language needs are the requirements which arise from the use of language in the multitude of situations which may arise in the social lives of individuals and groups”.

“Before deciding what to teach the learner, one wants to know his requirements in terms of, for example, communicative mode and activities and the relationship between him and his interlocutors. In other words, the specifications of communication requirements or needs are prior to the selection of speech functions or communicatively acts to be taught. By drawing up a profile of communicative needs, one can more validly specify the particular skills and linguistic forms to be taught.

Some attempts have been made to spell out learners’ needs. A document, which has proved particularly valuable for this
purpose, is the Council of Europe’s threshold level that helps the teacher to answer questions such as:

1. What situations might the learners encounter?
2. What language activities is the learner most likely to take part in?
3. What functions of Language are likely to be most useful?
4. What topics are likely to be important?
5. What language forms should the students learn, in order to specify the communication needs that have been described?

After specifying communicative needs, one starts gathering relevant information and data about needs. “There are a number of ways in which information can be gathered about needs. The most frequently used are: questionnaires, interviews, observation, ... informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others”.

3.5.7 Accuracy (In Writing)

To a common man, accuracy is always being accurate, exact and appropriate. Similarly, the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary defines accuracy as “exactness and correctness”. The term ‘accurate’ means “careful and exact; free from error’. Accuracy is “the ability to perform a task without making a mistake ... the quality of being true or correct”. According to Brumfit (1979), “accuracy” is “a relative term, based on a social judgement of the language speech community”. “Since ‘accuracy’ ... refers to the user, it can refer just as much to listening reading as to speaking and writing ...”
3.5.8 Fluency

When someone is at ease in doing the assigned task and does it in a brisk speed, the individual is supposed to be fluent in doing that task. Therefore, Fluency is “the quality of being fluent”. Someone who is fluent is “able to speak smoothly readily”. “Someone who is fluent in a language can speak or write it easily and correctly ... Someone whose speaking, reading, or writing is fluent speaks, reads or writes easily and clearly with no hesitation or mistakes”.

Burdis (1984) defines fluency as “nature language use, whether or not it results in native-speaks like language comprehension or production”. According to Lessin (1975), fluency is “... the ability of speaker to produce indefinitely many sentences conforming the phonological, syntactical and semantic exigencies of given natural language on the basis of a finite exposure to a finite corpus of the languages”.

Fillmore (1979), discussing fluency with exclusive reference to production, distinguished different kinds:

1. The first is the ability to fill time with talk,
2. ... The ability to talk in coherent, reasoned semantically dense sentences, showing a ‘mastery of sentences and syntactic resources of the language,
3. ... The ability to have appropriate things to say in wide range or contexts,
4. ... The ability to be creative and imaginative in ... language use”. 

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3.5.9 Appropriacy

Appropriacy is suitability. "Something that is appropriate is suitable or acceptable for a particular situation". An utterance is appropriate if we can relate it to other things, which we know, believe, etc. through a process of drawing inferences and making interpretations. As such, it is subjective to the individual and specific to the situation in which it occurs.

Appropriacy is, "choosing the most suitable of a number of nearby synonymous expressions for the occasion in question. The appropriate choice depends on factors such as the relationship between speakers, the topic under discussion and other circumstances of the interaction". "... Appropriateness is not a property of sentence but of a relationship between sentences and contexts".

3.5.9.1 Distinction between Fluency and Accuracy

Fluency and Accuracy are closely related and are also different from each other. Fluency and Accuracy are considered to be components of communicative competence.

The distinction between accuracy and fluency is essentially a methodological distinction, rather than one in psychology or linguistics. That is to say, it is a division, which may have value to teachers in decision-making about the content of lessons and the distribution of time between various types of activity. The value communicative language teaching will be technological rather than theoretical, in that it is a distinction which is being made with the intention of producing better teaching which is as close as possible to our understanding of the nature of language and of language acquisition.
Stevick (1982) observes, “... Fluency is simply the result of a large amount of practice... sufficient practice of accurate forms leads to the desired kind of fluency... Fluency depends at least as much on emotional factors as on amount of practice, and too much insistence on accuracy can erode this essential foundation of fluency”.

Stressing both accuracy and fluency, Stevick (1982) further writes “... no one suggests that either accuracy or fluency be abandoned in favour of the other. The question about maintaining accuracy is not ‘whether’ it is ‘when’, and ‘how’”.

