A LINGUISTIC APPROACH FOR TESTING URDU LANGUAGE SKILLS

ABSTRACT

THESIS
SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

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BY

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ABSTRACT

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Introduction:

The thesis entitled "A Linguistic Approach for Testing Urdu Language Skills" is an attempt to discuss the theoretical application of the knowledge of linguistics to the construction of various tests for testing language skills with special reference to the Urdu Language. In this study, attempts have been made to critically examine the present method of testing Urdu language skill and presenting linguistically oriented techniques for the same. The analysis of question papers of various classes shows that the existing method of Urdu language testing is highly traditional and the evaluators have no or very little knowledge of linguistic approaches to testing. Linguistics is a modern discipline which has revolutionized the teaching and testing of languages. The knowledge of linguistics can be used in every aspect of language teaching. The language testing can also benefit considerably from the linguistic know-how.

The data has been collected from three prestigious schools of Aligarh, viz., Aligarh Public School, Zakir Husain
Higher Secondary School and S.T. High School. The data consists of question papers from class I to VIII. These papers belong to 1st semester, Half yearly and final examinations of all the classes. This work is divided into six chapters covering almost every aspect of Urdu language testing.

Chapter I:

It is introductory in nature. It deals with some basic aspects of linguistics and language teaching and the relationship of linguistics with language teaching and testing. Efforts have been made in this chapter to discuss some basic techniques and problems in phonological and grammatical study of language. The role of linguistics in language teaching and language testing has also been emphasized in this chapter. It also deals with the importance of testing and evaluation in language teaching. Types of various tests, their characteristics and requirements have also been discussed at length in this chapter.

Chapter II:

This chapter deals with Urdu language testing. In this chapter the present state of Urdu language testing has been discussed citing examples from the actual question papers.
of Urdu which cover the pattern of testing reading comprehension, structure of language, lexical skill, formal grammar, writing and composition etc. The shortcomings of Urdu language testing have also been discussed in this chapter. The methodology adopted in these schools for Urdu language testing have also been fully discussed. The question papers of various Classes have been analysed in this chapter to point out the limitations of the existing pattern of the Urdu language testing.

The analyses of present Urdu question papers show that these schools have adopted very old and traditional methodology of language testing. The existing techniques which are used by these schools are very outdated. The demerits of these procedures are that the teachers concern use subjective type questions very frequently and since subjective questions are not considered reliable and standard test, it is not fruitful to use these tests frequently. Moreover, present Urdu testing have no set pattern of testing which can cover all the aspects of language. Besides, no weightage is given to oral testing. The major portion of tests cover the writing skill.
Chapter III:

This chapter deals with the testing of listening comprehension. Listening comprehension is one of the four basic skills required to master a language. Comprehension can be described as the careful hearing of language. It implies understanding and recognition of sounds and grammatical patterns of language. It is actually the preparation for speaking, because one who does not listen cannot understand the language and eventually cannot speak. So by listening comprehension, it is meant the understanding pronunciation, grammatical structure, recognition of vocabulary and grasping the meaning of words in target language.

The role of listening comprehension in language learning and various problems of auditory comprehension have been discussed in this chapter. Different techniques for testing listening comprehension have also been discussed in this chapter. Efforts have also been made in this chapter to discuss the testing of comprehension of sounds, the testing of comprehension of grammatical structures and the testing of comprehension of meaning with separate techniques and procedures. The testing of the above aspects of language involve different kinds of techniques and procedures. These have been fully elaborated in this chapter with suitable examples from the Urdu language.
Chapter IV:

The next skill which follows the listening comprehension is the speaking skill. It deals with the testing of speaking skill. Speaking is an important language skill. It is one of the four basic language skills. The aim of teaching speaking is to enable the students to converse fluently and correctly. Speaking correctly does not involve only the correct pronunciation but also to speak correct grammatical sentences and to use right and proper words. It also involves the ability to communicate at the normal conversational speech. The aim of teaching speaking is to enable the learners to use the signalling systems of pronunciation, stress, intonation, vocabulary and grammatical structures of target language at a normal rate of delivery, as the native speakers of that language use, at normal communication situation.

In this chapter, the role of speaking in language learning has been discussed. Attempts have also been made in this chapter to discuss various techniques and procedures for testing speaking skill. Various techniques have been proposed for testing the production of speech sounds and their sequences with reference to the Urdu language. Testing speaking skill also covers the testing of the production of lexical units, and
grammatical structures. Various techniques have been proposed for testing these aspects of speaking also, with reference to the Urdu language.

Chapter V:

This chapter deals with testing reading skill. Since reading is one of the four basic language skills, separate attention should be given to this skill in both teaching and testing. To read means to grasp the language by its written form. As Lado (1961:223) is of the view, "reading in a foreign language consists of grasping meaning in that language through its written representation". There are three stages in reading viz. Recognition, structuring and interpretation. Recognition means firstly that the student must recognise written characters for what they stand and then he also be aware about the systematic connection between speech and the written language. By structuring, it means that the student should be able to understand the structure of words and sentences of the foreign language. He must be able to connect the written symbols to what they stand for. He should know as to how the written symbols of the target language are decoded. At this stage the students learn to interpret phonological, morphological and syntactic structures i.e. understanding their meanings.
Reading is an activity which involves the identification of graphic symbols. So far as Urdu writing system is concerned, it has 36 graphemes. Most of which change their shapes when they are written in connected form. The reading habit of Urdu therefore, entails the visual identification of not only the separate graphemes but also there are a number of diacritical marks which are used specially for the beginners. Testing of the reading skill of the Urdu language presupposes the identification of the whole orthographic system of the Urdu language. The testing of reading comprehension is based on the total acquisition of reading skill.

In this chapter, the importance of reading comprehension has been emphasised. It is an important skill which has to be tested with great care. No much attention is paid to this skill in traditional approach. In present testing pattern of the Urdu language the questions are generally asked about central theme of the poem or lesson which the learners have read long back. Sometimes questions are also given relating to the theme of the paragraph, but paragraph is not given in the question papers.

For testing reading comprehension, two major techniques i.e. cloze test and multiple choice test have been discussed in this chapter with reference to the Urdu language. Separate tests of these types have also been constructed.
Chapter VI:

This chapter is devoted to testing of writing skill. Writing is one of the four basic language skills. A person cannot be an expert of a language without having mastered the four basic skills, i.e. listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. Writing is visual representation of speech. As Lado (1961:248) suggests, "writing a foreign language as the ability to use the language and its graphic representation productively in ordinary writing situations". By writing a language means the ability to use structure, lexical items, their conventional representation in ordinary writing. In other words writing involves practical activity of making graphic symbols such as graphemes, allographs and diacritical marks. In this chapter, the process of writing, purpose of writing and analysis of writing have been discussed. Efforts have also been made to discuss the elements of Urdu writing system such as graphemes, allographs, diacritical marks, and phoneme-grapheme correspondence with reference to the Urdu language.

Urdu writing system offers special learning problems. Since this writing system consists of 36 graphemes. Most of which assume different shapes while written in connected form. Urdu spelling shows many complications because some of its phonemes correspond by more than one graphemes. In Urdu, there
is no one-to-one relationship between speech and writing. This discrepancy between speech and writing poses many problems in teaching the writing skill. Specially the teaching of spelling.

In this chapter, various techniques have been suggested for testing the writing skill such as completion technique, which involve completion and combination of grapheme and allograph. Another technique for testing writing skill involves spelling i.e. where to use which grapheme. Efforts have also been made in this chapter to construct various tests to exemplify these techniques for testing writing skill with reference to the Urdu language.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS:**

As pointed out earlier, the present method of testing Urdu language skills is based on traditional patterns. The teachers who construct tests in these schools hardly adopt linguistic techniques as they are not well-versed in linguistic science. As a result of which these tests tend to become non-standardized tests. Moreover, in the present method of testing due weightage is not given to testing listening comprehension and speaking. As listening comprehension and speaking are important language skills, they need special attention. Without having mastery over these skills one cannot be considered to have learnt the
language. These skills, therefore, need to be given special attention, and at least some kind of tests should be constructed to test these skills especially at the primary level.

Linguistics contributes much to language testing. Language testing comprises the testing of all the language skills viz., Listening (comprehension), speaking, reading and writing. It is not that under language testing only these skills are tested, but a comprehensive language testing covers all the levels of linguistics such as phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, grammar and semantics and without the knowledge and application of linguistics these areas cannot be tested properly. A linguistic approach to language testing, therefore, is an approach which makes use of the theoretical knowledge of linguistics. For instance testing the listening and speaking skills, the knowledge of the phonological system of the target language is essential. Only then appropriate tests can be constructed and the required skill can be tested properly.

The present study not only contributes to our understanding of the linguistic approach for testing Urdu language skills, but also to our understanding of the theory of testing in general. It can also be used as a model on the basis of which language tests can be constructed to test various skills of Urdu/Hindi language effectively.
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Dedicated
To my
Grand Parents
CERTIFICATE

Certified that the Ph.D. thesis on "A Linguistic Approach for Testing Urdu Language Skills" submitted by Mr. Abdul Aziz Khan is his original research work and has been written under my direct supervision.

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Abdul Aziz Khan
(ABDUL AZIZ KHAN)
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The present study entitled "A Linguistic Approach for Testing Urdu Language Skills" deals with the theoretical application of the knowledge of linguistics to constructing tests for testing the language skills of Urdu. Attempt has also been made in this study to examine the present method of testing the Urdu language. There is enough evidence to prove that the existing method of Urdu language testing is traditional and outdated and the examiners and evaluators have very little or no knowledge of linguistics. Hence, there is very little scope of the application of linguistic knowledge to testing Urdu language skills.

A linguistic approach to language testing is a scientific and objective approach and is based on the theoretical knowledge of linguistics. Since language testing involves language, one cannot ignore the assumptions of linguistics. Linguistics has to offer many things to the teaching of a native and foreign language. Similarly it is recognised that linguistics can also be of great help in evolving the methodology of the construction of language tests.

During the critical analysis of the Urdu question papers of various classes, it was found that the questions
set in these papers are not based on the standardized test. They show a clear lack of standardized measures of testing language proficiency at various levels. Besides, these question papers also lack in reliability and validity. The question papers also lack in the linguistic content. They are mainly based on content oriented questions.

In this study, efforts have been made to look at Urdu language testing from the linguistic viewpoint and evolving a methodology for testing which is based on the linguistic approaches. For this purpose language proficiency or language skills which are to be tested have been categorised into various domains, such as reading comprehension, lexical skills, structure of language, writing and composition, besides testing the listening and speaking skills. In testing of all these elements, the linguistic approaches are involved.

While conducting the present research study, we have critically examined the Urdu question papers of various classes obtained from the schools of Aligarh where Urdu is taught as mother tongue and as a second language. These schools are S.T. High School, Zakir Hussain Higher Secondary School, and Aligarh Public School. The question papers which
were examined for the purpose of this study belong to class I to class VIII and they are spread over various semesters. As pointed out earlier the language tests conducted in these schools are not basically linguistically oriented. They are primarily based on textbooks material consisting of prose and poetry. Hence, there is more weightage on content oriented questions. Moreover, they contain largely the subjective type questions.

The present study is divided into six chapters. In the first chapter some basic techniques and problems in the phonological and grammatical analysis of the language have been discussed. The concept of tests, their types and importance has also been discussed in this chapter. The role of linguistics in teaching language has also been emphasized.

The second chapter deals with the present state of Urdu language testing and its criticism. In the following four chapters the various techniques of language testing and their linguistic approaches have been discussed.

Third chapter deals with testing listening comprehension. In this chapter various techniques for testing listening comprehension are discussed in detail. Since listening comprehension is an important language skill, it should be tested separately.
The fourth chapter comprises testing speaking skill. In this section efforts have been made to present models identifying and differentiating various sounds, grammatical structures, meaning, etc. of the target language and some other features of speech.

Fifth chapter deals with testing reading skill. In this chapter the importance of reading comprehension has been emphasized. Reading comprehension is an important skill which has to be tested with great care. In traditional approach no much attention is paid to this skill. In the existing system of Urdu language testing the questions are generally asked about the central theme of the poem or lesson which the learners have read long back. Sometimes questions are also given relating to the theme of the paragraph, but the paragraph is not mentioned in the question papers. The correct procedure is to give the passage in the question paper and then ask questions based on it. The answer to the questions must be given in multiple-choice form. The effort has been made to provide models for reading comprehension based on multiple-choice tests and 'Cloze' tests.

Sixth and last chapter deals with testing writing skill. In this chapter various techniques and approaches for testing writing skill of a target language has been discussed.
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, 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. De Saussure 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 *mouton* 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 Langue (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 'Langue' 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 is, 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 specialists 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 "Aṣṭadhyāya". 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 unprecedented 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 posthumously 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 as 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 grundzüge de phonologie published in German in 1939 and translated in to 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 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 sound, (\( b, d, g \)), 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.

/Rad/ 'wheel' : /Rat/
/gelb/ 'yellow' : /gelp/

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

/pair/ 'pair'
/bar/ '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 is 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 a 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/, unaspirated /-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 relevant 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 vibrate 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 upto 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 š č 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 can not 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 true every where. 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 them", 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 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'
\(\text{Inflection}\)

book + /-ish/ 'bookish'
\(\text{derivation}\)

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 utterance 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 recognizes 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. Sometimes 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 includes 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 (aṛṣha:, aṛṣhi:), 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.

\[
\text{Are you ready} \quad \text{Interrogative}
\]

\[
\text{you are ready}
\]

\[
\text{you are ready}
\]

\[
\text{are ready}
\]

\[
\text{are ready}
\]
If the number of constituents in any construction is more than two, then such constituents are called multiple constituents eg.

Ahmad and Raheem
   /     \
  Ahmad   and   Raheem

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:

The horse jumped
   /     \
  The horse         jumped
     /      \
    The horse      jump  ed

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,

'B 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 whereby 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 teacher. 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, composability, combinability.

To be confident that whatever 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 into 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 is, 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
trained in identifying contrasting sounds by a same/diff-
erent type of exercise in which the learner simply checks
whether two sounds are the same or different. Here contra-
sting 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 tin-
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.

Contrastive 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 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, achievement 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 predetermined standard. So the test is directly concerned with teaching while an examination is linked with an externally fixed standard of achievement. Since tests and examinations 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 scholarship 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 measuring performance. A test is also school leaving certificate, or a university entrance qualifications, or a matriculation 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 along with 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 grounds. 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 organize 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 anything 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 useful 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 answers are provided and the candidate is to select one of them, e.g.

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
   B
   anything **that** was offered by my friend and I
   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 (True) (False)
2. The stars shine in the day (True) (False)
3. Pandit Nehru was the father of Nation (True) (False)

The construction of these tests requires more amount of time, practice and certain amount of creative ability. On the other hand they measure 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.
2.1 Present State Of Urdu Language Testing:

Urdu Language testing, in present day schools, to a great extent, follows the traditional methods of language testing. These language tests are constructed in accordance with the traditional methodology of measuring language skills. In present Urdu language testing system, standarized language tests are very rarely found. Examination of language test papers shows that different examination papers emphasize few aspects of testing and neglect others. Not even a single question paper has been found which covers all the language aspects of the testing. It seems that teachers who are responsible for the construction of language tests have no idea of standarized methods of language testing.

The present state of Urdu language testing can be described under the following sections.

2.1.1 Testing Reading Comprehension:

Reading consists of grasping meaning through its written representation. Measuring reading skill involves the visual identification of all the alphabets or
written characters of the language concerned and their different shapes, in different combinations such as initial, medial and final and also the combination of letters with another letter (or letters) to form words and combination of words to form sentences.

Reading comprehension forms an important part of language testing from the beginning up to higher level. Right from class I to VIII the very first question of the test papers of each class covers reading comprehension. The question based on reading comprehension, tests candidate's ability to read and understand what is 'stated' or 'implied' in the written passage. These passages are not given in question papers. They form the part of the text or lesson in the textbook prescribed for them. The questions are detailed questions asking for information directly stated in the text. Some questions are also main idea questions seeking information on the central theme of the passage.

At the primary level these questions are short and simple. But at the middle or higher level they are comparatively larger.
Following are some questions covering reading comprehension at class II, VI.

**Q. Answer the following questions:**

1) /tare kahani nikalte hai/  
   (where do stars appear?)

2) /suroj dubne par kya hota hai/  
   (what happens when the sun sets?)

3) /lafz Gariib xaina kis maqne par istemaal hota hai/  
   (on what occasion the word 'Gharibkhana' is used)

2.1.2 **Testing lexical skill:**

A test of lexical skill is constructed in order to test the candidate's knowledge of vocabulary and his ability to use the items appropriately. This type of question is asked the candidates to demonstrate their knowledge about the meaning of words. Lexical ability is also tested by asking the candidates to provide synonyms and antonyms. These type of questions are generally asked both at the primary and middle school level.

a) **Word Meaning:**

Word meaning is an important method of testing lexical skill of the candidate. For testing the word meaning, a number of words are given in the question paper and
the candidate is asked to supply the meaning of such words.

At the primary level the words whose meanings are generally asked, are simple and concrete words, but at the higher levels besides being simple these words are also abstract in nature. Following are the questions relating word-meaning from class III and VIII.

Q.1. Give the meaning of the following words:

- /maqām/ 'place'
- /xud/ 'self'
- /haraːrat/ 'heat'
- /hifaːzat/ 'protection'

Q.2. Write down the meaning of the following words:

- /farzand/ 'son'
- /dilkash/ 'pretty'
- /danishmand/ 'wise'
- /sarfarosh/ 'brave'

b) **Synonyms:**

Synonym is also an important tool for testing lexical skill. It can be effectively used to test the
candidate’s knowledge of lexicon. It forms an important question of language testing at primary and middle class levels. Synonyms are frequently asked almost in every class except class I and II. At primary level the words are very simple and concrete, but at the higher level it tends to become abstract. Following are the questions covering synonyms at class V and VII.

Q.1. Write down the synonyms of the following words:

/paːniː/ 'water'
/suːraːj/ 'sun'
/chaiːd/ 'moon'
/tairə/ 'star'

Q.2. Give the synonyms of the following words:

/aːqaː/ 'master'
/xuʃiː/ 'happiness'
/daraxt/ 'tree'
/aːsmain/ 'sky'

c) Antonyms:

Like synonyms, antonyms are also used
as an important tool for testing lexical skill. It forms an important question in language testing both at primary and middle school levels. Questions relating to antonyms are generally asked to test the candidate's vocabulary. Following are the questions covering the antonyms from Class IV and VIII.

Q.1. **Write down the Antonyms of the following words**:

- /xu:bse:rati/ 'beautiful'
- /aq:1mand/ 'wise'
- /ghora:/ 'horse'
- /gunash:/ 'sin'

Q.2. **Give the antonyms of the following words**:

- /jannat/ 'heaven'
- /rahm/ 'kindness'
- /zarurati/ 'necessity'
- /a:rzii/ 'temporary'
- /shak/ 'doubt'
- /dost/ 'friend'

2.1.3 **Testing Structure of Language**:

The knowledge of the structure of language
is very essential for the students learning a language. To test the knowledge of the structure of language, various tests are constructed which measure the candidate's ability to use the structure of language in oral and written expressions. The aim of testing the structure of language is also to judge the learner's ability of making the functional use of language in appropriate context.

These skills are measured by constructing the tests like, sentence completion, error detection, sentence comprehension, formal grammar and transformations, etc. The questions which test the structure of language are frequently asked at both primary and middle school level.

a) Sentence Completion

Sentence completion is an important test and is designed to test the learner's ability to use the structure of language. In other words we can say that it is designed to judge the candidate's knowledge about the structure of language that up to which level he knows the structure of a language. Under this test the candidate is asked to complete the sentence by filling the blanks. At the initial or primary level the words which are given for the completion of
the sentence are simple consisting of concrete nouns or simple verbs. Following are examples from the examination papers of primary and middle class.

Q. Complete the sentence with the help of words given below:

/i:dga:h/ 'idgah'
/saf/ 'row'
/pa: ni:/ 'water'
/chusti/ 'smartness'

1. /lo:g i:d ki nama:2 ...........me pa:hte hai/
2. /insa:n..........ke baGair zinda: nahi rah sakta: hai/
3. /nama:2 me...............si: dhi: rakhna: cha:hiye/
4. /varzish se badan me...............a: ti: hai/

Q. With the help of the following words complete the sentences given below:

/bhi:r/ 'crowd'
/mitha:i:/ 'sweet'
/mushkil/ 'difficult'

1. /mele me bahot...........thi/
2. /dariya: pair karna: bahot............hai/
3. /baizair me..............ki dukain thi/

(Class VI)

b) **Error Detection**:

Error detection is also an important method of testing the structure of language. In this type of test, few sentences are given to the students and asked to find out the errors which these sentences contain. These type of questions are very frequently asked in the examination papers. These questions are asked both at primary and higher levels and they are generally based on the texts taught in the class. Following are the questions relating to error detection at Class V and VIII.

Q. **Given below are few sentences of which only one sentence is correct. You have to tick the correct sentence:**

1. It is bad to help others.
2. Those who respect their elders, are noble persons.
3. It is better to fight with everyone.
Q. Of the following sentences, some are right and some are wrong. You are required to tick the write ones:

1. The sky is blue.
2. Madam Curie discovered the radium.
3. The sun rises in the north.
4. The lion always are to be in the cities.

c) Transformations:

Transformation tests are very useful in measuring the knowledge of the structure of language. Under these tests, the candidates are asked to change active sentences into passive and vice-versa. These transformations involve certain aspects of grammar. The knowledge of grammatical rules can be tested appropriately through the questions on transformations. Following are the questions relating to the transformations from the question papers at Class V and VII.

Q. Change the following sentences into passive voice:

1. /ra:m khaiːː naː khaːː rahaː hai/  
   (Ram is eating food)
2. /siːtːaː kaiːm kık rahiː hai/  
   (Sita is doing work)
3. /ram sā:p ko ma:r raha: hai/
   (Ram is killing the snake)

Q. Change the following sentences into passive voice:

1. /voh gaina: ga:rahi: hai/
   (she is singing a song)

2. /ra:m kita:b pa:gh raha: hai/
   (Ram is reading a book)

3. /kari:m futba:l khel raha: hai/
   (kareem is playing football)

d) Formal Grammar:

It also constitutes an important method of testing the structure of language. Questions on formal grammar are asked very frequently in various classes. These questions include singular and plural, gender formation and other grammatical categories. These tests are constructed with a view to judge the grammatical knowledge of the students. Questions relating to grammar are found at both primary and middle school levels.

I) Form of plural from singular:

It is an important test measuring the knowledge
of plural forms. It also covers the range of vocabulary of the learner. The questions relating to the formation of plural from singular are frequently asked from Class I to VIII. The plural formation not only involves the Perso-Arabic words, but also the words of Indic origin. At the lower level the words are mainly of Indic origin. Following are examples of the questions which are asked in the examination papers of Classes III to VIII.

Q. Write down the plural of the following words:

/larka:/ 'boy'
/yadga:r/ 'memorial'
/larki:/ 'girl'
/ba:idsha:h/ 'king'

Q. Give the plural of the following words:

/vaqt/ 'time'
/takli:f/ 'pain'
/xabar/ 'news'
/Gair/ 'stranger'
ii) Gender Formation:

In Urdu, gender is an important grammatical category. Urdu has both grammatical and natural gender. There are very distinct gender markers in Urdu. The question on gender are asked at both primary and middle school levels. Following are a few examples of questions which are asked at the primary and middle levels.

Q. Change the gender of the followings words:

(Class V)

/beti/ 'daughter'
/rani/ 'queen'
/laṛka/ 'boy'
/sherni/ 'lioness'

Q. Change the following words into opposite gender:

(Class VI)

/ghoṛa/ 'horse'
/kutta/ 'dog'
/haṛthi/ 'elephant'
/din/ 'day'
2.1.4 **Testing Formal Grammar:**

The questions on formal grammar are very frequently asked in lower classes. The students are asked to define different parts of speech and give examples. These questions cover only the traditional grammar or so called "School Grammar". Following are the questions on grammar from Class IV to VIII.

Q. Write down the definition of the 'adjective' and give four suitable examples.
Q. Define 'verb' with suitable examples.
Q. Define 'noun' and its various kinds with suitable examples.
Q. What are the various kinds of 'adjectives'. Define with suitable examples.

2.1.5 **Testing Writing Composition:**

Writing composition forms an important part of language teaching. The writing composition is also given much importance in testing. It covers considerable part of test papers. The purpose of these tests is to test the candidate's knowledge to communicate through the writings and to organize such writings in a logical sequence.
It is used to test the learner's ability to use the language in writing and to find out that, at what level a candidate is able to read and write the language with ease. Questions on writing composition are frequently asked at every level from Class I to VIII. These questions cover spellings, idioms, proverbs, precis writing, text organisation, letter writing and composition.

a) Spellings:

Questions on spellings are very commonly asked at the primary level. The candidates are asked to form correct words using the appropriate alphabets. Following are the questions asked at Class I and II to test the learner's writing skill.

Q. Supply the appropriate letter in the space given to complete the following words:

\[
\begin{align*}
& \text{را} - \text{ی} \\
& \text{دو} - \text{ی} \\
& \text{دل} - \text{ا}
\end{align*}
\]

Q. Supply the appropriate letter in the space given to complete the following words:

\[
\begin{align*}
& \text{ش} - \text{ی} \\
& \text{سو} - \text{ج}
\end{align*}
\]
b) **Idioms and Proverbs**:

Idioms and proverbs also form an important tool for testing writing composition. It forms an important portion of the question papers, testing language. Generally, these type of questions are asked at middle and higher secondary level. At the primary level questions on idioms and proverbs are rarely asked.

Following are the questions relating to the idioms and proverbs asked at Class V, VII and VIII.

Q. Write down the meaning of the following idioms and use them in your own sentences:

1. /naːk par Gussaː honaː/
2. /sadhaj lenaː/
3. /jaːn par bannaː/

Q. Use the following idioms in your own sentences:

1. /Gairat dilaːnaː /
2. /ausaːn xataː honaː/

Q. Write down the meaning of the following idioms and use them in your own sentences:

1. /nigath badalnaː /
2. /teoriː xaːraːnaː /
3. /vaːre nyaːve honaː /
C) **Precis writing:**

It constitutes an important method of testing the learner's knowledge of grammar and composition of the language he is learning. It is also an important tool of measuring the ability to comprehend. Precis writing is avoided at the primary level. But at the middle level questions on precis are generally set. Following are the examples of the questions covering the precis writing at class VIII.

Q. Write down the precis of the following passage in your own words:


3) **Text organisation:**

Text organisation is an important device to measure the learner's ability to organize his thought in an appropriate and logical manner. Under this type of test, a few lines of poetry or prose are given without any order and the candidate is asked to organize them semantically.
and logically and put them into order in which they were written originally by the poet or author. Such type of questions are generally asked at the higher level. At the primary level these tests are avoided. Following are the questions from the examination papers of Class VII and VIII.

Q. Organize the following lines of poetry in a proper sequence:

/wodaĩgã mẽ koyal wo jaṅgal mẽ mor /
/isi: mẽ hai is zindagi: ki: baha: r/
/wo ganga:ki lahrã wo jamuna: kãzo: r/
/hawa: mẽ daraxto: ka wo jhu: mna: /
/wo barsa:tki halki halki phuha: r /
/wo pattõ ka phu:lõ ka mûh çumna: /

Q. Paraphrase the following lines of poetry:

1. /bulbul tha: koi: udaïs baïtha: /
2. /pahuçi kis tarah se aïshiya: tak/
3. /aï te hãi jo kâïm duïsarõ ke/
e) Essay writing and composition:

Essay writing and composition is an important tool for testing the learner's ability of writing and composition. The candidates are asked to write an essay and composition in order to check the ability to express their ideas in written form. It also tests the level of the learner with regard to language composition. These tests are generally asked at both primary and middle levels. Following are the questions asked in the examination papers of Class V, VII and VIII.

Q. Write at least ten lines on any one of following topics:
   a) Our school.
   b) Any festival.
   c) My hobbies.

Q. Write an application to your Principal for granting two days leave and also give reasons for your proceeding on leave.

Q. Write an essay on any one of the topics given below (at least 200 words):
   a) My Best Friend.
   b) My Favourite Teacher.
   c) A Tour to Capital.
2.2 Limitations of Urdu Language Testing:

2.2.0 Introduction:

Presently, very old and traditional pattern of language testing has been adopted for Urdu. The examination of various question papers pertaining to different classes of various schools show that present testing technique adopted by these language teachers is outdated. In these question papers much emphasis is put on subjective questions. It seems that the teachers concerned have no ideas about the modern methods of language testing. The test constructed by these teachers lacks validity, reliability and standardization.

2.2.1 Language skills covered:

The question papers, besides covering the thematic as well as linguistic content also cover the language skills such as comprehension, speaking, reading and writing.

2.2.1.1 Comprehension:

As far as comprehension is concerned, not much attention is paid to it in our schools as comprehension and speaking are the skills which a native speaker mastered informally. Majority of the students of the
schools covered under this study are native speakers of Urdu. That's why teachers in these schools do not pay much attention to comprehension. Since a large number of students belong to the Urdu speaking community, this skill is taken for granted. It is assumed by the language teachers that most of the students have mastery over this skill as they speak Urdu as their native language.

As we know, listening comprehension is one of the four basic language skills which should be taught to the learner because without having mastery over this skill one cannot be perfect in language. Comprehension means understanding pronunciation, grammar, recognising vocabulary and grasping meaning through listening.

As a teacher of language one should construct exercises to practice each of the aspects of listening. As listening comprehension is one of the important language skills, it needs special attention. Without having mastery over it one cannot be considered to have learnt the language. Special attention, therefore, should be paid to this skill and some types of questions should be asked at least at the initial level.

2.2.1.2 Speaking:

Speaking is one of the four basic skills of language. Without having mastery over this skill one cannot
claim to have the knowledge of a language. By having mastery over speaking means a person, who speaks Urdu, for example, can produce the characteristic Urdu speech sounds and sound patterns, both in isolation and in combination. He should use appropriate stress and intonation patterns, appropriate words and structures to express the intended meaning. He should also recall words and structures quickly and organise his thoughts and ideas in logical sequence, and should adjust his speech according to his audience, situation and subject matter. Lado (1961:240) suggests that, "speaking ability is described as the ability to express oneself in life situations, or the ability to report acts or situations in precise words, or the ability to converse, or to express a sequence of ideas fluently". When we examine the present methods of Urdu language testing, we find that language teachers do not pay much attention to this skill too. The explanation behind this negligence is that since mostly students belong to Urdu speech community, they have already mastery over this skill. However, it is well known fact that this skill is very important in learning a language. It is, therefore, essential for language teachers to pay
due attention to this skill. Different tests should be designed in order to test the students ability to speak the language with correct pronunciation. These tests will go a long way in improving the speaking ability of the learners despite the fact that they belong to Urdu speech community.

2.2.1.3 Reading:

Like other language skills, reading is also a complex skill which involves a number of simultaneous operations. Some of the more obvious aspects of this complex skill are that a person who is learning how to write Urdu language for example, cannot be treated master unless he is able to read a passage at normal speed and understand the lexical and the structural meaning of the words, phrases and sentences. He should also be able to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context and able to distinguish between the writer's opinion and statement of facts. He should also be able to locate the 'topic sentence' of a paragraph, make a summary of the important points of the passage and recognise the meaning of various graphic signals i.e. punctuation marks, paragraph identification and capitalization, etc.
This skill is covered in the examination papers of all the classes from primary to higher secondary level. Reading involves the visual identification of alphabets and their combinations. Unless the learners recognise the shape of the letters, they cannot read the language. The Urdu language presents special problem of reading. In Urdu, each grapheme has various allographs which sometime appear to be totally different from their graphemes. The combination of these allographs is also not very easy. In Urdu, thus, to read with fluency requires lot of practice.

The way in which questions are asked in papers is not correct. All the questions are asked directly. These questions are based on the text but the text is not given in the question papers. The correct procedure would have been to give brief passage in question paper, then ask questions based on that passage. They may cover areas like main idea questions, inference questions, cause and effect questions and vocabulary. These questions will test the learner's ability of reading with comprehension.

2.2.1.4 Writing:

It is one of the four basic skills. Writing is the graphic representation of speech. What we speak can
be represented in writing which involves the visual shapes of various kinds. Writing is based on the alphabetic system. These alphabets are the basic units of writing. Their identification and their formation by hand involves writing. Different languages have evolved different methods of writing system. The Urdu language has evolved writing system which is based on the perso-Arabic script:

1. Urdu writing system has certain characteristic features for example, it is written from right to left contrary to the English and Hindi writing systems which are written from left to right.

2. It is based on the shape similarity of graphemes and not on the sound similarity of graphemes. In other words the Urdu alphabets are arranged according to the similarity of shapes for example:

3. The Urdu graphemes when occur initially, medially and finally as connectors, they change their shapes resulting into allographs. Urdu graphemes therefore, have considerable number of allographic shapes.

4. The Urdu writing system also uses various kinds of diacritical marks, some of which are even used in learned books. Otherwise the diacritical marks are limited to the books for the beginners.
Writing usually goes by the name of 'composition'. Composition means 'putting or arranging things in a certain order'. In other words, this skill involves the movement of hand in the formation of various alphabets and their combination. To test this skill various tests are designed which test the candidate's ability to communicate through writing and to organise such writings in a logical sequence that is appropriate for the communication.

The coverage of this skill is not made properly by the Urdu language teachers. Questions are designed to measure this skill are very limited in nature and they are asked generally at primary level. At the middle level attention is paid to the questions such as idioms and proverbs, letter writing and compositions, precis writing. At this level the questions relating to spelling and other aspects of writing are generally not asked.

2.3 Content of Question Papers:

2.3.1 Thematic Content:

Thematic content covers the theme of the lesson. A lesson is built up on certain themes such as adventure, travels, stories, historical anecdote, games, myth and legend, birds and animals etc. The questions relating to
these themes are called content oriented questions. These themes are called content oriented questions. In present day Urdu language testing, following types of content oriented questions are covered:

a) Main Idea Questions:

Main idea questions are generally asked in almost every class. Such questions are set with a view to seeking information about the central theme of the lesson taught in the class. These lessons included in the textbook prescribed to these classes. Following are the examples of the questions which are asked at the middle class level.

Q. Give the central theme of the lesson "Dastgiri"

(Class VII)

Q. Write the Central theme of the lesson "Garmi ka mausam"

(Class VII)

The correct procedure would have been to give a paragraph in the question paper and then ask the main idea questions because a student who has read his lesson much before the examination would find it difficult to keep all the informations in mind.
b) **Sequence Question**:

These questions are very frequently asked in almost every class. In this type of question, the purpose of the testing is to assess the knowledge of the events in order of occurrence. Sequence questions are also based on the text taught in the classroom. Following are the examples of sequence questions which are asked in the classes from I to VI.

Q. What kinds of clouds are spread in the sky?
Q. Where do the stars appear?
Q. Why is forest necessary for the human life?
Q. Who invented the gramophone?

In these questions also, no passage is given in the question paper. The correct method of asking the sequence question is to give a paragraph of about 100-250 words from the textbook and then ask the questions based on it. This will test the candidate's ability to read and understand what is stated in a written passage.

C) **Fill in the Blanks Questions**:

These questions are also found in question papers of various classes. The purpose of these questions is to assess the knowledge of the students about the lesson. These questions are based on textbooks. e.g.
Q. The horse saves the shop keeper and brings him to his.
Q. Rishi Drosa gave.......... to Shakuntla. (Class VIII)

The correct procedure would have been to give the paragraph in the question paper and ask these questions. It will certainly test the learner's knowledge of reading and understanding the given passage.

d) Summary Questions:

The questions based on summary writing is frequently asked in almost every class. The purpose of these questions is to seek information about the lesson or to judge the student's ability to understand from reading the text. In other words, we can say that upto what level a student is able to grasp the theme of the lesson from reading it and the way in which he explains or summarises is also taken into account. The following questions based on summary writing, were asked at different classes.

Q. Write down the summary of the lesson "Parogaji"
   (Class -VII)

Q. Write down the summary of the lesson "Parhne ka Shauq"
   (Class-VIII)

Q. Write the summary of the lesson "Jangal ka badshah"
   (Class-IV)
This existing procedure is not satisfactory because it is very difficult for the students to remember all these things too long. Here this method of asking question is just like to judge the memory rather than judging the student's ability to understand.

The correct procedure would have been to give a paragraph of hundred or two hundred words in the question paper and then ask the questions related to summary, central theme, and such other things.