Brumfit (1984) too has the similar views and says, “There is a definite role for accuracy work in language teaching, but that its function is quite different from that of fluency work and its over-use will impede successful language development.

3.6 Methods and Approaches of Teaching English

In different situations, the method of teaching English may be different. In a rural government school, the teacher may be practicing Translation Method whereas in a city public school the direct method of teaching may be more practical, impressive and the requirement. The Bilingual Method, which is applicable in every situation is perhaps the best method of teaching English. Similarly, English can be approached with the help of different approaches. The structural approach, situational approach, the audio-lingual approach, substitution method and the communicative approach are some of the significant approaches in teaching English.

3.6.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

This method is also called the traditional method of teaching English. This is the easiest method of teaching a second language. In the present times, this is the most discarded method, as in this
method, spoken English remains poor. It is the traditional deductive method of language teaching. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), it is a way of studying a language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. This method emphasizes accuracy.

This method stresses the use of the mother tongue of the child and teaching the target language through the mother tongue equivalents. Mother tongue is used to explain the meaning of new words, phrases, idioms, sentences, grammatical points and rules. The linguistic habits formed are taken care of.

3.6.2 The Director Method of Teaching English

This method of teaching English evolved as a reaction to the translation method. Presently, it is in very common use in Indian public schools and is doing a very lucrative business with the masses. It is known by various names like New Method, Reform Method, Natural Method and Oral Method. Robert (1971) writes about it that the central idea of the Direct method is the association of words and sentences with their meaning through demonstration, dramatization, pointing, etc.

In Richards and Rodgers' (1986) view, the Direct Method emphasizes the use of grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and sentences in the target language.

3.6.3 The Structural Approach

This is an approach and not a method. Some of the scholars do consider it to be a method. The structural approach stresses the importance of structures that are carefully graded. Structural
grading consists of arranging the structural items or patterns into a suitable order.

The basis of teaching is structures and patterns of English. Situations, actions, pictures, drawing are extensively used. The teacher gives chorus, group and individual oral drills to reinforce the language item taught.

3.6.4 The Audio-Lingual Approach

Habbord, et.al. (1986) hold the opinion that the Audio-lingual Approach is directly based on behaviour theory. It assumes that language learning can be broken down into a series of individual habits that can be formed (habit formation) by reinforcement of correct responses. The approach emphasizes on the pattern drilling repetition and on the ordering of the skills... Listening, speaking, reading and writing.

3.6.4.1 Bilingual Method

The Bilingual Method stresses the use of the mother tongue in a restricted way only. Teaching the target language is never through the mother tongue equivalents. Mother tongue is used to explain the meaning of new words, phrases, idioms, sentences, grammatical points and rules only when the teacher feels that direct method is not working. The linguistic habits formed are taken care of.

3.6.4.2 Substitutional Method

This is a very common method of teaching English. Most of the books have substitution tables as part of the exercise after the prose lesson. In this method, words of model sentences are substituted by other words. Drills are given through simple,
compound and substitution tables. Substitution tables are extensively used.

3.6.4.3 The Situational Approach

It is the use of direct method of teaching a language by creating situations with the help of audio-visual aids and classroom situations. This approach basically tries to teach English as the children learn their mother tongue. The teacher just introduces some new words incidentally in the classroom and offers a lot of opportunities to the learner to associate the meaning of new words with corresponding situations. The teacher asks a number of questions. Constant repetition is stressed. Time and again new situations are created according to requirement. The emphasis is on skill development.

3.6.5 The Communicative Language Teaching Approach

This is the latest approach in teaching of English. Some call it the newfound approach. This is a very practical approach. The Communicative Approach is one of the exciting developments in language teaching in recent years. It would be quite useful for us to know what communicative language teaching means in theoretical and practical terms.

The present study is primarily concerned with the CL.

The communicative language teaching (CLT) is based on the concept of competence that is an expansion of the definition of competence given by Noam Chomsk in 1965. The term originally introduced by Dell Huymes (1971) included knowledge, skills and abilities in the concept of communication.

Littlewood (1981), an authority on CLT, writes, the Communicative Approach “makes us more strongly aware that it is
not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language, they must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time”.

Explaining the Communicative Approach, Roger Scott writes that in communicative teaching, “the focus changes from the accurate production of isolated utterances to the fluent selection of appropriate utterances in communication. The learner is now concerned with using language, not English usages”.