2.3.2. Linguistic Content:
Linguistic content refers to vocabulary (words, phrases, idioms, proverbs, usages), grammar, sentence patterns, registers etc. The language question papers must contain heavy amount of linguistic content, but the general practice is that in Urdu language question papers about 50% questions are based on the thematic content.

In the papers analysed, the following type of linguistically oriented questions are asked:

a) Grammar and Composition:
The purpose of these tests is to seek information about the grammar of the language which is studied by the
learner and to judge the learner's knowledge about the structure of language, words and their usage and function. The questions about grammar and composition are very common at both primary and middle school level. The existing procedure of seeking information about grammar and composition is that, teachers ask direct questions to define verb, noun, adjectives etc. Following are the examples of such questions which were asked in the examination papers of various classes.

Q. Define 'verb' with suitable examples.  
   (Class V)

Q. Define three of the following with suitable examples.  
   (Class VIII)
   a. Noun  
   b. Verb  
   c. Pronoun  
   d. Adjective

Q. Define 'noun' with suitable examples.  
   (Class IV)

The proper procedure would have been to give the students different sentences and then ask to findout
the different grammatical categories such as noun, adjective, verb, pronoun, etc. or they should have given different noun, verb, adjective etc in one column and their categories in an other column and then ask the students to match these words with their categories.

Another method of testing grammar would have been to give words to the students which belong to the noun category and ask to write down their adjectives. An other method is that we give a sentence to the students and ask to choose the adjective, verb, noun etc. within the sentence. Here we can also give four alternatives. The student has to select one of them.

b) **Antonyms**:  
Antonyms are generally asked in almost every class at both primary and middle school levels. The purpose of this type of question is to judge the student's knowledge about vocabulary and their ability to use them properly. The questions which are generally asked in various examination papers of different classes are direct questions. For example, following questions are asked at various Classes from IV to VIII.

Q. Write down the antonyms of the following words:

/zaːliː/ 'mean'

/nærmɪː/ 'softness'

/jæːhil/ 'illiterate'
Q. Give the antonyms of the following words:

/nazdi:k/ 'near'
/inteha:/ 'enough'
/mushfiq/ 'kind'

The existing method of asking antonyms directly is not the proper way of judging the ability of the learners about their knowledge of vocabulary. The examiner should have given words in one column and their opposites in another column and ask the students to match the words with their opposite. This method is more scientific than asking question directly. Another method would have been to give the words to the students with four alternatives A, B, C and D and ask to choose the opposite word within four alternatives.

c) Synonyms:

These questions are designed in order to test the candidate's knowledge about vocabulary and its usage. These questions also check the knowledge of the students, that how to use the vocabulary in the language. These questions are not very frequently asked in any examination papers from class I to VIII. This is one of the major drawback to the procedure of language testing and evaluation which Urdu language teachers adopted presently.
d) **Plural Formation** :

These tests are also designed to test the student's knowledge about vocabulary and its use. Questions based on plural formation are very common and have been found in the examination papers of almost every Class. These questions are based on the textbook prescribed to the students. But the drawback is that these questions are directly asked the students. The correct procedure would have been to give the word with four alternatives and then ask the student to choose correct plural forms among the given words. In other words we can say that at this level the type of questions such as fill in the blanks, open-ended, and multiple choice etc. should be used. Another method would be that we should give the words in one column and their plurals in the other column (but exactly not match them) and then ask the students to match the words and their plural forms.

e) **Word Meaning** :

The purpose of these questions is to seek information about the learner's knowledge of vocabulary and his ability to use this vocabulary properly. It is also one of the best methods to judge the candidate's knowledge about his language skill. These questions are very frequently asked by the Urdu language teachers at various Classes.
But the existing method of testing 'word meaning' in Urdu language is not updated. Language teachers generally ask the direct questions about the word meaning. Following are the examples from different question papers of Urdu language testing at various classes.

Q. Give the meaning of the following words:

(Class III)

/xud/ 'self'
/xushiyt/ 'employment'
/haisiyat/ 'status'

Q. Write down the meaning of the following words:

(Class V)

/paiGa:mbar/ 'messenger'
/ina:m/ 'reward'
/pi:ri:/ 'descent'

The best procedure would have been to give the words with four alternatives A, B, C and D in which one meaning should be correct and the students are required to choose the correct meaning out of the four alternatives.
Another method would be that we should give the words in one column and their meanings in another column, but these meanings should not be in order according to words, then ask the students to match the appropriate meaning. This method would prove better than to ask questions directly.

F. Idioms and Proverbs:

The questions based on idioms and proverbs are very frequently asked in various question papers belonging to Urdu language testing at various Classes. These questions are asked in order to seek information about the learner's knowledge of the ability to communicate through writing and to organise such writings in a logical sense which should be appropriate to the communication intent. Following are the examples of these questions asked at various Classes.

Q. Use the following idioms in your own sentence:
   /Gairat dilaina:/ (Class VIII)
   /phulna phalna:/
   /ao san xata hona: /

Q. Write down the meaning of the following idioms and use them into your own sentence: (Class VI)
The correct procedure would have been not to ask questions directly. Here we have to give idioms and their meanings with four alternatives and ask the students to choose the correct meaning from them.

Another procedure would have been that we can make two columns. In first column we give the idioms and in the second column we should give the meanings of the idioms but not exactly matched. Then ask the students to match correctly the idioms and their meanings given in second column.

2.4 Methodology of Testing:

2.4.1 Types of questions:

The examination of Urdu language test papers relating to various classes reveals the fact that the methodology of testing adopted by Urdu language teachers is very poor and defective. The language teachers are still following traditional methods of testing the language. The examination papers do not cover all aspects of language testing. Different papers emphasize different aspect of
language. This is the major drawback in the testing system adopted by the Urdu language teachers.

Another defect of the present Urdu language testing system is that most of the test papers are based on the subjective type questions. As a result of which scoring becomes highly subjective. Since subjective tests are not reliable because of the fluctuations in their score, these tests cannot be considered suitable for language testing. There is very less weightage or almost no weightage is given to the subjective questions. The examination papers of Urdu language testing hardly contain the objective type questions such as matching tests, multiple-choice, tests, truefalse tests, completion tests etc.

2.4.2 Methodology of Testing Contents:

Present Urdu language testing system shows that the questions asked in these tests are content oriented and based on the lessons and the text. Very little importance is given to the linguistically oriented questions or questions relating to the structure of the language.

2.4.3 Methodology of Testing Structure and Grammar:

In present Urdu language testing, testing of grammar is based on very old pattern. The students are asked to define
various parts of speech and give examples. This is not the proper way for testing grammar. A considerable part of the question paper covers the literature at middle and higher secondary level. The literary part of question paper covers the explanation of a portion of poetry and prose with reference to context.

2.4.4 Reliability, Validity and Standardization:

Reliability refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument, that is if a student is tested again and again the result or score must always will be the same. If there will be fluctuation in the score then we can say that test is not reliable. Reliability refers to the consistency of a test in measuring whatever it measures. In other words it yields the same result when administered to the same individuals on different occasions. According to Paterno (1965:378), "validity can only be obtained when we state clearly the objective of 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. Let me explain the last point. 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". So 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 measures only pronunciation and nothing else, then it is a valid test of pronunciation.

On the other hand reliable tests give the same results every time when it is used on the same individuals, 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". He further discussed the various causes of unreliability. Following are the possible causes of unreliability:

1. Ambiguous questions.
2. Question set in such a way that lucky guesses allow the pupil to proceed to the correct result by a process of elimination.
3. Questions which cover only a small sample of the skills or knowledge involved.
Questions which invite responses of different kinds and place too much stress on the qualitative judgement of the examiner.

Here the last two points are the common causes of unreliability in the examination papers set by the language teachers.

Presently Urdu language teachers emphasise on the subjective type questions that lacks reliability. Because their scoring is highly subjective, due to that there is no accuracy in scoring. If different language teachers examine these tests the score will be different.

Standardization refers to the process of administering a carefully constructed test to a large representative sample of examinees under standard conditions for the purpose of determining or establishing the norms. The present Urdu language testing pattern shows that they not only lack reliability, validity but also standardization, scoreability, economy and administrability.
TESTING LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILL

3.1 Role of Comprehension in Language Learning:

Comprehension is one of the four basic skills required to master a language. Comprehension is careful hearing of language. It implies understanding and recognition of sounds and grammatical patterns of language. It is actually preparation for speaking, because one who does not listen cannot understand the language and eventually cannot speak. As Lado (1961:206) suggests "auditory comprehension of a foreign language means recognition, control of the signalling elements of the language in communication situations". In other words, we can say that comprehension means to understand pronunciation, grammatical structure, recognition of vocabulary, and grasping the meaning of words in second or target language. By auditory comprehension we do not mean the elements of language that trouble the native speaker in his use of language. Here we include those language elements that native speakers understand by the mere fact of being native speakers of the language. To speak a language, a learner must have opportunity to hear it, till he understands the language. Understanding speech is more difficult as compared to writing because there are peculiarities of pronunciation. Every person has typical pronunciation
that differs from others. Furthermore, speech has some qualities which lack in written language eg. intonation, stress, pitch, juncture etc. Secondly, some times the speech may be too fast.

3.1.1 Auditory Comprehension Problems:

According to the theory not all the signalling units and patterns of the foreign language are equally difficult to master. The student tends to transfer the signalling system of the native language and as a result of those units and patterns that are different between the two languages, represent the learning problems. Testing the student on these problems is testing him in his mastery of the foreign language. These problems will occur in the pronunciation, stress, intonation, grammatical structure and the vocabulary of the language.

In preparation of auditory comprehension test, a linguistic description of native and target languages is needed in order to compare these descriptions to find out the differences. Because when we find the differences between native and target languages, we can predict the actual learning problems easily. As in the case of testing stress, pronunciation, intonation, grammatical structure and vocabulary, we need a list of important problems to be tested.
At least depending on the length and purpose of the test, most problems are selected on the basis of frequency of occurrence, range of usefulness and level of mastery.

As the learning problems differ from native speaker to native speaker, there should also be the difference in measuring the learning abilities. The problem areas of English speakers learning Urdu may be different from those of Urdu speakers learning English. The test design for these two speakers may vary in nature.

3.2 Techniques for Testing the Comprehension of Sounds:

The general technique for testing recognition of sounds of a foreign language, as suggested by Lado (1961:46) is that, "the examiner reads aloud one or more utterances, and he checks the students to find out if they have distinguished the problem sound or contrast. To test language in use, which is our aim, he checks only phonemic units and contrasts, since the moment he checks phonetic differences within a phoneme he is checking technical linguistic training rather than language use".

The voice of the examiner, which constitutes the stimulus containing the problem being tested, can be
presented live, directly by the examiner. But the case in which the teacher has evidence that his/her own pronunciation is not up to the standard he may use a recorded test instead of his own voice. A tape-recorder is at present the most satisfactory instrument for this purpose. Various techniques suggested by Lado (1961) for testing listening comprehension are discussed below:

3.2.1 Sound to Graphic Symbol:
3.2.1.1 Sound to Digits:

This technique has many variations. Essentially it consists of words that contain one sound or another of troublesome pair as the stimulus which the student must identify by the numbers 1, 2, or 3. The examiner tells the students to write 1 if they hear one of the sounds. The examiner then reads his list of words, pausing briefly after each to allow the students to write 1, 2 or 3. Reading each word once is enough. It approaches speaking and listening more than reading each word twice.

We can exemplify this technique through testing the contrast between Urdu /r/ and /ɾ/ as in /parəː/ 'abandoned' and /pəɾhaː/ 'read' which is troublesome to the speakers of English and Arabic or many other speakers.
We prepare a list of ten words containing either /r/ or /rh/. Following is a set:

/daor/ 'to run' /paɾa:/ (abandoned or to lie down)
/parh/ 'to read' /paɾhə:/ 'have read'
/kəɾə:/ 'hard' /səɾə:/ 'rotten'
/kəɾhə:/ 'painted' /gəɾhə:/ 'dense'
/toɾə:/ 'to pluck' /moɾhə:/ 'seat'

The examiner tells the students to write 1 if they hear the consonant /r/ like that of /paɾa:/ 'to lie down' and to write 2 if they hear the sound like /rh/ as in /paɾhə:/ 'have read'. He then reads the ten words of his list, leaving brief pause between words to allow the students to write their response.

Following is the list of words which can be used while testing the comprehension of sounds of Urdu language.

a) /x/ and /k/ as in:
/xidamat/ 'service'
/kaːm/ 'work'
/xaraːb/ 'bad'
/kaːstib/ 'scribe'
/xaːdɪm/ 'servant'
/kurtə:/ \textit{'an upper garment'}
/xuddə:r/ \textit{'selfrestraining'}
/kirdə:r/ \textit{'character'}
/xud/ \textit{'self'}
/ka:mya:b/ \textit{'successful'}

b) /z/ and /j/ as in:
/zami:n/ \textit{‘earth’}
/jahā:/ \textit{‘world’}
/ja:hi:l/ \textit{‘illiterate’}
/zaxm/ \textit{‘wound’}
/zali:l/ \textit{‘disgraceful’}
/jali:l/ \textit{‘great’}
/zindagi:/ \textit{‘life’}
/ja:m/ \textit{‘bowl’}
/ja:mun/ \textit{‘jamblin’}
/zikr/ \textit{‘recitation’}

c) /p/ and /ph/ as in:
/pal/ \textit{‘moment’}
/phal/ \textit{‘fruit’}
/pat/ \textit{‘side of the door’}
/phat/ \textit{‘broken or cracked’}
Various items can be selected in order to test the listening comprehension among the various phonemes of Urdu language.

This technique is very convenient and valid for informal classroom use. Such tests can be prepared, administered and scored in a few minutes.

The limitation of this technique is that it may not be used beyond its effective range. Since the words have to be identified by digits, only two or three sounds can be tested each time.

3.2.1.2 Sound to Letters:

In languages where learning to write corresponds with learning to pronounce, a 'sound to written symbols' technique can be used to advantage for informal classroom testing. It consists of a set of words or short sentences containing the troublesome sounds as the stimulus, and
the students have to mark the written word or phrase that matches what he hears.

We can explain this technique through an example. Following are two examples from Urdu for English speakers. The examiner says /ga:ri:/ 'vehicle' in Urdu. The students choose from the three written words.

/ga:ri:/ 'vehicle'
/ga:qi:/ 'dense'
/ga:li:/ 'abuse'

The examiner says /shuma:r/ 'count'
The students choose from the words:
/shika:r/ 'hunting'
/shuma:r/ 'count'
/sita:r/ 'sitar, violen'

This technique is, in one sense, more flexible than earlier one because the sounds being tested are not announced to the students in advance. Several occurrences of the sounds may be permitted in each choice without complicating the instruction.

The limitation of this technique involves the factor of spelling. We often do not know whether the error was caused by inaccurate hearing or by a spelling confusion.
3.2.1.3 Dictation:

This is one of well-known techniques. It consists of reading to the students a set of words or utterances and the students write down what they hear. If the stimulus is made of words or phrases containing the troublesome sounds, dictation can be used effectively as an informal classroom test.

The advantage of dictation is that it can range freely over any and all sounds and it can be prepared easily. It does not require special answer sheets and can be scored objectively.

The disadvantages of this method are that a heavy spelling factor is introduced and it requires active mastery of spelling, before hearing discrimination is achieved. Another shortcoming is that the student has to write the entire word or utterance as his answer, and in doing so he wastes time with those parts of the words that are not crucial to the test. Writing itself is slower than listening and the whole technique of dictation should be used with caution for the sake of economy.

3.2.1.4 Sound to Phonemic Symbol:

This technique should be used when students become familiar with a phonemic alphabet of the second
language. Once we know that students are familiar with phonemic alphabets of the foreign language, it is possible to have the students listen to the spoken stimulus and either write the phonemic symbols of what they hear or check the phonemic representation of what they hear if it is given on their answer sheets. In every case the stimulus must be words or sentences that contain the problem sounds.

This technique can be applied in several ways. One possible way is that the student merely writes the symbol that represents the problem sound which has been identified as the only vowel of the word, the last vowel of the utterance, the first or last consonant of the words. For example, to test Urdu phonemes /x/ and /z/ of an English student learning Urdu as a second language, the teacher speaks different words which contain these sounds initially, medially and finally as stimulus. The student has to indicate that at which position these sounds occur.

```
xara:b/  'bad'  /axba:r/  'news paper'
/sha:x/  'branch'  /a:za:d/  'free'
/anda:z/  'style'  /za:t/  'cast'
```

Another possible way is that several choices are given in
phonemic symbols to the student who marks the one that he thinks he hears the examiner say. It has the advantage of eliminating the factor of spelling, but it introduces the factor of phonemic alphabet which may not be equally well mastered by all the students.

The third way is dictation with phonemic symbols which are written by the students. This technique has the advantage of forcing the students to use symbols that represent the phonemic inventory of the language.

3.2.2 Sound to Sound:

3.2.2.1 Minimal Pairs:

In this technique we select minimal pairs of words or sentences containing the troublesome contrasts for a particular background and we read the pairs aloud to the students. The students simply write 'S' if they hear the same word or sentence repeated and write 'D' if they hear two different words or sentences. An example of six items testing the contrast between /\d/ and /d\h/ of Urdu language, as in /\d\a:l/ 'branch' and /d\h\a:l/ 'a shield'.

The phonemic contrasts which create problems for English, Arabic, French etc. speakers are as follows:

The examiner reads these six pairs of words allowing few seconds between the pairs.
1. /də:l/ 'branch' /dhaːl/ 'a shield'
2. /dəl/ 'a bucket for drawing water from a well' /dhol/ 'drum'
3. /daːk/ 'mail' /dhak/ 'to cover'
4. /dhaːk/ 'to cover' /dhaːk/ 'to cover'
5. /dər/ 'fear' /dar/ 'fear'
6. /dəːl/ 'branch' /dəːl/ 'branch'

The advantage of this technique is its flexibility and validity. We can test different problems in each item without having to forewarn the students. For example, item 1 might remain /dəːl/ 'branch', /dhaːl/ 'a shield'; item 2, may become /pəl/ 'moment', /phal/ 'fruit', testing the /p/-/ph/ contrast; item 3, /kaːn/ 'ear', /khaːn/ 'mine' testing the /k/-/kh/ contrast; item 4, /baːp/ 'father', /bhaːp/ 'steam' testing the /b/-/bh/ contrast etc.

A little more difficult and more valid than isolated words is the use of minimal pairs of sentences. For example.

1. /voh bhaːɡ gaya: / 'he ran away'
   /voh baːɡ gaya:/ 'he went to the garden'
2. /dəːl pakro/ 'hold the branch'
   /dhaːl pakro/ 'hold the shield'
This is an excellent technique for classroom testing. This test is more valid than even extended observation of students in their everyday use of the foreign language in and out of class.

3.2.2.2 Triplets:

In this technique the examiner reads aloud three words or sentences that differ only by one of the troublesome contrasts. In some items all the three words or sentences are the same, in order to increase the possible answer and decrease proportionally the possibility of successful guessing. The student only indicates which of the three words or sentences are the same if any. He does this by writing the numbers of the choices that are the same. If the first and the second sound are the same he writes 1,2. If the first and third sounds are the same he writes 1,3. If the second and third, then 2,3. If all three are same, 1,2,3 and if all three are different he writes 0. For example, if we want to test /ɹ/ sound of Urdu language to an English speaker. We can give the following words.
Several lists can be made to test each phoneme of the Urdu language.

This technique is most effective and satisfactory one to test aural perception that has been reported. It can test the entire system of segmental phonemes of a language in a reasonably sized test. It can be useful for any language.

3.2.2.3 Quadruplets:

This technique is same as the above one, the only difference is that instead of giving three words or sentences the examiner gives four. For example, the examiner says /shaːx/ 'branch', /shaːx/ 'branch', /saːkh/ 'goodwill', /shaːx/ 'branch'. The student writes the numbers of words that are same as in the above case 1, 2 and 4. Minimally contrasting sentences can be used instead of single words.
For example:

A:
1. /phal la:o/ 'bring the fruit'
2. /phal la:o/ 'bring the fruit'
3. /pal la:o/ 'bring the moment'
4. /phal la:o/ 'bring the fruit'

B. 1. /sha:i x ka:to/ 'cut the branch'
2. /sas:kh ka:to/ 'cut the goodwill'
3. /sha:i x ka:to/ 'cut the branch'
4. /sha:i x ka:to/ 'cut the branch'

In the above examples student has to identify similar sentences and is asked to write their numbers. As in case A, he writes 1, 2 and 4. In B, 1, 3 and 4.

In the above test, the student is told that there will be only one set of choice that is the same in each item, not two.

3.2.2.4 Comparing Sound to Model:

This technique is essentially the same as the above two techniques, but differs from them mechanically. In this technique a word or a sentence is given as a model and three
words or sentences as a choice which may differ from the model by a minimal phonemic contrast. The student writes the numbers of choices that are the same as the model. For example, the examiner says /parə:/ ‘to lie down’ as the model. Pause briefly, then says /parə:/ ‘to lie down’, /parə:/ ‘have read’, /parə:/ ‘to lie down’. The answer in this case is 1, 3. Because the first and third choices are the same as model. Here the possible answers are eight, namely, 1, 2, 3, 12, 13, 23, 123, and 0.

This technique has been used in formal and informal tests successfully.

3.2.3 Testing the Recognition of Sounds Through Meaning:

In all the above techniques the student is not required to understand the message of what he hears. Basically, he has to identify phonemes regardless of the meaning of the words and sentences in which they appear. These are valid and useful techniques. Now we will describe techniques to test recognition of the phonemic distinctions of a language through the meaning of the utterances used.

Here, the examiner reads a word or sentence and the students indicate what they have understood. What the examiner says must contain the sounds that constitute the
problem to be tested in an environment in which it could
be one or the other of a difficult pair or one of the
problem set of three or more sounds. The differences
are in the form of responses, which can make use of pic-
tures, writing actual objects etc.

3.2.3.1 sound to picture:

In this technique the examiner reads a word or
sentence and the students choose from two or more pictures,
the one that fits the word or sentence. These tests will
be clear through examples:

A. A word and two pictures:

The examiner says /dhol/ 'drum' and the students
choose from two pictures that are as follows:

picture 'A' fits the word given by the examiner. The
student who cannot discriminate between the Urdu consonant /d/ and /dh/ as in /dol/ 'bucket for taking water from well' and /dhol/ 'drum' is at a loss in choosing the correct answer. This question can be used for English, Arabic and Persian speakers, because this sound is problematic for them. The whole range of phonemes of Urdu can be tested through this technique. For example:

/xə:na/ 'parts of any place'
/kha:na/ 'food'
/də:l/ 'pulse'
/də:l/ 'branch'
/tair/ 'arrow'
/tair/ 'to swim'

B. A sentence and two pictures:

The examiner says /kʌpiː meːz par rakkhiː hai/ 'the copy is on the table.' The students choose from the following pictures.
students who do not hear the difference between the middle
consonant of /kaːpi:/ 'copy' and /kaːfiː/ 'coffee' are at
a loss to select the right picture.

C. Three choices:
  In order to reduce the effect of guessing in two
choice items a third choice can be added.

It is possible to over-estimate the value of pic­
tures in testing. Pictures can be very ambiguous. There are
many important words and sentences that cannot be picturized
or require highly abstract interpretations of pictures.
So, due to these limitations, pictures have to be used with
care. They must be carefully edited and tried to the students
for whom they are designed.

Inspite of the above limitations, pictures are an
important medium of testing, now a days and are essential
in testing children.

3.3 Techniques for Testing Comprehension of Grammatical
Structure:

3.3.1 Definition of Grammatical Structure:
  As Lado (1961:142) points out, "the patterns of
arrangement of words in sentences and the patterns of
arrangement of parts of words into words are its gram­
atical structure. The minimum language unit which func­
tions as a full communicative utterance is known as
sentence. We all speak in sentences, not in words or in
parts of words. These sentences are made up by patterns
of arrangement of words, group of words, intonation, stress
and terminal borders and these patterns of arrangement
have meaning over and above the individual elements of
sentence.

As we know that sentences occur in sequences, and
each language has its system for the ordering of sentences
in sequence. Sequences may occur in the same utterances,
and therefore be produced by the same speaker or they may
occur in different utterances by consecutive speakers.
The latters are frequent in all languages in the form of
questions and answers.

There are various words which can occur as a full
sentences because of this possibility, words have been
defined as minimum free forms not made up of any other
free form. Generally it is found that native speakers of
a language can readily break up a sentence into words even
if their language has never been written or they are not familiar with writing. In many languages the words are separated by spaces.

Words comprise morphemes. A morpheme is minimal meaningful grammatical unit of a language. The word 'book' has one morpheme whereas the word 'books' is made up of two morphemes: book+s. Morphemes consist of a phoneme or a sequence of phonemes and a meaning. If a sequence of phonemes has two separate and unrelated meanings it is probably two morphemes. For example:

\[ \{ -s\} \oplus \{-s/\bar{a}/-z/\bar{a}/-iz/\} \]

has the same form when it is the plural of nouns and when it is the third person singular inflection of the present indicative verb. Since these meanings are clearly different and unrelated, we can say that we have two morphemes, not just one. On the other hand, if \{-s/\bar{a}/-z/\bar{a}/-iz/\} which are different in form and have same meaning of plural and if those environment where one appears others are not permitted then we conclude that all three forms are variants of the same morpheme.

3.3.2 Action Response Technique:

There are various ways to test the comprehension of the structure of language. We can check comprehension
through both linguistic and non-linguistic means. Actions and pictures are non-linguistic means. The action response is particularly useful in formal classroom testing and it is better adopted to young students than adults. In this technique the students listen to the test utterance which contains the structural problem and to perform some act that shows the examiner that whether or not he understands. For example.

**Instructions**: Perform the action as you are directed; Remain still if no action is required.

**Item**:

/kamre mē garmi hai/ (pause)  
(it is very hot in the room)  
/khīrki; bhī; band hai/ (pause)  
(the windows also closed)  
/darvāza; kholo/ (pause)  
(open the door)

**Response**: The student does not move when he hears the first and second sentences. When he hears the third he gets up and opens the door. This act provides the idea that he understands the request pattern in Urdu language.
Consider another example:

**Instruction:**
The examiner places a mug and a glass on the desk which is placed in the corner of the room. Then he says:

**Item:**
/aːj bahot gamii hai/ 'pause'
(It is very hot today)
/paːniː pilaːo/ 'pause'
(Bring me water)

**Response:** The student does not move when he hears the first sentence. When he hears the second sentence he gets up and brings water from the mug and gives it to the teacher. This whole action shows that he understands the request patterns of Urdu language.

Various items can be made in order to test the different structures of the language effectively through this technique.

3.3.3 **Pictures:**

In this technique pictures of various kinds can...
used as a valid non-linguistic device to check comprehension of structure patterns. Various techniques to test the structure patterns of language through pictures are as follows:

The examiner presents an utterance that contains the structure problems and the student chooses from two or more pictures the one that best fits the utterance. The pictures should be drawn in such a way that one of them fits the utterance and others fit the utterance that would differ from it by a minimal distinctive feature. The student has to distinguish between utterances whose difference constitutes the learning problem being tested.

For example the examiner presents the sentence: /laɾke ne baƙiri ko maːra/ 'the boy hit the goat' the students are asked to choose between the two pictures given below:

A

B
If the student understands that in this pattern the boy did the hitting he will choose A. If the utterance were /bakri: ne larke ko ma:ra:/ 'goat hit the boy', picture B would be the expected answer.

In this technique presenting three pictures instead of two is helpful to reduce the effect of guessing. For example, in the sequence of /larke ne bakri: ko ma:ra:/ 'boy hit the goat' may be accompanied with a singular plural contrast in /larke-larko/ 'boy-boys'. When the student hears the utterance /larke ne bakri: ko ma:ra:/ 'boy hit the goat' and is asked to choose among the following three pictures:

A

B

C

Picture B is the expected answer because in addition to knowing that the boy is actor, we also know that it is one boy only.

3.3.4 **Choice in the Goal Language**

The goal language can also be used in the choice
to verify comprehension of the test utterance in that language. For example, the examiner speaks an utterance
/diwa:r ghaři: kya: hotishai/ ‘what do you understand by wall clock?’ The choices might be:

A. /ghari: Jo diwa:r par laga: Jaisihai/
   (the clock which is made to put on wall)

B. /ghari: Jo pahnii Jaisihai/
   (the watch which people use to wear on their wrists).

This technique is effective because it permits the good student to remain set in the foreign language instead of switching back and forth from it to his native language. On the other hand there is a limitation of this technique that is probably the fact that since the choices are in the language being tested they must be easier to understand than the test utterance itself.

Sometimes the structure problem can appear in the choices themselves, leaving the main test sentence only
to provide the meaning and the context. In this type of a case the main sentence or sentences must be easier than the choices, which are the real test material. For example,

**Meaning and context:**
/zakir ko maistār ke ghar ja:te hue akbar ne dekhai/
(Akbar saw Zakir while he was going to master's home)

Choices containing the structure problems:

1. /zakir ko pata:hal ki akbar ke yehā: kaun gaya: /
   (Zakir knows that who went to Akbar's home)

   (Akbar knows that who came to Zakir)

   (Master knows as to whom Zakir visited)

   (Akbar knows as to whom Zakir visited)

   (Akbar knows as to whom master visited)

In the above choices the expected response is (4) and the problem pattern is whom x visited versus who visited x.
This technique is very important and has advantage of requiring good deal of additional reading on the part of the student.

3.3.5 **Choice in the Background Language**

It is a well known technique. In this technique, the native language of the student is used to check his understanding of the structure of a foreign language. This technique has certain advantages. Since the student knows his native language, the choices are easy to write and understand. Comprehension problems can be tested with precision in most sentences. However, there are certain disadvantages of this technique is that use of translation. By using translation in test we force the advanced students to revert to their native language.

Following is the example of the use of the native language in structure recognition items. For example, Urdu structure with English as the background language.

A. **Test item** : /Jeib gharī kise kahte hai/
   (what thing is known as pocket watch)

   **Choices** : (1) A wrist watch
               (2) A pocket watch
B. **Test item**: /qalam kise kahte hai/  
(which thing is known as qalam)

**Choices**: (1) Through which we can paint.  
(2) Through which we use to write.

In the above technique we can increase the number of choices. Through this technique we can test comprehension of target language effectively.

**3.3.6 Grammatical Usage**:  

Various items that present different alternate phrases in a context and asks the student to choose the one that is best suited to the context, has been used for tests constructed from the usage point of view. This technique can be useful to measure control of the structure of a foreign language if it is carefully directed to test real structure problems.

**Example**:  

Instructions: Encircle the choice that best fits the sentence.

A. Item: / [larki] ne hair tosa aur bhaag gai/  
[larke]

(The girl has broken the car and ran away)
Here the verb /bhaːg gai:/ 'ran away 'Fem' requires the 'Singular femin. subject'. The expected answer is /larki:/ 'girl' not /larka:/ 'boy'.

B. Item:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{larki:} & \quad \text{khaːnaː} \quad [\text{khaːtiː}] \\
\quad & \quad [\text{khaːtaː}] \\
\text{hai/}
\end{align*}
\]

The noun /larki:/ 'girl' requires the verb /khaːtiː/ 'eats' 'fem'. The expected answer is then /larkiː/ 'girl' not /larkaː/ 'boy'.

Various types of test items can be constructed.
One thing should be remembered that this type of item can easily be wasted in forcing a choice based on phrases that are irrelevant to the structure of the language.

3.4 Techniques for Testing the Comprehension of Meaning:
3.4.1 Multiple choice:

I. Choice in the Foreign Language:

Multiple choice type test item is widely used now a days and probably achieved its most spectacular success in
vocabulary tests. There may be variation in form and style, but in general the item consists of a lead or stem containing the problem, one alternative representing the best response and others representing distractors to lure the students who do not know the best answer.

Example:

A. Item: what is the meaning of /moda:feat/ ?
   (a) /Jurm/ 'offense'
   (b) /bača:o/ 'defense'
   (c) /baha:dar/ 'brave'
   (d) /hamla:/ 'attack'

In the above item the best suitable choice is (b)

B. Item: Tick the correct meaning of /tahaffuz/
   (a) /hathyar qa:lna:/ 'submission'
   (b) /ekhla:qi:farz/ 'obligation'
   (c) /bača:na:/ 'protection'
   (d) /a:za:di:/ 'freedom'

In the above item the (c) choice is best suited to the question.
II. Pictures:

Pictures are also used as the alternatives especially to test children, adult beginners and illiterates. Pictures can be very helpful in teaching vocabulary and meaning. For example, testing contrast between /andar/ 'inside' /uspār/ 'on' /nīche/ 'under' in Urdu language we can use the following pictures.

/seb baks ke andar hai/
(The apple is in the box)

A single composite picture is sometimes used to test several words.

Example: Make 'x' on the thing that I ask about.

/gharīskhā: hai/
(Where is the watch?)

/mez.kunā: hai /
(Where is the table?)

/chōta; bačā: kahā: hai/
(where is the little boy?)
III. Choice in the Native Language of the Students:

This technique is used when problems cannot be tested effectively without recourse to the native language of the students.

Example:

Item: Urdu vocabulary for English speakers.
Instructions: Tick the correct meaning which is same as the above word.

/phafl/  'fruit'

a) colour
b) orange
c) fruit
d) banana
CHAPTER IV
TESTING SPEAKING SKILL

4.1 The Role of Speaking in Language Learning:

Speaking is an important language skill. It is one of the four basic language skills, viz., comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. The aim of teaching speaking is to enable the students to converse fluently and correctly. Speaking correctly does not involve only the correct pronunciation but also to speak correct grammatical sentences and to use right and proper words. It also involves the ability to communicate at the normal conversational speech. As Lado (1961:240) states, "speaking ability is described as the ability to express oneself in life situations, or the ability to report acts or situations in precise words, or the ability to converse, or to express a sequence of ideas fluently". The ultimate aim of teaching speaking is to enable the learners to use the signalling systems of pronunciation, stress intonation, vocabulary, grammatical structure of the foreign language at a normal rate of delivery, as the native speakers of that language use, at normal communication situation. Speaking, therefore, is an important language skill and has primary importance. If a person acquires the ability to speak a language, it means that he knows the language.
because speaking presupposes that he has already acquired the ability to comprehend the language or can understand the language.

4.2 Techniques for Testing the Production of Sound Segments:

The general technique of testing the speaking ability of the learner is to give sufficient clues to produce certain utterances that contain the problems we want to test. Pictures, native language of the learners and the target language being tested can be used as stimuli in the production tests if properly designed, pictures are the most valid medium and can be used to test entire system of segmental phonemes, vocabulary, structure of language. The simple procedure to test the production of sound segments is that we have to stimulate the student in order to produce utterances that contain the pronunciation problems and we have to score responses. This procedure involves a number of variables which result in a variety of techniques. Following are the various techniques discussed by Lado (1961) to test the production of sound segments.

4.2.1 Stimuli for Production of the Problem:

Although interview is a highly valid way to observe the pronunciation of a student, it is also impractical,
because the student will not use all the sounds when we are ready for them and he will use some words or sounds with more frequency than we need. So we find it more practical to elicit certain utterances that contain the problems we wish to test.

4.2.1.1 Verbal Stimuli:

In this technique we use questions, requests, or statements as verbal stimuli to elicit the utterances from the students containing the problems which we want to test. It is important to make sure that students do not become aware that their pronunciation is being tested. These verbal stimuli are particularly good because they represent a normal use of the language. They can be presented orally by the examiner so that the students are placed in a conversational situation. They can also be put to the students in writing.

Whether presented orally or in writing, these verbal stimuli can be used with individual students as an interview type of test or with a group of students. If these verbal stimuli are used on groups of students, they can be administered through earphones for individual students in order to separate one student from other. Because, if this is not done they will hear the responses of other students.
Through this technique, we can test the entire range of phonemes and their allophonic variation, problematic sounds of the second language.

Here one thing is important that since verbal stimuli do not provide the content of what is to be answered, they must deal with common every day experiences in order to prevent the content of response from becoming more important factor than the pronunciation which we want to test.

In case of testing pronunciation of the beginners, the questions, request may constitute comprehension problem. In that case we can translate these verbal stimuli to the native language of the learner. This increases the chance of communication. However, translation of verbal stimuli in the native language of the learner may increase the influence of the native language pronunciation.