Different language scholars have defined CLT differently. In Communicative Language Teaching emphasis is not only on accuracy but also on communication as well. Johnson and Morrow (1981) define CLT as one that recognize the teaching of ‘communicative competence’ as its aim. “It is on this level of aim that such a language teaching distinguishes from more traditional approaches where the emphasis is on teaching structural competence”.

In Communicative Language Teaching, “almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent. Students use the languages a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role plays, and problem solving tasks”. The CLT stresses “the use of authentic materials. It is considered desirable to give students an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding languages as it is actually used by native speakers”.

According to Littlewood (1981), the CLT “pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view”. He further says that the CLT “encourages us to go beyond structures and take account of other aspects of communication. It can, therefore, help
us to match the content more closely with the actual communicative uses that the learners will have to make of the foreign language”.

**3.6.5.1 Principles of Communicative Methodology**

To practice communicative language teaching is based on the principles of communicative methodology.

- **Principle one: Know what you are doing**

  The first principle states, “the focus of every lessons (or part of lesson) should be on performing of some operations: learning how to do something ... every lesson should end with the learner being able to see clearly that he can do something which he could not do at the beginning ...”

- **Principle Two: The Whole is more than the Sum of the Parts**

  This principle holds the view that, “the ability to handle these (formal) elements (of language) in isolation is no indication of the ability to communicate. What is needed is the ability to deal with strings of sentences and ideas and in oral modes (speaking and writing) these strings must be processed in what is called ‘real time ... what is needed is the ability to work in the context of the whole’.

- **Principle three: ‘The Processes are as Important as the Forms’**

  Explaining this principle, Morrow (1981) writes, “A method which aims to develop the ability of students to communicate in a foreign language will aim to replicate as far as possible the processes of communicative so that practice of the forms of the target language can take place within a communicative framework ... Three such processes which can be isolated and which can be incorporated either individually or together in teaching procedures are: (i) Information gap; (ii) Choice; and (iii) Feedback”.

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• **Principle Four: ‘To Learn it, Do it’**

The cardinal tenet of learning theory is that one learns to do by doing. “Only by practising communicative activities can we learn to communicate”.

• **Principle Five: ‘Mistakes are not always a Mistake’**

According to this principle, “trivial mistakes of grammar or pronunciation do not matter as long as the student gets his message across... A learner who makes mistakes because he is trying to do something has not been told or shown how to do or which he has not mastered, is not really making a mistake at all... Niggling criticism of what he produces will ultimately destroy the learner’s confidence in his ability to use the language”.

In brief, the principles of ‘communicative language teaching’ can be expressed as follows:

i) Whenever possible, “authentic language”, as it is used in real context, should be introduced.

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

iii) One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together.

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

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

vi) Being able to figure out the speaker’s or writer’s intention is part of being communicatively competent.

vii) Errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills...

viii) The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors…”

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

x) One of the teacher’s responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.

3.7 Communicative Model of Teaching

Brumfit and Johnson (1986) have outlined the following communicative model of teaching.

*Figure 3.1*

**Communicative Model of Teaching**

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I

Communicative as far as possible with all available resources

II

Present language items shown to be necessary for effective communication

III

Drill, if necessary
3.7.1 The CLT Procedure

Some attempts have been made to develop a procedure. Habbord, et. al. (1986) have done a pioneering work in this direction. A CLT procedure is as follows:

**Figure 3.2**

CLT Procedure

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

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3.7.2 Procedural Phase of the CLT Instructions

Finnocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) illustrate how the procedural phases of instruction are handed.

1. Presentation of a brief dialogue or several mini-dialogues;
2. Oral practice of each utterance in the dialogue;
3. Questions and answers based on the topic and situation in the dialogue;
4. Questions and answers related to the student’s personal experience but centred on the theme of the dialogue;
5. Study of the basic communicative expression used in the dialogue or one of the structures that exemplify the function;
6. Learner discovery of generalization or rules underlying the functional expression of structures;

7. Oral recognition, interpretative procedures; and

8. Oral production activities proceeding from guided to free communication.

3.7.3 The Role of Mother Tongue in CLT

The mother tongue is used as and when necessary. Freeman (1986) spells out the role of the mother tongue of students and says, “the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also, for example, in explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication just an object to be studied.

3.7.4 Communicative Activities

Communicative activities are very much a part of CLT and are purposeful and objective-based. The following diagram presents types of communicative activities.