This method is very advantageous for testing pronunciation of the students learning second language, but there is a limitation of this technique. This method does not always elicit either all the responses one wants to
test. Another technique as suggested by Paterno (1965:383) is that, "to measure speaking ability the simplest and most dependable test is an immediate repetition of what is heard. The teacher does not have to stop the pupil to correct him but records the response for later evaluation. The items used must be short enough to be retained by the ear. Intonation, stress, and rhythm, are as important as the sounds". We can explain this view through the following examples:

1. /voh pəɾhtaː hәi/ "ɾh" (He reads )
2. /voh qәlәm hәi/ "q" (That is the pen )
3. /ʁәːm ʃәɾmˌb piːtәː hәi/ 'ʃ' (Ram drinks wine )

through this technique we can test entire range of phonemes and stress, intonation, tone etc.

4.2.1.2 Picture Stimuli:

Pictures are used in this technique as a stimuli for verbal responses by students. It constitutes a valid medium for pronunciation tests. Pictures convey ideas simply and
quickly. For example, a picture of a man reading newspaper or book elicit the utterance from the student such as /voh kitab parh raha hai/ 'He is reading a book' with minor variations such as /a:di ki:t: b parh raha hai/ 'The man is reading a book', /a:di parh raha hai/ 'the man is reading', /voh parh raha hai/ 'He is reading'. Here, in every case, the students attempt to say, /parh/ 'reading' which is the test word. We can present the various pictures containing the different problems of the pronunciation in order to test the students.

A single composite picture is sometimes preferred as the stimuli. The advantage of this is that it requires only one inspection for several responses. However, it has the disadvantage that we cannot systematically elicit too many problems with one picture.

However, it is important to note, that pictures alone are not useful. We must give some verbal instructions with pictures. Because if we give only pictures to the students as a verbal stimuli, without instructions or without telling what to do with them, they will simply look at them and wonder what to do. So we must give some verbal instructions such as "what is he doing" "what do you see in the picture"? "Tell the story", etc.
4.2.1.3 Reading Matters as Stimulus:

It is most simple, precise method for testing production of sound segments of a language. In this method the examiner gives a passage to the students containing problem, to read out loudly. These written materials can be words, sentences or paragraphs. The examiner can use same sample of the sounds of language to all students.

In this method there are various disadvantages that, since the ability to read is different from the ability to speak, the reading stimulus introduces the factor of reading ability. Since a person who has learned a foreign language as a child and who has never had the opportunity to learn to read, it, will not be able to take a reading test, even though his pronunciation may be quite good.

Another disadvantage as pointed out by Lado (1961:84) is that, "pronunciation in reading does not parallel entirely pronunciation in speaking. Certain reductions permitted in speaking are not permitted in reading, and certain levelling of transitions and of emphasis are normal in reading but not permitted in
speaking. This is not a serious limitation in testing the sound segments. However, perhaps more important is the fact that in reading, the student's attention is on different things than in speaking. In reading his attention is on graphic symbols which give him the words, the word order, the thread of his story, the sentences he must use, the word order, the words, etc.

4.2.1.4 Translation:

Translation is a useful device to elicit the utterances we need in order to test pronunciation. In this technique, the examiner gives to translate from the native language to the foreign language in order to elicit the utterances he needs to test the pronunciation of student. But difficulty with this technique is that translation is limited by the fact that it is one of the most difficult things to do in a foreign language. The students who might be able to pronounce a sound might fail because they do not know how to translate some thing. Here we have to take precautions so that the translation items must be easier to translate. Translation technique can be helpful as a testing device of pronunciation.
4.2.1.5 Completion Items form and the Conditions of the Oral Response

In this technique we use test items that give a sentence, a phrase with some part omitted so that the student supplies the missing word from the clues in the context in order to test pronunciation of the student. An example, to elicit the Urdu consonant /q/ might be, /us ne apne-se likha:/ 'He wrote it by his-' or to elicit the consonant /x/ might be, /us ne ahmad ko kal-likha: hai/ 'He wrote a—to Ahmad yesterday.' The student reads aloud the sentence and should say/qalam/ 'pen' or /xat/ 'letter to complete the above sentences respectively.

Here one thing is important that when the entire word is omitted, the student might not be fully aware that he is being tested on pronunciation. However, these items are difficult to construct because there is always possibility that a different word can be used in the blank spot. So in order to avoid this we can give part of the spellings of the word, for example, /ram apne g—re par se girai/ 'Ram has fallen from his horse.' The student is to pronounce the whole sentence including the incomplete word.
A person's pronunciation of a foreign language varies in accuracy depending on the situations under which he speaks. So we should test all students under the same conditions.

4.2.2 Partial Production Techniques:

Partial production technique is that type of technique for testing pronunciation of the student, in which the student is not asked to identify a phoneme by a phonemic symbol or by a number or even a letter. In this, he is merely asked if a sound in a word that is given to him in writing is the same as the sound of another word which is also presented to him in writing. In this method of testing pronunciation, no training is required other than elementary ability to read.

This partial production technique is not considered as a substitute for direct production technique, but can be used effectively to test the pronunciation.

In silent comparison of sounds which is given to the student in writing. The student rehearses to himself the pronunciation of the words. He then decides whether or not the two sounds of given words are same or not.

4.2.2.1 Full Spelling Technique:

In this technique the words containing the sounds to be compared by the student are presented to him in full spelling
with the letters representing the problem sounds clearly marked by underlining bold face, capitals or any other device that tells the student which letter he must consider. The number of words to be compared may be two, three, or more.

In two word type test, the student is asked if the sounds represented by capitals (or underlined) letters are the same or different. We can explain this through examples from Urdu.

Problem /t/ versus /ch/ as in /kup/ 'quite' and /khup/ 'hide'

Instruction to the student: Compare the sounds which are underlined. Write 'S' for same, 'D' for different.

Item: /rähm kÄp khp gäyä:/

'Rhäm was hidden silently'

The answer is 'D'.

Here, we can increase the number of words representing the problem to three word types or four word types.

The same problem can be tested with three word items:
Instruction: Compare the sounds underlined. Write the number of the sounds that are the same item:

/rahim  up  gasp  shup gaya/

'Rahim was hidden silently'.

Answer of the above item is 1, 2.

4.2.2.2 Omitted Letter Technique:

This technique is very effective in testing pronunciation of the students learning a second language. It is essentially the same as the full spelling technique. In this, the student has to compare silently the sound presented by parts of words given to him in writing. The basic difference is that the letters representing the sounds are actually omitted. Here the words are identified by remaining letters and by written context that goes with the words.

The problem of /t/ and /rh/ as in /gatrl/ 'train' and /gairhi/ 'thick' will be tested in the following example.

Instructions: Compare the sounds represented by the letters omitted. Tick the sentences in which the sounds are the same.

Item:

1. /raim re-lg--i:Se a:ya/

'Ram has arrived by train'
2. /khiːr bahōt g---iːhai/
   'The Kheer is thick'

3. /us ne d--iːrakh liː/
   'He becomes bearded man'

the answer is 2, 3.

We can test the entire range of phonemes which are problematic for the student through this technique. Here various problems can also be tested with a single sentence.

4.2.2.3 Picture Context Technique:

This technique is basically the same as previous one except that the context is provided by a picture rather than by a sentence, a paragraph. In this technique, words in isolation are preferred because by this we can reduce the amount of reading to a minimum. We can use two, three or more choice items to show the technique clearly. To illustrate this technique we can use the following problem.
Problem: /q/ as in /qalain/ 'carpet' and /k/ as in /kitaːb/ 'book'. The native language of learner, such as English, Hindi has /k/ but does not have /q/.

Test Words:
/qalam/ 'pen'
/kaːr/ 'car'
/chaːqːur/ 'knife'

Instructions: Compare the sounds presented by the missing letters. Write the number of the missing sounds that are the same.

The Pictures:

1
/qalam/ /-alːam/-

2
/aːː/-

3
/chaːː - uːː/-

The answer is 1, 3.

This technique is suitable for the beginners who have limited facility in reading as compared to highly literate adults.
4.2.2.4: **Multiple Choice With Omission of Key Letters:**

This is an objective technique. In this technique the student is given a word with a letter representing the problem sound omitted. The student compares this sound with those of five words given in full spellings as choices. The letters representing the sounds to be compared in the choices should be underlined or printed in bold face, capitals. Since this technique is an attempt to approach the formal application of conventional multiple choice items, we might favour a variety in which the key word is identified by a short sentence context, and only one of the choices is correct.

**Example.**

**Instruction:** **Tick the number of the sound that is the same as the sound represented by the letters omitted.**

**Item:** /tumhe kaun sa: — usl pasand hai/

'which type of flower do you like'

1. /pura:ni/ 'old'
2. /pu:ri:/ 'whole'
3. /gupha:/ 'cave'
4. /bu:rhi/ 'old lady'
5. /bakri/ 'goat'
Here in this case the answer is 3.

This technique is very effective to test the pronunciation because it permits the contrast of a problem sound with several other sounds, thus making it easier to reach more than one language background in the same item. It is just like conventional multiple-choice item, and students will tend to accept more readily and manipulate it with minimum instructions. It also seems easier to construct.

4.2.2.5 Rhymes:

In this technique the student is asked to identify the words which end in the same sounds, that is, the words that rhyme. For example the Urdu word /niraxa/ 'strange' rhymes with /nikaxa/ 'to take out' but not with the /paixa/ 'to brought up'; /ujaxa/ 'light'. We can use these words to show the example of this technique as follows:

/niraxa/ 'strange' rhymes with
1. /ujaxa/ 'light'
2. /paixa/ 'to brought up'
3. /nikaxa/ 'to take out'

The basic assumption behind this technique is, that if the student pronounces the words properly he will match them
properly as rhymes. Since there is more than one type of thyme it is necessary to inform the student that both the consonants and the vowels must be the same in the ending to constitute the right answer.

This technique has advantage because most cultures recognize rhymes in poetry or folklore. It may also be easier for the students to compare whole words rather than single phonemes.

4.3 Testing Production of Lexical Units

4.3.1 Production

The testing of vocabulary on production level consists of giving the student the meaning of the key vocabulary item so that he may produce it if he knows it. When he fails to produce the key item or he produces another one that does not fit the meaning, then we assume that he does not know it.

There are different methods of providing the meaning without using the vocabulary item itself. We can classify these methods of providing meaning into:

A) Foreign language context.
B) Picture context.
c) translation context.

(A) Foreign Language Context:

In this method the idea of the item can be given to the student through the language being tested, without giving him the key words themselves.

In this case the determining context can be presented orally, in writing or both. At the initial stage one can prefer oral presentation. In formal classroom purpose, oral presentation can also be preferred.

The meaning of the key vocabulary item can be given in the lead in the form of a question, request. We can understand this through example, as follows:

1. /khaːnaː pakːaː ne waːle ko kyaː khate hai/ 
   'what do you call a man who makes food'
   /bavatʃiː/ 'cook'
   the lead can be request.

2. /jo aidmiː kapaːː silta hai use kyaː khaːte hai/
   'tell me the name of the man who makes clothes'
   /darziː/ 'tailor'
3. /meri bahan mere abba ki-- /
   'my sister is my father's ...'
   /larki hai/ 'daughter'

4. /usta'id jo kuch bole us ko -- /
   'what ever the teacher speaks you should ---'
   /suno/ 'listen'

(B) **Picture Context**

In this method we combine the linguistic context with a clear picture or drawing. It used to be very effective stimulus to elicit certain items of vocabulary. Following are the examples with complete linguistic context.

1. /ek bahot bara ja:anwar
   jiske su:x d aur lambe datt
   nikle hue hote ha:---khalata: hai/

   'A large animal who has trunk and long tusks is known as ---'
   /ha:thi:/ 'elephant'

2. /ek phal jis se shara:ib banti hai use---
   kehte hai/
   'A fruit from which we make wine is ---'
   /aggu:r/ 'grape'
We can also use a single picture and showing it to the student we can ask him what he sees in this.

Example:

1. /tasvi:r mē tumhē kya:nazar a:ta: hai/
   'what do you see in the picture?
   /na:o/
   'a boat'

2. /tasvi:r mē a:p kya: dekh rahe hai/
   'what do you see in the picture?
   /mae is mē ek lamba aur ek ḍhota a:mi dekh raah:hu:/
   'I see a tall man and a short man'

c) Translation Context:

In this method we translate the native language of the student to the foreign language. This technique can be used to elicit vocabulary items which is not otherwise easily accessible. We can illustrate this by the following examples.
Any English speaker learning Urdu as a foreign language can be tested in the following way. Here the entire lead, including the key words, can be in the native language of the learner.

1. "A flower with white petals and yellow centre is..."
   /dezi:/ 'a daisy'

2. "what do you call the instrument through which we read the temperature of the body'
   /tharmajmitter / 'thermometer'

3. 'what is the name of the object which is used to fly passengers'
   /hawad jahaiz / 'aeroplane'

4.4 Testing Production of the Grammatical Structure:

The term grammar means different things to different people. For the grammarians it has often meant the analysis of their own language in order to discover its rules that is what may or may not be said in the particular language. On the other hand, from the linguistic point of view, the native speakers of a language have mastered the basic structure of their language, that is the basic patterns on which
they built sentences and sequence of sentences. So when a native speaker studies grammar he is not involved only in the basic framework which he knows but also problems of variant usage, of dialect differences, of style, of social difference etc. A non-native speaker on the other hand, is unfamiliar with the structure of the target language. He needs to acquire the knowledge of the basic structure in order to master the production and comprehension of the typical sentences of the target language. So while testing production of the grammatical structure of language we focus our attention to the testing of the basic structure of the language.

The problem of testing control of the structure of a foreign language on a production level is more complicated than that of testing it at a recognition level. Because when we attempt to test production we are faced with a number of questions. For example, are we testing what the student can say or are we testing what he does say? Generally, we come across a situation in which a student, who learns to use certain structure under favourable classroom conditions may completely forget the same structure when facing a microphone or a formal audience. The only way we could be sure of what a student does say is to observe him in all his activities. But one cannot afford to do this except if one is conducting thorough investigation which is not possible in normal testing.
In general, a test of production should provide as far as possible the same essential stimuli as an ordinary conversational situation. There are various techniques for testing the production of the grammatical structure.

4.4.1 The Goal Language as Stimuli:

It is an important method for testing production of grammatical structure of the learner who is learning a second language. This method includes five different techniques of testing production of the grammatical structure of the second language learner.

4.4.1.1 Question:

In this technique of testing production of grammatical structure of second language learner, questions can be used in an interview type of test. In this technique the examiner simply asks a series of questions in order to elicit the key structure of the language he wishes to test.

Example:

The examiner asks: /tum khaise aise ho?/

'where have you come from ?'

Desired response: /mae-se aya: hu: /

'I came from ---'

Question: /tum kab aise ?/

'when did you arrive?'
Response: /maːəə a:jə hui:/
'I arrived...'

Question: /tum kya: paːrhone jaː rābe ho:/
'what are you going to study'
Response: /maː parhne jaː rahaː hotə/
'I am going to study--'

Here the examiner observes the responses in order to check whether these students are using correct grammatical structure, forms of verbs, tenses etc.

This technique is very useful to test the production of the grammatical structure of second language. But it has two important limitations. First demerit is that the short answers not containing the desired structure may be used quite naturally, Secondly, the form of the question itself may give away the answer. For instance, in the above example, the three questions could have been answered without using the key structured material: / tum kahaː se aːe hoː?/ 'where have you from?', /kain pur/ 'Kanpur', /tum kab aːe ?/ 'when did you arrive' /kal/ 'yesterday'. /tum kyaː paːrhone ja rahe hoː?/ 'what are you going to study' /taːriːx/ 'history'.


So keeping in view these limitations we can reduce partly the first difficulty by asking to use complete statements. By this the student will understand that we want him to say /maē kaːnpur se aːyə huː/ 'I came from Kanpur' in response to the question /tum kahaː se aː həʔ?/ 'where have you come from?'

This technique is very effective in testing the production of the grammatical structure.

4.4.1.2 Request:

Another technique to elicit grammatical structures involves the description of a situation or thing and asking the student to name it or state what may be said in that particular situation.

To elicit the question pattern illustrated by the sentence /baːtʃe ki uːmr kyaː həʔ?/ 'how old is the baby?'. The stimulus might be /tumhəːre dəst keː ak baːtʃaː həʔ. tum uskiː uːmr jaːnnaː ɛːhtəː ho. tum us se kyaː puːʃhəːʔ?/ 'A friend of yours has a baby. You want to know its age. What do you ask?'. The response should be an attempt to produce the question pattern which we want to test.

A slight variation in this technique is useful in eliciting question patterns, which are often neglected in
testing and in teaching. The technique consists in setting the situation in short statements ending with something like /tum us ka:na:m janne: ca:hte ho. Us se pu:cho/ 'you want to know his name. Ask him' or simply /us se na:m pu:cho / 'ask him his name'.

Examples:

Stimulus: /tum ek la:rk: se mile. Us se pu:cho: kya: use: tenis pasand hai/ 'you meet a boy. Ask him if he likes tennis?'.

Response: /kya: tumhe tenis pasand hai?/ 'do you like tennis?'

Stimulus: /us se pu:cho: voh kaha: rahta: hai?/ 'Ask him where he lives?'

Response: /tum kaha: rahte ho?/ 'where do you live?'

Stimulus: /us se pu:cho: kya: tum uske sa:th parh sakte ho?/ 'ask him if you can study together?'

Response: /kya: ma: tumhaire sa:th parh sakte hu?:/ 'can we study together?'

Here one thing is important that in foreign language tests, the structure and vocabulary of the stimulus must be simple enough to be understood by students who are not fully acquainted with Urdu language. To minimize this limitation, we may present the stimulus in writing to literate students.
4.4.1.3 Conversion of One Pattern to Another:

There are various methods to elicit given structures by the use of language stimuli. One of them is to supply a given utterance and have the student change it into another which is the key pattern. This technique is very helpful in testing the use of negative verbal phrase because to test it one can supply affirmative sentences and have the student change them in to negative sentences.

**Examples:**

**Stimulus:** /raːm kā ap[aːya thaː/  
'Bam came yesterday'

**Response:** /raːm kal nahiː ap[aːya thaː/  
'Bam did not came yesterday'

**Stimulus:** /voh maːchliː pakaːrne gayaː hai/  
'He has gone for fishing'

**Response:** /voh maːchliː pakaːrne nahīː gayaː hai/  
'He has not gone for fishing'

**Stimulus:** /voh kyoː gayaː?/  
'why did he go?'

**Response:** /voh kyoː nahīː gayaː?/  
'why did he not go?'

**Stimulus:** /tum kaim karo/  
'you do your work'
Responses /turn kasm mat karo /
    'you do not do your work'
Stimulus /turn jao /
    'you go'
Response /turn na jao/
    'you do not go'

Here in this technique examiner has to give simple instruction in that "change the sentence to the negative form".

4.4.1.4 completion :

This technique is widely used. It is used for recall or production of part of a sentence. This technique is very flexible and can appear in many shapes. Essentially it consists of providing a context leaving some part incomplete. The student has to supply the missing part of the sentence which contains the problem pattern to be tested.

Examples:
Stimulus : /ham paini:pi:te'hai jab-----/  
    'we drink water when-----'  
Response: /hame:paya:s lagti: hai/  
    'we are thirsty'
Stimulus: /mujhe: tenis pasand hai magar ram ko -----/  
    'I like tennis but Ram----'
Response : /nahi pasand hai/
   'doesn't like it'
Stimulus : /mae baizaar jata shu jab----/
   'I go to the market when ----'
Response : /kuch xaritdna hota hai/
   'I want to buy something'

4.4.2 Pictures with Language Instructions or Context

Theoretically various pictures could also be used as a stimulus for the production of specific structures, for testing purposes. However, pictures alone can be quite ambiguous and uneconomical. One can show a complete silent film to a student and not obtain much of verbal reaction unless we accompany it with verbal instructions of some kind. A simple question or request lets the student know what he is expected to do with a picture that is put before him. In this technique we give pictures specially made in order to elicit the key structures with verbal instruction to the student. This will be clear by the following examples.

Example :

Description of the following two pictures can be elicited by any of the following sentences :
1. /tum kya: dekh rahe ho?/
   'what do you see?'

2. /tasvīr me kya: ho raha: hai?/
   'what is happening in the picture?'

3. /mujhe bata:o tum ne kya: dekha: ?/
   'tell me what you see?'

4. /mujhe bata:o tasvīr me kya: ho raha: hai/
   'tell me what is happening in the picture'

PICTURES

Here the usual response will be /voh kūčh pi: raha: hai/
'he is drinking something' , /voh kūčh kha: raha: hai/
'he is eating something'. We could also ask /gla:s ka: pa:nī
kya: hua: / 'what happened to the water in the glass'
to elicit the sentence like /glass ka pasni aidmi pit gaya:/
'it was drunk by the man'.

Example:

Instruction: /a:mi ko kya:hu:j?/
'what happened to the man?'

the expected answer or response would be /us ko kutte ne ka:ti liya:/ or /a:mi ko kutte ne ka:ti liya/ or /use kutte ne ka:ti liya/ 'he was bitten by the dog'.

Example:

Instruction: /agar billi ba:zi:k kar andar a:ti hai to dus:ha: kaha: bha:zi sakta: hai?/
'Describe all possibilities for the rat if the cat were to jump the fence'.

Here in this case the response would be some thing like:

/agar billi: baigh kur: kar astl hai to ku:ha: bhaig jae ga:/
ku:ha: bil me bhaig sakta: hai,voh diwair ke pi:che bhaig
kar jai sakta: hai,ya:voh per par ba:gh sakta: hai/

'if the cat jumps over the fence the rat would run away. The
rat would run to the hole. It could run around the wall or
it could climb up the tree'.

Here the examiner would listen to only the use of
/sakta:hai/, /jae ga:/ etc.

Since our object in using pictures is to elicit the
key structures, not particular words, we are free to select
any lexical content that is easily picturable.

4.4.3 Translation:

Translation from the native language of the student
to foreign language can be used effectively to test the problem
of structure. In this technique, a sentence of the native
language or phrase is given as the stimulus. The student reads it silently and produces the key pattern in the language being tested. The preparation of translation items is not as simple as it seems to be. The problem patterns are those which are not same as the patterns in the native language. In such cases we will find it difficult to give a stimulus in the native language that will force the student to use of the problem patterns in the foreign language.
5.1 Theoretical Aspects of Reading :

5.1.1 Reading as a skill

Reading is one of the four basic language skills. To read a language means to grasp it by its written form. As Lado (1961:223) is of the view that, "reading in a foreign language consists of grasping meaning in that language through its written representation". There are three stages in reading which are as follows:

A. Recognition

B. Structuring

C. Interpretation

A. Recognition:

Recognition means firstly that the student must recognise written characters for what they are and then he should also be aware about the systematic connection between speech and the written language.

B. Structuring:

By structuring, we mean that the student should be able to understand the structure of words and sentences
of the foreign language. In other words, he must be able to connect the written symbols to what they stand for. He should know as to how the written symbols of the foreign language are decoded.

C. Interpretation:

In this stage the student learns to interpret phonological, morphological and syntactic structures to semantics i.e. understanding their meanings. Reading is usually taught to the students who are already literate in the source language.

5.1.2 Importance of Reading Comprehension:

Reading is an important language skill. It involves proper understanding of words in a sentence and the understanding of the structure of language. Both the things are essential for reading accurately. If the learner has no understanding of words in a sentence and if he has no understanding of structure of language, he will not be able to make the reading fruitful and he may not be able to comprehend what is there in the paragraph. Reading, therefore, is not only general ability, but it is a complex activity
of the following three dimensions:
1. Perception of words.
2. Clear grasp of meaning
3. Thoughtful reaction.

While constructing tests for reading comprehension, all the above points should be kept in mind.

5.1.3 Reading Comprehension Versus Listening Comprehension:

The similarities and differences between reading comprehension and auditory comprehension are of two kinds, i.e., language matters and matters of graphic representation. These will be discussed in the following sections.

5.1.3.1 Language Problems:

A learner faces various difficulties in reading a foreign language. These difficulties are more or less the same as the learner faces in understanding it aurally. But there are three main differences between reading a foreign language and understanding it aurally. First difference is that in reading a language learner is able to proceed at his own speed and goes back to re-read what he fails to grasp earlier. While in auditory comprehension, he must adjust himself
to the speed of the speaker. In ordinary conversation he may ask that something be repeated, but in a test situation it would become impossible because different students would ask different utterances to be repeated.

Secondly, in reading there is a possibility of bypassing some of the troublesome sound contrasts. Because we can read at our own speed, it is easier to perceive graphic differences in symbolization than minimal differences in sound articulation that are not significant in the native language of the student. It is right that some sound contrasts may be bypassed in listening also but the fact is that in reading, it is possible to distinguish the graphic differences without having to rely on the context.

The third distinction between reading and listening arises from the difference in style between the language used in speaking and the language used in writing. For example, questions are used frequently in conversation, and conversation in turn, is more frequent as speech than as writing. We can, therefore, expect fewer questions in reading than listening. The sentences used in writing, tend to be more complex and contain more complex modification structures than those used in speaking. The length of the utterances that are found in reading is greater than the length of utterances heard in conversation.
Due to the above differences between reading and listening, it is sufficient to require separate materials for reading tests.

5.1.3.2 **Problem of Graphic Representation**

In addition to language difficulties in reading, the students will have to face difficulties caused by the system of graphic representation of language. There will be less problem in reading where the native and foreign languages use the same alphabet or writing system. But the problems of graphic representation can not be overlooked when the two languages use different writing systems as for example, Chinese, Urdu and English. In testing reading a foreign language we must take into account the problems caused by the differences in graphic representation between the native language of the learner.

The reading problem caused due to graphic symbolization can be the result of the kind of units represented, the actual symbol used and the direction in which the symbols are written. There are three kinds of unit representation in writing systems, i.e., words or morphemes, syllables and phonemes. For example, Chinese traditional writing system is Logographic, i.e. it represents words or morphemes. Japanese writing represents the roots in Chinese character (Kanji in Japanese). The languages of Europe and Asia are written in alphabetic system. When an
Urdu reader learns to read Chinese, problems arise due to the fact that one expects to read sounds out of the symbols and vice-versa.

The graphic problem might be due to the use of different symbols for the same unit of language. Urdu, Thai, Arabic, etc. and the languages of Europe have alphabetic systems of writing but the symbols are strikingly different. Even within the same alphabet, graphic problems arise when an English reader learns to read another European language and finds that the same letter represents different sounds in English and in the other languages such as German, French etc. The direction of eye movements in reading may also vary from language to language. Therefore, it may constitute a different learning problem, particularly in rapid reading. For example, Chinese is written in vertical columns running from top to bottom of the page and successively from right to left. These directions differ from those of English writing in two dimensions. Urdu and Arabic, on the other hand, is written horizontally from right to left and the line follow each other successively from top to bottom. The Urdu writing differs from English in one dimension, i.e. the directions of reading and writing. These differences reduce the speed of reading when a literate adult of one language tries to learn and to read the other language.
5.2 Techniques for Testing Reading Comprehension

5.2.1 Multiple Choice Tests and their Importance

Multiple choice test belongs to objective tests. As opposed to subjective tests, it has 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 subject's performance in such a way that all examiners would agree on the apportioning marks". Ingram (1974:319) is of the view that, "the search for 'objective' testing methods is the direct outcome of dissatisfaction with the reliability of the marking of traditional examinations. 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 test derives its name from 'objectivity' in scoring. There are basically two formats of objective type tests, viz., open ended tests and Multiple choice tests. In open ended objective tests, the student writes his own answer which is often a single word, never more than a sentence, in the space provided. Where as in multiple choice
tests, the answer is given along with the test with four alternatives and the candidate is simply required to indicate the correct answer with a tick or a number. Multiple choice tests are more convenient to mark. It provides more diagnostic knowledge because the candidate is forced to choose the right answer from amongst a particular set of choices. Multiple choice tests are very effective and are widely used.

5.2.1.1 Merits of Multiple Choice Tests:

Multiple choice tests are very useful and have several advantages which are as follows:

1. A test item containing various multiple choice type question can test entire range of linguistic contents as well as literary content of the given passage within a short period of time.

2. These tests are very easy to score.

3. These tests are highly reliable because there will be no fluctuations in score while different evaluators examine the same test. This is one of the reasons why this test is considered to be standardized, valid and reliable.
4. In this test, a student is forced to choose the right answer within the four alternatives given in the form of A, B, C and D. It means that if one does not know the correct answer, he will not be able to choose the right answer.

5. A test containing the multiple choice items can cover more aspects as compared to the subjective tests, and also within short period of time.

5.2.1.2 **Demerits of Multiple Choice Test:**

Limitations of multiple choice items can be categorised into the following:

1. Construction of multiple choice test requires a substantial amount of time and a bare deal of patience and certain amount of mental ability.

2. In objective or multiple choice test some possible hints are provided which sometimes lead the student to guess the right answer.

3. Objective or multiple choice tests are useful for testing the knowledge of the student on various aspects of language but do not provide the measurement of productive and creative ability.
5.2.1.3 Sample Test of Multiple Choice Items for Testing
Reading Comprehension:

In this model the importance of reading comprehension has been emphasised and on the basis of a given paragraph the test questions are constructed. In this model of testing reading comprehension, the paragraph is given in the question paper itself, and on the basis of silent reading of the given paragraph the examinees are asked to reply certain questions. In this way the text is not detached from the memory of the examinees.

The questions are framed on the basis of the given paragraph and are designed in such a way that they fully test the reading comprehension ability of the examinees.

Against each question there are, generally, four answers of multiple choice type, out of which, only one will be the correct answer. The student has to put a tick on one possible answer.

As an example of this model for testing reading comprehension, we would like to present the following Urdu passage which has been taken from an Urdu text book of class VI prepared by the NCERT, New Delhi.


Shakuntala: ko drosa:ki pazirai: ka: mutlaq xayal na raha:.
voh unhe aasan par baithne ko bhi na kah saki, is be abdi: par

drosa: ne sharaip, ya:ni: badua: di: ki "ai larki: jis shaxs
ke xayal me tu: is qadar khoi: hai: hai, voh tujhe: bhuil jae:
aur teer:ya:di dilai:ne par bhi: tujhe: na: pahca:ne:". badi me'
Shakuntala: ki saheliyo ne dro sa: rishi: ko Shakuntala:ki bipta:
suna:i: aur minnat samajat ki:ki voh is "sharaip" ko va:pas le
le ya: is ke asar ko kam kar de: is par drosa: ne apne shra:p ko
kam karne ke liye kaha: ki "dushyant Shakuntala:ko bhuil to jae
ga:; lekin apni: di:hui: nisha:ni: dikha:ne par use: zarur:
pahca:n le ga:" Shakuntala: ki saheliyo ne is badua: ka: zikr
kisi: se nahi: kiya: un ka xayal tha: ki Shakuntala: ke pais ra:ja
ki angu: thi: hai hi: jise dikha:ne par fai:ja use: zarur pahca:nle:
ga: aur badua:ka: asar xatm ho jae ga:.

drosa: rishi: ki: badua: ke asar se dushyant Shakuntala:
ko bilkul bhuil va:uka: tha:; Kanu rishi jab ya:tra: se va:pas
are to unhe Shakuntala: ke bya:ha: hai: malu: m hua:; jab kai:
aiya: to unhe ne xud ra:ja: ke pais bhejne kai fai:sla: kiya:.
Shakuntala: ko ghar girhasti: ki zarur:di: baite samjhai: aur
a:shram ke do mula: zimoke Saith ruxsat kiya:.
raîste mē ek muqaddas jagah Shakuntala: ne ashnāin
kiyā: nahāte mē āgguṭhī: gir gai: aur bahot ṛhū: ñhne par
bhī: na mili: kai dīnō ke safar ke bārī: jab Shakuntala:
dushyant ke darbaar mē pahuṭī: to raîja use pahāsān na:sakā: .
Shakuntala: intehā: dukh aur besarosamā:ni: ki haślat mē darbaar
se nikal aśi:. vaha: se voh ek aśhram mē pahuṭī. yaha:kuch
dīnō bārī: uske beta: pāida: hua:. jiska: naśm bharat rakkha:
gaya: .
ittefaq se Shakuntala: ki āgguṭhī: ċand mahisā:ō ke
bārī: ek mahīgī:ō ko māhī: ke: peśṭ se mili:. voh use baĉne:
ke: liye bāza:r mē lāyā:, to raîja: ki: āgguṭhī: ċūra:ne: ke:
ilzā:m mē pulis ne use paka:r līyā:. māsmīla: darbaar tak pahuṭā:.
raîja: ne jaisē:hi: āgguṭhī: deki:, usko kanu rishi: ke aśhram
mē guzra: hua: vaq:ṭ aur Shakuntala: se apna: byaśh yaśd aśgaya:
aur voh Shakuntala: ki yaśd mē baqara:ś ho uṭha:. har taraf
Shakuntala:ki: talash mē aśdī dāuṛa:śe: gae: lakin Shakuntala: kū:
kaḥi: patai: na ćalā:. 
kuch muddat bārī: jab dushyant aur uske: sipa:hi: ek
muhim se laut: rahe: the: to unḥū: ne heṃkōst pahāṛī: par ek
rishi: ke aśhram ke qarī:śb par:āo dāla: raîja: jab rishi:
se milne ke liye ja: raha: tha: to raîste mē use ek lāṛka:
dikhaːi diyaː. voh kheːl hi: kheːl  mē sheːr ke
baːcche: ka mūn khoːle us ke: ċāit ginine ki: koshish kar raha: .
thaː lambaː qad ċharaːraː qīːl ċehreː-par ċamak raːjaː ko apnaː
dil khiːta huaː mahsuːs huaːː thoriː deːr mē raːjaː us lārke
se ghul mil kar bāte karne lagaːː maluːm huaː kiː us kīː māː
toːr lāː deː r meː raːjaiː us larkē
ka nāːm Shakuntalaː haiː aur uske bāːp ne us kīː māː ko ċhorː
rakhaː haiː yeh Sunteːshīː maːːre xushiː ko dushyantː keː ċisːu
bahne lageː bahaːgaː bhaːgaː ashram mē gayaː aur Shakuntlaː se
apniː bhuːl kīː maːːfiː māːgːiː.

Shakuntalaː ko mahāːraːṇi skaː darjaː diyaː gayaːː
Shakuntalaː ka bēṭa Bharat dushyant ke baːːd uskaː jāːnashīːːn
huaː aur īːiː bharat kīːrīːːyat se hindustāːn ka nāːm bhaːːrataː
varsh mashhuːːr huaːː bharat kī aulāːd ne Saːdyōː hindustāːn par
hukumat kīː mahːbhaːːrataː mē unhīː hukmaraːːnīː ko kāːrṇaːːːme
bayaːːn kiːyeː gaeː haiːː

(See Appendix-I).

TEST
There are four choices under each question. Tick the choice
which you think is correct.