Figure 3.3
Communicative Activities
3.7.5 Pre-Communicative Activities

Pre-communicative activities aim at equipping the learner, “with some of the skills required for communication, without actually requiring him to perform communicative acts. The criterion for success is, therefore, not so much whether he has managed to convey an intended meaning, but rather whether he has produced an acceptable piece of language”.

3.7.6 Communicative Activities

In communicative activities, language functions “are emphasized over forms. Typically, although not always, functional syllabus is used. Varieties of forms are introduced for each function. Only the simple forms are introduced for each function. Only the simple forms would be presented at first, but as students get more proficient in the target language, the functions are reinforced and more complex forms are learned.... Students work with language at the ‘suprasentential’ or discourse level.... They learn about cohesion and coherence.... Students work on all four skills from the beginning.

3.7.7 Role-Play in CLT

Role-play in communicative language teaching is of utmost importance. The teacher himself plays different roles. Role is assigned to the students as well. Role-playing is integrated with situational approach. “The communicative approach emphasizes the importance of games and role-play as a way of setting limits to activity that are sufficiently well-denied, yet also sufficiently wide to promote practice in using language freely over longer period of time”.

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Drill exercise also requires role-playing technique. The teacher can ask students to repeat a line from a dialogue and give answer himself. “He can then ask individual students to ask the questions and prompt individual answers. When he is sure that students are competent (not necessarily perfect) in handling the language, he can put the students into pairs and ask them to practice the dialogue with each member of the pair, taking it in turn to perform the two roles and make appropriate substitutions”. Role-cards and pair-cards are extensively used to help learner play the assigned roles.

3.7.8 Simulation in CLT

Simulation is real-like but not exactly real. Many a time, teaching is done in simulated conditions. Learning and teaching in simulation is very effective in certain situations. Among classroom activities, “role plays and simulation are highly suitable vehicles to use in a communicative approach. Used well, they can reduce the artificiality of classroom, provide a reason for talking and allow the learner to talk meaningfully to other learners”.

“In a simulation, the learner is given a task to perform or a problem to solve; the background information and the environment of the problem is simulated”.

3.7.9 Teacher’s Role in the CLT

Teacher gets a prominent role in communicative language teaching. A variety of roles are assumed for teachers in communicative language teaching. Breen and Candlin (1980) describe teacher’s roles in the following terms: The teacher has two main roles: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is
to act as an independent participant within the learning teaching group... A third role is to act as an independent participant within the learning teaching group.... Another role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner”. The other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counsellor and group process manager.

According to Littlewood (1981), “in communicative activities, the teacher will need to provide communicative feedback... This does not exclude structural feedback altogether. However, the teacher must be aware that excessive correction will encourage learners to shift their focus from meanings to forms. For this reason, he may often withhold structural correction, or postpone it until after the activity.

3.7.10 Learner’s Role in the CLT

Like the teacher, the students are also to perform many roles. The teacher and the students are the two important pillars of the teaching-learning process. All teaching is directed toward the learner. Breen and Candlin (1980) describe the learners’ role within the CLT in the following terms: “the role of learner as negotiator between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way”.

“Students are, above all, communicators. They are actively engaged in negotiating meaning in trying to make them understood even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete. They learn to communicate by communicating”.

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3.7.11 Communicative Language Testing

The communicative language testing tests learners' "ability and capacity" to construct grammatically (and phonologically) well-formed sentences, to select these forms in order to express many different kinds of conceptual models and functional meaning"...

In the communicative language testing, "a teacher evaluates not only his (students') accuracy, but also their fluency. The student who has the most control of structures and vocabulary is not always the best communicator. A teacher can informally evaluate his students' performance in his role as an adviser or co-communicator. For more formal evaluation, a teacher is likely to use a communicative test... This is an interactive test that has real communicative function".

Morrow (1979) is of the opinion that "the concept of pass/fail" loses much of its force; every candidate can be assessed in terms of what he can do. Of course, some will be able to do more than others and it may be decided for administrative reasons that a certain level of proficiency is necessary for the awarding of particular certificate."

3.8 Designing a Communicative Test

Carroll's (1980) contribution to communicative testing is extremely important. The ultimate criterion of language mastery is, therefore, the learner's effectiveness in communication for the settings he find himself in".

Designing a communicative ability test is not like preparing a grammatical ability test; the design of a communicative test can be seen as involving the answers to the following questions:
1. What are the performance operations we wish to test? Considering what sorts of things people actually use language for in the areas in which we are interested.

2. At what level of proficiency will we expect the candidate to perform these operations?

3. What are the enabling skills involved in performing these operations? Do we wish to test control of these separately?

4. What sort by content area are we going to specify? This will affect both the types of operations and the types of ‘text’ that are inappropriate.

5. What sort of format will we adopt for the question we set? It must be one which allows for both reliability and face validity as a test of language use.

3.8.1 Characteristics of a Communicative Test

According to Morrow, the following are expected to be the “characteristics of communicative ability test”:

1. It will be criterion-referenced against the operational performance of a set of authentic language tasks. In other words, it will set out to show whether or not (or how will) the candidate can perform a set of specified activities.

2. It will be crucially concerned to establish its own validity as a measure of those operations to measure. Thus content, construct and predicative validity will be important, but concurrent validity with existing tests will not be necessarily significant.

3. It will rely on modes of assessments which are not directly quantitative, but which are instead qualitative. It may be
possible or necessary to convert these into numerical scores, but the process is an indirect one and recognized as such.

4. Reliability, while clearly important, will be subordinate to face validity. Spurious objectivity will no longer be a prime consideration, although it is recognized that in certain situations test formats can be assessed mechanically will be advantageous. The limitations of such formats will be clearly spelt out, however”.

3.9 Research Methodology

The Experimental Method and the Normative Survey Method were used for the present study.

3.9.1 The Experimental Method

In the present study, the pre-test post-test experimental research design was used to investigate the problem and to conduct the experiment. The subjects (students) were assigned to two groups, Experimental Group and Control Group.

The basic design of the experimentation was as follows:

**Table 3.3**

**Basic Design of the Experimentation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pre-tests</td>
<td>Pre-tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Experimental Factor</td>
<td>Control Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Post-tests</td>
<td>Post-tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison of Gains difference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two groups – Experimental Group and Control Group – were first given pre-tests and then the experiment was conducted
with the Experimental Group. The Control Group was not given any experimental treatment. It was only taught with the help of T.L.T. At the expiry of the experimental treatment period, the two groups were given post-tests. Finally, suitable statistical techniques were used to compare the gains of difference of the two groups and conclusions and findings were drawn and reported.

3.9.2 The Normative Survey Method

The investigator used the Normative Survey Method in the present study for collecting data regarding secondary school students’ present and future communicative needs in written English in social context. These data were further used for the construction of diagnostic tests, pre- and post-tests and for the preparation of instructional materials. The normative survey method was also used to find out the teaching strategies the teachers were using for the teaching of English at the secondary school level.

3.10 Preparation and Design of the Instructional Materials

3.10.1 Selection of the Areas

The investigator himself prepared the instructional materials to conduct the experiment for the study. The materials were designed and prepared on the basis of the students’ communicative needs, which were already spelt out and on the basis of the following forms of written communication:

1. Writing instructions
2. Writing Directions
3. Writing Telegrams
4. Writing Greetings and Good Wishes
5. Writing Invitations
6. Writing Social and Friendly Letters
3.10.2 Steps for the Construction of the Materials

The following steps were taken for constructing the instructional materials:

1. Selection of the content to be taught
2. Writing assumptions about learners’ entering behaviours
3. Writing of unit plans
4. Writing of lessons
5. Editing of the unit and lesson plans
6. Empirical try-out
7. Administration of the instructional materials

3.11 Procedure of Experimentation

The procedure of the experimentation included the following steps:

3.11.1 Administration of the Pre-tests

One hundred (100) students of 9th class of the selected school were given the pre-tests of communicative competence before the commencement of the experiment in order to find out the learners’ entry-level behaviour and background.

3.11.2 Preparation of the Groups of Learners for Experimentation

After administering the pre-tests to 100 students, two groups of the learners were prepared. Each group consisted of 50 students. The groups of learners were named Experimental Group (EG) and Control Group (CG).

The EG was subjected to 30 days’ experimental treatment continuously. The second group, CG was not exposed to any experimental treatment but was taught by the teacher concerned with the conventional method (TLT) in regular course of time as a regular school routine and was asked to come for the post-tests on
the scheduled day and time. The English period was taken as the zero period both by the teacher concerned and the investigator. The CG was not given any experimental treatment because the investigator wanted to find out whether or not this group learnt anything on their own with the help of his concerned teacher and how they performed after the administration of the pre-tests.

3.11.3 Administration of the Experimental Treatment

The EG was given experimental treatment through experimental teaching approaches with the same teaching content for 30 continuous days.

3.11.3.1 Experimental Treatment to EG

The investigator, who has a teaching experience of more than 10 years at secondary and senior secondary level and also the experience of teaching in a B.Ed. college, being still working as a regular and confirmed lecturer in the College of Education himself taught the EG by using the Communicative Approach to the English Language Teaching.

The learners of the EG were exposed to 30 days’ experimental treatment through the quasi-communication drills, communication exercise, role play, simulation, tape-recorded dialogues, group-work, activity-based tasks, language games, etc. Audio-visual aids were extensively used for the purpose. The learners were assigned communicative testing exercises at the end of each lesson.

By following the Communicative Language Pedagogy, the investigator performed the role a participant with the learners in the classroom. The researcher-participant was all the time careful and he particularly saw to it that only social and informal type of teaching and learning climate prevailed in the classroom during the
experimental treatment. The focus of the teaching was, of course, on the development of appropriacy and fluency in the learners as the CLT theory demands it. Hence, the learner-oriented teaching was the main focus of CLT.

3.11.3.2 Treatment to CG

Another teacher taught the CG as usual through the traditional methods of teaching English. The teacher was not oriented with procedure of the experiment.

The teacher made use of the Grammar-Translation Method, Direct Method, Bilingual Method, Structural Approach, Situational Approach and Substitution Method. The teacher used most of the time, or in real sense, the traditional methods of language teaching. These methods and approaches were used for this group as the teachers who were interviewed by the investigator revealed that they were using these teaching methods, approaches and strategies in their classroom. In fact, the focus of teaching here was on the development of accuracy and grammar in the learners.

3.11.4 Administration of the Post-tests

The post-tests (Terminal behaviour tests) were administered to the two groups, that is, EG and CG, in order to find out whether learners’ communicative competence was developed and which teaching approach was more effective in developing learners’ communicative competence. The CG, that was not given any treatment but was taught in the conventional method, was also given the post-tests.

3.12 Tools for Data Collection

The investigator developed the following tools:
a) *Diagnostic Need Assessment Test*: The diagnostic test was constructed in order to find senior secondary school learners communicative needs in written English and senior secondary schools teaching strategies.

b) Written English Communicative Competence Tests: The communicative competence tests were divided into five parts, each part testing an area of communicative competence.

The tools were valid, reliable and standardized by finding out their reliability and validity by using Spearman Brown Formula and Split-Half Method.

### 3.12.1 Procedure of Experimental Treatment

The EG and CG were exposed to different types of treatment for 30 days with the same tests and teaching material, except the teaching methods.

*Treatment to the EG*: The EG was taught by using the communicative approach. The learners were given quasi-communication drills, communication tasks, role-play, simulation, dialogue, group work and activity-based tasks focusing on grammatical accuracy under normal classroom teaching.

### 3.12.2 Data Collection, Analysis and Interpretation

In order to analyze the gathered data, the investigator used suitable statistical techniques such as Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation Coefficient, Reliability Coefficient, ‘t’-test, Percentage, F-Ratio, Discrimination Power Value and Graphical Presentation of Data.

The data (attributes) were analyzed and interpreted on the basis of the communicative methodology that included the principles of Accuracy, Appropriacy, Fluency, Feasibility and Conventionality.
3.13 Development of Instructional Material

The investigator prepared the instructional material to conduct the experiment for the study. The instructional material was designed and prepared on the basis of the students’ communicative needs, which were spelt out through the Diagnostic tests. The material was prepared on the basis of the following forms of written communication.

- Writing social and friendly letters;
- Writing greetings and good wishes;
- Writing telegrams;
- Writing directions;
- Writing instructions; and
- Writing descriptions of persons, events, things and places.

The construction and development of the instructional material followed the following steps:

- Selection of the content to be taught;
- Writing assumptions about learners’ entering behaviour and terminal behaviour;
- Writing unit plans;
- Writing lessons;
- Editing the unit and lesson plans;
- Empirically tryout; and
- Administration of the material.

3.14 Data Analysis

The following statistical techniques were applied:

- Central tendencies and S.D.
- Coefficient of Correlation; and
- ‘t’ test of significance of mean difference.