1. raːjaiː dushyant kanu rishiː ke saːth /
   a) /un keː shahr gaeː theː /
   *b) /un keː ashram gaeː theː /
   c) /un keː ghar gaeː theː /
   d) /un keː doːːst keː ashram gaeː theː /
2. /Shakuntala: ko kis ne paila: tha: ?/  
   a) /uset raija: dushyant ne paila: tha:/  
   b) /uset: us kis saheiliyo ne paila: tha:/  
   *c) /uset: kanu rishi: ne paila: tha:/  
   d) /uset: esk sa:hu: ne paila: tha:/  

3. /sha:di: ke: bai: Shakuntala: se: raija:  
   dushyant ne kya: vaid: kiya: tha: /  
   a) /rai: ne kaha: tha: ki voh use: esf bahot  
      xu:bsurat mahal banva: kar de:ga:/  
   *b) /rai: ne vaid: kiya: tha: ki uska: be:ta: hi:  
      us ke: raij ka: varis bane ga: /  
   c) /rai: ne kaha: tha: ki voh bhi: us ke: sa:th  
      a:shram me: rahe:ga:/  
   d) /rai: ne kaha: tha: ki voh use: esk xu:bsurat  
      tohfa: la:kar de:ga:/  

   a) /esk phu:il /  
   *b) /esk angu:thi:/  
   c) /esk ha:ir /  
   d) /esk kangan/
5. /kanu rishi: se milne kaun aya: tha?:/
   *a) /rishi: drosa:/
   b) /rishi: dronačarya:/
   c) /un ka: naukar/
   d) /un ka: bha:i /

6. /rishi: drosa: ne Shakuntala: ko kya: shrasp diya?:/
   *c) /unho ne kaha: ki tu: jiski: yadi me' isterah kosi: hai
      voh tujhe bhu:1 jase aur ter:re: yadi dila:ne par bhri:
      tujhe: na: pah:ca:ne: /
   d) /unho ne kaha: ki tera: pati na: mile: /

7. /kanu rishi: jab ya:tra: se va:pas ase: to... /
   *a) /unho ne Shakuntala: ko ra:ja: duszyant ke pa:is bhe:jne ka:
      faisla: kiya: /
   b) /unho ne Shakuntala: ko bahot bura:nhala: kaha: /
   c) /voh xu:1 use dushyant ke pa:is le:ga: /
   d) /unho ne Shakuntala:ko us ke ghar va:pas bhe:j diya: /

8. /Shakuntala: ki: angu:thi: kis vaqt giri?:/
   a) /kha:te vaqt: /
   *b) /naha:te vaqt:/
c) /shika:r karte: vaqt/

d) /pe:ro ko paini de:te: vaqt/

    pahu:ti: to -----/  
    a) us ka: inteqal ho gayã:/
* b) /us ko e:ka be:ta paida: hua: /
    c) /us ko e:ka be:ti: paida: hui:/
    d) /use kanu rishi: mile/

    a) /e:ka kisa:n ko khe:t me:/
    b) /e:ka shika:rã: ko Jangal me:/
    c) /e:ka carvas:he: ko /

    a) /bha:rat/
    b) /bhi:m /
* c) /bharat/
    d) /ra:m/

12. /lafz "parvarish" ke ma:nã: hai/  
    a) /khila:nas:/
* b) /pa:lna:/
13. /raja: dushyant ne Jaise hi: agusthis dekhi: ------- /
   a)/use apne: upar bahot Gussa: a:ya: /
   b)/use apni: la: parvashi yar:di a:si: /
   c)/use: apne: shikair ka: zamarnai: ya:di a:gayai:
   *d)/use: apna: byash aur Shakuntala: ke Gaath kanu rishi:

   *a) /he:m kot ki paha:ri: par/
   b) /kanu rishi: ke: a:shram mē/
   c) /rishi: drosa: ke: a:shram mē/
   d) /maidā:ne jang mē/

15. /jab raja: ne lārke ko: dekha: to: voh kyā: kar raha:
    tha: ?/
   a) /voh khel raha: tha: /
   b) /voh bha:si raha: tha: /
   *c) /voh ke: l hīskheīl mē she: ir ke: bā:čē: ke: mauh
   d) /voh she: ir ki savirī: kar rahastha: /
16. /jab raja ko pata kal ke larka ki ma ka naa/
   Shakuntala hai to -------/
   a) /xushi ke mar ke aisa nikal pare/
   b) /xushi se voh naste laga/
   c) /voh bahot razi hua/
   d) /us ne use pakarya liya/

5.2.2 'Cloze Test' and its Importance:

The term "Cloze" is derived from the Geslalt concept of 'closure', the tendency to complete a structured whole by filling a missing gap. The cloze test was developed by W.L. Tylor in 1953 for testing reading comprehension. This test was designed to know as to how much a student understands after reading a given passage. This procedure of testing has been experimented by various scholars in different situations. It covers broader range of testing, i.e., from comprehension of vocabulary to paragraph comprehension and communicability of the entire passage. The basic assumption of this procedure is that in view of the redundancies inherent in any language, rarely each word in a sequence of speech is found necessary for understanding of the new message and hence, parts of speech sequences can be anticipated even if they are missing.
In this technique we measure how well a student has understood what he has read. The student, taking the test, tries to guess the precise word which is deleted. In other words, in a reading comprehension test based on Cloze testing procedure, the student would have to write the appropriate word in the blank space. In Cloze procedure of testing reading comprehensions generally 550 or 600 words are given in the passage to the students to supply the appropriate words for the blank spaces given in the passage.

According to Ahuja et al (1988:2) "A Cloze test can be constructed by deleting certain words in random from a verbal passage and substituting underlined blank spaces. The testee is asked to fill in the word which very suitably belongs to each blank space. Only minor mis-spellings are disregarded; otherwise responses must match the actual word deleted". In Cloze procedure of testing the reading comprehension every Nth word is deleted from the passage and the student has to supply these words in blank spaces.

5.2.1.1 Merits of 'Cloze' test:

'Cloze' test technique is widely used for testing reading comprehension and considered very valid technique of
judging student's ability to comprehend the given passage. As Ahuja et al. (1988:a) is of the view that the possible uses of cloze procedure can be categorised into the following:

1. Readability of reading text for school children can be checked.
2. Cloze procedure is a very easy technique for grouping the students on the basis of their reading abilities.
3. It serves as a good measure for testing reading comprehension in a second language situation.
4. It is an easy and interesting technique of checking certain important aspects of reading comprehension.
5. Standardized 'cloze' test simplifies attainment testing in reading.
6. It may be used with a wide variety of material from narrative and descriptive to technical and scientific.
7. It may be used with oral as well as written materials.

5.2.1.2 Demerits of 'Cloze' Test:

In cloze procedure of testing reading comprehension, every $N^{th}$ word is deleted from the passage mechanically. The
deleted word might be a content word or a function word including certain grammatical categories. When the deleted word belongs to grammatical category, the student would be tested simultaneously for his comprehension of passage as well as the knowledge of grammar, this is not valid and is against the basic principle of testing. Keeping the above demerit in view, various scholars have adopted the Cloze procedure by deleting only certain word clauses like; nouns, verbs, etc. rather than deleting every Nth word of the passage.

5.2.1.3 Sample Test of 'Cloze Test' for Testing Reading Comprehension:

In the following model test for testing reading comprehension, we would like to present the following Urdu paragraph which is selected from the text-book of class IV prepared by the NCERT, New Delhi.

Instruction - Read the following passage carefully and supply the word missing in the blanks of the passage.

Reading Comprehension test:

/Chaiwan nehru hamai ne un barse rahnusam e se ek hai jinhone ne mulk ko ______ karasne ke liye qurbaniya: d/.
Un ka puṣra: nāṃm Pandit Jawahar lāl nehrū thā:. mulk aṣaḍ hua: to vo hindūstān ke ___ vazīr-e-azām hua: Un ka shumār duniya ki azīm hastīō me ___ hai.


Jawahar lāl ki: ēkta:slīm ilāsh:baːd me ____ phir unhe inglistān bhej diyā:gyā:___ mei unho ne iskuː:l ki taːslīm haːsīl karne: keː baːd kaimbrij ke trīːnātī: kaːlej me daːxīlā: liyā: is _________ se ḍīgri: haːsīl kār ke unho ne qaːːnūn ki taːslīm haːsīl kiː aur vakāːːlat ki sanāːd liː iskuːːl aur kaːlej me voh zahīːn ___ samjheː jāːːte theː. voh khelō me bhiːːhīsa ____ theː aur muːqabīːlō me auːval ateː theː;

hindūstāːn vaːːpas ākār javahar lāl nehrū: ne hai: koːrt me ____ shurū kar diː lekin un kaː dil āpe vatan ki ______ ke liye be Yāin raːːtaː: thāː jāːː unki muːlāːqāːt gāːːhīːjiːse: _______ to un se bahot mutaːssīr hua: mulk ko
"azad" karain ki jaddojaha? me voh gaddhi ji ka

bataine lage.

Java:har lal nehru ki kamla kaul se

hui. voh bahot nizuk aur xu:bsur:rat thi. un ke eski

paida hui. to us ka na:am Indira Pirya:darshani rakha:gaya:

yehi voh la:rk:hi thi: jo age kal kar ke nam se

mashhur hui. aur hamare mulk ki ban.

17

Gaddhi: jiske sa:th milkar pandit java:har lal nehru ne azadi ki tahrisk me banh kar

liya. Is silsile me unhe kai bair jel pari

jeel me rahkar unho ne apni beti Indraisko jo xat likhe voh

hindustan ki tari:xe azadi ka hissa ban.

jeel me rahte hue unho ne apni aspi:sti bhili likhi.

azad hindustan ka vazi:re azam

banne ke bad pandit java:har lal nehru ne awam ki bhalai ke

liye bahot se: kiye. mulk se Garisbi: aur jahalat

karne ke liye mansur:be ban:ae. Kaisin, mazjursi

23
aur pîchre hue tabqo ki hasilat sudhârne liye bahot koshishé kí. un ke zamaíne mé ne bahot taraqqí ki aur saãri mé hamaíre mulk ko izzat ki nazar se dekha:
Jaíne laga.


(see Appendix-II)
TESTING WRITING SKILL

5.1 Writing as a Skill:

Writing is one of the four basic language skills. A person cannot be an expert of a language without having mastered the four basic language skills, i.e., comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. Writing can be defined as visual representation of speech. As Lado (1961:248) suggests, "writing a foreign language as the ability to use the language and its graphic representation productively in ordinary writing situations". A person can write his native language without being able to create anything beautiful. So we cannot use mere creative power as a proof that a student knows how to write a foreign language. By writing a language we mean, the ability to use structure, lexical items, their conventional representation in ordinary writing.

5.1.1 Purpose of Writing:

Writing is often regarded as the visual representation of speech. But this is true only to the extent that speech sounds can be represented by some marks on paper. It is a well-known fact that speech and writing are used in different situations; hence, they serve different social functions. There are not many situations where we have a free
choice between speech and writing. In most cases we are obliged to use only one of these two modes of communication.

The situation where writing becomes the only choice is when the receiver of the communication is not physically present and writing has certain specific features to meet the exigencies of the situation. In face to face communication through speech, the physical presence of the speaker and the hearer makes it possible to supplement speech with other non-verbal signals such as facial expressions, body movements, stress, pitch etc. The speaker also gets sufficient feedback from the hearer to repeat a sentence, if necessary to make the message clear.

Since these advantages are not available with writing, other devices have to be used in order to compensate for them. Some of the obvious devices are: punctuation marks, paragraphing, use of capital or bold letters, underlining, italicising, use of various types of sentence connectors e.g., therefore, however, in other words, in short, finally etc., use of lexical words in place of modal verbs e.g., 'possible' in place of 'may'; use of different word orders etc. It is therefore, apparent that in order to communicate through writing one has to learn these conventions besides acquiring the ability to write the letters of the alphabet and spell the
words. Furthermore, writing does not come under the everyday use of language. Except professional people like journalists, writers, teachers etc, others have very few occasions to resort to this mode of communication. Due to these reasons writing is regarded as most difficult language skill to acquire.

5.1.2. The Process of Writing

The process of writing can be divided into three stages: manipulation, structuring, and communication, which roughly corresponds to recognition, structuring, and interpretation of meaning in reading.

'Manipulation' consists of the psycho-motor ability to form the letters of the alphabet. This is the most rudimentary stage of writing. For second language learners it is less problematic. For example, Indian students whose mother tongue does not use the Roman alphabet, the task of learning to write the letters should be comparatively easy. All they need to learn is to form these new letters.

Second stage is 'structuring'. In this stage the learner is required to organise the letters into words, and the words into phrases and sentences. This will be comparatively easy if writing is preceded by intensive oral work.
In that case the learner has only to produce the words and patterns he has learnt orally.

If these two were the only aspects of writing, the skill of writing would have developed almost automatically with the development of the oral skill. Everyone who understands and speaks his mother tongue would have been able to write it by simply learning the script. But, it is not true. Writing involves more than just these two aspects. It can be easily seen from the fact that most people, though they can speak the language perfectly well and can even write a beautiful hand cannot express themselves coherently in writing.

Communication in writing is the ultimate goal. At this stage the writer is able to select the appropriate structures and vocabulary in the overall context of the passage, keeping in view the subject matter and the reader.

5.13 Analysis of Writing:

We can analyse some of the components of the skill of writing. Here we may say that a person who can express himself in written language can:

a) write the letters of the alphabet at a reasonable speed;

b) spell the word correctly;

c) recall appropriate words and put them in sentences;
d) use appropriate punctuation marks;
e) link sentences with appropriate sentence and sequence signals;
f) organise thoughts and ideas in logical sequences and in suitable paragraphs around topic sentences;
g) evaluate the significance of a word or a sentence in the overall context of the written passage;
h) use the form and register appropriately for the subject matter and the audience.

Various Urdu scholars have analysed the writing system of Urdu. Such as Khan (1974), Narang (1990), Jafar Hasan (1940) etc. But they have analysed Urdu script from the point of view of reforms and modernization. Beg (1995a) has made the structural analysis of the Urdu script from the teaching point of view. In his other study (1995b) he has looked at the Urdu script from the point of view of its standardization.

5.2 Elements of Urdu Writing System:

5.2.1 Graphemes:

Urdu has Indo-Aryan base, but it derives its orthographical system from the Perso-Arabic Sources. As Beg (1995b, p.228) is of the view, "Urdu Script is an extended form of the Arabic
whose source can be traced back to Aramic script prevalent in ancient Syria. Arabic script, after making certain modifications was first used to write the Persian language in Iran. Thereafter, with some more modifications and reforms it came to be used for the Urdu language in India. Urdu script acquired several changes during the last phase of its development in India.

Originally, Arabic had 29 letters including 'hamza'. But when this script was adopted for writing Persian, few new letters representing four consonantal sounds, such as /p/, /ç/ /k/ and /g/ were added to it. These letters were called 'pe', 'çe', 'že' and 'gaf' respectively. Thus the total number of Persian script was raised from 29 to 33. These forms have also become a part of the Urdu script. When the same script was used to write Urdu in India, four more letters, viz. te, dal, re and bari ye were added to it. All these newly devised letters represent three retroflex sounds /t/ /d/ and /r/ and the vowel /e/ respectively.

As Beg (1995:228) suggest, "today, Urdu script comprises 36 letters excluding 'hamza'. But to many scholars and textbook writers of Urdu, the number of Urdu letters is 37 as they consider 'hamza' as a graphemic unit or grapheme and not
merely an orthographic sign or diacritical mark representing vowel sequences in Urdu.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existing Arabic letters</th>
<th>New letters devised for Persian</th>
<th>New Letters devised for Urdu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ب be</td>
<td>ب pe</td>
<td>ب te</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ح he</td>
<td>ح ē</td>
<td>ح ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ر re</td>
<td>ر ē</td>
<td>ر ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>د dal</td>
<td>د gaf</td>
<td>د gaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ك kaf</td>
<td>ك gaf</td>
<td>ك gaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ل lal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>م maf</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ن naf</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grapheme is the smallest unit of writing. In other words, various letters which are used to write script is known as graphemes. Urdu has 36 graphemes. These graphemes are arranged according to their shapes and not according to the sounds they represent. In Devnagari script letters are arranged according to the sounds they represent. Beg (1995:232), in his structural study of Urdu script, has enumerated the following main features of Urdu script:

1. It is read and written from right to left.
2. It has 'nastaliq' (a fine round hand) style of writing.
3. Its letters are arranged according to the similarity of shapes and not according to the similarity of sounds.

4. Many of its letters are homophonous.

5. Majority of its letters change their shapes and almost get shortened when combined with other graphemes in initial, medial and final positions.

6. Its diacritical marks are maintained while writing primers and preparing textbooks for lower levels but are generally avoided in scholarly books and print media (Newspapers, journals etc.).

7. Urdu script, to a great extent, preserves the original spellings of Perso-Arabic borrowings which sometimes do not conform to the phonetic norms of the Urdu language.

Following is the list of 36 Urdu graphemes:

اب ب ت ن ث ج ذ ح د ذ ذ ر ن ز ت س ش س ص چ غ ف ق ک گ ل م ن و و ی ی
5.2.2 **Allographs**:

When the graphemes of any script are used to write, it may or may not appear assume different shapes at initial, medial and final positions of the word. These various connected shapes of the same grapheme are known as the "allographs".

In Urdu script, there are eleven graphemes which do not change their shapes in connected writing. These are alif, ẓal, ẓal, zal, ẓe, ẓe, zo, ẓo, vao, to and zo.

Following is the list of the Urdu graphemes with their allographs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graphemes</th>
<th>Allographs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ب/ب</td>
<td>'be' بب</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ب/پ</td>
<td>'pe' بپ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ت/ت</td>
<td>'te' تت</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ت/ط</td>
<td>'te' تط</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. س/س</td>
<td>'se' سس</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ج/ج</td>
<td>'jeem' جج</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. ج/چ</td>
<td>'ce' جچ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ج/ح</td>
<td>'he' جح</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. خ/خ</td>
<td>'xe:' خخ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. س/س</td>
<td>'seen' سس</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.3 Diacritical Marks:

Diacritical marks play an important role in Urdu writing system. According to Beg (1995), there are 18 diacritical marks in Urdu orthography. These diacritical marks are classified under consonantal, vocalic, nasal, genetiv categories. Some vowels are represented by

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graphemes</th>
<th>Allographs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. ش / ش</td>
<td>'sheen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. س / س</td>
<td>'swad'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. ض / ض</td>
<td>'zjad'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. ع / ع</td>
<td>'ain'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. غ / غ</td>
<td>'Gain'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. ق / ق</td>
<td>'fe'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. گ / گ</td>
<td>'gaf'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. ک / ک</td>
<td>'Kaf'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. گ / گ</td>
<td>'gaf'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. ل / ل</td>
<td>'lam'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. م / م</td>
<td>'mim'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. ن / ن</td>
<td>'noon'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. ہ / ہ</td>
<td>'he'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. ی / ی</td>
<td>'ye'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. ب / ب</td>
<td>'bari ye'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. ہ / ہ</td>
<td>'hamza'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
diacritical marks and some by the combination of diacritical mark and semi-vowels. The letter 'alif' is also used to represent a vowel. All diacritical mark accompany some letters. 'Hamza' is an orthographic symbol which is used for vowel sequence.

These diacritical marks are commonly used at the lower or primary levels of the teaching of Urdu language. The primary textbook writers deliberately use these diacritical marks. But at higher levels or in scholarly writings or in newspapers, journals etc. these are not used at all. At this stage, readers are able to read the text or passage correctly through the context. It may be noted that all these diacritical marks are placed either over or under a letter. The sign of marks such as Zabar, pesh, ulti pesh, khaṣa alif, mad and hamza are always placed over the letters whereas zer, khaṣi zer are placed under the letters.

Teaching these diacritical marks for second language learners is very essential because for them, these prove to be very problematic unless these are taught to them properly. They should be able to recognise and memorise them at the initial stage. Without learning them they cannot read the passage correctly.
Beg (1995:231) has categorized the Urdu diacritical marks as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Orthographical form</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diacritical marks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>a) Vocalic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Zabar (/a/ or Schwa = /ə/)</td>
<td>--- as in</td>
<td>'das'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Zer (/i/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'dill'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pesh (/u/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'dum'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. mad (/ā/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'ām'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Kharaazabar (/ā/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'musa'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Khara zer (/ī/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'īd'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ulṭa Pesh (/ū/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'ūr'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ulṭajazm (/a/ and au/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'sair', 'taur'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. hamza (vowel sequence)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'āo'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>b) Consonantal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. tashdid (gemination)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'abba'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. dochashmi 'he' (aspiration)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'hath'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. jazm (consonant cluster)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'dard'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. tanvin (representing /n/)</td>
<td>~ as in</td>
<td>'furan'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3 **Phoneme-Grapheme correspondence in Urdu:**

Urdu spellings show many complications because some of its phonemes correspond by more than one graphemes. In Urdu, there is no one-to-one relationship between speech and writing. This dual, triple, or even four in some cases, existence of the letters which represent the same phonemes —
create the problem of learning Urdu orthography. It is very essential for the second language learners to memorize these phonemes and various orthographical signs to be able to read and write Urdu orthography correctly. There are five phonemes of Urdu which are represented by more than one graphemes. These are listed below to show the clear picture of phonemes, grapheme correspondence e.g.

1. /a/  
   alif =  
   ain = ē

2. /t/  
   toe = t
   te = t
   to = t
   te = t

3. /s/  
   sin = s
   swad = s
4. /n/

be (hutti) = ۰

he (hawwaz) = ۰

5. /z/

zal = ۰

ze = ۰

zwad = ۰

zoe = ۰

Similarly wao (۹) is represented by two phonemes, /v/ and /o/ as in (وقت) /vaqt/ 'time' and (كوت) /kot/ 'coat' respectively.

Another consonant phoneme ye (۰) is represented by two phonemes /y/ as in (يار) /yar/ 'friend' and /i/ as in (دة) /dadi/ 'grand mother'.

Vowels are also represented by different phonemes or diacritic marks. As Beg (1983:562) is of the view, "there are eight vowels phonemes in Urdu. Of these, three are short and five are long. Their contrasts are given below:

1. /a/ /dar/ 'door'
2. /a:/ /daːr/ 'gallow'
3. /i/ /khil/ 'bloom' (imp.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Vowel</th>
<th>Urdu</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>/l:/</td>
<td>/khi:l/</td>
<td>'parched grain'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>/dur/</td>
<td>'pearl'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>/u:/</td>
<td>/du:r/</td>
<td>'far'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>/khel/</td>
<td>'game'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>/o:/</td>
<td>/khol/</td>
<td>'open' (imp.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These vowels represented variously in Urdu orthography. They have a variety of orthographic correspondences in Urdu which involve letters and certain orthographical signs.

As we noted earlier that Urdu has 36 letters or phonemes. The letters like Va:oy (O) and Cho:ti ye (O) always represent vowels as well as semi-vowels. Alif (l) and Bar:eye (O) always represent vowels. Ain (O) and Hamza (S) which are basically consonants in Arabic orthography, represent vowels in Urdu. Another consonant called Hae Hawwaz (O) in Urdu represents vowel when it occurs as Haemukhtafi.

Orthographical signs which represent vowels in Urdu are eight in number. But they cannot be used alone. As Beg (1983:583) suggests, "they do not have the existence of their own unless they are accompanied by the letters representing consonants, vowels and semi-vowels".
These signs can be grouped into two categories, namely, primary and secondary, orthographical signs.

Primary orthographical signs do not take the help of vowels except alif in some cases, to represent vowel sounds. They occur with letters which represent consonants and semi-vowels. They also occur with hamza and alif. These signs are called zabar(—) zer (—) and pesh (—) and represent the /a/, /i/ and /u/ respectively eg.

1. جل /mal/ rub (imp.)
2. مل /mil/ meet (imp.)
3. مل /mul/ wine

Secondary orthographical signs are used with the letters which represent vowels and semi-vowels to represent vowel sound. These signs are called kharā alif, kharī-zer, ulṭa-pesh, mad and hamza. The diacritical marks which represent these sounds are (۰), (۱), (۲), (۳) and (۸) respectively eg.

1. دعوى /da:va/ 'claim'
2. سيل /mi:1/ 'mile'
Khara-alif occurs with choṭi-ye and it represents vowel /a:/ in the words such as /mu:sa:/ 'moses' /a:la:/ superior'.

Khara-alif also occurs with the letter mim as in the words like /rahma:n/ (propername).

Khari-zer always occurs with choṭi ye representing the long vowel /i:/ at medial position, as in the word /i:d/ festival'.

Ulta-pesh occurs with 'vao' and it represents long vowel /u/.

'Mad' always occurs with alif at the initial position eg /a:j/ 'today', /a:m/ 'mango'.

As Beg (1983:564) suggests, "hamza is a very peculiar orthographical sign. It is a consonant in Arabic. The traditionalist count it as an Urdu alphabet but actually it is an orthographical sign and not a letter in Urdu. It occurs with vao, choṭi ye and baṛi ye to represent the vowel sounds /o/, /i:/ and /e/ respectively".
5.4 Techniques for Testing Writing Skill:

5.4.1 Completion Technique:

This technique can be used to test punctuation, spelling, vocabulary etc., objectively. It consists of providing an incomplete piece of writing and asking the candidate to complete it. For example, to test punctuation we leave out some of the items of punctuation, to test spelling we leave out a letter or letters, to test vocabulary we leave out a word or words from the sentence. But one thing is important that while making such a type of test, the context must be defined, unambiguously, the element that is missing.

5.4.1.1 Formation of Words by Supplying the Missing Graphemes:

It is based on completion technique. It is used to test candidate's ability to write the language correctly. This technique is very important and useful. To test the completion of graphemes, we omit the problem letters and define the word by context. We can also give a list of test words to students with omitted letters to complete and ask to supply the missing letters from the words. Here we have to give sufficient clues to them so that they may recognise the words correctly. Actually, through this method, we test whether the student is able to draw the shapes of a particular letter.
Q. Read the following sentences and supply the missing letter or letters.

In the above questions, students are asked to supply the missing letters.

Another procedure could be to give the list of words with omitted letters and ask the students to supply the missing letters of the words.

Q. Read the following words carefully and supply the missing letters.

1. __+__+__  'necessity'
2. __+__+__+__  'to talk about'
3. __+__+__+__  'tyranny'
This technique is very effective and easy. Through this technique we can test entire range of graphemes.

5.4.1.2 Combination of Graphemes:

Testing combination of graphemes can also be done by completion technique. In Urdu, as we know that most of its letters assume different shapes at initial, medial and final positions of the words, while they are written with other graphemes in connected writing. So knowledge of these various shapes of different graphemes of Urdu is very important to the learner of Urdu. Without the knowledge of these different shapes of Urdu graphemes they may not be able to write Urdu correctly.

Completion technique is the best method for testing the learner's knowledge of the combination of graphemes. These
tests, measure the knowledge of various allographic shapes of the graphemes. In other words we can say that testing the knowledge of combination of graphemes means that whether, the learner is able to combine letters to form words.

In this technique we select different words which are to be constructed by students by combining various individual letters. The task of the students is to write them as they are used to be written in their connected form. This procedure can be illustrated by the following examples.

Following is given a list of words in which each letter is written separately. Combine these letters to form words as given in the example.

Example: ﺹ + ﺛ + ﻖ = ﺟOrderBy: 'morning'

1. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'to talk'
2. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'work'
3. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'pen'
4. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'shirt'
5. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'watch'
6. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'book'
7. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'paper'
8. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'guava'
9. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'poor'
10. ﻛ + ﻋ + ﻘ = 'path or way'
This test of combination of graphemes is very effective to test the entire range of graphemes and their connected forms.

5.4.1.3 **Spelling**:

Spelling is an important aspect of writing. It can also be tested effectively through completion technique. In testing spellings, our aim is to test that whether learner is able to supply the appropriate graphemes.

To test the spelling we omit the letters from the word and the meaning of the word is determined through the context. The missing letter is supplied according to the correct meaning in the context. This method can be illustrated by the following example.

Q. Read the following sentences carefully and supply the missing letters.

1. **تمناس** + **ن ب م ک ر ک یا** + + + + +
   (what do you drink when you are thirsty)

2. **گری ی** + + + + + + + + + بی + + + + +
   (one feels very thirsty in summer)

3. **تیاری گ** + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +
   (what is the time by your watch?)
A variation of this test may be that we supply the words to students, but omit some letters from them and ask them to supply the missing letters. Here we have to give appropriate clues in order to understand the exact word eg.

Q. Read the following words carefully and supply the missing letters to them.

1. (---) 'pen'
2. (---) 'shirt'
3. (---) 'water'
4. (---) 'inkpot'
5. (---) 'book'

Another procedure would have been that we give a list of words to the students which begins with homophonous letters (the letter represented by more than one grapheme) and ask to supply the missing letter eg.

Select the appropriate letter given in the brackets in order to form the correct words.

1. (---)  
2. (---)  
3. (---)  
4. (---)  

Another technique for testing the spelling is to construct multiple choice test. In which a particular word
is written in four types of spelling. Out of which only one is correct. The student is asked to tick the word with correct spelling.

Example:

Q. Tick the correct word from the following:
   a) 
   b) 
   c) 

Q. Tick the correct word from the following:
   a) 
   b) 
   c) 

5.4.1.4 Diacritical Marks:

Diacritical marks play an important role in Urdu orthography. As we have discussed at the beginning of this chapter, there are 18 diacritical marks in Urdu. The knowledge of these signs is very essential because various signs such as Jamation, consonant clusters, tanveen (representing /n/), izafat etc are indicated by these diacritical marks. So, the knowledge of these signs is
very essential for the learner who is learning Urdu as a second language. Although these diacritical marks are not used at higher levels, such as, in standard books, daily newspapers, journals etc. But at the initial level, the knowledge of these signs is very important otherwise one cannot read the Urdu orthography correctly.

To test the knowledge of various diacritical marks, completion technique is very effective.

To test the knowledge of various diacritical marks, we give different words or sentences to the students without using diacritical marks and ask them to put the necessary signs on them. This can be illustrated by the following examples.

Q. Read the following sentences carefully and put the necessary diacritical marks on them.

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 

3. 
4.
Q. Read the following words carefully and put necessary diacritical marks on them.

1. نشر دولت
2. خاک وطن
3. سیراے دل
4. بالترتیب
5. حب الوطن
6. بیاً علی
7. نسبتا
8. عفاسي

Q. Put the zor, zabar and pesh on the following words.

1. رک
2. دل
3. در

Q. Put the jamination appropriately on the following words.

A) (a) کتاب
   (b) کتاب
   (c) کوبا
B) (a) لیل
   (b) لیل
   (c) لیل
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The present work deals with the linguistic approach to the testing of Urdu language skills. In this study efforts have been made to use the knowledge of linguistics in the testing of various skills of the Urdu language, viz., listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. Linguistics is a relatively modern discipline which has revolutionized the teaching of language. The application of the theoretical knowledge of linguistics is made increasingly to almost every aspect of language teaching. Testing is an activity which follows teaching. Linguistics contributes much to this area also.

This study consists of six chapters covering almost all the aspects of testing. Chapter I is introductory in nature. It deals with some aspects of linguistics and language teaching and of the relationship of linguistics with language teaching and language testing. The role of linguistics in language teaching and language testing has also been emphasized in this chapter. An effort has also been made in this chapter to discuss the importance of testing and evaluation in language teaching.

Chapter II is about Urdu language testing. In this chapter the present state of Urdu language testing has been
described. The existing pattern of testing reading comprehension, lexical skill, grammar and writing with reference to Urdu language have been discussed at length. The limitation of Urdu language testing have also been discussed in this chapter. The existing pattern and methodology of Urdu language testing have been fully described and the question papers of various classes have fully analysed and their elements of the existing pattern have been pointed out.

In the following four chapters i.e. from Chapter III to VI, efforts have been made to utilize the knowledge of linguistics in the construction of tests for testing listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. Chapter III is devoted to the testing of listening comprehension. Here different techniques for testing listening comprehension skill have been discussed. The testing of comprehension of sound, the testing of the comprehension of grammatical structure and the testing of comprehension of meaning involve different kinds of techniques and procedures which have been fully elaborated in this chapter with examples from the Urdu language.

The next skill which follows listening comprehension is the speaking skill. Chapter IV has been fully devoted to
the testing of speaking skill. In this chapter also various techniques for testing the speaking skill have been discussed. Speaking involves production of speech sounds which consist of vowels and consonants. While speaking, the speech sounds occur in a sequence. In this chapter various techniques have been proposed for testing the production of speech sounds and their sequences with reference to the Urdu language. Testing of speaking skill also covers the testing of the production of grammatical structures. Certain techniques have been proposed for testing this aspect of speaking also.

Reading is one of the four skills of language learning. Chapter V of this work has been devoted to the testing of reading skill. Reading is an activity which involves the identification of graphic symbols. So far as the writing system of the Urdu language is concerned it consists of 36 letters or graphemes. Most of which change their shapes while they are combined together. The reading habit of Urdu therefore, entails not only the separate graphemes but also their modified forms. Besides, there are a number of diacritical marks which are used for the beginners. Testing of reading skill presupposes the identification of the whole orthographic system of the Urdu language. The testing of reading comprehension is as a
matter of fact based on the total acquisition of reading skill. For testing the reading comprehension, two major techniques viz., cloze test and multiple choice test have been discussed with reference to Urdu language. Various tests of these types have been constructed.

Chapter VI deals with the testing writing skill. The writing involves the practical activity of making graphic symbols such as graphemes, allographs and diacritical marks. Various techniques have been devised for testing the writing skill such as completion technique which involves completion and combination of grapheme and allographs. Another technique for testing writing skill involves spelling i.e. where to use which grapheme. Various tests have been constructed to exemplify these techniques for testing writing skill.

As said earlier the testing of language skills in schools follow the traditional methods and the teacher who construct the tests in these schools hardly adopt these techniques. As a result of which these tests remain far from being the standardized test. As most of the teachers are not aware of the linguistic approaches to the construction of language tests, they indulge in devising the language tests which tend to be the content oriented tests instead of being linguistically
oriented tests. It is commonly found that the testing of listening comprehension and speaking is not given due attention. The tests based on listening comprehension and speaking are generally avoided. Even the tests based on reading skill is not given much importance. The linguistic approach to language testing gives equal weightage to all the skills such as listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension and writing. It also covers the linguistic contents from sound to meaning i.e. it takes into account the phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic contents of language tests.
APPENDIX - 1

راجہ جہانگیر کو شکار کی کل ہمارے جو گھوڑے-گھوڑے، وہیں ساہت میں سپہ ہے۔

میں دوبارہ جا رہا ہوں۔ لکھتے ہوں کہ خوبصورت، بہن رشیدہ، راجہ جہانگیر کی بیوی جراح بہن ہے، اس لیے میں کوڑا مارن

کی اجازت سے رفت، شہزادہ کو یہ سامان اپنے لیے گیا۔ دوبارہ درخواست کے تحقیق تک پہنچنے والے آراں، آپ

کو بینے سکتے ہوں، منہ باہر ہوئے مہم کے خاتمے ہیں۔

کہا دیکھا ہے کہ میرے دوسرے شاہ محلوں کا بجاہاں ہوگیا۔ شہزادہ ہے یہ چہرے میں کہنا کہا جا اس کی اجازت

کاوارہ کیا جا رہا کا اپنے طرف کے ناہار نیا سے گالی کا جان چپا ہے۔ یہ جھاڑ ہے۔

کو بینے تو یہ شہزادہ کا بجاہاں ہوگیا۔ شہزادہ ہے یہ چہرے میں کہنا کہا جا اس کی اجازت

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کو بینے تو یہ شہزادہ کا بجاہاں ہوگیا۔ شہزادہ ہے یہ چہرے میں کہنا کہا جا اس کی اجازت

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کاوا
 mj(m)uj(U)
APPENDIX - II

چاپ اور باپارد اور پرینٹر انٹر انٹی چاپ او پرینٹر سی اس کے لئے یہ طریقہ کار ناکام نکل گیا ہے۔

فراغی اور ہیبرنیک۔ - ان کی پبلیکیشن کو تیار کرنے میں اですよ کے متعلق کچھ لوگ کا خیال ہے کہ کچھ لوگ اورس ہوں۔

وزیر اعظم نے یہ لوگ بچے اور ممالک کو فلسطینیوں میں پہنچنا۔

جائے نورالدین علی 14 ستمبر 1988ء اور قومی دہشت کے بھارت کے اہلکار نے پبلیکیشن کے سلسلے میں کہا کہ اس کا سلسلہ اور وکالت کے سلسلے میں اس کا سلسلہ اور وکالت کے سلسلے میں ویلین طالب علم کے جان شاہ - وٹیلینس میں جن کی محققیت میں اور مستقل میں ایک اور مستقل میں۔

پرستوں۔ - ان کا دل کو پتھر کی جگہ جوہرے کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پتھر کے لئے پت
کی بھی پیمان بہت ہے کہ وہ جو جس سے طاقت کے سایۂ قتوں کے طور پر جو کہ نیپری کہا گیا، نہیں ہوگیا۔ 

بہت سے۔ بہت کو کہ اکثر کسی بھی کوئی اپنی ایک اپنی نئی اساتذہ۔ اس کی حاضر ہے کہ اس کے سبھ توں اوپر اور اوپر کو جو جو کہ نہیں ہوگیا۔

کہ سیاہی کی تھی اور ہیں ہے۔ مزید کی کہ اس کی ہے کہ اس کے سبھ توں اوپر اور اوپر۔ اس کی ہے کہ سیاہی کی تھی اور ہے۔

کہ سیاہی کی تھی اور ہے۔ مزید کی کہ اس کی ہے کہ اس کے سبھ توں اوپر اور اوپر۔ اس کی ہے کہ سیاہی کی تھی اور ہے۔

کہ سیاہی کی تھی اور ہے۔ مزید کی کہ اس کی ہے کہ اس کے سبھ توں اوپر اور اوپر۔ اس کی ہے کہ سیاہی کی تھی اور ہے۔

27 جمیل 1984 کو محروم مکہ کے محروم رحمہ واربہا کے "چاچا نورو" کا انتقال

ہٹگی۔ لیکن اس کے کبھی بھی نسبکے دلوں میں بھی سپت بائی رنگی۔
REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY
REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY


