

**A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF ERRORS
COMMITTED BY
NEPALI LEARNERS OF ENGLISH**

A Thesis submitted to the University of Hyderabad
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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Centre for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies
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DECEMBER 1995

Dedicated

My Father

Keshar Datt Awasthi

a.


My Late Mother

Heera Devi Awasthi

D E C L A R A T I O N

This is to certify that I, Jai Raj Awasthi, have carried out the research embodied in the present thesis for the full period prescribed under Ph.D. ordinances of the University.

I declare to the best of my knowledge that no part of this thesis was earlier submitted for the award of research degree of any university.



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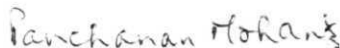
C E R T I F I C A T E

This is to certify that Jai Raj Awasthi worked under our supervision for the Ph.D. degree in Applied Linguistics. His thesis entitled *A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF ERRORS COMMITTED BY NEPALI LEARNERS OF ENGLISH*, represents his own independent work at the University of Hyderabad. This work has not been submitted to any other institution for the award of this or any other degree.

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ABSTRACT

The present study entitled *A Linguistic Analysis of Errors Committed by **Nepali Learners** of English* is an attempt made to collect, elicit, describe, analyse and evaluate the errors in **English made** by the **Proficiency Certificate** level First Year students of Tribhuvan University, Nepal. This effort is made at the juncture of time when there is a growing concern about **the** deplorable condition of the English language teaching (ELT) on **the** one hand **and** a growing attraction of the people towards it on the other. Despite the fact that Nepal has an experience of teaching English for over a century now, the high failure rates in it both at the School Leaving Certificate and the tertiary level examinations **are** annoying everyone concerned. Thus, the works of the present nature, it is hoped, can measure the level of proficiency of the university intake in English in order to provide an input to the people concerned for bringing about an **improvement** in the ELT situation at large.

The study is divided into six chapters. The first chapter deals with the CLT situation in Nepal. A concise sketch of the linguistic situation of Nepal is followed by an introductory note on the kingdom. The position of English in Nepal - whether it is **a** second or a foreign language is also clarified. The teaching of **English** in the past and its current situation - at both school and **campus** levels is discussed taking the **curriculum**s, textbooks, teaching and learning methods, teacher training, etc. into consideration. The discussion is supplemented with a few surveys and research works carried out in the country for the improvement of the ELT situation. Quite a few studies of the present nature carried out in the country are also reviewed. Though the study is not a conclusive one, it has been carried out to detect **the** types of errors that the Nepali learners of English commit; describe them; find out their possible causes or sources, and evaluate them in terms of their **acceptability** with a view to giving an input to the people concerned in the ELT enterprise in Nepal for the course of action to be taken **in** future.

The second chapter presents the theoretical foundation of this study. Two areas of linguistics related to the present study, i.e. **contrastive** analysis and error **analysis** are discussed with their strength and weaknesses. A procedure of carrying out error analysis research is also given followed by the review of the studies on error gravity.

The third chapter **incorporates** the research methodology adopted for obtaining the **required** data. The study includes the students from hills and plains, of middle class social stratum, first year university students belonging to thirteen different **language families**. A stratified **random** sampling procedure is applied to select the population of the study. Apart from the general **questionnaire**, five different types of test viz. listening, **grammar**, reading **comprehension** (cloze), word-formation and word meaning, and writing are used to collect data from the subjects. The errors are identified, tabulated and quantified for **analysis**.

The fourth chapter deals with an analysis and interpretation of the data. Depending upon the nature of tests, the analysis is presented in five sections. Errors on listening are further treated into two **sub-sections**, e.g. sound **discrimination** (vowels and consonants) and **comprehension**. Similarly, errors on grammar are analysed into three sub-sections viz. errors obtained from multiple choice test, error **identification** test, and translation test. Errors obtained from the **word-formation** and word meaning test, **reading comprehension** (cloze) test, and writing test are treated separately.

The fifth chapter deals with error gravity. A **questionnaire** containing 60 sentences extracted from the data obtained from the students under study is used to **this** effect. Fifty native English teachers and the same number of Nepali English teachers have evaluated these sentences in terms of their **acceptability** or

seriousness of errors in them. These sentences have been analysed into 26 different categories in order to present their combined rank order based on **the** mean of the rank order and the mean of the mean scores of both the groups **of** evaluators.

The final chapter presents the summary, findings and pedagogical **implications**. It is found that the Nepali learners of English commit errors due to both interlingual and intralingual influences. At times, they are also found developmental in nature. It is also found that the native English teachers are more lenient in evaluating learners' errors compared to their non-native counterparts. On the basis of these findings some pedagogical suggestions are presented in the end.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS USED IN THE PRESENT STUDY

AA	Austro-Asiatic
ABS	Absolute
AD	anno Domini in the year of the Lord
AGR	Agriculture
Approx	Approximately
Asp	Aspirated
aux	Auxiliaries
B Ed	Bachelor of Educ ation
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BrE	British English
BSP	Boarding School Products
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CC	Computing Centre
CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
c:f	Confer comapre (not 'see')
Cm	Centimetre
CTSDC	Curriculum Textbooks and Supervision Development Centre
D	Dravidian
DEO	District Education Officer
E	East
EA	Error Analysis
EDU	Education
EL	English ns a foreign language
EGD	Error Gravity Distribution
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENG	Engineering
ER	English Reader
ESL	English as a second language
et al.	and othr people
etc.	and so on
e.g.	for example
FL	Foreign language
FOR	forestry
HMG	His Majesty's Government
HUM	Humanities and Social Sciences
IATEFL	International Association of Teaching English as a Foreign Language
ibid.	in the same book, article, passage, etc. (previously mentioned)
IE	Indo-European
IL	Interlanguage
i.e.	that is
Km	Kilometre

L₁	F irst language
L₂	Second language
La	A pproximative Systems
M fcd	Master of Education
MA	Master of Arts
MEB	My English B ook
MED	M edicine
MG1	Management
N	North
NESP	National E ducation System Plan
NI	N ative Language
NNS	Non-Native Nepali S peaker
NNT	N on-native English Teacher
No	Number
NP	Noun P hrase
Hi	Native Nepali S peaker
	N ative English Teacher
ODA	Overseas Development Agency
op.cit.	in the work already quoted
OSS	Oral Structural Situational
p	Page
PCI	Proficiency Certificate Level
Ph D	Doctor of Philosophy
PSP	Public School Products
SC	Science and Technology
SI	Second language
SLC	School Leaving Certificate
S-V	S ubject-verb
TB	T ibeto-Burman
TESOL	Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target language
TU	T ribhuvan University
UCLES	University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
UN	United Nations
Unasp	Unaspirated
VD	Voiced
viz.	n amely
V\	V oiceless
X	Percentage
*	incorrect w ord(s)/sentence(s)
9	deleted
	o mitted
	deliberately omitted

CHAPTER - ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Nepal: An Introduction

Nepal, an independent Hindu kingdom since time immemorial, is situated on the southern lap of the great Himalayas bordered with India to the east, south and west, respectively, and the Peoples' Republic of China to the north. It is rectangular in shape and extends 850 km from east to west and with a mean width of 193 km from north to south in an area of 147,181 square kilometres. It lies between 26°22' N to 30°27' N in latitude and 80°4' E to 88°12' E in longitude.

Diversity in topography, climate, natural vegetation and wildlife make this country look very beautiful. Great rivers, high hills, snow-peaked mountains including the perennial beauty of nature, that is Mount Everest, in the north and flora and fauna of the hills and great Terai plains of the south provide enchantment to the lovers of nature. Mount Everest, the mystery of nature: Lumbini, the birth place of Lord Buddha; and "the bravest of the brave, most generous of the generous" (Turner 1930:ix) people are the glories of Nepal.

The population of the country, according to the 1991 census, is 18,491,097 with an annual growth rate of 2.08%. The Constitution of the Kingdom of Nepal - 1990 has declared her a Hindu Kingdom taking into consideration the overwhelming population of the Hindus, i.e. 86.51%. However, 7.78% of Buddhists, 3.53% of Muslims and the people of other faiths find this country a land of peace and religious harmony. The literacy rate as of 1991 is 39.6% for both sexes. 54.4% for the males and 25.0% for the females.

Being predominantly an agrarian country, Nepal engrosses more than 80% of the labour force in this sector. However, a policy of economic liberalization recently adopted by the democratic government is heading the country towards industrialization.

There is a constant increase in the number of educational institutions in Nepal. The current statistics show that there are 19,498 primary schools, 4,230 lower secondary schools, 2,309 secondary schools, 89 higher secondary (10+2) schools and 126 campuses (colleges) in the kingdom. There are three universities, namely Tribhuvan University, Mahendra Sanskrit University, and Kathmandu University. Of the three, the first one is the oldest and the largest university which imparts higher education through its four Faculties, namely Education, Humanities and Social Sciences, Law, and Management. Besides these, there are five institutes such as Agriculture and Animal Sciences, Engineering, Forestry, Medicine, and Science and Technology (*Population Monograph of Nepal, 1995*).

1.2. A Brief Sketch of the Linguistic Situation of Nepal

Nepal is a country of multilingual, multi-ethnic and multi-religious communities. The people of Nepal speak different languages, belonging to different ethnic groups and observe different religions. However, they have an undercurrent of unified linguistic structures. The Census of 1991 records 32 languages spoken as mother tongues in the country. Acharya (1991) divides these languages into four familiar language-families, just as the case in India, i.e. Indo-European (IE), Tibeto-Burman (TB), Austro-Asiatic (AA), and Dravidian (D).

Nepali which is spoken by more than half of the total population (50.31%) belongs to the Eastern Pahadi dialect of the Indo-Aryan language family similar to other cognate Indian languages like Hindi, Maithili, Bengali, Gujarati, etc. It is the only national language of the country. Nepali is used as a medium of education. It is also the language of legal affairs, business transactions, mass media and administration. As a lingua franca, it happens to be an important binding force. The other major languages of Nepal, besides Nepali, are Maithili (11.85%), Bhojpurī (7.46%), Tharu (5.37%), Tamang (4.89%), Newari (3.73%), Magar (2.33%), Rai/Kirati (2.38%), Awadhi (2.03%), Limbu (1.37%), Gurung (1.23%), and Urdu (1.09%). Rest of the languages

have less than 1% of native speakers. An **interesting** feature of the 1991 census **is** that it records, for the first **time in its** history, the native speakers of English comprising **0.01%** of the total population of the kingdom (*Statistical Pocket Book: Nepal 1994, Population Monograph of Nepal 1995*).

The Article 18:1 of the Constitution of the Kingdom of **Nepal-1990** makes a provision that "Each community residing within the kingdom of Nepal shall have the right to preserve and promote **its** language, script and culture" (p.13). The Constitution also reserves the right of each community "... to operate schools up to the primary level in **its** own mother tongue for **imparting** education to **its** children" (18:2 p.14). The National Language Policy Suggestion Commission 1993 suggests the Government to **implement** the Article 18:2 of the Constitution of the Kingdom of **Nepal-1990** in terms of **its** viability. But so far **this** provision has not been put **into** practice and therefore, Nepali remains the language of **instruction in** all the primary schools of Nepal.

1.3. **The Status of English in Nepal: A Second or a Foreign Language?**

It has already been mentioned in section 1.2 that Nepali is not merely a national language symbolically but **is** also a language used in a **wide** number of official domains **including** administration, governance, legal procedures, and business transactions. To a large **extent, it is** also used as the medium of education, and is, of course, the sole language of wider communication. **With this** background **in** mind, one has to consider what follows as an attempt made to locate the status of English **in** the kingdom - whether **it** is a second or a foreign language.

The labels *second* and *foreign* have sometimes been used **interchangeably**. At other times they have remained much debated subjects. Therefore, these terms need to be defined so as to demarcate the status of English in Nepal. In lay **persons'** terms, English holds the position of a second language for the native Nepali speakers and that of the third for the non-native Nepali speakers, because **in** the latter's case language learning follows

a chronological sequence of their mother tongue, Nepali and English. But such an **interpretation** of the labels *second* and *foreign* language **is** not very **satisfactory**.

In **this** regard Quirk et al. (1985:5) are of the opinion that a language used by persons for **communication** across frontiers who are not from the country of origin of the **said** language **is** a foreign language. Such a language is used for the purpose of listening to broadcasts, reading books or newspapers, engaging in commerce, etc. English in Nepal **is** characterized by most of these features of **foreignness** which requires to be contrasted **with** the label *second language*.

Richards et al. (1985:108) define a second language as "... a language which is not native language in a country but which **is** widely used as a medium of communication (eg in education and government) and which **is** usually used alongside another language or languages." If English is viewed according to **this** definition, **its** use in Nepal **is** much restricted to the field of education. The language of administration, except for entering **into correspondence with** a foreign country or an International organization, **is** strictly Nepali which also performs the role of a lingua franca among divergent linguistic communities. So English is not employed **here**, as Littlewood (1984:2) mentions, to serve the "... social functions within the community where it **is** learnt". Neither **it is** a lingua franca nor **is it** the language of any social group here. A recent Census Report shows that only a negligible percentage of population (that **is**, 2,784 people contributing 0.01% to the total) speak English as mother tongue in Nepal (**Statistical Pocket Book: Nepal, 1994**).

The conditions stated in **this** definition are applicable in the context of India, Nigeria and "... millions of immigrants from a **wide** range of language backgrounds as well as for the speakers of American Indian languages" (Crystal 1987:368) in **the** USA but not in the context of Nepal. Thus, English in Nepal cannot **fit into** the category of a second language.

In the perspective of a foreign language, Richards et al. (1985:108) observe it to be a language "... which is taught as a school subject but which is not used as a medium of instruction in schools nor as a language of communication within a country (eg in government, business, or industry)." The characteristics of a second language as defined here correspond with the roles English plays in Nepal. In fact, English is learned here, as Littlewood (1984:2) states, "... primarily for contact outside one's own community." The term *community* in this case must be taken globally, and not in its limited, local sense. Thus, in a more restricted sense, it is "... a non-native language taught in school that has no status as a routine medium of communication in that country" (Crystal 1987:368).

Ringbom (1987) has drawn a very clear-cut distinction between a second and a foreign language in the following way: "There are important contextual differences between the two, which have considerable effect on the learners. In a second language acquisition context, the language is spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, who has good opportunities to use the language for participation in natural communication situations. Second language acquisition, may or may not, be supplemented by classroom teaching. In a foreign language learning situation, on the other hand, the language is not spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, although mass media may provide opportunities for practicing the receptive skills. There is little or no opportunity for the learner to use the language in natural communication situations" (pp.26-27).

Ringbom's line of demarcation between a second and a foreign language perfectly suits to the Nepali situation in the case of English. It certainly falls under foreign category. His analysis of how these differences affect the learning of a language is a very crucial point. After analysing these situations, it can be concluded that English belongs to the foreign language category in Nepal.

1.4. The Status of Teaching of English in Nepal: Historical Perspectives

Scholars are of divided opinion regarding the first introduction of English in Nepal. Historical evidence, however, suggests that the history of English in Nepal may date back to the days of a seventeenth century king of the Malla dynasty named Pratap Malla (1641-74 A.D.) who ruled over Kantipur (Kathmandu) because modern Nepal was not unified until 1768. An inscription carved in dedication of the king at Hanumandhoka (an old Royal Palace) reads that he knew fourteen different languages including English. However, not much can be inferred from this.

Aryal (1970) believes that the English language gained access to Nepal during the final period of the Malla regime, i.e. in the early nineteenth century, through the Christian missionaries. Jha (1989:111-1v) on the other hand, holds a different view and gathers that "... the factors that are directly responsible for the coming of the English language in Nepal may be traced in the Anglo-Nepalese commercial and military contacts on the one hand, and the recruitment of hundreds of the Nepalese to the Gurkha regiment of the British Army on the other". History records that these events first began to take place after the Treaty of Sugauli in 1816, and stretch over the pages of history till date. Certainly, there must be several similar historical facts behind the access of English in Nepal.

Jung Bahadur Rana, the first Prime Minister of the Rana dynasty, took a great interest in the English system of education after his visit to the UK. He, therefore, opened a school in 1854, the first school in Nepal called the Durbar School. It was meant to educate the children of his family. This marks the beginning of the formal teaching and learning of English in Nepal. However, it was not introduced at the higher education until 1918 A.D. when the then Prime Minister Chandra Shamsher Rana established Tri-Chandra College, the first college in the Kingdom, with which virtually begins the history of higher education in Nepal.

For many decades English **remained** the **medium** of instruction in **Tri-Chandra** college and in a few high schools set up elsewhere though the Boards of Patna and Calcutta were the proto-types of the Nepalese educational system until late- **Malla** (1977:21) comments on the then prevailing situation of English thus: "Till the 1940s and 1950s even in secondary schools English language and English curriculum occupied an important place. Many **SLC** candidates voluntarily opted for English as the medium of examination for all subjects other than Sanskrit and vernaculars."

Nepalese history made a great leap forward into an age of **modernization** in the year 1950 when the people unfettered themselves from the clutches of the 104 year old autocracy. The revolution leading to the overthrow of power brought the citizens the dawn of democracy and **it** marked the beginning of Nepal's exposure to the outside world.

In 1959. Nepal established **Tribhuvan University**, the first university **in** the Kingdom, which gave a high priority to English in its curriculum. But after a decade, a nationwide master plan known as *The **National** Education System Plan* (NESP **1971-76**) was implemented which tried to **introduce** an overall change in the system of curriculum, textbook, examination, etc. from primary to the university levels of education. The NESP had an immediate impact upon the Nepalese educational system and consequently upon English as well. First, it made a reduction in the weightage earlier given to English at both the school and the college level syllabuses. The school level English was reduced to a single paper carrying 100 full marks from the usual two papers carrying 100 full marks each. Similarly, at the college level, the Proficiency Certificate Level (PCL, i.e. Intermediate) English was allotted 15 credit hours (equivalent to 150 marks), thus, making a curtailment of 5 credit hours (equivalent to 50 marks) from the usual practice. These credit hours were spread over three consecutive semesters, which varied from Institute to Institute, ranging between 6 to 15. In the same way, the Diploma (Bachelors) Level English also had to undergo curtailment and the new **allotment** ranged between 3 to 12 credit hours depending upon the requirement of the Institute.

Secondly, the plan made English no longer a compulsory school subject, though it remained compulsory at higher levels, by making a provision to opt for any of the UN languages - not necessarily English. But to introduce any other UN language was next to **impossible**, and English took its position as ever. **Awasthi** (1979:64) found that "The majority of people **in** different groups did not want English to be substituted by any other language. They were all **in** favour of continuing English **in** the **SLC** despite the high percentage of student failure in this course".

Thirdly, a decision made by the government at the same time to switch over from English to Nepali medium in schools to begin with and gradually in campuses left a worsening effect upon English and ironically the government could not achieve its goal either. All these steps led to the **deterioration** of the standard of English. There was then a less opportunity left for the learners to get exposed to English even **in** a formal setting.

In 1981 **Tribhuvan** University discontinued the semester system and reintroduced the annual system of teaching and examination. This brought a change in the structure of English syllabuses also. The new syllabuses allotted an **increased** weightage of 100 to 200 marks to campus level English. However, the situation of the school level English continues to remain as before.

1.5. English Language Teaching **in** Nepal at Present

The current state of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Nepal has to be viewed **in** terms of the structure of Education here. The school level education consists of five **years'** primary, three years' lower secondary, two years' secondary, and two years' higher secondary teaching. Similarly, tertiary level education, too, has a four-tier **structure**: two **years'** Proficiency Certificate Level (**PCL**), two years' Bachelor's level, two **years'** Master's level, followed by **the** research degree level.

t present there is an overlap between the two years' post
ary level education because the universities and the higher
ary schools both are conducting **this** programme **simultane-**
However, there is a plan to terminate **this** programme from
iversity education in the near future. **Tribhuvan** University
 so planning to **introduce** a three-year Bachelor's degree
imme.

The relative weightage attached to the ELT at the school
 s in Nepal is given below:

- 10 Mo. /

htage given to the ELT in Nepal (at school level)

Grade	Hours/Week	Full Marks
y	5	100
	5	100
Secondary	6	100
	6	100
	6	100
Jury	6	100
	6	100
Secondary	6	100
	6	100

NG, Ministry of Education, Culture & Social Welfare.

Private schools start English at the pre-primary level and
atches up to the secondary level. The higher secondary
 curriculum **is** designed and **implemented** by the Higher Sec-
y Education Board. The Board is also responsible for the
tion or preparation of textbooks and for conducting **exami-**
ns. The weightage and duration given to the ELT at the
irstly levels are given below:

Table No. 2

**Weightage and duration given to the ELT in Nepal
at the University level)**

Faculty/Institute	Level					
	PCL			Bachelor		
	Duration (Year)	Hours (Week)	Full Marks	Duration (Year)	Hours (Week)	Full Marks
Agriculture and Animal Sciences	1	6	100	-	-	-
Education	1	6	100	1	6	100
Engineering	1	6	100	1	6	100
Forestry	1	6	100	1	6	100
Humanities and Social Sciences	2	6	200	2	6	200
Law	2	6	200	2	6	200
Management	2	6	200	\	6	100
Medicine	1	6	100	-	-	-
Science and Technology	2	6	200	-	-	-

Source-. Curriculum Development Centre, Tribhuvan *University*,
Kathmandu.

Tribhuvan University has recently decided to discontinue the PCL in Law from the year 1995. The differences in weightage and duration in the teaching and learning of English shown in table No.2 from one **Faculty/Institute** to another is based on the decision made by the respective **Faculty/Institute**. At the Master's level, the Faculties of Education and Humanities and Social Sciences offer a two-year **specialization** in English education and English literature, **respectively**.

1.6. Need for English Language Teaching in Nepal

It has been made clear in section 1.3 that English never **occupied** the status of a second language in Nepal. Instead it has remained only a foreign language, taught and learned for use in restricted domains. However, **it** has remained an **inseparable part** of Nepal's academic pursuit. Further, strikingly one finds

growing demands for it every day. Jha (1989:76) believes that the purpose of teaching English **in** Nepal can be "... seen as an effort to enable them (the students) to exchange their **ideas** and views **with** those who use English and at the same time to acquire knowledge, **ideas**, skills and techniques **imparted** formally and informally through English..."

From **the** utility point or **view**, the number or people **who** make use of **English** **in** **their** day to day **affairs** has not been ascertained yet since no survey has been carried out so **far** on how often this opportunity is accorded to them. So **peoples'** attachment with the English language in Nepal as Davies et al. (1984:7) point out "... has other than instrumental values, symbolic and sentimental ones." To some extent, this statement is true. It **is** also true that to be educated today means to be a fluent speaker of English. Thus, it has been a question of **prestige** to be able to communicate **in** English.

The explosion of knowledge has narrowed down the size of the world. Consequently, no country likes to remain isolated from it. The only vehicle for the transmission and **proliferation** of this knowledge in most part of the world is English. The universal importance of English cannot be denied as Quirk et al. (1985:5) observe, **today**: "It is needed for access to at least half of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are **in** English. (It **is** the language of) ... principal advertising and sales medium, it **is** the language of automation and computer technology. Not only is it the universal language of international aviation, shipping, and sport, **it is** to a considerable degree the universal language of literacy and public communication. It **is** the major language of **diplomacy**, and **is** the most frequently used language both **in** the debates **in** the United Nations and **in** the general conduct of UN business".

This reflects Nepal's need for English regarding which Malla (1977:12) has also clearly stated that "Nepal needs English because **Nepali**, her national language, is not developed enough **for** two ... communication **needs**: 1. It does not have access to **the** scientific and technical knowledge of the modern world 2. It

is not enough for establishing effective channels of communication with the rest of the world". It is a fact that the medium of instruction in science and technical institutes under the Nepalese Universities is exclusively English, and it is also the only language of communication used to promote Nepal's increasing diplomatic relations with the outer world. Similarly, it is also true that "... for a vast majority of the college and university-going population of Nepal, English is necessary mainly as a library language - language to have an access to textbooks, lectures, and journals, on the one hand, and as a language to express one's thoughts and ideas in written, academic exercise on the other" (ibid:16). Thus, English is a tool for acquiring academic excellence and is a means of communicating one's own ideas whenever and wherever one is required to do so.

Khaniya (1990) expresses similar views when he states that English in Nepal serves two purposes - educational and occupational - educational for making use of lectures and reading materials, and occupational for obtaining jobs in the fields of tourism, foreign missions, etc. In this regard, the researcher would like to add the use of English for professional purposes as well, that is, those who are related to professions of a doctor, engineer, etc. cannot perform their duties efficiently without English.

From an economic point of view, English becomes inevitable to foster tourism and international trade. The sheer natural beauty of Nepal attracts thousands of tourists every year. Recent statistics show that 334,353 tourists visited Nepal in 1992 contributing a remarkable increase of 31.2% in the influx while compared to that of 1990, providing job opportunities to a sizeable population (*Statistical Pocket Book: Nepal. 1994*). English has so far been used as a chief language of tourist trade. In the same way, as a business partner of several countries, Nepal has to employ English to transact business and talk on matters of commercial concern.

Keeping all these factors in view, Verma and Pandey (1988) conducted a survey on the *Causes of Failures in English in the SLC Examination* and came out with a conclusion that 90% teachers, 100% headmasters, 82% students, 100% District Education Officers, and 88.3% parents disagreed with the idea of changing the existing compulsory status of English to an optional subject for the SLC students. Their finding confirms the earlier study carried out by Awasthi (1979) viz. that the peoples' attachment to English is very strong which is further confirmed by the present study. It reveals the fact that, though the majority of the total 270 students under study speak Nepali at home, they read English stories, novels, poems, newspapers, magazines; listen to English music; watch English movies but they confess that they do not understand English songs. Though the majority of them commit errors both in speaking and writing, they can read English passages accurately with reasonably high speed. The majority of them also claim that their performance in English was good in school examinations. Some of the male parents are educated and hold jobs or do business. The students also state that they speak English with their brothers, sisters and friends (see Appendix 1, Table 2).

Another factor indicating the need for English in Nepal is the sheer number of ever growing private boarding schools and the attraction of the parents towards them for educating their children through the English medium. At this juncture, the prediction made by Davies et al. (1984:4) that "The need for English in Nepal is strong and likely to become stronger" seems more meaningful today. Bearing this in mind, they also suggested that "Despite the difficulties of teaching English successfully in the Nepalese situation, it should not be abandoned" (ibid, 4). Therefore, the continuity of English accompanied by its improvement in its present condition is the only option left for the government and the people of Nepal. No section of the population wants to be deprived of it, no matter how difficult it may be to improve its deteriorating condition in Nepal.

1.7. English Language Teaching In Nepal: **Problems** and their Causes

English Language Teaching faces a multitude of problems in the total academic scenario of Nepal. It has been a tough piece of **meat** that can be neither chewed nor digested. The question of its **improvement** has been a concern for one and all but due to different constraints, its state is **deteriorating** continuously. Keeping the alarming situation in view, an attempt has been made here to alert the people concerned to this situation so that necessary steps can be taken to improve the present situation. The following sections present a picture of the existing school level ELT situation and subsequently a separate treatment is given to the ELT situation at the higher levels of education.

1.7.1. Teaching of English at Schools

Schools are considered as the foundation of total academic pursuit. All future expansion relies upon this foundation. **Therefore**, the foundation should be strong enough to take the load of the future. What follows is a description of the school level **ELT** foundation in Nepal, i.e. a cursory glance at the curriculum, textbooks, teaching methods, etc.

1.7.1.1. The Curriculum

The present school level curriculum was first designed and implemented **in** 1971 by Curriculum, Textbook and Supervision Development Centre (**CTSD**) (now Curriculum Development Centre **CDC**) under the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Social Welfare, a body solely responsible for framing, implementing, evaluating and reviewing the school level **curriculums**, according to the aspirations of the NESP which marked a departure from the traditional, **literature-oriented** curriculum towards a language-oriented structural one. Though revised in 1981, no significant change has taken place in the objectives first **laid** down for the teaching of school level English. The ultimate **aims** of teaching **English** at Primary, Lower Secondary and Secondary Schools of Nepal are to enable the students-.

- i) to communicate in speech and writing matters related to everyday activities with other people who speak English, within the range of language elements provided by the curriculum,
- ii) to understand directions and instructions in life at work,
- iii) to develop essential reading skills and techniques required for the early as well as later stages of language learning,
- iv) to develop an interest in reading for both Information and pleasure (*Lower Secondary Education Curriculum* • 1981:15).

It was a structural curriculum based on the **oral-structural-situational** (OSS) approach. This feature of the curriculum contrasted with its objectives, that is, the teaching of English for communication which cannot be attained by merely involving the students in parroting the paradigms after their teachers. Keeping the present direction of the ELT worldwide in view, the school level **curriculums** need to be **reframed** giving adequate emphasis on the communication aspect of language. A departure, however, is seen in this sector in the CDC's revision of the primary as well as lower secondary **curriculums** in 1992, and 1993, **respectively**. This departure is clearly spelt out in the objectives **laid** down in the *Primary Education Curriculum English 1992* thus: "The broad **aim** of the course is to develop in students an ability to use English effectively by exposure to the language used in real life situations where children are using English as their mother tongue. At the same **time** the course is designed to enable learners to **internalize** the underlying system and structure of the language and to develop functional performance skills in **it**" (P.5). It has clearly stated that the course **aims** at developing a **well-integrated** and **comprehensive communicative** competence on the part of the learners. Similarly, the *Lower Secondary Curriculum English* /'93 also seems to be keeping the momentum started by its predecessor. Secondary level English curriculum **is** also in **preparation** in the same spirit.

1.7.12. The Textbooks

The CDC is also **responsible** for the selection or preparation of the textbooks. All the school level textbooks (**My English Books [MEB 1-4]** a series of texts extending from class IV through VII, and **English Readers [ER 1-3]** meant for classes VIII, IX and X, **respectively**) are prepared by the Nepalese experts. However, private schools use textbooks approved by the CDC.

All the present textbooks prepared in the early seventies put "... heavy emphasis on **longish** reading texts specially written to **illustrate** specific grammatical **points**" (Davies et al. 1985:25). Though they were regarded appropriate basically for the situation of the early eighties, they no longer fit in the new **curriculums** to be **implemented** soon. Thus, all series need to be rewritten in tune with the new curriculums.

1.7.13. Teaching Learning Method and Situation

The method prescribed for teaching English in the 1971 Curriculum was based on the OSS approach, but a subsequent evaluation shows that due to various constraints, it has never been **materialised** so far. Though, in most cases, teachers try to follow this approach which is quite suitable for teaching the texts prepared for the Nepalese learners, it **is** often seen that the teachers talk to themselves to be in control of the **over-crowded** classes, specially in the urban areas. In most cases **the** teachers use grammar-translation method. The structure of the classroom, since the benches and desks are "built as one unwieldy structure" (Davies et al. 1984:24) render group work **impossible**. As they have observed, teaching **is** always teacher-centered and ironically, the teacher has much more practice than the students. Imparting a skill in such a crowded and noisy environment is **impossible**. Even a successful and competent teacher cannot handle the situation **in his** favour. Any change **in** the ELT methodology cannot bring desired results unless the environment is made more conducive to teaching **in** a proper way. The situation **in the** rural areas is more favourable as there are less crowded classes, but the lack of effort on the part of the teachers is quite

obvious there. "Teachers' **irregular** attendance in the classroom" (Verma and Pandey 1988, as quoted in **Khaniya 1990:82**) is one of the various causes resulting in a large number of student failures.

There is no difference between teaching social studies and English because the latter is considered not as a set of skills, but a subject. In **addition**, there is a frequent and considerable use of Nepali in the class itself. Consequently, the students hardly get exposed to English. In this regard, **Feldman** (1989:11) rightly observes that a school student in Nepal "... does not speak English for even ten minutes in ten years of studying the language".

Regarding the teaching of English and the environment in which **it** is taught in Nepal, **Kerr (1994:4)** observes: "Teaching instruction consists of grammatical dissection and rote memorization of the text. This gives children no opportunity or encouragement to use the language. Further, the physical conditions of the schools and large student number are not conducive to good teaching and learning. Teachers who are able to make additional teaching materials have no place to either store or display them." This **is** a candid assessment of the teaching of English at school level as a whole. The only point she missed here is the excessive use of Nepali by the teachers while teaching English which **Davies et al. (1984)** had rightly pointed out.

To conclude, the ELT in schools of Nepal is in a pitiable condition due to the lack of physical facilities, proper teaching methods and encouraging teachers. Moreover, the schools are badly in need of audio-visual aids to create favourable situation for the **ELT**.

1.7.14. Teachers and Teacher Training

There is a lack of trained and efficient English teachers in Nepal. Anyone who **is** not successful in teaching other subjects virtually becomes an English teacher. In **this** regard **Davies et**

al. (1984:7-8) state: "... the very obvious lack of English proficiency among teachers which leads to the total failure to provide '**comprehensible input**', i.e. to offer a model of spoken English which is always just a little above the students' group and at the same time contains a message which the students wish to understand." They also found that the teachers' proficiency in English was not up to the level they were sought for. For example, the proficiency of English of the graduate teachers teaching English in **Kathmandu** was found below that of the tenth graders of a well established private high school there. The situation outside the valley is still worse.

In a recent survey regarding the needs of 300 English teachers in the country, **Kerr** (1994:4) found that "... the standard of written and spoken English amongst government schools teachers ranges from Grade two to Grade four native speaker, with only a few exceptions". Her findings support what Davies et al. (1984) said ten years ago. She also finds that the standard of the teachers teaching English at private schools is not satisfactory because their general range seems to be "... from Grade five to Grade eight standard native speaker." Besides, teacher training is a dire need of the private sector schools, since they recruit teachers on the basis of not academic excellence but depending on personal contacts.

Most of the English teachers are not trained and whoever are trained also need retraining. During the past decade, the Ministry of Education and Culture made training optional and that decision has compounded the **problem**. Teachers who had taught for a year in a school were regarded eligible to apply for a permanent tenure. This system gave a nice opportunity for the untrained teachers to get a permanent tenure. The following table presents the scenario of teacher training in **Nepal**:

Table Mo. 3.
Number of trained and untrained teachers

Level	Number of teachers			Percentage of the untrained teachers
	Total	Trained	Untrained	
Primary	79590	38536	41054	52.00
Lower Secondary	13647	4623	9024	66.00
Secondary	12656	5512	7144	56.00

Source-. *Educational Statistics of Nepal: 1993*

The total picture of teacher training emerges clearly from the above table. English teachers also fall in this group. The majority of untrained teachers cannot cope with the methodological complexities. They cannot become as innovative as their trained counterparts are. McCafferty (1969 as quoted in Malla 1977:15) finds that "On average, an untrained primary teacher will get five out of six English patterns wrong, and a secondary teacher will get two out of three wrong." This statement clearly indicates the reality in the ELT situation. There is no need to discuss the skills that the eighth grade pass teachers have been imparting to the primary school children of Nepal. However, a recent decision made by the Ministry of Education and Culture and Social welfare to make teacher training obligatory to obtain permanent tenure in schools is a positive sign and it has started motivating a lot of teachers to undergo training.

1.7.15. Evaluation

The achievement or success of school level education (Grades 1-10) is assessed by the number of the candidates who pass the School Leaving Certificate (SLC) Examination conducted at the end of the high school education. This annual examination is also the only measuring rod for testing the success of a student's effort.

A cursory glance at the samples of the SLC failure rates of the last three decades exhibits that the situation is quite alarming. It is an undeniable fact that the majority of the students who fail in the SLC examination are in English alone.

While discussing the scenario of the 1970's regarding the failure rates in the SLC examination, Malla (1978 : 2) warns that "...if failure rates at the SLC and university examinations are any reliable indicators, the rates are not only high but disturbingly high because 80% to 90% fail SLC examination because they fail in English". Explaining its probable causes he says that firstly, this ensues to the government's decision to switch over to Nepali medium, and secondly, to the reduction of 100 marks in English after the NESP. The figures of the 1980's as recorded by Davies et al. (1984) exhibit that similarly disappointing trends were continuing because 65.7% of students failed in 1981, 69.5% in 1982, and 61% in the year 1983, respectively.

The following figures for the total SLC candidates that include late 1980's and up to 1990 show that the average marks in English are not satisfactory leading to quite alarming figures of 1991.

Table No. 4.

Pass percentage and average marks In the SLC English for 1987-1991

Year	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
Total appeared	50459	56853	64154	100360	94469
Pass percentage	60.91	60.10	63.23	61.42	29.51
Average marks in English	33.83	34.30	34.43	32.94	22.06

Source-- *The SLC Examination - 1991 (at a glance)*

Another comment regarding the SLC examination is that they "... do not test students' ability to function in English. They are unsuitable and require complete overhaul" (Davies et al. 1984:4). This is confirmed by a report submitted by the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate to HMG, which states

that the question papers in the SLC examinations are "... seriously restricted in the range of skills tested, concentrating mainly on the factual recall of textbook information and sometimes encouraging the repetition of learned model answers based on textbook exercises" (UCLES 1985:13).

Feldmann (1989) also makes an interesting observation on the English questions asked in the SLC examination. She says "I cannot help but wonder why the students are never given the opportunity to think for themselves, to come up with fresh, **completely** individual and thought provoking essays instead of regulating ideas they have ready in a story" (1989:28-29). The SLC questions check only the memory power of the students but they do not give an opportunity to the students to show their own **creativity**.

1.7.2. Teaching of English at Higher Education

The ELT situation in Nepal is not less chaotic at campuses while compared to that of the schools. If the foundation itself is weak, the input that the campuses receive will certainly be fragile. Malla (1977:1) thinks that "English is by now a bone in nearly everybody's throat, everybody who professes an interest in higher education and its problems". But because of the various reasons stated in 1.6 above, the teaching of English as a compulsory subject has to be continued both at the PCL and Bachelor's level.

By the time the students enter the PCL, they have seven to ten years of English - seven years for the ones who come from the public schools and ten years for the ones who come from the private schools. However, they have to appear at and pass the same examination conducted by the Office of the Controller of Examinations. Now what follows is a discussion on the problems of the ELT and their causes at the University level.

1.7.21- The Curriculum

The ELT curriculum (the terms curriculum, syllabus, and courses of study are used here synonymously) framed by the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) of Tribhuvan University in 1991/92 for the PCL is uniform for all the **Faculties/Institutes**. However, as stated in 1.5 above, some **Institutes** and **Faculties** take only the component given in the second year. The course objectives for the PCL 1st year **are**:

- (a) to develop in the students ability to comprehend given passages and to answer questions in correct and acceptable **English**;
- (b) to build up vocabulary;
- (c) to write different kinds of composition works;
- (d) to have a knowledge of the basic grammatical **categories**;
- (e) to give practice in basic English sounds, stress, rhythm and intonation (cf. **Courses of Study**, Proficiency Certificate First Year, Tribhuvan University.)

The objectives and contents of the courses of study for the PCL 1st year put emphasis on the formal aspect of language but remain **silent** about functional aspect. **While** in the second year (PCL), the emphasis is still on reading and writing. It also includes some grammar and some oral English exercises. The courses of study are not specific as to what they mean to impart because they are not framed according to the normal procedure of framing the syllabus before preparing textbooks. The textbooks are **inappropriately** chosen from the market. There is a dire need to revise the **curriculum**s in tune with the global contexts.

The main objective of teaching compulsory English at **the** Bachelor's level **is** to enable the students "... to possess a fairly advanced command of English so **that they** can use the

language for higher education, communication and in a variety of jobs outside the **academia** with accuracy, efficiency and fluency." (*Courses of Study, Bachelor First Year, Tribhuvan University 992*). Specifically, the students are expected to get exposed to advanced contemporary writings, reading materials, communication and use-oriented materials. The syllabus, though may be adequate for the development of accuracy, lacks contents to develop the required efficiency and fluency in the students. The new feature of this syllabus is the revival of translation in its traditional nature. This syllabus is also guided by the textbooks selected for it. On the whole, the comments that **Malla** (1977) made nearly two decades ago, on the then syllabuses equally apply to the present syllabuses also. He says "The present compulsory English courses are ineffective, not only because they do not reflect the need of the students, but also because the courses are ill-defined, aimless, and perfunctory, mainly based on some arbitrarily chosen materials... without thinking of English as a foreign language" (1977:5-6).

Unlike the compulsory English courses of the CDC for the Bachelor's level, the Faculty of Education has prepared and implemented a language based syllabus. The technical Institutes like Engineering and Forestry run their own syllabuses for the Bachelor's level students based on their own specific needs.

1.7.22. The Textbooks

The textbooks prescribed for the PCL are written in India in the Indian context except **English for Further Education** which is meant for the native English speakers. These textbooks are designed to develop the formal aspect of language only. The exercises meant for practising oral English in the **English for Further Education** also do not suit to the Nepali classroom situations.

The textbooks prescribed for the Bachelor level compulsory English cover a wider variety of literary genres like essays, short-stories, one-act plays, and a novel. However, the book like

The English we **use** is meant to introduce contemporary English, but the passages included in it are nearly five decades old. Similarly, the grammar book prescribed for developing communicative skills, i.e. **A Communicative Grammar of English** lacks exercises in it making its use impracticable. An attempt is made to teach the language through literature but due to the lack of an appropriate method, the goal is not materialised.

1.7.23. Teaching Learning Method and Situation

The compulsory English Curriculums are silent about teaching methodology. As mentioned earlier (1.7.21), the curriculums themselves are based on the textbooks selected. Nothing has specifically been mentioned about teaching methods and learning activities.

The classroom environment does not permit teachers to give ample practice to the students as is required. They also, in most cases, translate the texts into Nepali and ask the students to do the exercises themselves as the class size is unmanageable. Matthies (1988:4) states that "The students do not form a class, but a crowd of unwilling and uninterested youngsters, who are there not because they want to learn but because their parents and guardians want them to be there." She, assessing the ELT situation in Nepal, further says: "No foreign language can be taught or learned efficiently in a class with more than 30-35 students, because the teacher must be able to monitor their spoken language and adequately correct their written exercises" (1988:17).

All the students who pass the SLC examination think that passing it is a licence to go for higher education. There is no entrance examination system, except in the technical institutes, to screen the able ones for higher studies. In a class of up to 150-200 students, an English language teacher can, if possible, talk only about the history of the English language.

The low proficiency of the **input** has made the teaching and **learning** of **English** a mess. The average marks in the SLC **English** as discussed in 1.7.15 above bring a very heterogeneous group of entrants for the tertiary level teachers. In such an **environment**, "Teachers are generally prone to the use of Nepali instead of English for a variety of reasons related with the lack of required academic and professional skills of Tribhuvan University English teachers, **students'** pressure for explaining English texts all through Nepali medium, lack of teaching aids and equipment, large classes and so on. Consequently, whatever little amount of exposure students are expected to have got further whittled down through teachers' profuse and frequent use of Nepali in English classes" (Bhadra & Yadav 1980:60).

1.7.24. Teachers and **Teacher Training**

Holding a Master's degree in English Literature is considered a **passport** for teaching English in Nepal. There is no **pre-service** (entry) training for university teachers and they hardly get an opportunity to go for any in-service training. Some of them even lack adequate linguistic competence. Bhadra and Yadav (1988:71) state that "There are quite a few Tribhuvan University English teachers who lack adequate language and professional skills and experience, which are assumed to be essential for effective English language teaching."

Unlike schools where **underqualified** teachers or the teachers of other subjects teach English, campus teachers hold an MA degree in English Literature, but they badly need short or long term training in the ELT. There are quite a few teachers who have an M Ed in **English Education**, but they are even inadequate for the campuses under the Faculty of Education itself.

1.7.25. **Evaluation**

Though evaluation is a continuous process, it is non-existent in the tertiary level classes except in technical institutes in which internal assessments are given. The final examination

given at the end of the academic session is the only measuring rod for success or failure of an individual student.

A cursory look at the university level examination reveals the fact that there is a high failure rate in the compulsory English component of the PCL as well as Bachelor's degree. **Matthies (1988:4)** believes that "The main cause of the failure in Compulsory English is the lack in them (students) of the skill of handling the English language. Since they do not have the required level of skill, they are unable to express their knowledge and information in exact words and sentence structures." Though she blames the learners for exhibiting poor performance in English, the system as a whole cannot prove its sanctity against this alarming situation. There must be something wrong in the whole process of the ELT in Nepal.

Though figures are not available to see the failure percentage in English at the tertiary levels, because detailed reports regarding individual subjects and papers are yet to be prepared, an example from Bhadra & Yadav (1988:15) is presented below.

Table Mo. 5

Failure rate for different subjects (PCL II year) for 1986

Subjects	English	Nepali	Nepal Parichaya	Economics	History	Political Science
Failure percentage	76.43	21.43	30.71	32.01	47.30	32.57

Of the various factors responsible for making the failure rate in English so high, University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (UCLES) Report (1987:29) finds obvious defects in the question papers requiring the recall of the things taught. The report clearly mentions that "... even as native speakers, the consultants were unable to attempt many of the English language questions since these were related to recall of textbooks passages rather than linguistic ability." The report further claims that among many other factors responsible for the high

failure rate in the university levels one "... may be the quality of the **examination**, **its** relationship to the curriculum and the grading procedures applied" ' (op.cit. **p.24**)

No attempt has been made so far to make the **comprehensive** reporting of the examination data for making use of them for a positive wash-back effect. Therefore, a reform in the totality of the evaluation system is the dire necessity of the present day.

An overall study of the problems and causes of the **ELT** at the tertiary level education shows that several factors are found responsible for bringing the disappointing results in it. **Mathies (1988:22)** finds the following factors responsible for making the **ELT** situation unfavourable to produce the desired result, **i.e.** "... over-crowded classrooms, overworked and un-trained teachers, and inadequately available textbooks and audio-visual aids. It is a wonder to me that anyone learns English well under such **circumstances**, and yet some do". Thus, the present **ELT** situation is the result of multifarious causes. What is required now is a rigorous planning and execution of **it** for the betterment of the **ELT** in Nepal, otherwise, it is worthwhile to conclude with her observation, "If it (English) has to be taught at all it has to be taught efficiently, and provisions and resources have to be made available. If we find that we cannot afford the necessary funds for the minimum requirements for effective teaching, it will be advisable, perhaps, to forget about English and do away with it, or to make **it** optional ..." (op.cit. **p.5**).

1.8. Previous Studies on English Language Teaching Situation in Nepal

There are quite a few studies carried out on the **ELT** situation in general and on error analysis in particular in Nepal. A few of them like Rathborne (1967), **McCafferty** (1969) and Davies et al. (1971) deal with the **ELT** problems based on their own field studies. Some of the problems they raised then are still concerning the people working in the field of **ELT**. Since then several

changes have taken place, but the ELT situation has not improved visibly. **Malla** (1977) also shows his deep concern about the ELT scenario. He makes comments on syllabuses, textbooks, policy matters, classroom environment and suggests various measures to be taken for the improvement of its deteriorating situation.

A nationwide survey of the ELT was carried out by **Davies et al.** (1984) at the request of His Majesty's Government, Ministry of Education and Culture, under the auspices of the British Council and ODA. The team was given the terms of reference to assess the overall ELT situation at schools in Nepal. Specifically, the team was asked to look into the aspects like syllabuses, textbooks, **examinations**, teachers and students, and their level of competence in English and also to suggest the measures to be taken for the improvement of the ELT situation. The survey team found that there was a strong need for English in Nepal but that the country needed well-trained teachers, improved textbooks, an overhauled examination system, better teaching methods, sufficient supplementary materials and on the whole, a very conducive classroom environment. The team also recommended to open a Centre for English Language Teaching to train and retrain English teachers for improving their low proficiency in English.

Matthies (1988), on the basis of a small scale survey she carried out, emphasizes on a need for massive teacher training programme for the university English teachers. She also suggests the policy makers to "... decide whether English is to be taught as a subject or as a medium of **communication**" (1988:13). Other suggestions she included are in the form of a support package to the teachers which includes teachers' manual, small class size, audio-visual materials, workshops, in-service trainings, and incentives to the teachers. She also felt the need for conducting more surveys and action researches and, finally, the formation of an association of English teachers like TESOL and IATEFL.

Apart from these surveys, there are quite a few works done on error analysis also. Some of them are discussed below.

Shrestha (1980) conducts a study of errors in the use of prepositions by Nepali and Newari native speakers studying in grade X in Kathmandu with a hypothesis in mind that students are not influenced by their mother tongues in the process of the acquisition of English prepositions. His study reveals that "When we take the performances of the Nepali and Newari students in the use of English prepositions as a whole, we do not find any differences in them which has been revealed by the 't-test'" (1980:73).

Giri (1981) through A Comparative Study of English Language Proficiency of the Students Studying in Grade X in the Secondary Schools of Doti and Kathmandu comes to the conclusion that the students of urban schools better their rural counterparts in all language skills but writing.

Tamang (1981:1) studies the errors in the use of questions in English by the Diploma Level (B Ed) students. She records that most errors are committed in the use of wrong question forms, inversions of different forms of *do* as a dummy operator and tense carrier, and the tense forms. She concludes that the errors are intralingual and developmental in nature. Regarding the learners' strategy, she mentions that "The rules applied by the students to frame questions were either incomplete, hypothesized, rules ignored or overgeneralized target language rules". She also gives suggestions to the prospective teachers as to how to deal with such problems.

Shrestha (1989) studies the errors committed by high school students in subject-verb agreement and makes the native English speakers evaluate these errors. He comes to the conclusion that the most serious errors are committed when the grammatical subjects are : pre- or post- modified, indefinite pronouns, dummy *there*, gerundial nouns, etc.

Gautam (1990) attempts to analyse the errors committed by the PCL first year students of Bhaktapur district in their written work. His study shows that Nepali learners commit maximum number of grammatical errors followed by spelling and lexical

errors. He finds that the errors are a result of both interlingual and intralingual influences.

Singh (1992:45) in his study on the ordering of English adjectives by the students of four Faculties under Tribhuvan University finds that "No group of students excelled in their performance on arranging English adjectives. One group of students performed comparatively better on some items while another group excelled in some other items".

A recent study on error gravity completed by Luitel (1995:41) draws this conclusion: "All the groups of speakers (American, Canadian, British and Australian) agree that the following types of errors are the most serious ones from intelligibility view point:

- a) Wrong order of noun phrase and prepositional phrase;
- b) Inclusion of unnecessary preposition or definite article;
- c) Omission of required 'do' auxiliary in negativization; and
- d) Selection of unnecessarily inflected verb (except the use of '-ing') in interrogation" whereas, "... all groups of speakers agree that when judged from acceptability view point the most serious and the least serious areas of grammatical errors are deviated question tags due to the use of action verbs, and absence of aspect change in reported speech respectively."

1.9. Objectives of the Present Study

In the background of what has been discussed above, the objectives of the present study are:

- a) to identify, classify and describe the errors committed by the Nepali learners of English studying in the PCL First Year at Tribhuvan University, Nepal;
- b) to evaluate these errors in terms of their frequency and gravity;
- c) to provide pedagogical suggestions; and

- d) to suggest measures for the construction of learning materials for remedial teaching.

1.10. Significance of **the Study**

Since no published materials, except for a few articles, are **available** on the errors made by the **Nepali** learners of English, the present study will be useful in a number of **ways**:

First of all, it will provide feedback to the native learners based on which they will know what is there to learn. Similarly, it will also provide an important feedback to the English teachers with the help of which they can identify the areas of difficulty and focus their teaching on them accordingly.

Secondly, the study will be of immense use to the people involved in designing the English language syllabuses, producing the ELT materials and constructing the English language texts. As a matter of fact, the findings of this work will be of considerable significance to all who are involved directly or indirectly in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language.

Thirdly, it will also put forward a description of the **Nepali** English in the context of world Englishes. Anyone interested in the varieties of English will thus be benefited by this study.

Last but not the least, the work will also have a theoretical significance for other studies in the field of language teaching. Also this work will throw light on the processes involved in the second language learning in general and in the learning of English as a foreign language in a formal context, in particular.

1.11. Limitations of **the Study**

The population of the study is limited to 270 **PCL** First Year students, 30 each, from the **Faculties/Institutes** of Agriculture and Animal Sciences, **Education**, Engineering, Forestry. Humanities

and Social Sciences, Law. Management, Medicine, and Science and **Technology**. Obviously, one could have had a much larger sample of population but such tasks could only be undertaken as a part of a huge survey.

From the point of view of stages of error analysis, the present study is limited to **identification**, description, explanation and evaluation of overt group errors only.

The study focuses on the overt errors obtained from the tests on listening (discrimination of sounds, comprehension) grammar (multiple choice, error **identification** and translation) word formation **and** word meaning, reading comprehension (**cloze**) and composition writing.

1.12. Conclusion

In this chapter an analysis of the ELT situation in Nepal **is** presented with a view to discussing the problem it faces in its totality. It is concluded that English is taught **in** Nepal in an impossible situation because of the ever aggravating problems such as large classes, untrained teachers, lack of **audio-visual** materials, etc. Some of these problems are elicited in the studies carried out by various people on various aspects. The conclusions drawn by them show the areas of difficulties that the Nepali learners of English face.

CHAPTER - TWO

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1. Introduction

In the history of foreign language teaching and learning, applied linguists have made several attempts to ease the difficulties of the learners. Several methods of teaching based on different psychological theories of language learning have been proposed and tried out. Such innovations have been more rigorous since the 1950's. The emergence of Contrastive Analysis (CA) in the 1950's and Error Analysis (EA) in the 1960's and 1970's laid a theoretical foundation for the major research works carried out in the second and foreign language teaching and learning from the 1970's to till date. Keeping the importance of such a foundation in view, here follows a detailed discussion on CA, EA and Error Gravity which also serves as the theoretical basis for the present study.

2.2. Contrastive Analysis

As mentioned above, language teaching methods have always been influenced by the psychological theories behind them. If the history of the ELT, in the 1950's is taken into consideration, it is found to be backed by the structuralists who based their theory of language on Behaviourist psychology. CA is the product of the amalgamation. According to James (1980:3) "CA is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared." His definition of CA, though he calls it provisional, is based on the three criteria of classifying the types of linguistic enterprises such as, generalist and particularist (whether to treat individual languages or language in general) diachronic and synchronic (whether to study language at a period or point of time), and language in isolation and comparison (whether to study language in isolation or use comparative methods).

Fisiak (1981--1) defines CA "... as a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities, between them". It may be the comparison of sound systems, grammatical systems, etc. The basic purpose of this kind of comparison was originally **pedagogic**. This has clearly been stated by Fries (1945:9) when he says that "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner". This statement directly links with the main purpose of CA originally stated by linguists like Sweet (1899 reprinted 1964). The basic purpose of comparing two languages and cultures is to "... discover and describe the problems that the speakers of one of the languages will have in learning the other" (Lado 1957:vii). The results of such comparisons were used to prepare teaching and learning materials, tests, etc. The main thrust behind designing special **teaching-learning** materials for the target language (TL) learners was that the differences noticed while comparing two languages cause learning **difficulties**. Hence the importance of CA in tracing the similarities and differences between the L1 and L2 had been widely accepted by the applied linguists during the 1950's and 1960's.

2.2.1. Basic Assumptions of CA

CA, though **itself** a hypothesis, is based on a number of assumptions. However, the main assumptions that have often been discussed are:

1. The main difficulties while learning a second language are primarily caused due to **mother** tongue interference.
- ii. These difficulties are predicted by CA after accomplishing a comparison between a source language and target language (TL).
- iii. In order to overcome these **difficulties**, teaching learning materials are prepared. Such materials help to reduce the effects of **interference**.

A careful analysis of these **assumptions** is essential here in order to evaluate the claims made by the advocates of CA. Lado (1957) tries to show the validity of these assumptions through the previous studies carried out on **bilingualism**. He says "A practical confirmation of the validity of our assumption has come from the work of linguists who study the effect of close contact between languages in bilingual situations. They report that many linguistic distortions heard among **bilinguals** correspond to describable differences in the languages involved" (Lado 1957:1). He specifically refers to the works of Haugen (1953) and Weinreich (1953) in this regard. Although Lado tries to defend the assumptions behind CA, they are not exempt from severe criticism (cf. 2.2.3). However, an attempt will be made here to clarify these **assumptions**.

The first assumption deals with the transfer of native habits into the target language. Two types of transfer most frequently referred to in CA are: positive transfer and negative transfer.

Positive transfer refers to facilitation of the native language systems while learning the TL. Dulay et al. (1982:97) define it as "... the automatic use of the L1 structure in L2 performance when the structures in both languages are the same, resulting in correct utterances." **Negative transfer** refers to the **interference** caused by the native language while learning the **second/foreign** language. Dulay et al. (1982:97) further clarify the notion of negative transfer in the following way: "The CA hypothesis held that where structures in the L1 differed from those in the L2, errors that reflected the structure of the L1 would be produced. Such errors were said to be due to the influence of the L1 habits on L2 production". The two words *differences* and *difficulties* are synonymously used in CA. The more the differences between L1 and L2, the more the difficulties the **learners** are likely to face resulting in the erroneous utterances. Another feature of this assumption is that the source language of the learner is considered to be the sole cause of errors that he **is** likely to **commit**.

The second assumption of CA is **its** predictive power in the areas of **difficulties** in which the TL learners are likely to make errors. It is assumed that the areas in which the source language and target language of a learner differ, he is most likely to face **difficulties**. Lado is firm in advocating this assumption when he says "... differences are the chief source of difficulty in learning a second language" (1964:21). Banathy et al. (1966) also put emphasis on comparing two languages so that the differences between them can be sorted out in order to predict the areas likely to be difficult for the TL learners. They say that "The change that has to take place in the language behaviour of a foreign language student can be equated with the differences between the structure of the student's native language and culture and that of the target language and culture... The task of the linguist, the cultural anthropologist, and the sociologist is to identify these differences" (Banathy et al. 1966:37). This **responsibility**, given to the three sectors of people, is to facilitate the work of prediction based on the set assumption of the correlated two words, i.e. **differences** and **difficulties**. The task of the foreign language teacher is to become aware of those differences and focus his teaching on them.

The third assumption of CA is more or less directed towards the remediation of the difficulties predicted by the works of CA. The immediate appreciation of CA is in the second or foreign language teaching. The learning materials based on CA address to the areas of difficulties that the learners are likely to encounter. This has clearly been expressed by Fries (1945:9) in the following **statement**: "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of learner." This spirit is further maintained by Lado (1957) who also stresses the need for comparing the native language and target language for preparing teaching materials. He also believes that a teacher **who** can compare two languages "... will be able to prepare supplementary exercises on those patterns which are **important** or difficult and have been overlooked or treated **inadequately** in the book" (Lado 1957:3).

Wardhaugh (1970 ~~reprinted:1975~~) classifies CA in terms of two versions-- the **strong version** and the ~~weak~~ version. The strong version deals with the prediction of difficulties that the source language learner will have while learning the TL. It is done on the basis of the **contrastive** study of two language systems. This version requires a complete theory of contrastive linguistics into which the outcome of the contrasted versions of the languages in question can be plugged in. Wardhaugh finds this version unrealistic and impracticable. While the weak version of CA is less demanding compared to the strong version of it, because "It starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and uses such evidence to explain the **similarities** and differences between systems" (Wardhaugh 1975:15). This weak version of CA is opted for diagnostic purposes because it can be used to detect the errors caused by **interference**.

2.2.2. Pedagogic Implications of CA

Much has been talked about the pedagogic implications of CA. In the 1950's and 1960's, CA was considered to be the main source of information regarding the preparation of foreign language syllabuses, textbooks and teaching materials. Fries (1945) overtly advocated the use of CA in the production of effective teaching materials. Lado (1957:3) furthers this claim and says that "The most important new thing in the preparation of teaching materials is the comparison of native and foreign language culture in order to find the hurdles that really have to be surmounted in the teaching". Lado also points out the advantage that a teacher may have - he can systematically compare the native language and foreign language because he can prepare supplementary materials in the areas of the foreign language that are likely to be difficult to the learners but are not adequately given in the textbooks.

For many years CA dominated TL activities with a noble aim of helping the TL learners to overcome their learning difficulties. Stressing on the pedagogical implications of CA, Chau (1975:119) says, "These activities (CA) are undoubtedly of great

importance to the course developer, the language teacher, and the test writer, who, in their tasks of organizing teaching materials, planning teaching strategies, and evaluating progress and achievement, must unquestionably have a certain knowledge of the potential problem areas and of the causes and magnitude of the learning problems." This statement **includes** almost all the aspects of the pedagogical realm.

CA requires the service of a person who **is** skilful in describing languages so as to compare the two languages in question **with** each other. It also heavily relies on not only adequate descriptive model of a language but also on how a language functions. Sciarone (1970:118) makes **this** fact clear **thus**: "The contribution to the **improvement** of teaching that CA can be expected to make, depends - needless to say - on the quality of the **analysis** of language **in** the **first** place, and *the way in which this analysis is executed in the second place.*" He further suggests that the Transformational generative grammar **is** "**descriptively** most adequate" (*op.cit.* p. 118) for the purpose of carrying out CA activities.

Spolsky (1979) finds CA most useful for the development of pedagogic grammar of the TL. But unlike Fries (1945) and Lado (1957), he thinks it to be "... safest to sum things up by saying that there is good reason to believe that a **contrastive** analysis **is** a useful (some would say necessary) preliminary to the development of good teaching materials, but none for suggesting that **it** is in anyway a sufficient condition or a complete basis for a theory of language learning" (Spolsky 1979:253). He further claims that CA encourages the linguists to describe the type of language that a language teacher needs for his teaching.

Despite the ever growing criticism lodged against the use of CA in foreign language teaching and **its** basic assumptions, it is no less valuable. The pedagogic **contrastive** grammars, if prepared, will be of **immense** value to the foreign language teachers, learners, material writers and even translators. Leaving aside the extreme viewpoints for and against the implication of CA for pedagogical purposes, it is worthwhile to conclude with the **well-**

balanced remarks of Marton (1981:169): "We may conclude with a remark that pessimism concerning the pedagogical application of **contrastive** studies is certainly unwarranted. Although some premature hopes and expectations of dramatic advancements in language teaching connected with the **introduction** of **contrastive** studies must be abandoned, these studies will play an **important** role as a contribution to better organisation and guidance in foreign language teaching and learning."

2.2.3. A Critical Evaluation of CA

The credit for the theoretical foundation of CA goes back to the works of Sweet (1899), Fries (1945) and most **importantly** Lado (1957). But the hey-days of CA did not last long. Several linguists started criticising even its fundamental assumptions vehemently. The most ardently attacked points are the assumptions of language interference and its **predictability**.

One mounting criticism against CA is the lack of its theoretical **justification**. Primarily CA was based on the structural linguistics and psychological interference theory. While reviewing Skinner (1957), Chomsky (1959) made an attack in which he refuted the possibility of using animal experiments and behaviours analogously with human learning and behaviour. Therefore, language learning equated with habit formation was also rejected. Equally rejected was the **comparability** of two structures in terms of their **communicative** functions. The proposition of language universals was another question posed against the theoretical aspect of CA.

The predictive power of CA as James (1992:301) observes "... was shown to be limited; some items of high interlingual **contrastivity** prove to be easily learned, and vice versa. Consequently, attempts to identify a scale of learning difficulty on the basis of language difference were unsuccessful. Fewer errors could **unequivocally** be traced to NL interference than had been supposed; early claims that 30 per cent of errors were **interlingual** ceded to almost negligible claims of 3 per cent". **This** claim is justified by the following table from Ellis (1986:29).

Table No. 6.**Percentage of interference in second language learning**

Study	% of interference errors	Type of learner
Grauberg (1971)	36%	First language German-adult, advanced
George (1972)	33% (approx.)	Mixed first languages-adult, graduate
Dulay & Burt (1973)	3%	First language Spanish-children, mixed level
Tran-Chi-Chau (1974)	51*	First language Chinese-adult, mixed level
Mukattash (1977)	23?.	First language Arabic-adult
Flick (1980)	31%	First language Spanish-adult, mixed level
Lott (1983)	50% (approx.)	First language Italian-adult, university

The research carried out by Dulay and Burt (1974 in Dulay et al. 1982:102) shows that "... less than 5% of the errors observed reflected the children's first language, Spanish ". However, the interlingual errors committed by the adult learners fall between 8% to 23%. Such errors committed by L2 learners are also very much like the young child learning his first language. This shows the developmental nature of the errors which is considered inevitable. Dulay et al. (1982:138) also support this view "... that like L1 learners' errors, most of the errors L2 learners make indicate they are gradually building an L2 rule system".

Another often discussed criticism of CA is that a comparative study of two languages as a whole for the preparation of a pedagogical grammar is extremely difficult and painstaking. An experienced teacher is often able to recognize learning problems

of **his** learners than those suggested by CA. Therefore, a partial comparison of two language systems is not very encouraging for teachers.

2.2.4. Conclusion

Despite several criticisms lodged against **CA**, there are some linguists who still claim that CA has practical value. As a matter of fact, the assumption regarding the preparation of teaching learning materials based on the outcome of CA has not been criticized because the attention of the linguists was entirely focused on the **predictability** and interference aspects. Even the emergence of EA has, to some extent, minimized the importance of CA. However, "... the CA element in EA will continue to be a very important one and that very often interpretations will tend to very subjectively be guided by theoretical preconceptions" (Nickel 1989:301). Thus, the **importance** of CA cannot be undermined. Spolsky (1979) also mentions that CA has contributed a lot in the work of language description and pedagogical grammars.

Unlike in the past decades when CA was attacked more for its negative aspects than accepted for its **contribution**, it has been attracting a host of linguists from wider areas recently. Studies carried out on CA during the **1980's** in Europe have opened up new vistas for related disciplines like contrastive discourse, contrastive pragmatism, **pragmalinguistics**, pedagogical contrastive **socio-linguistics**, etc. Such new approaches to the study of CA are coming up **in** the field of linguistics these days. The major thrust of these approaches is to go beyond the sentence level and contrast the stylistic use of the items in question. It is at this juncture quite appropriate to maintain an unbiased view of Sanders regarding the use of CA in the present day context. She says that "... contrastive analysis is still **in** use, and of use, **in** language teaching. The part it can play should be neither exaggerated nor understated, and there is a place for continuing research... Account must be taken of empirical evidence of its usefulness, and the distinction between a linguistic and a pedagogical grammar borne in **mind**" (Sanders 1981:30).

2.3. Error Analysis

Error Analysis has a long tradition in **second/foreign** language teaching. It is a field of study that deals with the study of the differences between the speech of a second/foreign language learner and that of the adult native speaker of the language in question. Adult native speakers are considered as norm because of the transitional nature of the child speech.

EA in the past was informally done by the language teachers for the purpose of **identification** and remediation of errors. Ellis (1986) ensures that the purpose of traditional EA was to collect information in order to sequence the language items for teaching or devising the language lessons for the remedial purposes. The basic purpose of EA at present is not deviated from its notion in the past. However, the resurgence of interest in it in the late 1960's and 1970's has led several applied linguists to conduct empirical research on it (cf. George (1972), Jain (1974), Richards (1974), Abbott (1980), Bebout (1985), Lennon (1991), etc.). Different interpretations of the learners' errors are made by different people working in the field of EA. This section, therefore, deals with the notion of errors, their types and significance followed by their use in language teaching. Discussion will also be focused on different views on **learners'** errors and the processes of analysing them. Finally, a short note on the limitations of EA will be included. The term **learning** throughout the study refers either to the second or foreign language learning.

2.3.1. The Notion of Error

An **error** in language learning refers to a deviant form from the normal speech or writing of an adult native speaker. Corder (1973) refers to it as **breaches of code** as opposed to the **unwanted forms used** by George (1972). Corder's breach of code is exclusively used to refer to learners' errors which they cannot correct themselves. However, the word **lapse** is reserved for the **slips** of pen and tongue, false start or confusion of structures,

and for the **mistake** of the native speaker caused by different reasons. *Mistake* in this sense remains the cover term for both errors and lapses. Thus, the word **error** is exclusively reserved for consistently and repeatedly deviated forms of the learners' language from the normal adult speech. Such flawed expressions can neither be detected nor corrected by the learner himself.

2.3.2. Types of Errors

This section presents a discussion on the types of errors classified by different linguists. The term **type** as used here refers to the angles of interpretation or **classification** of errors applied by linguists. Types vary according to the emphasis laid in the interpretation of errors, for example, a clear distinction is made between **global** and **local** errors in terms of the elements that impede **comprehensibility** whereas such a distinction is not made in the other two.

2.3.21. Expressive and Receptive Errors

Corder (1973) mentions two types of errors-- **expressive** and **receptive**. By expressive errors, he means such errors as can easily be detected because these represent the imperfect knowledge on the part of the learner. The learner "... leaves traces transient, but recordable, in the case of speech, permanent in the case of writing" (1973:261). On the other hand, the receptive errors, as they are not overt and observable, are difficult to detect because the recipients do not use overt responses. "... smiles, grunts or other **paralinguistic** behaviour..." (op.cit. p.261) serve the communication purposes. The hearer's understanding cannot be judged unless he answers a question or shows his verbal approval or disapproval to it.

2.3.22. Competence and Performance Errors

In EA competence errors refer to the flawed forms of language produced by a learner because of his incomplete exposure to or limited competence in that language while the performance errors are such mistakes "... as slips of the tongue, omissions,

some spelling mistakes, unnecessary repetitions and so on. The learner makes these errors not because he does not know the language, but because he **is** in a hurry, he is writing or speaking under stress, or **is** forgetful or simply careless" (Ngara 1983:35). These mistakes do not represent the mastery in language of the person in question because he can easily correct them. These mistakes are not the concern of the error analyst.

Corder (1973) gives two names to these errors: **Performance errors**, which are unsystematic, are termed as mistakes, and **Competence errors** (which he calls transitional competence) are systematic and called errors.

2.3.23. Global and Local Errors

Burt and Kiparsky (1972) make a distinction between a global and local goof (informally used for an error). They define these terms as *mistakes in overall organization* and *minor goofs within clauses* (1972:6), respectively. These terms are further clarified by Burt (1975). She states that "Errors that **significantly** hinder communication are those that affect overall sentence organization" (1975:56-57). She classifies global errors into the following four categories;

i. Wrong word order, e.g.

English language use many people.

ii. Missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors, e.g.

He will be rich until he marry.

iii. Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules, e.g.

The student's proposal looked into the Principal.

iv. **Overgeneralizing** pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions (in transformational terms, not observing **selectional** restrictions on certain lexical **items**). For example,

We amused that movie very much.

Local errors refer to such errors as do not impair communication significantly. They effect "... single elements (constituents) in a sentence" (op.cit. p.57). According to Burt (1975), local errors are the errors in nouns, verbs inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers. For example,

Why we like each other?

Regarding the importance to be given to errors, she further opines that priority has to be set first. If the purpose is to make the learner near-native like, the emphasis should be given to the local errors, if the purpose is to make the communication successful, priority should be given to the global errors. In some contexts, teachers give priority to grammatically acceptable language forms first and then only see whether the forms make any sense in the given context. Therefore, priority also depends upon the social context and the constraints in which the errors are to be identified and evaluated.

2.3.3. Significance of Learners' Errors

Errors in the early days were treated as "unwanted forms" (George 1972:2) that need to be avoided. Gradually, changes were introduced in language teaching methodology and concurrently there came a change in the attitude of the people towards errors.

There are two schools of thought, and each treats errors differently. The first school believes that errors should not be allowed to occur and they are the signs of imperfect learning while the other school treats errors as inevitable because one lives in an imperfect world and errors are a part of it. Both these views are based on the behaviouristic principles of learning. While discussing the significance of learners' errors, it is important to consider the attitude of different people towards errors themselves, i.e. whether they consider errors as negative signs of learning or as inevitable features of it.

The school that accepts errors as inevitable outcomes of learning has created a new dimension in the treatment of errors and consequently, errors are viewed as valuable tools for giving new thought into the working of language and learning process. It was Corder (1967 reprinted 1975) who for the first **time** brings a change in the minds of the applied linguists and language teachers who think that errors are a sign of failure in learning. He clearly specifies that the learners' errors **are** significant **in** three different **ways**: "First to the teacher, in that they tell **him**, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language **is** learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner **is** employing in **his** discovery of the language. Thirdly, (and **in** a sense **this** is their most important aspect) they are **indispensable** to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses **in** order to learn" (Corder 1967 reprinted 1975:96). Thus, Corder tried to justify that errors are significant to teachers, researchers and the learners themselves.

Seliger (1978) also agrees with Corder and stresses on **errors'** value for both the teachers and learners as well. The feedback they obtain from errors enables the learners **"to** correct, confirm or reject" (**p.24**) the new language forms acquired recently. However, Griffin (1982), Vann et **al.** (1984), and **Robb** et al. (1986) have different opinions **regarding** early and late feedback to the learners.

Sridhar (1981) claims that errors are more significant or useful for classroom purposes, that is, **to** plan materials, present lessons, and devise exercises and tests, etc. in a better way. They also help in material selection and its appropriate ordering. But a teacher dictated by national level syllabuses, nationally controlled examination systems, and nationally approved teaching methods may naturally feel constrained to plan in **his** own ways.

A full scale sophisticated EA research on the part of every teacher is time-consuming but "... **this** should not discourage teachers from making their own less formal surveys, which can still be most **illuminating**" (McKeating 1981:214). **This will** help them **improve** their teaching-learning **activities**.

2.3.4. **Attitude** to Errors

Errors in language are viewed differently at different times - both positively and negatively. At times they are compared **with sins**, on other times they are considered essential in language learning. Even two schools of methodology **under** Behaviourist theory of psychology have two different attitudes to errors - as a **sign** of **inadequate** learning or as an **inevitable** feature of learning. The first viewpoint is highly discouraging because **it** is against the existence of errors at all which is very unlikely. The second view, though doesn't say anything about the utility of errors in language learning, is rather relaxing because **it** accepts at least their **existence**.

Attitude to errors is guided by the goals set for language teaching. If the goal of language teaching is to develop communicative ability, errors are tolerated so long as the desired message is communicated without **impeding** comprehension. But if the **aim** of language teaching and learning is to develop accuracy in the target language, errors are not tolerated. They have to be eliminated. A similar **view** is expressed by McKeating (1981). Based on his personal experience, he thinks that a language teacher develops a dual attitude to **learners'** errors, **i.e.** "sympathetic and helpful" and "**non-permissive**" - sympathetic and helpful because the students feel that the teacher **is** not harsh to their errors and their fluency **is** undeterred, and non-permissive because he helps them to eliminate these errors, as they cannot do it without his help.

Another **view** to look at errors is rather positive in nature. Errors serve as the source of Information about "the process of acquisition" (Ellis 1986:52). **Dulay et al.** (1982) and others equate **L1** acquisition **with** L2 acquisition believing that the

errors that the **L2** learners make are similar to the ones that the children acquiring **L1** make. Corder as early as 1967 also finds a similarity between the strategies employed by a language learner and a child acquiring his first language. Gorbet (**1979**), and **Dulay** and Burt (1974) express a similar view. The deviated forms produced by the learners are viewed as developmental errors similar to the ones that are found in the children acquiring **L1**. Such deviated forms automatically disappear as the learners get maturity in the TL.

Bell (1974) treats errors positively while **Sridhar (1981)** and **Norrish (1983)** find them essential. **Sridhar** suggests to make a distinction between productive (systematic) and **non-productive deviations**; develop criteria in order to see the degree of impairment they make in communication system, and finally re-examine the notion of errors in the non-native contexts where the learners need a second/foreign language to communicate with the members of their own native language groups **because** they hardly obtain an opportunity to converse with the native speakers of the TL they are studying. **Agnihotri (1988:4)** observes that "... people in general show greater tolerance for local errors than global errors. The latter may affect the total structure of an utterance while the former are confined to lexical and morphological levels." Thus, errors are not signs of failure but **they** are the helping tools for language learning, as these tell the teacher the processes and strategies adopted by his learners. To conclude, it **is** appropriate to mention here the observation made by Gorbet (1979:28) in this context: "... errors are not a cause for alarm but are tools for helping us to help the student progress easily and naturally through the stages of his interlanguage."

2.3.5. The Learners' Language

The concept **learner's language** is borrowed here from Richards et al. (1974). It is used synonymously for learner's English to refer to the errors committed by a learner while learning language. The same concept **is** interpreted by different linguists at different times. Lado (1957) calls it **language transfer**,

Corder (1967, 1971 reprinted 1975) names *transitional competence and idiosyncratic dialects*, Nemser (1971) calls it *approximative systems* but Selinker (1972) names it *Interlanguage*. All these terms are briefly discussed below.

2.3.51. Language Transfer

The term *language transfer* refers to the effect of one language on the learning of another. Bilingual studies carried out by Haugen (1953) and Weinreich (1953) are regarded very influential early studies on CA. But the credit for pedagogical influences of such studies goes to the work of Fries (1945) and Lado (1957).

Lado in the late 1950's claimed "... that **individuals** tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives" (1957:2).

This observation of Lado drew the attention of the applied linguists to see the transfer of language and culture from one language to another and especially from the native language to the second or foreign language. Several CA studies followed Lado **with** the **aim** of finding the similarities and differences between the native language of the learner and the TL he wanted to study **in** order to develop language learning and teaching materials focusing on the differences between the languages in question **with** the presumption that differences led to difficulties and thereby resulted **in** erroneous utterances. This view is **in** confirmation **with** Fries (1945). The studies on CA record two types of transfer: *positive* and *negative*.

Positive transfer, also known as **facilitation**, refers to the production of correct behaviour because of the similarity in the new and old behaviour while negative transfer, also called inter-

ference, refers to the transfer as a result of which erroneous behaviours are seen. This is because the old behaviour is different from the one which the learner is going to learn.

Dulay et al. (1982:101) believe that "Both types of transfer refer to the **automatic** and subconscious use of old behaviour in learning situations". Though both types of transfer have the same source, i.e. the use of old behaviour, the way of viewing them by the linguists differs in terms of **emphasis**. In the past, especially in the **1960's** and **1970's**, linguists paid attention to the negative transfer and blamed it for creating problems to the learners. Ringbom (1987) also finds the early linguists regarding mother tongue as an obstacle to L2 learning.

Palmer, as early as **1917**, had cautioned the people learning a language of the possible help and danger both from the similarities between two cognate languages compared with two distant languages. But the negativism in the role of the mother tongue while learning a language persisted for many successive decades. The strong attack on CA during the **1970's** also minimized the role of mother tongue **while** learning a language. Even Dulay and Burt (1972, 1973, 1974a, 1974c) showed that mother tongue influence in the TL is very negligible, i.e. less than 5% in case of children, while the studies carried out on the adult learners recorded it as high as **51%** (cf. Table **No.6, 2.2.3**).

Selinker (1969) and Gass (1979) firmly claim that transfer is an inevitable phenomenon and it does take place in language learning. They take it positively. However, clarifying their stand on language transfer, they say that "... the learner is transferring prior linguistic knowledge resulting in **IL** forms which, when compared by the researcher to the target language norms, can be turned positive, negative or neutral" (Gass and Selinker 1992:6).

Thus, language transfer takes a new turn in the **1980's** when people start rethinking on the possible help that a learner **might** get from his mother tongue while learning a target language. The similarities that exist between the mother tongue and target

language are now taken positively. Corder (1981) observes that similarities between mother tongue and target language are a great help in acquiring the second language and vice-versa. He finds that if the languages are distantly related, there is no inhibition. Corder's view is contrary to the one given by Sweet (1899/1964) and Palmer (1917) earlier. However, his view is in confirmation with Schachter (1974) who also tries to show that learning difficulties are more when a mother tongue and a target language differ from each other.

Ringbom (1987) proposed that both production and comprehension have to be studied while carrying out the research on the influence of the mother tongue on the TL. He thinks it necessary "... to consider the obvious fact that L1 - and L2 - based procedures can occur both in isolation and in mutual interaction" (1987:50). It is essential to see the influence of L1 in comprehending L2 since most of the research works carried out so far concentrated on production aspect only. These studies show that language transfer has a positive influence in language learning. Linguists stress the importance of transfer in language learning. Kellerman (1979) and Gass and Selinker (1992) talk both about the importance and constraints of language transfer.

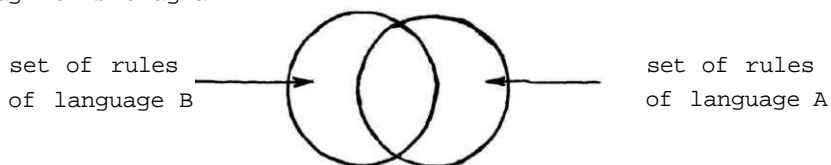
2.3.52. Transitional Competence

Corder (1967) makes a distinction between errors of performance referred to as mistakes and errors of competence, i.e. systematic errors on the basis of which a learner's knowledge of "language to date, i.e. transitional competence" is reconstructed. This competence refers to the target language system he is using at a particular point in time. This is transitional because it is unstable in nature. If this hypothesis is taken into consideration, the terms used so far to address to learner's language as errors, *deviant forms* and *ill-formed* have to be modified because "... whatever the surface form or apparent appropriateness of a learner's utterances, none are the utterances in the target language..., but a language of his own, a unique *idiolect*... that every utterance of the learner must be regarded as an acceptable utterance in his transitional dialect" (Corder 1971b-. Reprinted : 1981:31-32).

If the learner's grammar is taken as a grammar of **his** own because it does not resemble the target language grammar, the observation made by Corder above is true, because **it** does not deviate from any norm at all. **ZydatiB** (1974) supports Corder and finds the learner's language, a **well-formed one**. The question of the **acceptability** of such a language to Corder **is** of no utility as it is compared **with** the **infant's** language because of **its** transitional nature. Therefore, everything that a learner produces is considered grammatical.

2.3.53. Idiosyncratic Dialects

Corder (1971a) gives another name to the learner's language assuming it to be a special sort of dialect. It is based upon his **interpretation** of the word *dialect* - in which some rules of grammars of two languages are shared. He clarifies **this** concept through this diagram:



But he seems to be unsure of calling it a dialect in a non-linguistic perspective because a dialect should be shared by a group of people for their interpersonal **communication**. He also makes a **distinction** between an **idiosyncratic dialect** and an **idiolect**. The former is particular to an individual and the sentences produced by him are not readily **interpretative** unless the convention underlying them **is** known to the **interpreter**, but such a problem doesn't persist in an **idiolect** since there may be someone in the social group who can share the convention with him.

Corder (1971a) classifies four types of idiosyncratic dialects, such as poetic language, **aphasic's** language, the **infant's** learning **his** mother tongue, and the learner's learning a second language. It is, therefore, unfair to call the learner's language **erroneous** or **deviant** so long as **it is** compared with the poetic, **aphasic's** and infant's language. The **idiosyncratic** utterances

are, thus, the outcomes of the learner's use of **his** own rules while learning the target language. For **Corder**, erroneous sentences are the ones which are the result of the failure of performance. Such utterances can be corrected by the performer himself because they follow the rules of the transitional dialect. He also gives a reason why he does not **like** the terms **error**, **deviant** or **ill-formed** to be used to the **idiosyncratic** dialect because "... they all prejudice the explanation of the **idiosyncrasy**" (Corder 1971a reprinted : 1975:105).

There is an overlap between the two terms, i.e. **transitional competence** and the **idiosyncratic dialects** in Corder's own explanation. They look, more or less, similar. At times, he replaces the term transitional competence with transitional dialect. Therefore, these two terms do not show any significant differences in their analyses.

The purpose of studying the learner's dialects according to **Corder** is to show **why it is** as **it is** and further to elicit the process of language learning. Corder also does not like to use the word **ungrammatical** to the learner's dialects because, he thinks, "... they are in fact **grammatical** in terms of the learner's language" (op.cit. p.105).

2.3.54. Approximative Systems

Nemser (1971) gives a different name to the learner's language. He calls it **approximative system**. It refers to the "...deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner attempting to utilize the target language. Such **approximative** systems vary in character in accordance with proficiency level; variation is also **introduced** by learning experience (including exposure to a target language script system), communication function, personal learning characteristics, etc." (Nemser 1971:116). Unlike Corder (1971a), Nemser likes to use the word **deviant** to the learner's language and he believes that a learner's language is featured by **variation** which can be compared with **Corder's idiosyncratic dialect**. Similarly, his notion of successive changes in the approximative systems can be compared with

Border's **transitional competence**. This system evolves from its rudimentary stage to the stage which is the closest to the TL. however, **Nemser** thinks that the achievement of perfect **proficiency** in the adults **is** rare. But he **finds** that "The speech of a learner... **is** structurally organized, manifesting the order and **cohesiveness** of a system..." (op.cit. p. 116). Therefore, he suggests to study this **system** independent of the SL and the TL.

As discussed **above**, **Nemser** does not believe **in** the acquisition of perfect proficiency by any adult learner. He thinks that **permanent** intermediate and subsystems are found and the learner's **language** is never free from the phonological and grammatical deviance if the learners share the native language. Therefore, he is in favour of conducting a **contrastive** study of the SL and the TL in order to suggest appropriate pedagogy. **Nemser** finds **stability** in the speech of the migrants where a new language **system** develops, for example, German English. Another stable system is **formed** by **utility system** like the language of taxi-drivers, bartenders, hotel reservation clerks, etc. who communicate **with** the foreigners. He also likes to refer to the learner's language as *learner pidgin* - a system "... employed by language students **who** have attained fluency in the target language without mastery of **its fundamentals**, but have arrived at a stage in **instruction** where attention has largely shifted from form to content" (op.cit. p. 118).

Nemser tries to settle the problem of stability by giving the examples like the speech of the migrants, the language of the **taxi-drivers** etc. and the learner-pidgin above quite contrary to his conviction that "... (**approximative** system) **La** speakers do **not usually** form speech communities" (**Nemser 1971:126**). In the **case** of the **taxi-drivers**, etc. **this** notion can be applied but the immigrants normally settle in a group and form a speech **community**. If he talks about the **immigrants** scattered all over the country, the argument will certainly be **in his** favour. In the case of **learner pidgin**, his argument seems plausible because learners are a part of a **community** but do not form a separate community. He feels the **importance** of studying the **approximative** systems as it is the ever neglected area of study. He is also in

favour of suggesting a better pedagogic strategy to handle the learner's language which, he thinks, is possible by making a contrastive study of the source language and target language and thereby testing the **contrastive** analysis hypothesis for establishing their validity. Another use of **this kind** of study can be in formulating a general linguistic theory **applicable** to child language and the language of the people **with** speech disorders.

2.3.55. **Interlanguage**

Irrespective of the various names **in** practice, **Selinker** (1972) claims that he **introduced** the notion **Inter** language (IL) **in Selinker** (1969). **Selinker** (1972 reprinted 1975:117), however, uses the term **Interlanguage** to mean "... the existence of a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm." **This** definition of IL gives a new dimension for viewing the learner's language **independently** of the native language (NO and TL. The earlier studies on EA and the attitude to errors got a new **life** to look **into** the matters **in** a different perspective.

Selinker (op.cit p.116) assumes that "... there is such a *psychological structure* and that it is *latent* in the brain, activated when one attempts to learn a second language." Unlike **Chomsky**, he does not **give** any name to the latent psychological structure. However, he tries to establish a psychology of second-language learning which can **give** an explicit process in the learning of a second language, but he agrees to the fact that he **is** unable "... to **identify** unambiguously the phenomena we **wish** to study" (op.cit 115). It seems that **his** latent psychological structures are also not that explicit to elicit the process of second language learning. He, however, proposes **five** processes central to second language **learning**. They are: language transfer, transfer-of- training, strategies of **second-language** learning, strategies of **second-language communication**, and **overgeneralization**. In addition to these, he also gives a few minor processes such as **hypercorrection**, spelling **pronunciation**, cognate **pronunciation**, **holophrase** learning, etc.

Sridhar (1981) also finds the term *Inter language* suitable for the learner's language because of its intermediate status, instability and rule governed nature.

Both Selinker (1972) and Sridhar (1981) seem to be influenced by Nemser (1971) regarding the permanency of the learner's language. Selinker uses the term *fossilization* which refers to the stability of a system in the learner's language similar to the Indian English in India. So fossilizable linguistic phenomena, according to Selinker (1972 reprinted 1975:118-119) are the "... linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL". This argument supports the existence of the Black English in the USA which remains a permanent feature in the tongues of the Black American people irrespective of their age and academic background.

Corder (1981) supports Selinker (1972) irrespective of his previous vision of the learner's language as *transitional* or *diosyncratic*, and finds interlanguage exhibiting *systematic properties* independent of the learner's mother tongue and any other language he knows. But his opinion regarding fossilization is different from that of Selinker. He finds IL developing no norms. However, he proposes to carry out studies in order to see the sequence of IL development but speculates that there could be *general overall similarity* at least in the early age. His speculation is based on the hypothesis of establishing universal properties in human language.

Selinker (1989) reinterprets Nemser (1971) and states that learners sometimes make NL/IL categories equivalent and sometimes do not while creating interlanguage. He also mentions the evidence given by Nemser (1971:134-135) "... for at least partial autonomy of IL systems" .

Thus, during these years, applied linguists have proposed hypotheses regarding the learner's language tested, and modified them. Fluctuations in the arguments are obviously noted. These

arguments started from the CA hypothesis to EA and further stretched upto **IL system**. This viewing and reviewing of the terminologies are ongoing processes and still further studies are needed (cf. Corder 1981) In order to discover the natural sequence of second language learning. **Selinker** (1989) finds CA studies appropriate to begin **with** in order to see the **facilitative** role of the mother tongue for the creation of IL.

The different names given to the learner's language by different linguists are centered to a single theme. Whether or not they agree **with** each other, **it** is seen through the discussion above that they **find** a new system in the learner's language which is ultimately taken positively unlike in the early years.

2.3.6. Procedures or Stages of Error Analysis

Error analysis in the past was done by the teacher for classroom teaching through observation and **impression**. More **specifically**, it was done for correction and remediation purposes. But the trend of systematic analysis of errors for a number of purposes other than teaching is **comparatively** a recent phenomenon. Several works on EA started in the **1960's** and continue till date.

The normal procedure applied by the EA researchers is the selection of the corpus, **identification/recognition** of errors, **classification/description** of errors, explanation of errors and the suggestions for their remediation. However, a brief sketch of the procedures applied by different EA researchers **is** given here.

Duškova (1969), though does not specifically mention the stages of EA, gives a **detailed classification** and causes of **errors** she finds **in** the writing of her **informants**. Corder (1973, 1974) explicitly mentions three stages of EA, i.e. **recognition**, **description**, and **explanation**. However, he also **includes** two other stages **like** the **data for error analysis** and the **correction of errors**. These will be discussed later from section 2.3.61 through **2.3.64** in detail. Nickel (1972 as quoted in **Hammarberg** 1974:186)

proposes three aspects of the study of errors such as description, grading and therapy. Sridhar's (1981) stages of EA are similar to Corder's except the inclusion of a step called *statement of relative frequency of Error* typos between description and explanation of errors. He further uses the term *therapy* for the remediation of errors. Agnihotri (1988) proposes five stages of EA with an emphasis on a quantitative analysis of errors based on the linguistic and psychological predispositions.

Corder's (1974) stages of EA seem to be followed by EA researchers so far with a few terminological changes with the same theme. Therefore, his stages of EA are explained here with the inclusion of others wherever necessary.

2.3.61. The Data for Error Analysis

The data for EA may be spoken or written or both. Corder (1974) refers to the written materials of two types, i.e. *spontaneous production* (free composition) and *controlled production* (translations, precis, etc). EA researchers have made use of the both types of materials so far keeping their strengths and weaknesses in view. He further argues that spontaneous production materials exhibit *error-avoiding* tendency of the learner while controlled production materials tend to be *error-provoking*.

2.3.62. Recognition of Errors

At this stage, the analyst makes a distinction between a *mistake* and an *error*. Though the word *mistake* covers, in a general sense, all slips, lapses, errors or breaches of code, it is specially reserved for *slips* and *lapses*. *Slips* are the mistakes which are caused by *tiredness*, carelessness or similar reasons. These slips or false starts or confusions of structures are called *lapses* (Corder 1973:259). A native speaker can correct them. These are not the concern of an error analyst. *Breaches of code* for (Corder 1973:259) are systematic, regular, and consistent and most likely committed by the language learners. These are exclusively called *errors* and a learner cannot detect and correct

them. **This** stage is crucial because the detection of error **is** done here which needs a native-like **intuition** and perception in a researcher.

Recently, two major concepts have **become** current in the process of recognizing the errors; they are - whether to see the **grammaticality or acceptability** or both of them. In the case of **grammaticality**, as it refers to the **internal** structuring of the code **itself**, it creates less problems although there is always a division of opinion **in** the case of judging an item. Gleason (1968) finds it easier to judge an utterance taken out of its context. Such an isolated structure is judged **in** terms of rules of the language **in** question. **With** regard to the latter one, that is, **acceptability**, an utterance should be "... perfectly natural and **immediately comprehensible** without **paper-and-pencil analysis**, and in no way bizarre or outlandish" (Chomsky 1965:10). There **is** a clear division among the native speakers themselves whether or not to accept a particular utterance (Celce-Murcia et al. 1983). Hymes (1971) gives a four-way division of an utterance **including grammatical ity** to judge an utterance of a learner. They are: **grammatical ity, feasibility, appropriateness and probability**.

Corder (1973:273) raises a doubt in the above division and **states**: "It is possible that a learner's sentence may be both acceptable and appropriate but nevertheless erroneous ... Learners probably quite often say something acceptable and apparently appropriate but which does not mean what they intend to mean".

This creates a problem to **find** out what each and every individual knows and what he actually does say. This needs a longitudinal study of the learner in order to **find** out his inadequacy in a particular area of language and also a long term contact to study **his** behaviour.

Corder (1973:272) mentions three stages **in** the development of language **in** the learner, i.e. **pre-systematic, systematic** and **post-systematic**. In **his** words, "In the pre-systematic stage, since he has not yet realized that there is a system or what **its** function **is**, he can neither correct **his** error nor say what his

problem is; in the systematic stage he cannot correct his error but he can give some explanation of what he **was** aiming at or trying to do; in the **post-systematic stage** he can both correct his error and explain what was wrong, i.e. that he had overlooked something, or simply forgotten to apply a known rule." An error analyst has also to know the actual stage of the learner in order to make a distinction between an error and a lapse.

2.3.63. Description of Errors

After the detection of errors, their linguistic classification is **required**. da Rocha (1975) finds **it** a very difficult task. Some **unclassifiable** items which Duskova (1969) calls *nonce errors* need to be differentiated from the classifiable **systemtic** ones.

Corder (1973) classifies errors into four categories *omission, addition, selection, and **misordering***. He further classifies these categories into different linguistic levels **like** *phonological/orthographical, grammatical and **lexico-semantic***. He has added a new **classification** to the above later called *referential* or *stylistic* level which requires the learner to possess a very high proficiency in the TL itself. Opportunities are rare for the learners to make use of contextually bound language. Even for a native child, it takes a long time to "... learn to control appropriately the use of features of his mother tongue in relation to social, technical, intentional and emotional differences in situations" (Corder 1973:281).

Dulay et al. (1982) classify errors into *linguistic categories* such as *phonology, syntax and **morphology**, semantics and lexicon, and discourse: **surface strategy**, like omission, addition, and misordering of items; **comparative analysis** - comparison of synonymous items in the L1 and L2 and **communicative effect** - effects of the utterances on the listeners or readers. The first two **classifications** above resemble Corder's whereas comparative analysis is taken **into** consideration while explaining the **interference errors**. **Communicative** effect is considered in the evaluation of errors.*

A more recent trend becoming popular among the researchers is to classify errors into more general categories like articles, prepositions, tense forms, subject-verb agreement, etc. (cf. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974b & c), Lennon (1991), Sayed (1994), Tushyeh (1995) etc.).

2.6.64. Explanation of Errors

The description of errors is purely a linguistic phenomenon whereas explanation is a psychological one because it tries to find out the causes of errors "... which must lie within the conceptual system of the individual language user" (Bell 1974:42). Two schools of psychology namely Behaviourist and Cognitive take errors in two different perspectives. For the former, errors are a sign of failure whereas for the latter "... errors provide positive evidence about the nature of the learning process, as the learner gradually works out what the FL system is" (Crystal 1987:372).

The cognitive approach of viewing language learning brings a change in the outlook of the researchers to take errors as not a sign of failure, but inevitable in the process of learning. The cognitivists believe that if deviations are natural in acquiring the first language, they are also natural in language learning. However, EA studies try to find out such deviations in language learning and sort out their sources/causes. Therefore, in this stage of error analysis, causes or sources of errors are explained.

2.3.641. Sources of Errors

Corder (1973), Richards (1971 reprinted 1973) and others point out different sources of errors, though some of them are common to everyone. An attempt is made here to describe them.

The first source of errors is L1 interference. Structural linguists claim it to be the sole cause of errors. However, the researchers have shown that it is only one of many causes. Corder (1973:284) believes that "... not all the rules or habits of the

mother tongue will result in errors." The second source of errors is **overgeneralization**. Corder (1973) thinks it to be an inevitable process in language learning. If a learner **commits** errors because the past learning affects the later learning resulting in the production of erroneous sentences, it is termed as overgeneralization. The third source of errors is the result of partial knowledge in the language. Teaching and learning is a lifelong process. Therefore, Corder says that "... nothing is '**fully**' learned until everything is '**fully**' learned" (1973:283). The fourth source of errors is the lack of conducive teaching and learning situation. All the learners are not equipped with the same language aptitude. Therefore, their motivation towards learning is also diverse. It is but natural that less motivated learners commit more errors. Equally important **to note** here is that some learners become less motivated because of physical and emotional reasons. All these factors are responsible for *redundant errors* which are committed by the advanced learners as well. The **fifth** source of errors is the *physical resemblance* of a word of the mother tongue that is chosen by a learner in the TL. Corder (1973:290) calls it **false cognates** and states that "It is the physical resemblance which leads to analogical overgeneralization" (Corder 1973:291). This creates a new hypothesis that similarity in mother tongue and TL creates problems for the learners contrary to the theory of transfer in practice.

Unlike Corder above, Richards (1973:97) proposes a three-way **classification** of the causes of errors, that is, interference, intralingual and developmental.

Interference errors are those errors caused by the **influence** of the mother tongue. Chau (1975:133-134) claims that **51%** of errors fall in this category and further says "... that first-language interference is the greatest single cause of errors". **Dulay et al.(1982:103)** do not **support** this claim, but show that only 8% to **23%** of the adult errors are ascribed to transfer from the mother tongue. Gorbet (1979) believes that as a two-way affair, interference may be caused by both **mother** tongue and TL. The learning strategy applied in such cases is that of *analogy*. It is similar to the explanation given by Corder (1973).

Intralingual errors are those errors "... which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, **incomplete** application of **rules**, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply" (Richards 1973:98). The errors in **this** category are similar to the ones explained by Corder (1973). According to Chau (1975: 135) it is the second largest cause of errors, and 29% of the errors come under **this** category.

Developmental errors refer to the ones which are the outcome of the hypotheses formulated by the learner with a limited experience in the TL (Richards 1973:98). **This** refers to his incomplete knowledge of the TL similar to Corder's *partial knowledge*. Dulay et al. (1982:165) observe that "Developmental errors are errors *similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language*". They compare L1 examples with L2 errors and give a list of developmental errors based on surface strategies. Such errors are: **OMISSIONS (Omissions of Major Constituents** - head noun, subject, main verb, direct object, **Omission of Grammatical Morphemes** - preposition, article, short plural and long plural, **auxiliary**, copula, **progressive-ing**, regular past tense-ed, irregular past tense, third person singular, **infinitivemarker-to**), **ADDITION (Double marking** - present indicative, regular past, **irregularpast**, direct object; **Simple addition** - third person singular, past tense: **-ed**, article, preposition) **MISFORMATIONS (Overgeneralization- reflexive pronoun**, regular past, third person **singular**; **Arch/Alternating Forms** - auxiliary, prepositions, subject pronoun, possessive pronoun, negative, **quantifiers**) and **MISORDERING (aux in simple Question**, aux **in** embedded Question, **adverb**) (op.cit. 166-170). This **classification** of errors is an attempt to equate L2 acquisition with that of L1. However, they also mention interlingual errors caused by the influence of the L1. Richards (1973) further classifies Intralingual and Developmental errors and their causes in the following way:

1. **Overgeneralization**

It refers to the transfer of previous learning **in** the new learning situation. It "... covers **instances** where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of **his** experience of other structures **in** the target language" (Richards 1973:99), e.g.

*He can **sings**.*

Gorbet (1979) observes that **overgeneralization** errors are caused by the **incomplete** application of rules, **failure** to learn the conditions of application for rules or false concepts hypothesized. Richards, of course, deals these causes separately. Jain (1974) thinks that learners make use of prematurely acquired rules in the creation of **overgeneralized** structures. But Richards (1973) and Gorbet (1979) think that **overgeneralized** structures are related to the **simplification** of the utterances and create redundancy reduction. Gorbet (1979:25) gives an **example like** *yesterday I go down town* which is a common instance of reduction in the speech of children acquiring their first language. Jain (1974) also confirms that both **L1** and **L2** learners use the technique of reduction, but at one stage the first language learner leaves this tendency and produces matured adult speech. The continuation of reduction by a second language learner which diverges from the adult speech of the TL creates erroneous utterances. **Ervin-Tripp** (1969:33, as quoted in Richards 1973:99) suggests that "...possibly the morphological and syntactic simplifications of second language learners correspond to some **simplifications** common among children (**i.e.** mother tongue speakers) learning the same language." This observation is confirmed in **Dulay et al.** (1982). But rigorous studies lack **in** the field of reduction made by the learners. The pattern of the reduction and the duration that continues in the learner is a matter of real concern for the researchers. A remedy for such fossilized **forms**, if any, will be needed.

Richards (1973:110) also mentions that **overgeneralization is** also caused by "Certain type of teaching techniques" which is similar to Corder's **interpretation** of **inappropriate** teaching and learning situation or teaching **induced errors**.

11. *Ignorance of Rule Restrictions*

Richards (1973) believes that errors committed by the learners using previously learned rules in the new contexts where selectional restriction applies fall into this category. They are similar to analogical creations where analogy is the cause of errors in prepositions as well as articles. For example,

He *said* to *me*_____> He asked to me (Richards 1973:100).

11.1. Incomplete Application of Rules

Errors that fall in this category are the ones which show "... the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances" (Richards 1973:102). He says that a learner may use a statement to form a question or just add a question word to it. This shows his inability to use the rules needed for transformation. The use of a question word in a statement is itself an instance of incomplete application of the rules required to form a question. For example:

**What* you are *doing* today?

iv. *False Concept Hypothesized*

In the course of learning a language, learners interpret a concept in such a way that it makes them create erroneous sentences. Richards (1973:103) puts this category of errors into "... a class of developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language". He gives an example of the past auxiliary verb *was* which may be interpreted as past tense marker producing the following type of sentence:

**One day it was happened.* (op.cit.p. 108)

In a similar **circumstance** *is* may be taken as the present tense marker to produce a sentence **like**:

He *is* speaks *French.* (op.cit.p.108)

From the above discussion, it is clear that **Richards'** classification of errors covers **Corder's** causes of errors except the **false** cognates. It also **includes** many successive studies in the field of EA. Hence, the present study keeps up the same spirit while analysing the errors in the following chapter.

2.3.7. Limitations of Error Analysis

EA emerged in the field of applied linguistics to overcome some of the weaknesses of CA. The focus of criticism addressed to CA was on its claim for predictive ability. The proponents of EA could convince the people of such a serious weakness. However, the limitations that cropped up in EA remain a matter of discussion today. Schachter et al. (1977:442) believe that "... they (the proponents of EA) have to a large extent **failed** to focus their attention on the possibility that there are **corresponding** weaknesses in EA which would make error-based theories and materials as inadequate and one-sided as **contrastively-based** theories and materials are". Some of the limitations of EA are discussed below:

1. Corder (1973), **Hammarberg** (1974), da Rocha (1975), and Schachter et al. (1977) **find** the data **inadequate** for EA. The researchers have so far taken the errors of the learners into **consideration**, but non-errors are not taken into **consideration**. The analysis of error and non-error data can tell the success of a learner in learning a language. They suggest that careful **consideration** should be given to both error and non-error data.

ii. There is a problem in the **identification** and **classification** of errors. Native speakers, sometimes, have a division of opinion regarding the **acceptability** of certain forms produced by the learners.

111. Schachter (1974) has shown that some learners avoid the areas in which they feel insecure. In such cases, the predictions made by CA **fail** and no EA can be done. **Kleinmann** (1977) and Schachter et al. (1977) also support the avoidance factor.

lv. Most of the studies carried out so far have made use of the data obtained from the learner "under a single set of circumstance" (Gleason 1961:391) which is certainly not adequate. Therefore, Corder (1973) emphasises on a need for conducting longitudinal studies.

v. Another criticism labelled against EA is **its** lack of explanatory ability. Chau (1975:122) believes that "Besides the methodological **limitations...**, EA has also been criticized for **its** lack of explanatory function". Schachter et al. (1977) are of the opinion that there are a large number of errors which are ambiguous. A clear distinction as to whether an error **is intralingual** or developmental is very hard to make.

vi. Some linguists have raised questions in the statistical tools used to count errors of the **learners**. da Rocha (1975) and Schachter et al. (1977) are of the opinion that a more sophisticated statistical treatment be applied in EA because in such treatment "... the emphasis is on '**relative**' as opposed to '**absolute**¹ frequency of error types" (Schachter et al. 1977:446).

Although the limitations of EA are discussed here, these are supposed to be helpful hints to carry out EA in order to produce desired results. Many of these limitations pointed out **in** the **1970's** have been repaired by the researchers in successive years. Therefore, "... research **into** errors continues to provide a fruitful way of **investigating** the processes underlying FL acquisition" (Crystal 1987:373).'

2.4. Error Gravity

An **error** generally refers to the **deviated form** of a language and **gravity** to the **seriousness** of it if it is compared **with** the adult norm of a native speaker of the language in question. Whether or not an **error**¹ is a deviated form of the adult speech is not the concern here since **it** has already been discussed in the previous sections. Therefore, an attempt **will** be made here to define the term **error gravity**, and discuss **its** criteria taking the previous studies into consideration.

Richards et al. (1985:96) define **error gravity** as "... a measure of the effect that errors made by people speaking a second or foreign language have on **communication** or on other speakers of the language". This **definition** lays emphasis on *communication* aspect of language obviously referring to the **communicative** approach to language teaching which assesses a learner's language in terms of his success in **communication**. Johansson (1973) relates error gravity with two goals of foreign language teaching, i.e. **comprehensibility** and *conformity*. Comprehension in his sense refers to the **intelligibility** of an utterance whereas **conformity** to the effect of it in **communication**. Thus, the objective of evaluation has to be set **accordingly**.

Palmer (1980:93-94) defines error gravity as "... a mathematical means of expressing which errors are the most serious, and how serious they are..." He proposes error gravity distribution (EGD) factor to answer to **this** need. He distinguishes this concept from the others such as the **degree of communicative difficulty** and the notion of *globality of errors* since this approach surmises that "seriousness is related to frequency" (op.cit. p.94). But at times, he has not been able to refrain himself from the main stream of **communication**, when he says "... in practical terms it is actual error frequency which gives the student his communication problems and the teacher **his** work" (op.cit. p.94). The frequency count **itself** is taken for setting up of remedial priorities.

2.4.1. Criteria for Error Gravity

It is very difficult to fix a permanent set of criteria for error gravity. According to Johansson (1973), the answers obtained by putting up two questions - whether an error affects the **comprehensibility** of the message and whether it causes any irritation to the evaluator of the **learners'** language - will give clues to the seriousness of the error. He gets the following answers to **his** questions:

i, If a native speaker is not sure of whether a word or a construction is acceptable or unacceptable, it should not be considered an error.

ii. An error should not be considered serious, if it does not impede comprehensibility and cause any irritation to the listener or reader irrespective of its frequency or vice versa.

Apart from the criterion of comprehensibility, Johansson (1973) adds a new criterion called the **degree of irritation** to measure error gravity. Burt and Kiparsky (1972) bring a two-fold classification of errors, i.e. *global* and **local**. They try to show that global errors affect the overall sentence organization and severely impede communication. Therefore, they think that global errors are more serious than local errors. The seriousness of an error depends upon the emphasis given to it, too. Delisle (1982) suggests that the seriousness of an error is judged in the light of the goals set for learning a language, i.e. whether it is to achieve complete correctness or communicative success. In the case of the former, all the errors are equally serious while for the latter a different rating scale is required.

Davies (1983:310) supports this view and says that "... any error evaluation will be coloured by the particular viewpoint from which it is carried out, and thus may not be consistent with evaluations made from other viewpoints". However, she (1985:65) also proposes that "... assessment of a learner's work be made in terms of the extent to which he achieves successful communication..." if the goal of language teaching is communicative.

It can be inferred from the above discussion that while setting up criteria for error evaluation, one has to specify one's goals and then give priority to them. From the studies reviewed so far the following criteria for error gravity can be specified:

- i. comprehensibility/intelligibility/
 communicability/conformity
- 11. frequency
- 111. degree of irritation, and
- iv. acceptability/unacceptability.

Apart from these focal points, assessors have to bear various other factors in mind while evaluating the errors of a learner. Davies (1983) discusses this aspect also because any suggestion should be compatible with the environment in which the teachers have to teach and assess their learners' performance. She mentions that "... the teacher's assessment is unlikely to be based solely on criteria such as frequency or degree of linguistic deviance, which would be equally available to other kinds of evaluator; instead it will be influenced by such factors as his or her own competence in both the target language and the learners' other languages, familiarity with the learners and their background, teaching priorities, the syllabus being used, in short, by the whole teaching and learning context against which he or she will inevitably view the errors" (1983: 310).

2.4.2. Previous Studies on Error Gravity

It has been discussed above that according to Johansson (1973), the assessment of errors is connected with the goals of foreign language teaching and accordingly, he proposes two goals of error gravity studies, i.e. *comprehensibility* and *conformity*. If the goal is *comprehensibility*, the errors which impede comprehension should be regarded more serious than the others. Similarly, the errors that impair communication should be evaluated seriously if the goal is conformity. He also thinks that those errors that irritate the listener or reader are treated as more serious.

The research works carried out on error gravity so far have made use of both native and non-native speakers for evaluating the errors made by the learners in order to assess the seriousness of such errors. James (1977) collects errors from the learners of English and makes the native and non-native English teachers evaluate them in terms of their seriousness. He finds that "Non-native judges (nationals) tend to mark more severely than native speakers do" (1977:118). This study confirms an earlier study made by Nickel (1970:19 as quoted in James 1977:118) "... that native speakers are probably more tolerant of learners' errors than teachers of the same nationality as the students..."

Regarding the perception of the instructors towards learners' errors, Chastain (1980:210) says that "Depending upon native speaker linguistic **tolerance, insight, interest, and patience**, student language errors will be viewed as comprehensible and acceptable, **comprehensible** but not acceptable, or, in the case of failure to **comprehend, incomprehensible**". This is how even the native speaking judges differ in their judgement. Reactions of the judges vary from individual to individual, situation to situation and language to language. He also finds the criterion of **comprehensibility** chosen by his judges. In a different study, Chastain (1981) finds some errors more serious than others from a **communicative** point of view. Even native speakers sometimes **fail** to understand what a writer tries to communicate.

Delisle (1982) brought a new personal variable, **i.e.** age that plays an important role in the evaluation of **learners'** errors. Although she makes a reference of Politzer's (1978) study in which the variables like sex, age, and educational background are found playing an influential role in the decisions of the respondents, she finds age of the evaluator a very decisive factor in error evaluation.

Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) mention the criteria for error gravity that their three groups of judges, i.e. Greek teachers, English non-teachers, and English teachers followed. The Greek teachers emphasized the **basicness of rule infringed**, the English non-teachers depended on the **criteria of intelligibility**, while the English teachers preferred both criteria but gave preference to **intelligibility**. Hughes and Lascaratou support Nickel (1973) who states that native speakers are more lenient to the errors committed by the TL learners because of their superiority in the TL itself. This argument is further supported by Davies (1983). In the same way those native teachers who are familiar with the **learners'** language and the learning strategies also get **influenced** by these factors while assessing it.

Green and Hecht (1985:88) also support the studies mentioned above. Their finding is that "The German markers were **much** more often than the English markers the more severe judges of errors

in all the grammatical categories except preposition". In their study native English speaking teachers are more concerned with meaning rather than accuracy. However, the non-native teachers' concern is with the form only. They can share with the learners in their native language, and communication becomes a secondary phenomenon for them while learning English. Therefore, learning a language means acquiring correct forms of it and meaning aspect can be overlooked.

Sheorey (1986:308) confirms the studies discussed so far by stating that "... native speakers (teachers as well as non-teachers) appear to be more tolerant of errors made by ESL students than **non-native** speakers are."

All these studies **indicate** that the perceptions of the native and non-native teachers are not the same regarding the assessment of the learners' errors. Now the **question** arises, *Can there be a common **consensus** regarding the error **gravity**?* It can be reached **in** the aspects rated by both groups, i.e. native and non-native speaker teachers, uniformly; but bridging a big gap is very unlikely. However, Sheorey suggests that the errors which are most irritating to the ESL teachers should also be taken in a similar way **by** the non-native teachers. Such consensus can be reached to a large extent **if** the goal of teaching a foreign language is alike for both native and non-native evaluators. Different countries set different goals for teaching a foreign language. Similarly, teaching and learning environments are also different in different situations which have a big influence in the learning of language. However, ***meeting of minds*** is practised by **Birdsong et al.** (1988) making the students do the job of an evaluator. A *neutral **label**, i.e. seriousness of error* criterion was used for the evaluation of errors. Their findings "... suggest that in terms of judging the relative seriousness of errors, students and teachers are **in** agreement" (**Birdsong et al. 1988:8**). This kind of study is done to share *linguistic background* and *learning experience* (op.clt:2) with a view to making both **teachers** and learners share the error judgement experience as well. **This** kind of activity **may** also help in **making** the remediation of errors a *co-operative enterprise*. The limitation

of this kind of evaluation **is** that the students may not be able to comprehend everything in order to judge the seriousness of a particular language item.

A recent study has been carried out by McCretton and Rider (1993) in the line of the studies mentioned above and especially James (1977), Hughes and Lascaratou (1982), **Davies** (1983) and **Sheorey** (1986) to establish a hierarchy of errors that can be used as an aid for teachers to assess the **students'** written work. However, **McCretton** and Rider differ from the earlier studies, in that the hierarchies of errors that they tried to establish are "... merely the subjects' conditioned responses to well-established educational practices" (McCretton and Rider 1993:186).

Most of these studies are based on the isolated utterances of the learners in which case, such sentences remain handicapped. Therefore, difficulties naturally arise while evaluating them. This difficulty has also been spelt out by the evaluators themselves. Similarly, an utterance may be quite intelligible and acceptable **in** one context but may not be so in another. Besides, judging an error is a very subjective task "... which is likely to lead to considerable variations in judgment between one teacher and another" (Davies 1985:68-69). However, as Sheorey (1986) suggests, the non-native teachers have, at least, to compromise with the native speakers wherever possible.

2.4.3. Error Correction

Correction of errors is guided by the attitude of the teachers towards errors. Some teachers take them as punishable sins while others regard them as tools which facilitate learning opportunities. Some teachers take pleasure **in** correcting errors and overdo them without caring for **its** psychological **impact** on the learners while others prefer escaping from this tedious job.

The notion of error correction **is** also guided by the learning theories behind it. The Behaviourists take errors as unwanted things which need immediate attention before they are **fossil-**

led, but the **Cognitivists** take them as **inevitable** characteristics of learning through which one can infer the learning strategies employed by the learners.

Dulay et al. (1982) compare **L2 learners'** errors with those of **L1 learners** and find more or less the same trends in both of them. Therefore, they prefer calling such errors as developmental. However, a teacher cannot refrain himself from the correction work because the "Skill in correction of errors lies **in** the direction of exploiting the incorrect forms produced by the learner in a controlled fashion" (Corder 1973:294). But while doing so, care should be taken so that its effect on the learner remains positive. Bolitho (1995:47) observes that "The effect of over-correction or insensitive correction on **learners'** confidence is often visible to an observer **in** the classroom." Therefore, correction work should be encouraging and yielding a positive effect on the learners so that it does not deter their fluency.

Correction work is further viewed in **terms** of the objective of language teaching and learning. **If** the objective is to achieve fluency for **communicative** purposes, correction can be **relaxing**; but if the **objective** is to obtain accuracy, errors should be corrected very carefully.

A new trend has been emerging with regard to the correction of errors. The researchers suggest to correct such errors as impede **comprehensibility** like global errors, but not the local ones which are not serious. However, care should be taken even when correcting the most serious errors.

2.4.4. Error Remediation

The main purpose of EA is to identify, describe, and explain errors. On the basis of the results of the study, relative gravity of errors is measured. The most serious errors are given **immediate** remediation and materials for such purpose are designed bearing the seriousness of the errors in mind. It is practically difficult to handle materials for the remediation of errors addressed to the individual learner **in** a large class. However,

errors common to all or addressed to the majority of learners need special attention. It does not mean that the teacher need not pay attention to individual learners, however, individual problems should be dealt with in such a way that other students in the class should not remain stagnant. A careful planning is necessary for making everyone in the class equally active. In this regard Bhatia (1974:347) suggests that "...frequent errors or errors common to a large number of students, can be handled on a group basis; whereas infrequent errors, errors causing trouble to relatively few students, can be handled on an individual basis." She also suggests three types of drill - repetition, substitution and transformation - for the purpose of remedial teaching. However, drills become boring unless they are contextualized. Therefore, communicative drills are suitable for effective remediation.

Task-based language teaching programmes have become very successful these days for classroom practice. Such tasks can equally be useful for remedial instruction also. Though the preparation of remedial materials addressed to individual problems is a strenuous work for an individual teacher, they, if prepared, make everyone in the class active.

2.4.5. Conclusion

This chapter contains the theoretical bases for the present study. It begins with the discussion on CA which brought a revolution in the second or foreign language teaching during the 1940's and 1950's. However, due to criticisms' lodged against it, EA came into practice during the 1960's. Errors are viewed differently at different periods. A change in the attitude towards them brings a subsequent change in the ELT methodology.

A systematic analysis of errors, with a view to observing the learners' learning strategies, is considered essential for preparing syllabuses, textbooks and teaching and learning materials. A new outlook into the sources of errors, previously

claimed to be solely due to mother tongue interference, has emphasized the facilitating role of mother tongue in language learning.

Several studies have been carried out on error gravity in order to distinguish serious errors from non-serious ones. The correction of errors and their remediation are guided by the seriousness of errors. The more serious the errors are, the more attention they need to be paid for their remediation.

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Population of the Study

Nepal is divided into 14 zones and 75 districts. This was done in order to carry out development works in a decentralized manner. Similarly, it is also divided into five development regions for accelerating a balanced development in all parts of the country. The spirit has yet to be materialized because of the insurmountable geographical barriers such as the high mountains and large rivers that stand obstacles in the development works. There are no transportation facilities for a majority of people in the hills and high mountains because road building is a slow and expensive process. Similarly, in the field of education, some districts do not have any campus for their high school graduates to continue their studies even today. As a matter of fact, these students are bound to go to some adjacent districts if a college is available there, or go to town areas to avail opportunities of higher studies. As a result of this, all the colleges in towns are flooded with students. The crowded classrooms affect the teaching and learning activities. Mostly the PCL classes are the ones that face this chaotic environment. Normally, Biratnagar in the east, Kathmandu in the centre and Pokhara in the west are supposed to have the maximum intake of the high school graduates.

Five campuses selected for the study are located in the Kathmandu Valley, and four, outside it are in Pokhara and Bhairahawa. The population of the study, however, belongs to the various parts of the Kingdom, from the hills and plains, representing altogether 58 out of 75 districts of Nepal with an average distribution of 4.65 students per district.

3.1.1. Social Domain Chosen

The present study represents the population from a middle class stratum to a class of local peasants. But it is not affect-

ed by such a diversity. The majority of the people (73.3%) under study are from villages while the rest (26.6%), from the urban areas. Most of the male parents of the subjects are **farmers**, and female parents housewives. The majority of them are **illiterate** also (cf. Appendix 1, Table No.1).

3.1.2. Levels of Education

As discussed in the previous chapter regarding the linguistic competence of the intake, a debate has been going on between the school and **campus level communities**. Campuses **blame** the secondary schools for the low quality of education they impart to the secondary school students. Secondary schools blame the lower secondary schools and so on. No one is ready to take the responsibility of this misery. Actually the totality of teaching and learning process and the environment is responsible for creating this situation.

Bearing this scenario in mind, the present study is undertaken to look at the errors of the first year university students who have just passed the **SLC** examination. It, thus, tends to shed light on the ELT background that the tertiary intake has come up with. The study, therefore, includes all the PCL students from all the five Faculties and four Institutes under Tribhuvan University of Nepal (see Appendix 1, Table No.1).

The average marks that the students under study had obtained in English in the SLC Examination were 52.4%. The highest and the lowest average marks obtained by the students of Science and Technology and Law were 46.5% and 60.3%, **respectively**.

3.1.3. Age Groups

Nepali students should be of 16 years, while appearing in the SLC examination. Since the population of the present study includes the students who have already entered the university, they must have completed 16 years. The average age of the students under study is 17.7 years. It is because in the villages children either join school later than the specified age, i.e. 6

years or repeat the same class. Again some secondary schools, in some villages, are inaccessible for the children and they have to leave their villages and get temporarily settled in the vicinity of the secondary schools. Parents also feel insecure to send their children to the far off villages for their secondary school education. That is why, they are delayed for a year or so and as a result, the average age of the students goes up by more than a year. Another factor responsible for it is the delayed admissions to the university classes. Though students normally take the SLC examination between January and February and their results are published between June and July, admissions to the PCL are completed as late as September or October.

The present study was also conducted in February and March 1994 when the PCL first year classes had just started. Therefore, it is obvious that the average age of the students has to be a little more than it is expected. The average age of students from the Faculty/Institute of Humanities and Social Sciences, Management and Forestry was 17 years. The average age of the students from the Faculty/Institute of Law, Medicine, Science and Technology, Engineering and Agriculture and Animal Sciences was 18 years while the average age of the students from the Faculty of Education was 19 years (see Appendix 1, Table No.1).

3.1.4. Sex

The 1992 statistics of Ministry of Education and Culture show that of the total, secondary school going girls' population is 30.4% only as compared to the figure of close to 70% for the boys (***Statistical Pocket Book- Nepal 1994***). This indicates that the number of girls entering the tertiary level will also be less than that of the boys. While selecting the population of the Present study, this factor was not taken into consideration and it so happened that the girls' population came out to be 38.5% in this case.

3.1.5. Mother Tongues

Nepal is a multilingual and multicultural country. Though the 1991 census records 32 languages spoken as mother tongues in Nepal, there are several unrecorded languages spoken by a considerable population of the country. As Taba (1992 : 23-24) records, Nepali is one of 69 languages spoken in Nepal besides Hindi, Sanskrit and Urdu which have been kept in the category of other languages. These languages belong to Austro-Asiatic, Indo-Aryan, Dravidian and Sino-Tibetan language families. The present study covers subjects speaking 13 languages. However, there is a single speaker each of Khaling, Sherpa and Thakali languages. The majority of the students of the study, that is 65.5%, are the speakers of Nepali followed by Newari, Gurung, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Magar, and Limbu speakers which consist of 11.8%, 5.1%, 4.8%, 2.9%, 2.2% and 1.1%, respectively. There are two speakers each from Rai, Tamang and Tharu languages.

To sum up, a great diversity in different aspects is recorded in the population of the present study. It is very difficult to find an absolutely homogeneous group in terms of socio-economic background, status of parents and their education, etc. in a multilingual and multicultural country like Nepal. Segregating any section of population is of no use where the students follow the same national syllabus, study the same textbooks and sit in the same national examinations. The method of teaching English is the same all over the country. In most cases, English is taught with explanation in Nepali and students from all language backgrounds sit in the same class where Nepali serves as a filter language for the non-native Nepali learners of English. Transfer from Nepali as a first language or a second into English may be equally evident for both the groups, i.e. Nepali native speakers and non-native Nepali speakers if it is at all. Therefore, the Present population can be categorized into a group which can be called ***the Nepali learners of English.***

Mother tongue interference is now being considered as one of the several other sources of errors and as a result of which a change has occurred in the researchers to view errors not as sins

but as inevitable characteristics of language learning. Therefore, as mentioned above, the population that follows the same syllabus, studies the same textbooks and sits in the same examination can be taken as an ideal group in a country where English is more or less confined into the classrooms and medium of instruction is mostly Nepali. Very rarely are the other subjects except for English taught in English both at school and campus levels. Exposure to English outside the classroom is limited except in some programmes on Nepal Television and Radio Nepal both of which are also accessible to a limited section of the population. In this way the present population is considered to be an ideal representative for the study.

3.2. Construction of Test Items

The researcher used a questionnaire and five types of test in order to obtain data for the study. This section presents a description of all these.

3.2.1. A General Questionnaire for Students

A general questionnaire for students was prepared to obtain information from them regarding their personal as well as academic records. The items included were: name, age, sex, mother tongue, previous schooling, medium of instruction at schools, marks obtained in English in the SLC examinations, name of the Faculty/Institute and campus, parents' qualifications and occupations. Apart from these, the questionnaire includes 14 other questions regarding the use of Nepali and English outside the classroom environment in a five-point scale (see Appendix 1).

The purpose of this questionnaire was not to take the said variables for the explanation of the learners' errors but to see the representation of different ethnic groups, their socio-economic backgrounds, geographical regions they represent and their Previous as well as present exposure to English.

3.2.2. Test Items

Test items were based primarily on the *Secondary School English Curriculum* approved by the Curriculum Development Centre of His Majesty's Government of Nepal. An attempt was made to include majority of the items in order to make the tests representative. A review of the *Courses of Study for Proficiency Certificate Level First Year* was done with a view to seeing the linkage between the two, that is the SLC and PC levels. Also the *Lower Secondary English Curriculum* was borne in mind while devising the tests (see Appendix 5A-E).

The test is divided into five sections: listening test (which includes sound discrimination and comprehension tests), grammar test (which includes multiple choice test, error identification test and translation test), reading comprehension (cloze) test, word-formation and word meaning tests, and writing test. The forms and contents of these tests are explained here.

3.2.21. Listening Test

This test is further divided into two parts, namely sound discrimination test and listening comprehension test.

3.2.211. Sound Discrimination Test

This test is designed to assess the learners' ability to perceive and discriminate English sounds which is further classified into two sub-sections, namely vowels and consonants. All the vowel sounds (both monophthongs and diphthongs) are included in the test. As far as possible, minimal pairs are used to contrast individual sounds. The contrasted sounds appear in four pairs each so that each sound in contrast can come twice. In the case of the sound /ə/, the same words are used with their strong and weak forms except for the pair *and/ant* to contrast it with */SB/*.

Each vowel occurs twice in contrast with another vowel except for /f/, /ʊ/, /u/, /ə/, /ɔɪ/, /ʊə/, /əʊ/, and /ɪd/, each of which is contrasted with a single vowel. Vowels like /o/, /a/, /e/ and /æ/, are contrasted with three vowels while /ʌ/ is contrasted with four vowels, i.e. /ɜ/, /a/, /of and /æ/. The test consists of 19 items in all.

The second section of the test consists of the discrimination of English consonant sounds. The test contains 27 items in all. All voiceless consonants and their voiced counterparts are contrasted first. Three nasal sounds are also contrasted among themselves. Similarly, other confusing sound pairs are also included in the test. The sound /θ/ is contrasted with /t/ and /s/. Similarly, /ð/ is contrasted with /d/ and /z/. The sound /f/ and /v/ are contrasted with /θ/ and /b/, respectively. Sounds /z/ » /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ are also contrasted among themselves. The sound /h/ comes in contrast with vowels like /a/, /D/ and /ɪə/.

The test does not include stress and intonation, though they are taught in schools. The inclusion of all items is not possible in a single study of this nature and it is a limitation of the present study, two.

3.2.212. Listening Comprehension Test

This test is included to assess the students' ability to comprehend a passage by listening to it which is taken from Rye (1982). It is simplified to suit the level of the students. The choice of the passage is made on the basis of the topic, i.e. *Launching Your Kite* - a common theme throughout the world. The multiple choice questions given in the passage have also been revised since there were only three distractors in each question. Five multiple choice questions with four distractors each are finalized for the present study.

3.2.22. Grammar Test

Though it is not possible to test the total knowledge of English grammar of the students, an attempt has been made to cover the majority of the items given in the **Secondary School English Curriculum** - which the students have gone through in the recent past. Many of such grammatical items are repeated in the PCL first year English textbooks as well. Since the students are the beginners of the tertiary level education, their immediate past background must be kept in mind. This test is divided into three parts: multiple choice test, error identification test, and translation test.

3.2.221. Multiple Choice Test

This test includes **114** multiple choice items containing two to four choices each designed with an objective of testing 14 grammatical items. A description of the grammatical items tested and the number of test items they include are as follows:

Table Mo. 7
Grammatical items included in multiple choice test

Grammatical items	Number of items
1. Pronouns	7
2. Subject-verb agreement	9
3. Articles	4
4. Modals and auxiliaries	11
5. Conjunctions	12
6. Adjectives	12
7. Conditionals	5
8. Gerund/to-infinitive	7
9. Question tags	5
10. Tenses	15
11. Prepositions	16
12. Passive voice	4
13. Reported speech	4
14. Relative clauses	3

The differences in the number of items under each category show the attempt made to include as many items as possible in order to bring better results.

3.2.222. **Error Identification Test**

This test consists of 28 sentences of which 16 are erroneous which are classified into 11 grammatical categories. Nine of them are similar to the ones given in the multiple choice test and the rest of them are new. This test helps to check the regularity of the errors. It requires the students to locate the errors and correct them. The grammatical categories and the number of items included in this test are as follows:

Table No. 8

Grammatical items included in error identification test

Grammatical items	Number of items
1. Concord	3
2. Clauses	2
3. Gerund/to-infinitive	2
4. Adverbs	2
5. Articles	1
6. Nouns	1
7. Tenses	1
8. Pronouns	1
9. Modals	1
10. Indirect questions	1
11. Adjectives	1

3.2.223. **Translation Test**

Avoidance of certain structures is a regular feature in the writings of the learners. Schachter (1974) finds that Chinese and Japanese students avoid the use of relative clauses. It is true that some items are very frequent in speech and writing while others are not. It is therefore that the test items are specially designed to assess whether the testees avoid such items.

Several studies in EA have made use of translation work because it is considered an appropriate test for finding out the influence of the mother tongue in the learners' performance in the TL. The present test consists of 10 Nepali sentences to be translated into English. The grammatical items intended to test here are: reported speech 2, direct speech 6 and relative clauses 2.

3.2.23. Word-Formation and Word Meaning Tests

This test is divided into two parts. The first part deals with word-formation in which the learners are asked to match the given seven prefixes and six suffixes with the root or base forms. The second part of the test contains six multiple choice items with four distractors each set with an objective of testing meanings of the six words selected from the Secondary Level English textbooks. Here the students are required to infer their meaning from the given contexts.

3.2.24. Reading Comprehension (Cloze) Test

The cloze test created for the present purpose consists of 226 words divided into three paragraphs each with a different theme. The objective of the test is to check the learners' reading comprehension. The vocabulary items and sentence structures both are chosen in such a way that they suit to the **level** of the subjects under study. Every fifth word is deleted so that the students are required to fill in altogether 44 slots. The categories tested and the number of items each category includes are given below:

Table No- 9
Grammatical items Included In reading comprehension (cloze) test

S.No.	Structure Words	No. of Items	S.No.	Content words	No. of Items
1.	Auxiliary Verbs	2	1.	Verbs	10
2.	Articles	5	2.	Nouns	6
3.	Conjunctions	5	3.	Adjectives	2
4.	Pronouns	8	4.	Adverbs	2
5.	Prepositions	4			
Total		24	Total		20

3.2.25. Writing Test

The test is intended to analyse the errors obtained from the free compositions of the students so that several language items can be tested at a time. Keeping the linguistic proficiency of the students in view, they are asked to write an essay in about 150 words on any one of the following topics:

- a) An unforgettable event in your life
- b) Your village or town
- c) Your aim in life
- d) How did you spend your winter vacation?

3.3. Sampling Procedure

There are four Faculties and five Institutes under Tribhuvan University in Nepal. They are Faculties of Education, Humanities and Social Sciences, Law and Management, and the Institutes of Agriculture and Animal Sciences, Engineering, Forestry, Medicine and Science and Technology.

The population of the present study consists of all the first year students of the PCL studying in the above Faculties and Institutes. As it was not possible to incorporate the whole

population for a research of this kind, the stratified random sampling, i.e. "... a sample in which the population is grouped into different strata, and a selection drawn from each level" (Richards et al. 1985:249) technique was adopted in the selection of the population.

3.3.1. Selection of the Campuses

One campus under each of the Faculties/Institutes was selected in order to have a representative sample for the study. The Kathmandu Valley was supposed to be an appropriate place for the present study, as students from different parts of the country come to avail the opportunities of higher education in various disciplines provided here. But it was not possible to carry out the whole study in the Valley alone as some of the Institutes have their campuses outside it. Therefore, either Hetauda or the Pokhara Valley was given a second thought. Again to have an access to the agriculture campus, an option had to be made between Lamjung and Rupendehi which are the only places where the PCL courses in agriculture are conducted. These three combined possibilities gave a wide coverage of samples for the present study. What follows here is the report of the procedure applied to the selection of the campuses.

Since Nursing campus at Pokhara was the only campus found to be running the PCL classes in Medicine during the time of field study, it was selected without any question. However, a lottery procedure was used between Pokhara and Hetauda campuses of Forestry, and between Lamjung and Paklihawa campuses of Agriculture and Animal Sciences. Pokhara campus for Forestry and Paklihawa campus for Agriculture and Animal Sciences were selected.

The same procedure was applied for selecting an Engineering campus from among the three choices: two in the Kathmandu Valley and one in the Pokhara Valley. Pulchowk campus of Engineering located in the Kathmandu Valley was selected through a lottery technique.

Similarly, a list of campuses for each Faculty/Institute in the valley of Kathmandu and Pokhara was prepared to use the lottery technique again. As a result, Padma Kanya Campus for Humanities and Social Sciences, Shankerdev Campus for Management, Sanothini Campus for Education, Mahendra Ratna Campus for Science and Technology all in the Kathmandu Valley and Prithwi Narayan Multiple campus of Pokhara for the Faculty of Law were selected for the study.

3.3.2. Selection of the Students

The selection of the campuses was followed by the selection of the students. Thirty students from each Faculty/Institute were to be selected. However, a uniform procedure could not be adopted because of the varying student-strength in different campuses which required the researcher's visit to all of them personally to make a selection of the students. The campuses in the Kathmandu Valley were visited several times, as they were readily accessible. But the campuses outside this Valley were visited once only during the time the students were given tests.

As there were 30 students each in the Nursing Campus Pokhara (Medicine) and Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal (Science and Technology) and Prithwi Narayan Multiple Campus, Pokhara (Law), all of them were taken. In Paklihawa Campus of Agriculture and Animal Sciences, there were 60 students in all. Thus, every second student, according to the attendance register, was selected. There were 120 students in the Forestry campus at Pokhara 60 in each group. In order to take a sample from both the groups, every fourth student from the attendance register was taken. There was a large crowd of students at Shankerdev Campus in Kathmandu where the selection of the students from the Faculty of Management was to be done. There were four sections in the PCL First Year which housed 450 students. In order to maintain a representation from all the groups, every fifteenth student according to the attendance register was selected. The second big crowd of 302 students was encountered at Padma Kanya Campus in Kathmandu while selecting the students representing the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. According to the campus

attendance register every tenth student was selected. Of the 61 students studying in the PCL First Year in Education at Sanothimi campus, Bhaktapur, every second student, according to the attendance register was taken. In the Engineering Campus at Pulchowk, out of 120 students in the different engineering sections, every third student was selected for the study.

3.4. Administration of the Tests

This section deals with the planning and administration of the tests.

3.4.1. Plan of Administration

As the tests were based primarily on the Secondary School English Curriculum, a pilot study was not considered essential. The whole test-package was given to the research supervisors for their expert opinion. After some modifications they were finalized and given to a press in Kathmandu for final printing. The product came out in 18x22 cm sized booklets each containing 12 pages.

The recording of the listening tests was done at the Centre for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies, University of Hyderabad. Dr. Mohan G. Ramanan, Reader, in the Department of English, whose English was found near-native like, was requested to lend his voice for recording. When the recorded material was checked in Kathmandu, the acoustic quality of the recording was not found to be satisfactory. Therefore, a second recording was done at the British Council in Kathmandu. Ms. Sheilagh Neilson, a senior English Language teacher at the British Council, who had an experience of teaching English to the Nepali adults for about two years, did the recording in the Council's recording room. While re-recording the listening test, care was taken to provide adequate pause so that the students could mark the proper word or phrase. The passage was also read at a normal speed so that the students could comprehend it. The recorder and the researcher both checked the quality of recording before it was marked to the expected quality.

attendance register every tenth student was selected. Of the 61 students studying in the PCL First Year in Education at Sanothimi Campus, Bhaktapur, every second student, according to the attendance register was taken. In the Engineering Campus at Pulchowk, out of 120 students in the different engineering sections, every third student was selected for the study.

3.4. Administration of the Tests

This section deals with the planning and administration of the tests.

3.4.1. Plan of Administration

As the tests were based primarily on the Secondary School English Curriculum, a pilot study was not considered essential. The whole test-package was given to the research supervisors for their expert opinion. After some modifications they were finalized and given to a press in Kathmandu for final printing. The product came out in 18x22 cm sized booklets each containing 12 pages.

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For the calculation of time segments to be given to each test, the researcher gave the questionnaire and the tests to his own niece, an average PCL first year student who passed high school from a remote village of the Far Western Development Region in the second division. She completed the whole test package in four and a half hours. She took two and a half hours to finish the questionnaire, listening tests and the first part of the grammar test, i.e. multiple choice items. The rest of the tests took her two hours. On the basis of the time she took, all the students taking the tests were given the same period of time, which proved to be an ideal plan.

3.4.2. Conducting the Tests

The first phase of the field study was done in the campuses of Pokhara and Paklihawa. The researcher first visited Pokhara. As there were three campuses under study, he had to make a plan for the administration of the tests. Three days for each campus were required.

The first day, the researcher went to the Forestry Campus, and with the help of the campus administration and the concerned English language teachers, the selection of the students and the room to administer the tests was completed. The next day, without prior information, the students were called on into the room designated to administer the test. The researcher explained to them what they were supposed to do. They were allowed to ask any question they had. When everyone was sure of what he had to do, the test package was distributed. The students were asked to complete the general questionnaire first. Then they were asked to do the listening tests. The cassette for this purpose was played on a National Panasonic cassette player with four speakers. The voice of the recorder was introduced first. After making sure that everyone could clearly hear the voice, the real test was played. When the students completed the sound discrimination test, they were asked to move on to the next. The recorder was played again for the listening comprehension test and the students ticked the answers. Then the students were asked to move

on to the grammar test, i.e. multiple choice items. They finished the first part of the test in two and a half hours. The tests were collected, but the students were not informed of the second part to be completed the next day in order not to make them conscious of it.

The next day, the same group of the students was asked to come to the same hall and complete the rest of the tests. Two hours' time was specified for the remaining part of the test-package. When the tests were returned, the researcher thanked all the participants and promised them to give the feedback. Though it was not possible to tabulate and analyse the answers given by the participants in a day or two, the researcher marked the first part of the tests and gave his general comments to the concerned English teachers who promised to pass them on to them. Thus, both parts of the tests were administered without prior information to the testees in order to see their off-hand performance in the English language which was an essential mechanism to draw conclusions on their competence in English.

The same procedure was used while administering the tests in other campuses also.

3.5. Identification of Errors and Tabulation of Data

After the administration of the tests, the test packages were collected and corrected by the researcher himself. Answer keys were prepared for the multiple choice items and the tests requiring single answer and possible other answers. Test scripts were marked on the basis of these answer keys. However, written compositions were marked on the basis of the errors found in each script. Erroneous sentences were verified on the basis of Leech et al. (1979), Swan (1982), Celce-Murcia (1983), Wood (1984) Quirk et al. (1985), Thomson and Martinet (1986), and Sinclair (1987, 1991, 1992). While verifying the erroneous items, two features, namely grammaticality and current usages, were taken into consideration. Erroneous items were tabulated on the basis of their frequency counts. Separate tabulations for errors were

made for Nepali native speakers, non-native Nepali speakers, and Boarding school products. Simple statistical tool of percentage was used to quantify the data.

Classification of error categories was based on the teaching items of English as prescribed in the lower secondary, secondary and the PCL first year English Curriculums (see Appendix 5, A-E). Therefore, the items were spread widely. Such classification was done with an aim of helping the teachers and material designers to devise learning or remedial materials for pedagogical purposes accordingly.

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter presents a picture of the population of the study which covers wide geographical regions, a number of social domains, both sexes, different linguistic as well as educational backgrounds presenting an example of unity in diversity. The unity is shown by the textbooks the students have to master, the syllabuses they have to follow, and the examinations they have to get through. Similarly, a variety of test items included in the study tries to assess the proficiency of the students in different language skills. These are followed by discussions on the procedures adopted for the selection of the campuses and the subjects for the study followed by the administration of the test package and tabulation of the results.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data which includes tabulation, classification and explanation of errors as elicited from the tests administered. The tests given to the students were corrected and tabulated in terms of their frequency, and a statistical tool of percentage was used for interpretation.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the population of the study consists of 270 students from both rural areas (73.3%) and urban centers (26.7%) that represent altogether 58 out of 75 districts and all the five Development Regions of the kingdom. They come from private as well as public school background and belong to 13 different language families spoken as mother tongues (see Appendix 1, Table No.1).

As it has already been explained, different test items were used to elicit errors from the learners so that valuable information on the sources/causes of errors could be obtained in order to give their systematic description and explanation. However, there are some natural constraints in any such effort to present a systematic explanation. In many cases, the nature of the data obtained is responsible. For example, in multiple choice tests, the students cannot show their creativity. Conversely, in the free composition, errors are avoided in many cases. Thus, in the interest of including a wide range of language skills, different test items were constructed - both of error-avoiding and error-provoking types. As a result, the sources of errors are difficult to trace out in some cases. Two other limitations are worth noting here - first, regarding the students' schooling background and secondly, with respect to the natural division between the native Nepali speakers (hereforth, NSS) and the non-native Nepali speakers (hereforth, NNSs).

All the students have to follow the same syllabus, and pass the same nationwide examinations conducted by HMG, Ministry of Education, Culture and Social Welfare through the Controller of Examinations. The same system is applicable for the university students as well. However, their exposure to English in terms of years differs depending upon the type of school they were educated in. Those who come from private schools get ten years' exposure, as opposed to those who come from public schools with barely seven years' exposure to English. In the present study, 25.5% of the population comprises of the input from private schools where English is supposed to be the medium of instruction which really is not. It is a mixture of both English and Nepali, and in most cases the latter dominating the entire teaching. Since the curriculum and examination system for both these groups are the same, no segregation between them is desirable, nor is this the objective of the present study. Only in cases where the performance of these groups are remarkably contrasting, a reference is made. Otherwise, the researcher treats the population of the study as a single group.

Secondly, there is a controversy between the people who think that Nepali as a filter language may prove to be an advantage for the NSs to perform better in English since most of the teaching in schools is done through the Nepali medium and the people who think that there is no significant difference between NSs and NNSs since both the groups have English classes in the same environment. Shrestha (1980) shows no significant difference between NSs and NNSs (particularly, the Newari speakers) in their learning of English prepositions. Similarly, Sthapit (1978--4) also, regarding the NSs and NNSs of Newari notes the following: "More often than not the speakers of Nepali and Newari do face common problems while learning English. This, I believe, is mainly due to the fact that, Nepali, as a filter language, plays the same dominant role in the **two** cases... So it seems that the separate treatment to these **two** linguistic groups is unwarranted as far as English teaching is concerned." This may be

true in case of the speakers of other languages of Nepal as well". In the present study, some of the languages are represented by a single student or two or so. (see Appendix 1, Table I.) They are insignificant to prove or disprove such generalizations about other NNSs statistically also. Therefore, a reference to the whole group of the NNSs, if required, will be made to discuss any point of significance, but a separate treatment of the results obtained from each group of students representing a particular language family will not be made. The NNSs will then be taken as a single group in the present study.

In this chapter, description and analysis of errors is presented on the basis of the nature of the test itself. As mentioned in section 3.2.2, various test items were designed and administered to assess the learners' errors in different language items. These errors are analysed under specific headings, namely errors in listening, grammar, word-formation and word meaning, reading comprehension, and writing.

4.2. Errors in Listening

Ideally, speech has been incorporated into both school and campus level English curriculums in Nepal and the emphasis put on their teaching seems apparently adequate. The school level (grades VIII-X) curriculum allots 40% of the time for the teaching of listening and speaking skills whereas campus level evaluation scheme of English shows that 10% of weightage is allotted to speech for both the years of the PCL.

In practice, listening is the most neglected skill both in schools and on the campuses of Nepal, because its teaching is neither emphasized in the class nor tested properly in the examinations. In the final examination *speech* is tested with **the** usual Paper-pencil technique, i.e. in written medium which does never fulfil the objective of teaching listening (cf. Appendix 6).

Keeping the present scenario in view, this particular test was designed and administered, since students, by this time, had passed the SLC examination and were expected to be able to discriminate between one English sound from another and comprehend the English text after listening to it.

Errors in listening are analysed into three sub-sections, viz. vowels, consonants and comprehension. A brief comparison of English and Nepali vowels and consonants precedes the discussion and analysis of each.

4.2.1. Vowels

English has 12 monophthongs, e.g. /ɪ/, /i/, /e/, /æ/, /a/, /o/, /ɔ/, /ʊ/, /u/, /ɹ/, /ɜ/, /ɜ:/, and /ʌ/ and 8 diphthongs, e.g. /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, /aʊ/, and /ɔɪ/ compared to 6 Nepali vowels /ɪ/, /u/, /e/, /ɔ/, /o/ and /a/.

Sthapit (1978) argues that Nepali does not have diphthongs. Similarly, Adhikary (1993) also states that though /əɪ/ and /əʊ/ sound like diphthongs, they are found in the *tatsam* (nativized Sanskrit) word only and therefore, there is no basis to call them diphthongs. There are, however, several vowel sequences in Nepali. Vowel length is phonemic in English but it is not so in Nepali. Conversely, nasalization is phonemic in Nepali but not in English. A vowel chart of English and Nepali is given in the Appendix 7-A for a reference.

The following table presents the frequency and percentage of errors in English vowels committed by the students.

Table No. 10

Frequency and percentage of errors in the perception of English vowels

Item No.	Vowels	Frequency	Percentage	Item No.	Vowels	Frequency	Percentage
1.	/ɪ/	159	29.44	11.	/ɑ/	115	21.29
	/ɪ /	278	51.48		/ɜ /	88	16.29
2.	/e/	242	44.81	12.	/de/	32	5.92
	/æ/	76	14.07		/ə/	40	7.40
3.	/ɪ/	137	25.37	13.	/e/	316	51.51
	/e/	41	7.59		/ex/	85	15.74
4.	/o/	205	37.77	14.	/ɔ/	419	77.59
	/ɔ/	243	45.00		/əʊ/	209	38.70
5.	/A/	236	47.70	15.	/ɪə/	209	38.70
	/ɜ /	95	17.59		/ed/	169	31.29
6.	/ʌ/	214	39.62	16.	/ɔɪ/	13	2.40
	/ɑ/	200	37.03		/aɪ/	164	30.37
7.	/a/	110	20.37	17.	ft&	70	13.14
	/o/	53	9.81		/eə/	50	9.25
8.	/ʊ/	227	42.03	18.	frvf	44	8.14
	At/	259	47.96		/əʊ/	135	25.00
9.	/A/	121	22.40	19.	/ex/	42	7.77
	/æ/	17	3.14		/SO/	23	4.25
10.	/o/	103	19.07				
	/ʌ/	155	28.70				

4.2.11. Discussion and Explanation

The table above shows that the number of errors that the learners make in listening to an individual sound differs from one context to another. For example, the vowel / D / ranks the number one with a total of 77.59% errors when it comes in contrast with the diphthong /əʊ/. However, the same vowel, when contrasted with its short counterpart, i.e. / O /, yields only 45% errors. Similarly, the vowel sound / o / has three different error percentages as 37.77, 19.07, and 9.81 when it comes in contrast with /ɔ/, /ʌ/ and /ɑ/, respectively.

The second highest error per cent, i.e. 51.51%, is recorded for the vowel /e/, when it comes in contrast with /ex/, however, the same vowel proves to be the least problematic yielding 7.59%

high frequency bearer while contrasted with /æ/ whereas the latter seems to be perceived well when it is contrasted with /e/, /ə/ and /ʌ/. /x/ is less problematic while contrasted with its long counterpart /i/ which is the third highest in terms of the error frequency. Interestingly enough, the vowel /ʌ/ is more problematic with /ɜ/ and /a/ than with /o/ and /as/. The vowel /ɜ/ has 17.57% and 16.29% errors while contrasted with /ʌ/ and /a/, respectively. The long vowel /a/ has three different error percentages, such as 37.03, 21.29 and 20.37 when it is contrasted with /A/, /ɜ/ and /O/, respectively. The back vowels /u/ and /ʊ/ are found yielding errors above 40%. The former seems to be more problematic than the latter one.

As far as the perception of the diphthongs is concerned, /eə/, /eɪ/, and /əʊ/ (in one instance) exhibit the error percentages above 30 while /əʊ/ when contrasted with /iʊ/ yields 25% errors. /eə/ as compared with /ed/ is slightly more difficult, but /eɪ/ (in one instance) and /ɔɪ/ are found to be the easiest ones, because the errors in these diphthongs are negligible, i.e. below 5%.

Boarding school products (henceforth, BSPs) stand better in the perception of English vowels compared to their public school product (hereafter PSP) counterparts. The errors in the former's case are below 5% for the vowels like /æ/, /ə/ and /ox/. The vowel /ɔ/ is equally problematic for both the groups whether it comes in contrast with /O/ or /iʊ/. It bears the highest error frequency while contrasted with /əʊ/ but ranks sixth when it comes in contrast with /O/ (see Appendix 3, Table No. 1). Similarly, /e/, which has the second highest error percentage when it is contrasted with /eɪ/, does have 18.82% and 2.89% errors while contrasted with /se/ and /I/, respectively. The other two vowels that yield above 40% errors are /i/ and /ʊ/. The vowel /a/ is significantly more erroneous when contrasted with /A/ than with /o/ and /ɜ/. Similarly, the vowel /ʌ/ yields more errors while contrasted with /ɜ/ rather than with /a/, /o/, and /æ/. Another vowel that yields errors more than 30% is /u/. The diphthongs which seem comparatively difficult for this group of learners (BSPs) are, in descending order, /əʊ/, /eə/ and /eɪ/. The diphthong /aʊ/ seems to be less problematic when it comes in contrast with /əʊ/.

A brief comparison of sound discrimination errors between the NSs and the NNSs, in order to see the effect of the Nepali as a filter language on the learning of English by the NNSs, if any, is apropos at this juncture.. While doing so a \pm of 5% in errors is not considered that significant. Both these groups, like the BSPs, have the highest error percentages in the vowel /ɔ/ in contrast with /ʊ/, followed by /e/ with /eɪ/. However, the error percentage in the vowel /ɔ/ is proportionally more in the case of the NNSs unlike in the case of /e/. The vowel /ʌ/ in all four instances remains more erroneous for the NSs than for their NNS counterparts. The same is the case with /ɪ/, too. The vowels that proportionally yield less errors in the perception of the NNSs are /ɪ/, /æ/, /o/, /ʌ/, /ɑ/, /ʊ/, /ɜ/, and /e/ (in two instances) compared to their NS counterparts. Similarly, the vowels that bear comparatively more errors in the perception of the NNS, are /i/, /ɔ/, /u/ and /ə/ compared to the NS counterparts. The NNSs yield less errors in all the diphthongs, except /əʊ/ and /ɪə/ compared to their NS counterparts. Thus, it can be stated that Nepali has not been a barrier at all for the NNSs in discriminating English vowels.

Irrespective of the background, i.e. mother tongues and schooling of the students, there is a pattern in the percentage of errors applicable to all the groups, that is, the items that are difficult for a particular group are equally difficult for the other yet they yield varying error percentages. For example, the vowel /o/ yields the highest error percentages for all the four groups, i.e. BSPs, NSs, PSPs and NNSs yielding 73.91%, 74.32%, 78.85, and 84.70% errors, respectively.

The study of vowels above is carried out at the level of perception, not at the production level. Hence, the explanation of the sources of errors is limited to the perception level only. As discussed above, one obvious cause of errors in vowels is the context in which a particular vowel contrasts with another, e.g. the short front vowel /ɪ/ yields 25.37% errors when it comes in contrast with /e/ but 29.44% errors with its long counterpart /i/. Another cause of error is the short/long contrast in English vowels which is neutralized in Nepali. Sthapit (1978:549) observes that "It will not be an exaggeration to say

that there is hardly any vowel that is pronounced accurately by the speakers of Nepali and Newari learning English". He further observes that "In general short vowels tend to be pronounced slightly longer and long vowels slightly shorter so that the short/long contrast is neutralized in Nepali and Newari English" (ibid.). This observation is further supported by Awasthi (1987) while acoustically comparing English and Nepali vowels. The present study has also recorded that the short/long distinction between the vowel pairs like /i, I/, /o, ɔ/, /u, ʊ/, /ə, ɑ/, is neutralized. Therefore, the subjects might have opted one for another.

In the case of diphthongs, Sthapit (1978:551) states that all the English diphthongs "... are problematic to the Nepali and Newari learners in one way or the other". The diphthongs he finds particularly difficult are /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /eə/ and /ʊə/. The present study reveals that comparatively /əʊ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, and /aɪ/ (in one instance) bear more errors than the rest. As Sthapit says "/ex/ is pronounced as /e/ neutralizing the distinction between /e/ and /ex/" (ibid.), and as a result, more errors are noted in /e/. The same is true of /ɔ/ and /əʊ/ contrast because the former ranks the top position in the error frequency which is more than the yield of its contrast with the vowel /o/. Pure vowels are found to have more errors than diphthongs. In the case of diphthongs the learners may have used their intuitive knowledge of vowel sequence that exists in Nepali while for pure vowels, as Sthapit (1978) states, no one to one correlation between English and Nepali vowels exists. So error for them are increased. The lack of adequate exposure of the learners to the vowel sounds is another cause of errors which is seen in the BSPs' better performance (see Appendix 3, Table 1).

4.2.2. Consonants

English has 24 consonants viz. /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/, /v/, /dʒ/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /r/, /l/, /w/, and /j/ compared to 29 in Nepali, e.g. /p/, /ph/, /b/, /bh/, /s/, /t/, /th/, /d/, /dh/, /c/, /ch/, /j/, /jh/, /k/, /kh/, /g/, /gh/, /m/, /n/, /ñ/, /r/, /l/, /j/, /w/, and /h/. The consonants that exist in English but not

in Nepali are /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʃ/, and /ʒ/ and, conversely, the consonants that exist in Nepali but not in English are /t.d/ (dental) /ph/, /th/, /tʰ/, /ch/, /kh/, /bh/, /dh/, /dh/, /jʰ/, and /gh/. Nepali has both voiceless and voiced aspirated consonants which are phonemic unlike in English. English and Nepali consonant charts are given in the Appendix 7-B for a reference.

The following table shows the frequency and percentage of errors in the English consonant sounds.

Table No. 11

Frequency and percentage of errors in the perception of English consonants

Item No.	Conso-nants	Freq- uency	Percen- tage	Item No.	Conso- nants	Freq- uency	Percen- tage
1.	/t/	17	3.14	15.	/d/	85	15.75
	/d/	140	25.92		/ð/	178	32.96
2.	/p/	114	21.11	16.	/e/	188	34.81
	/b/	86	15.92		/ɛ/	105	19.44
3.	/k/	91	16.85	17.	/fa/	160	29.62
	/g/	153	28.33		/v/	257	47.59
4.	/f/	19	3.51	18.	/s/	233	43.14
	/v/	127	23.51		/ʃ/	174	32.22
5.	/θ/	122	22.59	19.	/if/	58	10.74
	/ð/	87	16.11		/ɝ/	36	6.66
6.	/s/	100	18.51	20.	/ɝ/	100	18.51
	/z/	33	6.11		/e/	204	37.77
7.	/ʃ/	101	18.70	21.	As/	140	25.92
	/ʒ/	28	5.18		/ɜ/	120	22.22
8.	/tʃ/	43	7.96	22.	/dʒ/	74	13.70
	/dʒ/	132	24.44		/z/	223	41.29
9.	/n/	81	15.00	23.	/ɜ/	29	5.37
	/n/	153	28.33		/z/	146	27.03
10.	/n/	175	32.40	24.	/ə/	37	6.85
	/ŋ/	160	29.62		/A/	23	4.25
11.	/T/	56	10.37		/ɔ/	39	7.22
	/l/	19	3.51		/æ/	10	3.70
12.	/v/	100	18.51	25.	/ɪə/	429	79.44
	/w/	16	2.96		/P/	53	9.81
13.	/w/	23	4.25	26.	/ɸ/	215	39.81
	/j/	38	7.03		/w/	153	28.33
14.	/j/	183	33.88	27.	/ɔ/	141	26.11
	let	55	10.18		/dʒ/	126	23.33
					/z/		

4.Z.21. Discussion and Explanation

It is worth mentioning that like the vowel sounds, some consonants such as /p/ in contrast with /f/; /v/ with /b/ and /s/ with /ʃ/ yield the first three highest error frequencies unlike their contrasts with other consonants. It can be inferred from these examples that contextual variation causes the differences in the frequency of errors for the same consonant sounds.

The sounds /j/ and /w/ bear 7.03% and below 5% errors, respectively. The same percentage is yielded by /t/ and /f/ while contrasted with /d/ and /v/, respectively.

The consonants which contain above 30% errors are /ʒ/, /m/, /ʌ/, /t/, /ð/, /n/ and /ʃ/. Similarly, the consonants that fall between 20% to 30% errors are /b/, /g/, /dʒ/, /d/, /ŋ/ and /z/. Consonants /f/, /k/, /tʃ/ and /r/ have between 10% to 20% errors while /j/ and /h/ have below 10%. However, the error percentages for them are found varying from one context to another except for /g/, /dʒ/, /ŋ/, /j/ and /h/.

While comparing NSs with NNSs in terms of error frequency in English consonants, it is quite obvious that the latter excel the former with reference to the sounds /p/ and /dʒ/ in all the situations given in the test. In some cases, depending upon the consonant in contrast, NNSs have higher error frequencies in the consonants like /b/, /m/, /n/, /r/, /t/, /d/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ð/, and /h/. The NNSs yield the highest error frequency, i.e. 79.41% is seen in the sound /p/ when it is contrasted with /f/ against 79.45% of the NSs. In other cases, the pattern is the same in both groups. It is quite obvious from the table that the NSs have proportionally higher error frequencies in most of the consonant sounds compared with their NNS counterparts (see Appendix 3, Table 2).

The BSPs exhibit better performance in consonant sound discrimination test. Comparing their error frequencies with that of the total (see Appendix 3, Table 2), it is found that they

yield more errors in the consonants like /m/, /n/, /w/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/, /z/ and /ʒ/ when they come in contrast with /n/, /m/, /v/, /G/, /ʃ/, /θ/, /ð/, and /z/. respectively. However, they are slightly bettered by the PSPs in /m/, /n/, /w/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, and /z/ when contrasted with /n/, A*?/, /v/, /θ/, /ʃ/, /θ/, /z/ and /ð/, respectively. In other cases, the error percentages of the BSPs, are less than those of their counterparts. However, they also maintain the pattern of errors similar to PSPs.

As discussed above, the fluctuation in error percentages is caused by the context in which a sound is put for contrast, e.g. the sound /t/ yields 3.14% errors when it is contrasted with its voiced counterpart but it yields 33.88% errors with /ð/. This shows that the difficulty is caused due to the inadequate practice in the English consonants.

Sthapit (1978:542) observes that "Nepali and Newari speakers should have little difficulty in learning English voiceless stops", but this study confirms it only for the sound /p/ not for the others when these are contrasted with their voiced counterparts. Similarly, he mentions that, "English /b g/ pose no problem worth mentioning (ibid. 545) ," but it is true in the case of /b/ when it is contrasted with /p/. However, it is unlikely in the case of other voiced stops.

The aspirated English [pʰ], which the learners took as Nepali aspirated bilabial stop /ph/, is perceived by the learners as English fricative /f/ resulting in the highest error percentage, i.e. 79.44 - an example of the Nepali language interference.

Sthapit (1978) finds English fricatives "the chief stumbling block" to Nepali and Newari students. In the present study, at the reception level, fricatives do not seem to present much difficulty when they are contrasted with homorganic pairs. But /s, ʃ/ contrast records high error percentages because these two sounds are neutralized - the latter towards the former - in Nepali.

Surprisingly enough, the nasal sound /n/ records more errors, that is, 32.40% and 28.33% contrasted with other nasal

counterparts, i.e. /ŋ/ and /m/, respectively, however, /m/ contrasted with /ŋ/ yields more errors, i.e. 39.8%. It may be due to the lack of adequate practice in listening.

To sum up, errors in English consonants are caused by both interlingual and intralingual interferences. Though these are not conclusive results, they are at least true in case of their perception. The results may be different at the production level. However, it is evident through the better performance of the BSPs that the learners lack sufficient practice in the type of the tests given to them. Therefore, inadequate exposure to the English sounds causes difficulty in their perception.

4.2.3. Listening Comprehension

In order to test the listening comprehension of the students in question, a passage with a common title *Launching Your Kite* containing five multiple choice questions was recorded on a tape. The passage contained 271 words in all (see Appendix 2). The five questions had the following information to be comprehended:

- i. location of flying a kite,
- ii. types of winds needed to fly a kite,
- iii. prohibited places for flying a kite,
- iv. materials needed for on the spot repairing of a kite, and
- v. process of flying a kite.

The following table gives a summary of the errors made by the learners in listening comprehension:

Table No. J2

Frequency and percentage of errors in listening comprehension

Item No.	Frequency	Percentage
1	28	10.37
2	127	47.03
3	84	31.11
4	135	50.00
5	215	79.62

4.2.31. Discussion and Explanation

As shown above, **item No.1** has the least number of errors, i.e. 10.37% in the case of the location for flying a **kite** whereas **No.5** which requires the answer of slightly an inference type, has the most, that is, 79.62%. Similarly, the error percentage is 31.11 for the **item No.3** regarding the places prohibited for flying a kite. The second highest error percentage is recorded for the materials required to repair the **kite** when damaged while flying it.

Although the **BSPs** exhibited a better performance in this test also compared to their counterparts, it is worth noting that their performance showed the same pattern of difficulty as seen in the performance of their counterparts. Precisely enough, the items that yield less or more errors were the same for both the groups (see Appendix 3, Table No, 3). Between the **NSs** and the **NNSs**, the latter group has shown proportionally better comprehension than the former except in the item **No.2** in which the latter group records a little over 10% errors than the former.

It is quite obvious that listening is the most neglected skill in the Nepalese schools and campuses. Despite being incorporated into the syllabuses, neither is it taught nor tested properly. Though the voice the students heard in the cassette player was that of a native speaker who had a thorough understanding of the level of the English language proficiency of the subjects, they could not exhibit a desirable performance in this test. This shows that they do not have enough exposure to listening of English. Those who had at least some exposure to listening, like the **BSPs**, naturally performed better than their counterparts.

4.3. Grammatical Errors

The present unit deals with the grammatical errors committed by the students under investigation. The study is divided into three parts based on the three types of test administered for the present purpose. Some of the cross-referenced grammatical items

are same in all the three tests. However, there are a few additions, too. The items included in the tests are based, primarily, on the secondary level English curriculum but, some of these items appear in lower secondary and Proficiency Certificate level English curriculums as well. The analysis and interpretation of the errors obtained from each of the tests is detailed separately. However, the relationship between them is maintained wherever necessary. The three tests in question are **multiple choice test**, **error Identification test**, and **translation test**. Before presenting the analysis of errors, a brief discussion of the grammatical items involved is given. This discussion is also further limited to the grammatical items prescribed in the syllabuses (see Appendix 5A-E).

4.3.1. Errors Obtained from Multiple Choice Test

The following table presents the frequency and percentage of errors in 14 grammatical items arranged in a hierarchical order from the highest to the lowest error percentages.

Table No. 13

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from multiple choice test

S.No.	Grammatical Items	No. of Items	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Modals and auxiliaries	11	1082	36.43
2.	Prepositions	16	1519	35.02
3.	Gerund/to-infinitive	7	653	34.55
4.	Conjunctions	12	1066	32.90
5.	Conditionals	5	432	32.00
6.	Pronouns	7	577	30.52
7.	Tenses	15	1215	30.00
8.	Subject-verb agreement	9	718	29.54
9.	Passive voice	4	317	29.35
10.	Adjectives	12	889	27.43
11.	Articles	4	286	26.48
12.	Reported speech	4	274	25.37
13.	Relative clauses	3	132	16.29
14.	Question tags	5	176	13.03

What follows is the discussion and explanation of errors in the grammatical items presented in the table given above.

4.3.11. Errors in Modals and Auxiliaries

In English a verb may be defined in the words of Richards et al. (1985:305) as a word which "... (a) occurs as part of the PREDICATE of a sentence (b) carries markers of grammatical categories such as TENSE, ASPECT, PERSON, NUMBER, and MOOD, and refers to an action or state."

Quirk et al. (1985:96) divide verbs into three major categories "according to their function within the verb phrase". They are: **full verbs**, **primary verbs**, and **modal auxiliary verbs**. Full verbs are further divided into *regular* and *irregular* types. They differ from each other either in the simple past inflection or the past participle inflection or in both.

The primary verbs have a dual function: as an auxiliary and as a main verb. Auxiliary verbs function as operators in negation and contraction with the word *not* and are also used for subject verb inversion in the **interrogative** sentences. They also share their association with the grammatical categories of tense, aspect, and voice.

Modal auxiliaries, unlike other primary verbs, are used to express modal meanings such as obligation, possibility, permission, ability, etc. Richards et al. (1985:179) define modal auxiliaries as "... any of the AUXILIARY VERBS which indicate **attitudes** of the speaker/writer towards the state or event expressed by another verb, ie which indicate different types of modality." Quirk et al. (1985:137) divide modal auxiliaries into two categories;

i. **Central modals:** *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will/'ll, would/'d, must.*

ii. **Marginal modals--** *dare, need, ought to, used to.*

The criteria set for the central auxiliaries **are** that they are **like** bare infinitives. In other words, **they** do not have **nonfinite** forms and **-5** forms, and they show abnormal **time** reference, e.g.

a. *you could done with us this **evening**.*

In this **sentence**, *could* is not used in the sense of past. But these criteria may not be fully applied to the marginal **modals**. *Need* and *dare* can be used as main verbs, with **to-infinitives** and 1n inflected forms of the verbs as well. *Used to* denotes past habit and is less like a modal auxiliary of tense and aspect. *Ought to* normally follows an infinitive and has contracted and uncontracted negative **forms**, too. In addition to the above central and marginal modal auxiliaries, Quirk et al. (1985:137) also discuss two other types of auxiliaries. They are:

/. **Modal idioms:** *had **better**, would rather/sooner*
BE to, HAVE GOT to, etc.

11. **Semi-auxiliaries:** *HAVE to, BE about to, BE able to,*
*BE bound to, BE **going** to, BE **obliged** to,*
*BE supposed to, BE **willing** to, etc.*

Modals **are** used to express the attitude of the speaker and the effect of such an expression on the person addressed to. The following is the list of the functions of the modal verbs which are included in the school (lower secondary/secondary) and the university (Proficiency Certificate) levels of Nepal.

Indicating obligation	<i>must, have to, ought to,</i> <i>need/need to</i>
Indicating possibility	<i>may, might</i>
Indicating request	<i>may, can, will, would, could</i>
Indicating ability	<i>can, could</i>
Indicating likelihood	<i>will, would</i>
Indicating permission	<i>can, may</i>
Indicating unacceptability	<i>can't, may not, will not,</i> <i>shall not, should not, must</i> <i>not, might not, ought not</i>
Indicating past habit	<i>used to</i>

4.3.111. Discussion and Explanation

The present study includes the modals like *must*, *should*, *can*, *could*, *may*, *needn't*, *must have*, *ought to*, *mustn't*, and the semi-auxiliary *be able to*. The errors obtained in the modals are discussed and explained here.

Errors in modal auxiliaries rank the highest, i.e. 36.43% compared with other grammatical items tested. The sentences showing comparatively higher error frequencies are listed below. (*Correct answers are given in brackets at the end of each sentence.*)

1. *We can eat food to stay alive. Without food we would die. (must)
2. *If you want to catch the bus, you may run fast. (should)
3. *You needn't drive fast because there is a speed limit here. (mustn't)
4. *You must do your homework tonight. You can leave it till tomorrow. (needn't)
5. *He can speak English very well; he can do so even when he was at school. (could)
6. Take some money. You can need it at any time. (may)
7. *I would see no light in the room. Sita may be out. (can)
8. *He can swim halfway before he collapsed. (was able to)
9. *You would ha ye finish your homework before going out. (ought to)
10. *He can passed the MA. He is teaching at a campus. (must have)

All these examples show that the students have not mastered the auxiliary verb system in general and modal auxiliaries in particular. The use of *can* in sentences 1, 5 and 8 is contradictory in itself. The students are found unable to distinguish between the various functions expressed by *can* (e.g. **possibility**, **permission** and **ability** and as a result, they opted for *can* in sentence 1 where an obligation expressed with *must* is sought for. Sentences 5 and 8 are correct to show the ability of a person, if the content and the tense of the second part of the sentences are not considered. Even these two sentences exhibit the students' limited competence in the English tense system as **well**.

Sentence 6, where **possibility** is clearly shown, is erroneous because of the use of the modal verb *can*. Similarly, sentence 2 requires the students to opt for *should* in order to be able to catch the bus. *May* is used to denote *permission* and **possibility** while *should* is used for **obligation**.

The use of *needn't* in sentence 3 contradicts the second part of the sentence. The modal *needn't* should have been chosen for sentence 4 where the person has the option to carry out his assignment the next day. The choice of *would* for *can* in 7 exhibits the learners' incompetence in the use of modal verbs. Sentence 10 follows a past participle verb unlike in sentence 9 where it is required. The BSPs who yield 22.26% in modals and auxiliaries bettered their counterparts whereas the NSs and NNSs do not exhibit any significant difference.

Since the distinction between *can* and *may* is neutralized in Nepali, the use of one for another in 7 is an instance of language transfer. All the remaining errors are caused due to intra-lingual interference in general and incomplete application of rules resulting from an inadequate exposure to the TL rules in particular.

4.3.12. Errors in Prepositions

Quirk et al. (1985:657) define a preposition as a word that "... expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by another part of the sentence". They further clarify it by proposing three negative criteria to define a preposition. "They cannot have as a complement:

- i. a *that*-clause,
- ii. an infinitive clause,
- iii. a subjective case form of a personal pronoun;

For example,

- (a) He was surprised **at (that) she noticed him.*
 **at to see her.*

**at she. " (op. cit. 658-59).*

They also discuss three syntactic functions of **prepositional** phrases. They can work as **post-modifiers** in a noun phrase, an adverbial and a complement of a verb or an adjective.

Regarding the **prepositional** meanings, they further **observe**: "Of the various types of relational meanings, those of SPACE and TIME are easiest to describe systematically" (Quirk et al. 1985:673). However, they do not deny the existence of other relationships such as **cause**, **goal** and **origin**.

Prepositions are classified into two categories, namely **simple** and **complex**. One-word prepositions such as *at*, *in*, *on*, *from*, etc. are simple prepositions which are most common in English. Prepositions composed of more than one word, such as *out of*, *in case of*, *in place of*, etc. are complex **prepositions**.

The above **classification** of prepositions as **one-word** and **complex** on the basis of orthographic separation is arbitrary in nature and creates a confusion because *into* is considered as a single word; *out of* as two words and *in place of* as three words.

A test to this effect is applied whether a preposition is simple or not by seeing it "... identical in form to its corresponding **prepositional** adverb, e.g. *by* as *in*

- (b) She stood *by the* door.
(c) She walked *by* " (Quirk et al. 1985:672).

4.3.121. Discussion and Explanation

The present test consists of simple or one-word prepositions without any controversy discussed above. They fall into the following two categories as proposed by Quirk et al. (1985).

i. *Prepositions denoting time.*

Time position	:	at, on, in, by
Time duration	:	for, since, until

11. *Prepositions denoting spatial relations:*

Positive position and destination	:	at, between, to
Negative position	:	off
Relative position	:	over, under
Relative destination	:	underneath
Passage	:	through, across

What follows here is a categorization of the errors according to the division above and their description in brief.

/. *Prepositions denoting time*

Here are some of the sentences obtained from the test that bear comparatively higher frequency of errors in prepositions denoting time.

11. *My school starts from 10 o'clock. (at)
12. *I came to Kathmandu on 1969. (in)
13. *We have a half holiday from Friday. (on)
14. *He has been working here in 1970. (since)
15. *They have been studying in this campus since four years. (for)
16. *Please wait for me. I'll be back on five o'clock. (by)
17. *You will have to wait in Thursday. (until)

ii. *Prepositions denoting spatial relations*

Examples of errors in prepositions denoting spatial relations include the following--

18. *Meet me on the bus stop. (at)
19. *It is difficult to keep the dogs over the flower beds. (off)
20. *You and Ram must settle the matter by yourselves. (between)
21. *Blratnagar is in the east of Kathmandu. (to)
22. *The thief came in throughout the window. (through)

23. *Many planes fly *from the* Atlantic now-a-days. (across)
24. *We hung your calendar *besides* the fire place. (over)
25. *My hat fell over the chair as I was leaving (under)
the room.
26. *When it rained, we all went *into* the tree. (underneath)

Prepositions, thus, stand as the second most plentifully erroneous elements among the grammatical items tested in this section. This applies in the case of the NSs, NNSs and BSPs alike. The error percentages of these groups are 34.49, 36.17 and 32.60, **respectively**. The errors of the BSPs are less than those of the PSPs. The difference, however, does not seem very significant. Therefore, if errors are equated with **difficulties**, **prepositions** seem to constitute the most difficult area to be mastered by the learners of English.

The percentage of errors committed by the **Nepal** learners, that is **35.02%** compares very well with those of other speakers across languages. For example, **Dušková** (1969), Bhatia (1.74) and Rogers (1984) find that the percentages of errors in prepositions committed by the Czech, Hindi and German learners of English are 33.4, 17.00 and 6.3., **respectively**. Also the studies carried out by Richards (1974) on the errors produced by Japanese, Chinese, Burmese, French, Czech, Polish, Tagalog, Maori, Maltese and the major Indian and West African language; the study done by **Chau** (1975) on the Spanish learners of English; and Ngara (1983) on African English reveal that English prepositions pose difficulty in mastering them. Thus, difficulty in prepositions seems to be a universal phenomenon for all foreign language learners of English.

One has to think of the role of the filter language Nepali while analysing the possible causes of errors in prepositions committed by the learners of English. Instead of prepositions, Nepali has postpositions which as Acharya (1991:85) states are "... comparable to prepositions in English." He further says that these postpositions "... occur after the nouns or noun phrases with which they stand in construction." Similar to English prepositions, Nepali postpositions **are** also simple, complex and

uninflected. It has been, thus, seen that the Nepali learners of English sometimes try to make use of these postpositions analogously with the English prepositions.

This claim becomes obvious while the erroneous sentences are examined. Sentences 12, 18, and 21 seem to be influenced by the Nepali language habits. English prepositions like *in*, *on*, and *at* have a Nepali equivalent *ma*. It may be the reason for which the learners make use of these prepositions interchangeably. Gautam (1990) lends support to this hypothesis. In the same way, the Nepali equivalent for the English word *from* is *bata*. Sentence 11, 13, 15, and 23 are clear instances of the learners' transfer of Nepali habit into English. The rest of the erroneous sentences show that the learners are still not mature in making appropriate use of English prepositions. These errors fall, therefore, in Richards (1974) category of intralingual errors caused by the ignorance of the TL rules as well as the learners' incomplete exposure to them.

4.3.13. Errors in Gerund and To-Infinitive

Gerunds are the verb forms ending in *-ing*, but which are used in sentences as nouns: e.g. *crying*, *working*, etc. They are also called the verbal nouns or the *-ing* forms. They can function in a sentence in many ways like the following:

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|--|
| i. as a subject of a sentence | : | <i>Crying</i> in the street is not good. |
| ii. as a direct object | : | Ram enjoys <i>playing</i> football. |
| iii. as a subject complement | : | My first assignment had been <i>training</i> teachers. |
| iv. as an adjectival complementation | : | I am busy <i>writing</i> my term paper. |
| v. as a prepositional complement | : | I am tired of <i>teaching</i> . |

- vi. as an appositive : My present job, *training* the English teachers, is very challenging.

Some verbs in English follow a gerund only. The following list from Thomson and Martinet (1986:230) typifies such verbs:

<i>admit</i>	<i>escape</i>	<i>postpone</i>
<i>anticipate</i>	<i>fancy (=imagine)</i>	<i>practice</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>finish</i>	<i>prevent</i>
<i>avoid</i>	<i>forgive</i>	<i>propose (-suggest)</i>
<i>consider</i>	<i>imagine</i>	<i>recollect</i>
<i>defer</i>	<i>involve</i>	<i>remember(=recollect)</i>
<i>delay</i>	<i>keep (=continue)</i>	<i>resent</i>
<i>deny</i>	<i>loathe</i>	<i>resist</i>
<i>detest</i>	<i>mean (=involve)</i>	<i>risk</i>
<i>dislike</i>	<i>mind (=object)</i>	<i>save (=sb the trouble of)</i>
<i>dread</i>	<i>miss</i>	<i>stop ('-cease)</i>
<i>enjoy</i>	<i>pardon</i>	<i>suggest</i>
		<i>understand</i>

Similarly, nominal *to*-infinitive clauses may function, according to Quirk et al. (1985: 1061), in the following ways:

- i. **as a subject** - *To be neutral in this conflict is out of question.*
- ii. **as a direct object** : *He likes to relax.*
- iii. **as a subject complement** : *The best excuse is to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning.*
- iv. **as an appositive** . *Your ambition, to become a farmer, requires the energy and perseverance that you so obviously have.*
- v. **as an adjectival complementation** : *I'm very eager to meet her.*

To-infinitive has, in addition to its present form, present continuous, perfect, perfect continuous and passive forms as well. For example,

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (a) He wants to do his homework. | (Present infinitive) |
| (b) He seems to be working hard. | (Present continuous Infinitive) |
| (c) He would have liked to see it. | (Present perfect infinitive) |

- (d) He pretends to have been crying. (Present perfect continuous infinitive)
- (e) He is understood to have killed his own brother. (Perfect passive infinitive)

The following is the list of the most useful verbs as given in Thomson and Martinet (1986: 214) which can be followed by a to-infinitive:

agree	be <i>determined</i>	pretend
aim	endeavour	proceed
appear	fail	<i>promise</i>
arrange	<i>forget</i>	prove
ask	guarantee	refuse
<i>attempt</i>	happen	remember
<i>bother</i>	<i>hesitate</i>	<i>resolve</i>
care (negative)	<i>hope</i>	seem
choose	learn	swear
<i>claim</i>	long	tend
condescend	manage	threaten
consent	neglect	trouble (-negative)
<i>decide</i>	offer	try (=attempt)
<i>decline</i>	plan	undertake
demand	prepare	volunteer
<i>determine</i>	be prepared	vow

Both the Secondary and Proficiency Certificate level curriculums have prescribed mainly the two functions of the to-infinitives, i.e. as a subject and as a direct object. Other complicated forms are not introduced there.

4.3.131. Discussion and Explanation

In what follows is an attempt made to discuss the errors committed by the students in both gerunds and to-infinitives. Of the seven items included in the test, the sentences that yielded comparatively higher error frequency are:

27. *She is old enough travelling by herself. (to travel)
28. *Do you enjoy to teach? (teaching)
29. *Would you mind to open the window? (opening)
30. *Did you remember posting that letter I gave you? (to post)

In the case of sentence 27 above, the rule Adjective + enough + **to-infinitive** applies. Therefore, the replacement of the gerund **with to-infinitive** makes the sentence erroneous. The verbs *enjoy* and *mind* follow a gerund in sentences 28 and 29. The verb *remember* can either follow a **to-infinitive** or a gerund but **with** a different meaning in each case. If something that happened in the past is recollected, the verb is put in its **gerundial** form.

The BSPs seem to have got more exposure in the gerund and **to-infinitive** constructions because they yield **22.98%** errors compared with those of the PSPs i.e. 38.52%.

It seems that the learners **commit** errors in the gerund and **to-infinitive** constructions due to the lack of adequate exposure to these items. The confusion as to which form follows - the gerund or **to-infinitive** - a particular verb has led the learners to commit errors in these items. The instances of language transfer are not recorded here, though the gerund and **to-infinitive** are also used in Nepali.

- (a) padhai **ramo** cha
teaching good is
`Teaching is good.'
- (b) **iskulma** padhai ramro cha
school-at teaching good is
`Teaching is good at school.'
- (c) **otama** basnu **ramro** huncha
shade-in sit-to good is
`To sit under the shade is good.'

However, unlike in English, there **are** no specific verbs in Nepali that are particularly followed by the gerund or **to-infinitive**. It is unlikely that the learners in the present study might have used this inference while completing the tests.

4.3.14. Errors in Conjunctions

Conjunctions are also called connectives or conjunctives. They join two clauses (or units longer than single words) together and put them into one sentence. They also indicate a relationship between the two clauses.

There are two types of conjunctions, i.e. **coordinating** and **subordinating**. Each exhibits a different kind of relationship between the clauses in a sentence. The coordinating conjunctions, such as *and*, *but*, and *or* join two equivalent or coordinate clauses into a compound sentence. For example:

(a) He worked hard, but his brother didn't like to work.

On the other hand, subordinating conjunctions such as *because*, *when*, *unless*, *so that*, *although*, etc. join an independent clause and a dependent clause together resulting in a complex sentence. For example--

(b) Although books are expensive, students buy them.

Thus, **compound sentences** contain coordinate clauses (joined by coordinating conjunctions) as in (a) and **complex sentences** contain a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses as in (b) above.

4.3.141. Discussion and Explanation

This section deals with the **adverbial clauses of reason, concession, result and purpose** introduced by *however*, *although*, *in order to*, *in spite of*, *so that*, *even though*, and *since* which are prescribed in the curriculums (see Appendix 5A-E).

Clauses of reason introduced by *because*, *since*, or *so* explain why something happens or is done; **clauses of concession** introduced by *although*, *even though* contain a fact that contrasts with the main clauses; **clauses of result** introduced by *so that* or *so* indicate the result of an event or situation, and the **clauses**

of purpose introduced by *in order to*, *so that* indicate the purpose of an action. The following are the examples of errors made in the use of conjunctions:

31. *He had no formal **qualifications**, *because* he got a job. (however)
32. **In spite of* the books are expensive, students do buy them. (although)
33. **Because of his* illness, he went to school to hand in his homework. (**inspite of**)
34. *We got completely wet, *because* we took an umbrella. (even though)
35. *It will be done, *however* you desire it. (**since**)
36. **As soon as it* is getting late, I suggest we break off now. (as)
37. *Take an umbrella *because* you don't get wet. (so that)

Sentences 31, 32, 33 and 34 are related to the clauses of concession. However, the students opted for the conjunction *because* in 31 which is erroneous because the second clause is not the result of the first. Similarly, it is clearly seen in sentence 32 that *inspite of* follows a whole sentence instead of a noun phrase. Though the conjunction *in spite of* **fits** in sentence 33, it cannot be accepted while taking its semantic aspect into **consideration**. Sentence 34 is also semantically awkward. In the same way, 35 and 36 require conjunctions of reason not of concession and time.

The BSPs exhibit better performance in conjunctions because they yield only **18.35%** errors as compared to 37.89% of their **counterparts**.

The students have made a random choice of the conjunctions from the alternatives given without paying any attention to their semantic aspect. None of the choices the learners have made tallies with their Nepali counterparts **to** infer the mother tongue influence to make them erroneous. Therefore, the sources of errors may be the inadequate exposure to the TL, which in the Present context, is English.

4.3.15. Errors in Conditionals

Conditionals refer to the subordinate clauses starting with *if* or *unless* "... **where** a state or situation in one clause is **dependent** on something that may or will happen, and which is described in another clause" (Richards et al. 1985:57).

Sinclair's (1991:350) classification of conditional clauses meant for the foreign learners matches the three types of such clauses prescribed in the Secondary and Proficiency level curriculum of English in Nepal. They are as follows:

- i. The **first conditional** : the verb of the main clause is either *will* or *shall* and the verb of the conditional clause is in the **simple present tense**.
- ii. The **second conditional**: the verb of the main clause is *would* or *should* and the verb of the conditional clause is in the **simple past tense**.
- iii. The **third conditional** - the verb of the main clause is *would have* or *should have* and the verb of the conditional clause is in the **past perfect tense**.

Though these are the correct patterns taught in schools and campuses, there are several other tense patterns common in normal speech. Of several variations, the *if*-clause can follow a main clause with other modal verbs like *may*, *might* (possibility), *may* (permission), *can* (permission or ability), *must* and *should* (command, request, advice), etc.

4.3.15.1. Discussion and Explanation

In the light of the above framework, an attempt is made below to discuss and explain the possible causes of errors in the conditionals. Consider the following sentences:

38. *I will stay here tomorrow, if it will rain. (rains)

39. *If I *have* a typewriter, I would type my letter myself. (had)
40. *If I *knew* that you are coming today, I would have met you at the airport. (had known)

In all these sentences, the students do not seem to have made a right selection of the verbs whether it is in the matrix clause or the conditional clause as is described above.

It is interesting to note that all the three groups, i.e. NSs, NNSs and BSPs have more or less similar degrees of difficulties in conditional clauses because they yield **31.89%**, **32.23%** and **32.17%**, errors **respectively**.

While discussing the possible causes of the errors in conditional clauses, it **is** worth noting that the students do not even exhibit the required knowledge of verb forms needed for the formation of these clauses. It is unlikely to say that they have done so due to the influence of Nepali in which *if-clause structures* are generally used in a very formal writing and do not correspond to English conditionals but have all the tense forms. The usual conditional expression in Nepali *khaye motaincha* is equivalent to *If you eat, you will get fat* but one's attempt to translate it into English literally, seems impossible. Therefore, transfer of such Nepali intuition into English is unlikely. It is, thus obvious that the learners do not possess adequate knowledge of the rules of forming clauses in English.

4.3.16. **Errors in Pronouns**

A word which is used to replace a noun or noun phrase is called a pronoun, e.g. *he, she, it, they*, etc. Traditionally, Pronouns are categorized into personal, possessive, reflexive, reciprocal, Interrogative, indefinite, and relative types. However, the present discussion centres around the first four only.

Personal pronouns refer to the grammatical category of person used to replace something or someone that has already been mentioned. They are of **two** types: *subject pronouns* such as *I, we*,

you, he, she, it, they: and *object pronouns* like *me, us, you, him her, it* and *them*.

A *reflexive pronoun* as Richards et al. (1985:242) define is "... a form of PRONOUN which is used when the direct or indirect OBJECT in a sentence refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the sentence. In English these are formed in the same way as EMPHATIC PRONOUNS, ie by adding *-self, -selves* to the pronoun, as in: *I hurt myself*." The suffix *-self* is attached to the singular pronouns and *-selves* to the plural. For example:

myself	ourselves
yourself	yourselves
himself	
herself	themselves
itself	

Possessive pronouns refer to the pronouns which are used to show the possession or ownership, e.g. *mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs*, etc.

A *reciprocal pronoun* is defined as "... a PRONOUN which refers to an exchange or mutual interaction between people or groups" (Richards et al. 1985:240), e.g. *each other* and *one another*. These are generally used as the direct or indirect objects of a verb.

4.3.161. Discussion and Explanation

Some of the erroneous sentences elicited from the students resulted due to the incorrect selection of pronouns in the test are:

41. *Come and sit beside *mine*. (me)
42. They are fond of *theirselves*. (themselves)
43. *Everyone should ask *oneself*, if they
are properly guided by their parents, (themselves)
44. *I thought it was *your's*. (yours)

In sentence 41 instead of choosing the object pronoun, the students chose a possessive one while in 42 in analogy with

their, they chose *thei rselves*. This makes it clear that they know that a reflexive pronoun is formed by adding *-self/selves* to a pronoun. However, they missed out the reciprocal pronoun like *each other* given as an alternative in the sentence itself. It seems now that the students are not aware of this pronoun.

Similarly, when the subject of the sentence is *everyone*, the pronouns like *they*, *them* or *their* are used to refer to it back. It seems that the students took the *one of every* as a subject in 43 and chose *oneself* instead of *themselves*. In 44 the incorrect use of possessive pronoun *your's* is chosen. It may be in analogy with the possessive case of nouns, like *Ram's*, *a man's job*, etc.

Pronouns yield 30.52% errors. The BSPs excel the PSPs in the use of pronouns, because they yield 23.18% errors in this category which is less than that of their counterparts by 11%. It can be inferred from this explanation that students are aware of the existence of these pronouns, but they have **overgeneralized** them in most cases. This reveals the fact that they do not still have the adequate exposure to the English pronouns. However, these erroneous sentences do not exhibit the instances of the Nepali language transfer.

4.3.17. Errors in Tenses

Traditionally English tenses are divided into **the past**, *t/re present* and **the future**. But linguistically speaking, **the future tense** is a *misnomer* because Robins (1989) states that, English has only two one-word tense **forms**, that is, present and past. The verbal paradigms show that only *come-came; do -did; write -wrote*, etc. is possible. The so-called future tense is a set of compound verbal expressions such as *will be going, shall finish*, etc. A single verbal paradigm is lacking to express the sense of futurity. Different auxiliaries are used to express the sense of future "... but it is a mistake to identify the auxiliaries **with** these independent verbs **descriptively**, as their syntax is quite different" (Robins 1989:260).

The sense of futurity is expressed by employing **compound verbal expressions** as in (a), or by using other means, that is, by using an adverbial as in (b) below:

- (a) You *will come* across many problems.
- (b) I leave/am leaving for **Biratnagar tomorrow**.

Therefore, the **modals** like *will* and *shall* traditionally thought to be signifying futurity do not necessarily do so. In the following sentence the future expressing modal *will* is used to show polite request, not futurity. For **example**:

- (c) *Will* you open the door please?

Another similar **misconception** related to tense is that tense and time establish identical **relationship**, which, in fact, is not. This argument is refuted by timeless expressions as in (d) and (e) below:

- (d) The sun *rises* in the East.
- (e) The earth *moves* round the sun.

However, for the present purpose, the traditional notion of three tense system generally included in the pedagogical grammar is retained. It is done at the interest of making the present study useful for pedagogical purposes. **Celce-Murcia et al. (1983:61)** emphasise on the value of introducing all twelve tenses mainly for devising **ESL/EFL** teaching materials. In their words, "If you are working with beginning or **low-intermediate-level** students, you may choose to introduce your students to the sentence-level uses of these twelve tenses". With this in mind, all twelve tense forms are presented below after Sinclair (**1992:699-70**). The table demonstrates both active and passive sentences in the present, the past, and the future. The subsequent discussion and explanation of errors is made on the basis of the table given below.

Table No. 14

English tense formation.

"The following table shows how to form present and past tenses.

present and
past tenses

Active

Passive

simple present

base form

I want a breath of air.

(3rd person singular)

'-s' form

Flora laughs again.

simple present of 'be'
+ past participle

It is boiled before use.

present continuous

simple present of 'be'
+ '-ing' form

Things are changing.

present continuous of 'be'
+ past participle

My advice is being ignored.

present perfect

simple present of 'have'
+ past participle

I have seen this before.

present perfect of 'be'
+ past participle

You have been warned.

present perfect continuous

present perfect of 'be'
+ '-ing' form

Howard has been working hard.

present perfect continuous of 'be' + past
participle

(Not common)

simple past

past form

I resented his attitude.

simple past of 'be'
+ past participle

He was murdered.

past continuous

simple past of 'be'

+ '-ing' form

I was sitting on the rug.

past continuous of 'be'

+ past participle

We were being watched.

past perfect

'had' + past participle

Everyone **had** liked her.

past perfect of 'be'

+ **past** participle

Raymond had been rejected.

past perfect continuous

"had **been**" + '-ing' form

Miss Gulliver had been lying.

past perfect continuous

of **be** + past participle

(Not common)

future tenses

There are several ways of referring to the future in English. The commonest way is to use the modal "will"¹ or 'shall'.

The following table shows future tenses.

Active

future

Passive

"will"¹ or "shall"

+ base form

They will arrive tomorrow.

"will be" or "shall be"¹

+ past participle

More land will be destroyed.

future continuous

"will be" or 'shall be'

+ '-ing' form

I shall be leaving soon.

"will be **being**" or

"shall be **being**"

+ past participle

(Not common)

future perfect

"will **have**" or "shall **have**"

+ past participle

They will have forgotten you.

"will have **been**" or

"shall have **been**"

+ past participle

By the end of the year,
ten projects will have been approved.

"will have been" or	'will	have been being' or
'shall have been'	'shall	have been being'
+ '-ing' form		+ past participle
By March, I <u>will have been doing</u> (Very rare)		
this job for six years."		

4.3.171. Discussion and Explanation

For the analysis of the errors in this section, the description of the English tenses given above is adequate. Here are the examples of some erroneous sentences in the present tense obtained from the test.

- 45. *The sun is *rising* in the east every morning. (rises)
- 46. *Mr. Sharma *writes* a letter now. (is writing)
- 47. *You have missed the plane. It *had* just left. (has)
- 48. *Hari *is* writing since early morning. He is still writing. (has been)

It seems that the students are not clear with the habitual tense at all. It is evident from the sentence 45 above. The adverbial *now* denotes the work in progress, but in 46 it comes with the **simple** present tense. The word *just* is used with the present perfect tense to say about something that occurred a while ago, but it comes with the past perfect tense in 47.

Similarly, we "... use *since* to say that something has been the case from a particular time in the past until now" (Sinclair 1992:629). But in 48, it is chosen to show a point of time in the perfect tense or the perfect continuous tense. Some examples of erroneous sentences in forming the past tense are given below:

- . *The winter *had been* cold last year. (was)
- 50. ***She** *is* writing a letter when we reached his home. (was)
- 51. *He *was died* before the doctor arrived. (had died)
- 52. ***Ram** *was* working in this factory for five years before he got his first promotion. (had been)

The auxiliary verb of the independent clause in **sentence 50** should be in the simple past because the clause it follows here, i.e. dependent, is in the **past** tense itself. The **verb died** in 51 is in the past **form of die** which is used as an adjective. that is, **dead**. Besides, in a sentence **containing two past events**, the first event takes the past perfect tense **followed by the simple past**. Therefore, sentence 51 **becomes** erroneous. As explained above. the duration of time in 48 is shown by the perfect tense with the preposition *for*. Therefore, **was working** should be replaced with *had been working*. Some examples of the erroneous sentences in the future tense are as follows:

- 53. *I **am** sure it rain tomorrow. (will rain)
- 54. *Hari *is going to* completing his studies next year. (will be)
- 55. ***Before** the end of this year, they *will be passing* B.Sc. (will have passed)
- 56. *She *has been* a doctor, when she completes her studies. (is going to be)
- 57. *It is 8.30 a.m. now and he **is still** reading.
By 10.30 a.m. he *is reading* for over two hours. (will have **been** reading)

In sentence 53 the students make a selection of the verb *rain* which does not agree with its subject *it*. In 54 they **seem** to be unaware of the rule that the *going to* verb must follow an infinitive. Sentences 56, through 58 are erroneous because of the wrong selection of the verb phrases in the given contexts.

error percentages for both the groups, i.e. PSPs, and BSPs are 30.24, and 29.27, respectively. There is no significant difference in the performance of these groups in English tenses. A similar picture is seen between the performance of the NSs and the NNSs because they yield 29.72% and 30.58% errors in tenses. However, their performance in the use of tenses does not **seem satisfactory**. In English point, period and duration of time are denoted by three prepositions, i.e. *since, for and from*, respectively, but in Nepali the postposition *dekhi* serves the purpose in **all** three cases. Therefore, errors in perfective aspects as in 48 are caused by the transfer of the Nepali language rules, but in other **cases**, by inadequate exposure to the English tenses.

4.3.18. Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement

A subject may be defined in the words of Richards et al. (1985:278) as "... the noun, pronoun, or NOUN PHRASE which:

- (a) typically precedes the main verb in a sentence and is most closely related to it
- (b) determines the CONCORD
- (c) refers to something about which a statement or assertion is made in the rest of the sentence."

In English the number and the person of the subject must agree with its verb. It means it should have an appropriate form depending on whether the subject is singular, uncountable, or plural, for **example**:

- (a) He goes to school everyday.
- (b) Sheep give us wool.
- (c) Her hair is grey.

Quirk et al. (1985) discuss three types of agreement (concord), i.e. **grammatical concord**, **notional concord** and **principle of proximity**. By grammatical concord, they mean the matching of the verb with its subject in number as shown in (a), (b) and (c) above, while the "Notional concord is agreement of verb with subject according to the notion of number rather than with the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that notion" (Quirk et al. 1985:757). For example,

- (d) The government *have* broken all *their* promises.

In British English collective nouns such as *committee*, *team*, *government*, etc. are taken plural notionally; therefore, plural verbs and plural pronouns are used as in (d).

According to Quirk et al. (1985:757), "The principle of proximity, also termed '**attraction**', denotes agreement of the verb with a closely preceding noun phrase in preference to agreement with the head of the noun **phrase** that functions as subject." For example:

- (e) ? No one except his own supporters agree with him.

In the above sentence *no one* is singular but the verb *agree* is plural because it takes the proximate noun phrase *his own supporters* as the nearest subject. The notional concord as in (d) and proximity in (e) pose a lot of problems for the learners.

Another area that needs a brief discussion here is of coordinated subject with *and*, *or* and *nor* and indefinite expressions as a subject. A plural verb is used even if the subjects consist of two or more noun phrases to be coordinated by *and*. For example:

(f) Ram and Sita are students.

When the subject phrases and clauses are joined with *or* (*either...or*), there are three rules to follow.

- i. If both subjects are singular, a singular verb is used.
- ii. If both subjects are plural, a plural verb is used.
- iii. If one subject is singular and the other is plural, the principle of proximity is applied as in the following sentences:

(g) Either he or his friends are to be blamed for this mismanagement.

(h) Neither he nor his friend has arrived.

(i) Neither we nor our parents live in this house.

An indefinite expression as a subject also poses difficulty in its agreement with verbs. This has been shown in Celce-Murcia et al. (1983), Shrestha (1989), and Sthapit (1992). However, on the basis of the grammar books referred to in this study, a brief analysis of the items included in the test is done here. Sinclair (1992:631) states that "Some general determiners, such as *each*', are only used with singular count nouns; some, such as *all*' are only used with uncount nouns or plural forms of nouns; and some, such as *several*', are only used with plural forms of nouns". For example:

(j) Each of them is invited to the party.

(k) All are welcome!

Similarly, *some* followed by *of* and a plural noun group take a plural verb. The family names take plural verbs, but a singular head of the subject modified by a plural noun group still takes a singular verb. For example:

(l) Some of **my** friends are **submiting** their theses **this** year.

(m) The Smiths are very polite.

Besides, there are certain nouns which are inherently plural and **therefore**, take plural verbs, e.p. *sheep*, *deer*, *cattle*, *fish*, *moose*, etc.

4.3.181. Discussion and Explanation

In the light of the above description, an attempt is **made** here to describe and explain the errors produced **in** this category.

- | | | |
|-----|---|---------|
| 58. | *A man with four children were killed. | (was) |
| 59. | *There are a pen and pencil on the table. | (is) |
| 60. | *The Sharmas is very rich in the city. | (are) |
| 61. | *Either Rita or Sita are present today. | (is) |
| 62. | *Each of them play basketball. | (plays) |
| 63. | *Sheep gives us wool. | (give) |
| 64. | *Some of them is good in Mathematics. | (are) |
| 65. | *One of you have to go shopping. | (has) |

In sentence 58 the singular subject *a man* is qualified by a plural noun phrase but the students took the latter as the subject of the sentence and opted for a plural verb. The same is the case with 62.

It is obvious from the data, for example, sentence 63 above that the students do not seem to have the knowledge of such nouns which have the same singular and plural forms. In the case of a sentence that begins with *there*, followed by a conjoined noun phrase. the traditional grammarians do not prescribe the use of

proximity rule. However, **Celce-Murcia et al.** (1983:42) argue that "a majority apply the proximity rule" which makes constructions such as 59 erroneous. Similarly, subjects such as *family names*, *either...or*, *some of*, and *one of* in sentences 60, 61, 64 and 65 pose problem to the students.

From the error percentages of all the groups of subjects under study, it can be **inferred** that there is no significant difference in their performance in subject-verb agreement. The total error percentage in this category is 29.54. The **NSs**, and the **NNSs** are in its periphery yielding 29.70%, and 29.15% errors **respectively**. However, the performance of the BSPs is a little better than that of their counterparts.

Errors in subject-verb agreement in English do not seem to have been caused due to the **influence** of Nepali. The native speakers themselves are found to have a divided opinion with regard to the subject-verb agreement (cf. **Celce-Murcia et al.** 1983). The same may be true of the foreign language learners and especially the subjects of this study. Therefore, the errors they commit in subject-verb agreement are **intralingual** and caused by the incomplete application of the TL rules.

4.3.19. Errors in Passive Voice

Sinclair (1992:494) states that "The passive refers to verb groups whose subject is the person or thing that is affected by an action." For **example**:

(a) A snake was killed by Ram.

This sentence contains a passive verb because the subject of the active verb group, **i.e.** Ram, the performer of the action, was shifted to the object position.

The passive voice is used when the performer of an action is relegated to the secondary position compared **with** the action itself. In English all the transitive verbs with an object take **passive** forms (Table **No.14**). Unlike English, which has two-voice

system, Nepali has three voices, e.g. active, passive and intransitive-passive (cf. Adhikary 1993).

4.3.191. Discussion and Explanation

A list of the erroneous sentences of the students obtained from the test is given below for discussion.

66. *These artificial flowers of silk *is* made by them. (are)
67. *A seminar *have* been organized by them recently. (has)
68. *A seminar *had* been organized by them recently. (has)
69. *Research papers were being *writing* by students
this term. (are written)
70. *This campus *had* built in 1980 by *them*. (was)

The above sentences reveal that **subject-verb** agreement is inadvertently used. In 66, the plural subject follows a singular verb while the passive construction is acceptable. In 68, the verb group *had been organized* is not compatible with the adverb *recently*. The students overgeneralized the rule applied in the reported speech in which the present perfect verb is changed into the past perfect, while in 67, the passive form of the same sentence lacks the subject-verb **agreement**. Sentence 69 exhibits deviation of the passive rule, i.e. *be + V.ed + by* because the students fail to consider the past participle form of the verb. For 70, the active sentence is *They built this campus in 1980*. The students opted for the verb similar to the one used in the reported speech, i.e. the simple past tense verb of the direct speech is changed to the past perfect form.

It can be inferred from the description that the students are faced by two problems, that is, the subject-verb agreement and the choice of appropriate tense.

Though the errors in this category are 29.35%, the NSs trail behind the other groups yielding **34.17%** errors.

Since passive sentences are not very often used for oral **communication**, students do not get adequate practice in them. In writing passive sentences are limited in their use, i.e. confined

to report writing. The situation is identical in the case of the Nepali language also. Thus, a transfer of Nepali while learning the English passive rules is very unlikely. Therefore, the errors in this category are most likely due to inadequate practice in this category.

4.3.110. Errors in Adjectives

In Sinclair's (1992:11) terms an adjective is a "... word that is used to describe someone or something or give information about them". Unlike the Nepali adjectives, English adjectives have the same form irrespective of number, gender and position/function of the thing, state or person they describe, e.g. a poor *boy/girl*, poor boys/girls. English adjectives can occur in the following four different positions;

- i. Attributive use* use of an adjective before a noun,
e.g. a *beautiful* girl,
a poor boy, etc.
- ii. Predicative use* use of an adjective as a complement
of *be*, *become*, *seem*, etc, e.g.
(a) He is *brave*.
- iii. Premodified* by an intensifier like, *very*, etc,
e.g. (b) *She* is very ugly.
- iv. Comparative and Superlative forms* Comparison is made by the addition
of inflections (e.g. *-er*, *-est*),
or by the addition of **premodifiers**
like *more* and *most*, e.g.
(a) *India is bigger than Nepal*.
(b) *He is the most intelligent boy
in the class*.

The characteristics of *iv* above require a further discussion that follows:

- i. Monosyllabic adjectives take *-er* and *-est* suffixes for comparative and superlative forms, e.g.

<i>big</i>	<i>bigger</i>	<i>biggest</i>
<i>bright</i>	<i>brighter</i>	<i>brightest</i>

- ii. Adjectives of three or more syllables form comparative and superlative degrees by adding *more* and *most* to them, e.g.

interesting *more interesting* *most interesting*

- iii. Adjectives with two syllables may follow either rule /or // above

- iv. Adjectives with the suffix *-ful* also use the rule // given above, e.g.

beautiful *more beautiful* *most beautiful*

- v. There are several irregular adjectives as well, e.g.

<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>

There are some other adjectives, for example, *many*, *much*, *some* and *any* which are used in the following **ways**:

many: used before countable nouns

much: used before uncountable nouns

any • used before singular/plural countable nouns both in questions and negative sentences

some: used before a number of people or things and even before uncountable nouns but is not used in a negative statement, however, it **is** used in a question when someone is asked to confirm that something is true.

- vi. With the positive form of the adjective, *as... as* is used in the affirmative and *not as/not so... as* in the negative, e.g.

(e) He is **as** clever as his sister.

(f) She is *not as/so* strong as her brother.

One can use more than a single adjective in a sentence. Sinclair (1992:13-14) gives the following order if more than one adjectives are used in a **sentence**:

qualitative adjective – colour adjective – classifying adjective e.g. a *little white wooden* house.

However, he gives the following order for the qualitative adjectives,

opinions-size-quality-age-shape, e.g.

(g) She puts on her *dirty old* fur coat.

Similarly, the following is the order for the classifying adjectives:

age-shape-nationality-material, e.g. a *medieval French* village.

Thomson and Martinet (1986:35) give the following order of adjectives which is fairly used:

- i. size (except little)
- ii. general description (excluding adjectives of personality, emotion, etc.)
- iii. age, and the adjective little
- iv. shape
- v. colour
- v\ material
- vii. origin
- viii. purpose (these are really gerunds used to form compound nouns: walking stick, riding books)

4.3.1101. Discussion and Explanation

Keeping the above discussion of adjectives in mind, the following erroneous sentences of the students could be analysed:

- 71. *A boy of sixteen is often as *taller* as his father. (tall)
- 72. *This boy is the *more cleverer* of all in the class. (cleverest)
- 73. *Of the two boys in the class, who is *honest*? (more honest)
- 74. *She read as *many* as she could. (much)
- 75. *There is any milk in that jug. (some)
- 76. *Your nephew is a *little nice* boy. (nice little)

In sentence 71 a positive comparison *as tall as* is required whereas the students have opted for a comparative adjective. Usually the adjectives that end in -er, -y, -ly take -er or **-est** forms. That is why, 72 is erroneous. In 73 the phrase *of the two boys* requires a comparative adjective but the superlative form is seen in the answers. As discussed above, *many* in 74 as an adjective is used with countable nouns only. Sentence 76 is slightly

tricky because *little, old and young* are often used not to **give** information, but as part of an adjective-noun combination. They are thus placed next to their nouns. The adjectives of 76 types are not much practised at schools, even though they are done at the Proficiency Certificate level.

The errors recorded for the three groups, i.e. NSs, NNSs, and BSPs are 27.29%, 27.74% and 23.30%, respectively. No significant difference is seen except that the BSPs show a marginal difference of about 5.55% less than their PSP counterparts.

While explaining the possible causes of errors in adjectives, it is interesting to note that both Nepali and English have similar adjectives of comparison. Therefore, sentences 71, 72, and 73 do not seem to exhibit the Nepali language transfer. In Nepali does not make a clear distinction between *much* and *many*, and *some* and *any*. The distinction seems to have been neutralized here. If *any* refers to what is called *aliketī* of Nepali, which is used both in negative and interrogative sentences and with uncount nouns as well unlike in English, where a clear distinction between *some* and *any* is significant, the reasons for these defects become clear. Similarly, if *many* refers to *rfherai* of Nepali, it shows a parallel function to that of *any*.

Regarding the ordering of adjectives in Nepali, Adhikary (1993) suggests that there are two types: **free variation ordering**, e.g. *lamō (long), aḡlō (high), thulo (big.) ghar (house): aḡlō, thulo, lamō ghar; thulo, lamō, aḡlō ghar* and **contextual ordering**, e.g. *merī san i bhatijī: sãñ merī bhatijī* (i.e. my small niece). He mentions that while changing the order of the second type, a change in emphasis can be recorded. In some cases such a change may also bring a change in meaning. However, he does not give any specific rule for the ordering of Nepali adjectives.

In the light of the above discussion, it can be inferred that the students may be under the influence of Nepali over the use of adjectives as indicated in 74, 75 and 76.

4.3. 1111. Errors in Articles

An article refers to a word used with a noun in order to show whether the noun addresses to something definite or something indefinite. There are two types of articles in English:

- (i) the definite article: *the*
- (ii) the indefinite article: *a* or *an*

There are many uses of the **definite article** in English. However, a few of them which are most common and useful for the present study, are given below:

Firstly, it is used to refer to something already mentioned, e.g.

- (a) I met a man in a shop. *The man in the shop was buying a new book.*

Secondly, it is used to refer to something unique, e.g. *the earth, the sky, the sea*, etc.

Thirdly, it is also used before certain proper names of rivers, seas, groups of islands, etc. e.g. *the Bagmati, the Atlantic, the Philippines*, etc.

The **indefinite article** *a* is used before a singular countable noun which begins with a consonant sound whereas *an* is used before a word that begins with a vowel sound, not a vowel letter representing a consonant, such as *un i versi ty, Europe*, etc. In these cases the indefinite article *a* is used, e.g. *a university, a European*.

4.3.1111. Discussion and Explanation

What follows is an analysis of the corpus within the limit of the uses of the articles given above. Consider the following sentences:

77. *~ Earth moves round the sun. (the)

78. *She ls an university student. (a)
 79. *This ls the nice way of dealing with the people. (a)
 80. *Eat a apple everyday ln the morning. (an)

A good number of students missed the use of the definite article before the unique proper noun ln sentence 77. There are two possibilities: one, that the students know the rule that an article is not used before a proper noun. Two, they do not know the exceptions to the above rule. In 78 the indefinite article an is selected because they are taught that it is used before a word that begins with a vowel (i.e. a, e, i, o, u) but they are not explicitly taught that it is used before the word that begins with a vowel *sound*. However, a contradiction is observed in 80 in which the students opted for a before a word beginning with a vowel. In 79 the use of the definite article seems inappropriate because it is a sentence not bound by any context.

It is interesting to note that the BPSs yield comparatively higher error percentage, i.e. 31.88% compared with their counterparts who yield 24.62% errors only. However, this category yields 26.48% errors.

If the basic assumptions of CA are taken into consideration, what Sthapit (1978:603) observes "Nepali and Newari do not have an article system as such. So errors pertaining to the use of articles are quite common in Nepali and Newari English. Even well-educated persons are liable to commit these errors" seems applicable to the present study. Sentence 77 supports this argument, because its structure resembles Nepali construction and the students do not choose any article for it. For example,

prithvi suryako waripari ghumcha
 earth sun-of round move-s
 'The earth moves round the run'.

No article, as such, is needed for the Nepali sentences. For these errors ln articles, two obvious causes can be identified from the data in hand. Firstly, these are the outcomes of the incomplete application of the TL rules, and secondly, they are

caused due to the influence of Nepali working as a filter language while learning English.

4.3.112. Errors in Reported Speech

Reported speech is someone's statement saying not exactly in his own words, but by using the format of a reported structure. It is also called indirect speech. Though there are several rules stated in the grammar books as to how to change direct speech into the reported one, a brief mention may be made here to make a reference to the analysis based on the data. Consider the following strategies used here:

- (i) Inverted commas and question marks are removed in reported speech, e.g.
 - (a) Quote structure-. *He said, "I can cook rice. "*
 - (b) Reported speech: *He said that he could cook rice.*
- (ii) The tense of the reported speech is changed according to the tense of the reporting verb, i.e. the verb that comes before the quoted sentence, e.g.
 - (c) Quote structure: *He said, "I have **lost** my pen."*
 - (d) Reported speech: *He **said** that he had lost his pen.*
- (iii) The pronouns of the reported speech are also changed, and they become compatible with the subject of the sentence, e.g.
 - (e) Quote structure: ***Hari** said to me. "**I** will meet you at the **station**."*
 - (f) Reported speech: ***Hari** told me that he would meet me at the station.*
- (iv) The direct questions become indirect ones, e.g.
 - (g) Quote structure: *He asked me, "**Where** are you going!"*
 - (h) Reported speech: ***He** asked me where I was **going**.*
- (v) Inversion of subject and auxiliary verb is a must for converting the direct question into the indirect one, e.g.
 - (i) Quote structure: *He said, "**Can** you swim?"*
 - (j) Reported Speech: *He asked **if/whether** I could swim.*

(vi) While reporting the imperative sentences, a to-infinitive form is added to the reported speech, e.g.

(k) *He said to me, "Give me your pen".*

(1) *He asked me to give him my pen.*

4.3.1121. Discussion and Explanation

In the light of the above description, an analysis of the following sentences from the students' answers is presented here:

81. *Ram said that I was not well. (he)
82. *He asked her where was she going. (she was)
83. *He asked her that where she was going. (9)
84. *He said to bring me a glass of water. (him)
85. *He asked us if we won some prizes the year before. (had won/any)

A careful scrutiny of the above sentences reveals the fact that the exposure of the students to the rules and practice of the reported speech items is fairly inadequate mainly in the areas of (i) pronoun change (ii) subject-verb inversion (iii) tense change, and (iv) the use of *that*.

Sentences 81 and 84 fall in the first category because the pronouns in these two sentences are not congruent with their antecedents. Subject-verb inversion is incorrect in 82. *That* is omitted when the indirect question begins with a question word which the students failed to notice and opted for it in 83 in analogy with its use in a statement. Sentence 85 posed them a tense problem. Besides, *any* in 85 is appropriate in a question and there is no need to replace it with *some* in reported speech, since the sentence is an indirect question.

Reported speech yields 25.37% errors. The performance of the NNSs, compared with the NSs, is less **satisfactory**. The BSPs also lag behind the PSPs in reported speech.

The errors in sentences 81 through 85 show that students lack the adequate exposure to the rules required for converting quote structures into the reported ones. Instances of transfer from Nepali could not be traced out in this case.

4.3.113. Errors in Relative Clauses

Sinclair (1992:579) defines a relative clause as "... a subordinate clause which gives more information about someone or something mentioned in the main clause. The relative clause comes immediately after the noun which refers to the person or thing being talked about." For example,

(a) The man whom I met was healthy and stout.

Relative clauses begin with relative pronouns such as *that*, *which*, *who*, *whom*, etc. The pronouns work as the subject or object of the verb in the relative clauses. There are mainly two kinds of relative clause: defining and non-defining (also called restrictive and non-restrictive).

A **defining relative clause** describes the person or thing spoken about in the main clause, e.g.

(b) The woman *who is sitting there* is my mother.

The relative clause *who is sitting there* identifies the particular person being referred to. The following is a list of the relative pronouns used in defining (restrictive) relative clauses:

	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Object</i>	<i>Possessive</i>
<i>For persons</i>	<i>who</i> <i>that</i>	<i>whom/who</i> <i>that</i>	<i>whose</i>
<i>For things</i>	<i>which</i> <i>that</i>	<i>which</i> <i>that</i>	<i>whose/of which</i>

"Non-defining relative clauses are used to give further information about someone or something, not to identify them" (Sinclair 1992:580), e.g.

(c) I recently bought a grammar book, *which was written by T. Givon.*

The relative clause in this example does not restrict a grammar book but supplies an extra information about it.

The relative pronouns used in non-defining (non-restrictive) relative clauses are as follows:

	Subject	Object	Possessive
For persons	<i>who</i>	<i>whom/who</i>	<i>whose</i>
For things	<i>which</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>whose/of which</i>

Sinclair (1992:582) states that "*When*", "*where*", and "*why*" can be used in defining relative clauses after certain nouns. "*When*" is used after "*time*" and time words, "*where*" is used after "*place*" or place words, and "*why*" is used after "*reason*", e.g.:

- (d) That was the place where I was born.
- (e) This is the time when he becomes free.

Similarly, *when* and *where* can also be used in non-defining clauses after expressions of time and place, e.g.

- (f) This is my village, where I spent most of my childhood.
- (g) This incident took place, when I was in the army.

4.3.1131. Discussion and Explanation

In the light of the above description, an analysis of the students' responses is presented below:

- 86. *He has sent *me* a book that I had asked for *it*. (the/0)
- 87. **The* boy was caught when he was *stealing the* watch.
(The boy who stole the watch was caught.)
- 88. *He was born in Patan where he spent most of his
valuable days *in Patan*. (0)

In 86 the object *it* is unwanted. In addition to this, the students have chosen an inappropriate article *a* which should have been replaced with the definite *the*. Sentence 87 is a bit tricky. It looks apparently acceptable, but the relative clause there has to be a **defining** one. Since there is no use of a comma, *The boy* has to be defined in the relative clause by *who stole the watch*.

The performance of the BSPs is **comparatively** better than that of their PSP counterparts. Similarly, NSs excel their counterparts in the relative clauses.

These errors are caused because of the **students'** inability to use rules for the formation of relative clauses even though they have many exercises in the Secondary as well as Proficiency Certificate level textbooks. The instances of Nepali transfer are not recorded in this section.

4.3.114. Errors in Question Tags

According to Wood (1984:218), a question tag is defined as "Short questions added to a statement to invite agreement from the person addressed". A few rules, usually followed while forming question tags are:

- i. It is **formed** by using the same auxiliary verb of the statement followed by the appropriate personal pronoun where its antecedent is the subject of the statement, e.g.
 - (a) Ram is writing a letter, *isn't he!*
- ii. If the statement does not contain an auxiliary verb, the verb *do* is used in the tag, e.g.
 - (b) He *works* hard, *doesn't* he?
- iii. If the statement is positive, a negative tag is added to it, e.g.
 - (c) Sita *is* doing her homework, *isn't* she?
- iv. **If** the statement is negative, a positive tag is added to it, e.g.
 - (d) He *doesn't* work hard, *does* he?
- v. If the statement contains words such as *hardly, rarely, seldom, neither ... nor, (adjective), none, no one, nobody, nothing, scarcely, barely, hardly ever*, etc. a **positive** tag is added to the statement, e.g.
 - (e) You have *never* been to Kathmandu, *have* you?

4.3.1141. Discussion and Explanation

Keeping the above description of the question tags in mind, an analysis of the errors committed by the students in the present study is given below:

- | | | |
|-----|---|----------|
| 89. | *You take sugar in tea, <i>do</i> you? | (don't) |
| 90. | *He didn't find your books , <i>didn't</i> be? | (did) |
| 91. | *He worked hard, <i>doesn't</i> he? | (didn't) |
| 92. | *He worked hard, <i>did</i> he? | (didn't) |
| 93. | *He is ten years old, <i>doesn't</i> he? | (isn't) |
| 94. | *But nobody complained, <i>didn't</i> they? | (did) |

The errors in the question tags **yield** the lowest error percentage, i.e. **13.03%**. However, a careful scrutiny of the problematic area is equally necessary for it also. In sentence 89 rule iii as given above is not observed. The same is the case with 90 which is not in congruent with rule iv. But 91 poses a different problem. The statement is in the past tense and the tag in the present while in 92, there is no tense problem, but negation is left out. In 93 the students opted for the *do* verb even though the sentence contains a contracted *be* verb. Finally, in 94 the students seem to fail to perceive the rule v given above. This **item** tends to become rather very difficult for them.

Question tags are taught to the Nepali learners of English **from** the primary through the Proficiency Certificate level but they still make errors in them. Surprisingly enough, those students who have **comparatively more** exposure to English (i.e. BSPs) have the highest percentage of errors, i.e. **16.81%**. But the NSs excel their NNSs counterparts with just **1.57%** errors.

The researcher can tell from his own experience that the students, on an average, rarely converse in English. Even if they do, they hardly make use of question tags or such other items used in the spoken discourse. First, the lack of sufficient exposure of the students in question tags and the lack of sufficient practice in them are the main causes of errors in question tags. The erroneous sentences given above indicate that the

students have not yet mastered the above **five** rules. The nature of these errors also shows that they are still in the developmental stage.

4.3.2. Errors Obtained from Error Identification Test

Error **identification** test is another **grammar** test given to the students **in** order to see their ability to detect and correct the errors in the sentences supplied to them. The test further has a two-fold **advantage**: first, to crosscheck the results of multiple choice test <cf. 4.3.1.) in the light of the performance of this test and second, to see whether, in course of detection and correction of the errors, any further new errors crop up. It is not exactly what **Dušková** (1969:21) suggested, i.e. "... to have the papers corrected by the learners in order to find out which errors they could detect themselves". Since these errors are supplied to them, the test, at least, meets her suggestion to some extent. The text of the test is given in the Appendix 2.

The following table presents the items tested with their error frequency and percentage against each item.

Table Mo. IS

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from error identification test

S. No.	Items tested	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
1.	2	Gerund and to -Infinitive	509	94.25
2.	1	Adjectives	250	92.59
3.	1	Tenses	244	90.37
4.	2	Adverbs	475	87.96
5.	2	Clauses	471	87.22
6.	1	Indirect Question	231	85.55
7.	1	Nouns	215	79.62
8a.	1	Articles	211	78.14
8b.	1	Modals	211	78.14
9.	3	Concord	496	61.23
10.	1	Pronouns	134	49.62

Most of the items tested **in** section 4.3.1 are repeated in this test, too. This **is** not an unintentional repetition because the focus of 4.3.1 was on the selection of the correct answers from the **incorrect** ones (multiple choice), whereas the items in this test focus on **students'** ability to detect and correct errors. The items included in the test discussed **in** 4.3.1 above which reappear here are: 1,2,3,5 (under two different heads), 6 (under reported speech), 8a, 8b, 9, (under S-V-agreement) and 10 reappear in this test also. The repeated items in this section and that follow start with discussion and explanation as their background is redundant here. However, a brief description of the new items, for example, 4 and 7 will follow.

As the error percentages in all the items that reappear in this test are extremely high, a comparison of these with those of the former test is not worthwhile because a wide gap exists between the two. Therefore, the items in this test are discussed and analysed in their own **perspectives**.

Table No. 15 below shows the test items, their error frequencies, and percentages depending upon the number of items tested. The errors are displayed in a hierarchical order from the highest to the lowest **in** terms of **their** percentages. The performance of the **BSPs is comparatively** better than that of their counterparts in all items of this test. However, the **NNSS** excel the **NSs** in all the items, but the **modals**.

4.3.21. **Errors in Gerund and ~~To-Infinitive~~: Discussion and Explanation**

The errors in this category rank the highest, i.e. **94.25%**, which reveals that the **students'** performance is very highly unsatisfactory. The erroneous sentences recorded are as follows:

- | | | |
|-----|--|------------------|
| 95. | *He is thinking of <i>to visit</i> Dr. Sharma. | (visiting) |
| 96. | *If you count on me <i>helping</i> you, you have to stop smoking. | (to help) |
| 97. | *So he is foolish to <i>believed</i> such people. | (believe) |
| 98. | *He had to <i>stopped</i> smoking. | (stop) |

The phrase *think of* in sentence 95 usually follows a gerund, however, *count on* in 96 follows a **to-inf initive**. **To-infinitive itself** refers to the nominal clause made up of *to +infinitive* (or base form of the verb). However, the students used the past form of the verb after *to*. Therefore, both 97 and 98 are erroneous.

The cause of these types of errors is the inadequate application of the TL rules.

4.3.22. Errors in Adjectives: Discussion and Explanation

Errors in adjectives occupy the second highest position, i.e. 92.59%, in the present test. What follows is the discussion and analysis of errors obtained from "the test" in adjectives.

99. *He **is** *enough foolish* to believe such people. (foolish enough)

This sentence contains an ordering problem since *enough* **is** used after an adjective or adverb in order to say that someone or something has as much of a quality as is needed or more than expected. In the case of this ordering, interference from Nepali is evident because *prasasts murkha* (very/enough foolish) is the accepted ordering in **it**.

100. *I also tell him that I am a *kindness* man. (kind)

In this sentence the adjective *kind* should be used, but actually the noun *kindness* is used. This is very hard to explain why the students add the suffix *-ness* to *kind* and make the correct form incorrect. This may be taken as an analogical error where the learners have used the *-ness* element from *happiness*, etc.

4.3.23. Errors in Tenses: Discussion and Explanation

In the case of tenses, over 90% of the students committed errors in the sentences 101 through 104:

101. *The other one *is* suffering from fever since yesterday. (has been)

With the use of *since*, which **indicates** a particular point of specified **time** in the past coming up to the present, either the perfect or the perfect continuous tense is used, but the learners failed to notice **this** in 101. The possible cause of error in **this** sentence **is** the **influence** of a single Nepali **postposition** *dekAi* (from) which has been discussed in section 4.3.171. The other erroneous examples that fall in the category of the present perfect tense are;

102. *What has *happen* to him? (happened)
 103. *Dr Sharma hasn't *coming* to his clinic. (come)
 104. *I haven't *take* the medicine. (taken)

The students **failed** to observe the verb forms used in the present perfect tense given in section 4.3.17. The errors in sentences 102 through 104 have nothing to do with interlingual interference. They are, therefore, attributed to the **incomplete** application of the **TL** rules, particularly of the perfect tenses. The clue that *has, have, had* **auxiliaries** follow the past participle forms of verbs would have been enough for the learners to avoid errors in these instances only if they had been familiar with such rules.

4.3.24. Errors in Adverbs

An adverb in English is a word which is used to add extra information in a sentence by answering *now, when, and where* questions. Similarly, an adverbial refers to an adverb or a group of words headed by it. Sinclair (1992:17) gives the following main types of adverbials which indicate:

- (1) **Manner** : anxiously, well, fast, *bravely*, Quickly, etc. (most of the adverbs of manner are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective)
- (ii) **Aspect** : politically, *financially, socially, technically*, etc.

(fff) Opinion	surprisingly, <i>luckily</i> , etc.
(iv) Place	<i>overhead</i> , <i>in</i> the perk, etc.
(v) Time	soon, next week, etc
(vi) Frequency	never, rarely, <i>occasionally</i> , <i>sometimes</i> , often, usually, nearly always, <i>always</i> , cons <i>is tently</i> , etc.
(vii) Duration	briefly, temporarily, long, <i>indefinite-</i> <i>ly</i> , <i>always</i> , etc.
(viii) Degree	<i>little</i> , <i>a little</i> , <i>noticeably</i> , rather, a lot, remarkably, etc.
(1x) extent :	totally, almost, partly, largely, completely, etc.
(x) Emphasis :	Quite, simply, etc.
(xi) Focus :	<i>particularly</i> , <i>especially</i> , mostly, principally, etc.
(xii) Probability:	<i>definitely</i> , probably, perhaps, <i>hopeful-</i> <i>ly</i> , etc.

There are several rules and restrictions in the use of adverbs regarding their formations, positions and ordering which are not required for the present purpose.

4.3.241. Discussion and Explanation

What follows is the discussion and explanation of errors committed by the learners in adverbs which is 87.96%. Here are the erroneous sentences from the **students'** responses.

105. *We find that Dr. Sharma hasn't come to his
clinic now. (yet)
106. *The clerk says that the doctor often comes
lately. (late)
107. *The clerk says *sometimes* the doctor often comes
lately. (P/late)

In sentence 105 the choice of the adverb *now* **is inappropriate**. It should be replaced **with** *yet* which is used **in this** kind of negative sentence in order to say that something has not happened up to the time specified. In 106 the students seem to **fail** in making a distinction between *late* and *lately*. The former refers to the arrival after the time specified while the latter means recently, or a short **time** ago. In **this** sentence *often* and *lately* are not compatible. Thus, a choice of *late* is appropriate.

The sentence 107 looks very bizarre. There are three adverbs which are not congruent with one another. The first thing to be done here **is** to drop *sometimes* and repair the sentence as suggested for 106 above. The second possibility is to drop *often* and *-ly* of *late* and retain *sometimes*. Regarding the use of *lately* in 106 and 107, the students may have taken it in analogy with **-ly affixed** to other adverbs like *Quick*, ***slow***, *hard*, etc.

Errors in this category may result due to an incomplete exposure to English because the influence of Nepali is not noticed in these sentences.

4.3.25. Errors in Clauses

Two types of clauses tested here are **conditional** and **adverbial**. Grammatical discussion regarding the conditional clauses has already been given in section 4.3.15. However, in the **subordinate** adverbial clauses expressing future meaning, "The simple present is commonly used in preference to the auxiliary will or (in **BrE**, optionally with I and we) shall ..." (Quirk et al. 1985:1008). But Thomson and Martinet (1986) forbade the use of a future form or a conditional tense in a time clause.

4.3.251. Discussion and Explanation

The erroneous sentences in clauses are discussed **in** this section. For example,

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 108. *I wouldn't have done that if I was him. | (had been) |
| 109. *If he smokes, he don't be better. | (won't) |
| 110. *I would has done that if I had ^ him. | (have/been) |

111. *I shall call you, when I ~~will~~ be ready. (am)
 112. *He *should* call you, when I *will* be ready. (will/he is)

For the sentence 108 rule III of the conditional clauses given in 4.3.15 **applies**, but the students fail to observe it. Similarly, they **fail** to apply rule I of the same in 109. While in 110, which requires rule III of the same, there is a problem in the selection of the verbs and their forms. Both the clauses in it should be in the perfective aspect. For 111, and 112, as discussed above, the *when* clause should be **in** the simple present and the main clause in the simple future which the students fail to observe. Besides, the learners hypercorrected the subject of the *when* clause.

The error percent, i.e. **87.22%**, in this category shows that it **is** also very problematic for the Nepali students. Interference from Nepali in the conditional clauses has been discussed in section 4.3.151. Adhikary (1993:86) argues that Nepali does not make any sharp distinction between the simple present tense and the simple future. Both tenses are used **interchangeably** though the latter is preferred to the former in writing. Therefore, the sentences like 111 may occur **in** the writing of the Nepali learners of English. However, sentence 112 is bizarre caused due to the ignorance of the TL rules. It is thus, obvious that errors in clauses are caused by the **interlingual** interference as well as the incomplete exposure to the TL itself.

4.3.26. Errors **in** Indirect Question : Discussion and Explanation

Errors **in** the reported speech have already been discussed in section 4.3.112. In this section errors in the formation of indirect questions will be analysed. It has already been pointed out **in** section 4.3.1121 that students have a problem of subject-verb **inversion** in the sentences of the following **type**:

113. *He asked my friend why *doesn't* he call
 him **in** time. (he doesn't)
 114. *He asks her friend why *doesn't* he *called*
 him **in** time. (he doesn't call)

115. *He asked my friend *that* why *didn't* he
call him in time. ((I/he didn't)

The sentences 113 and 115 have a common problem of subject verb inversion; however, the latter has an additional problem of superfluous *that* insertion. In order to convert a quote statement into the reported speech, inverted commas are replaced with *that*, but the students could not generalize it. When the quote structure begins with a question word, this rule doesn't apply. Thus, they commit an **overgeneralization** error in this case. In sentence 114 too, two problems are obviously seen. The first one is in the subject-verb inversion which is common in all the above three sentences, i.e. 113 through 115. The second is the use of the past participle form of the verb which is grammatically inappropriate.

Errors in this category are **85.55%** caused by **incomplete** exposure to and inadequate practice in the formation of **indirect** questions in English. The influence of Nepali is not traced in these errors.

4.3.27. Errors in Nouns

A noun is a word that refers to people, places, things or abstractions. It can be a single word or a head of a group (NP) modified or qualified by other words, e.g.

- (a) The *girl* in the dark dress, is my sister.

modifier	qualifier

A noun or noun group can function as a subject, object, or complement of a clause or the object of a preposition in a sentence. The following examples are **illustrative**:

- (b) *Students* work hard.
- (c) We are *students*.
- (d) Let me work in *peace*.

Traditionally nouns are classified into five types. They are:

- i. **Proper nouns** : Ram, **Sita**, etc.
- ii. **Common nouns** : enemy, army, etc.
- iii. **Collective nouns** : **family**, group, etc.
- iv. **Material nouns** : gold, **silver**, etc.
- v. **Abstract nouns** : **kind**, beauty, etc.

Nouns are further classified into two broad categories: count nouns and uncount nouns. Sinclair (1992:444-45) defines these two types thus: " Nouns referring to things which can be counted are called **count nouns** ... Nouns which refer to things such as substances, qualities, feelings, and types of activity, rather than to **individual** objects or events, are called **uncount nouns**." The following uncount nouns are most commonly used in day-to-day life.

advice	hair	money	research
baggage	homework	news	knowledge
furniture	information	progress	traffic

4.3.271. Discussion and Explanation

Only one sentence given to the students to test their ability to detect and correct uncount noun is:

116. *Sometimes he takes advices from the chemist **also**. (advice)

This item yields 79.62% errors. There is not any concrete rule in English by which count nouns are separated from the uncount ones. At times, the same uncount noun becomes count one, e.g. Jersey, **victory**, **conflict**, etc.

The error committed by the students in this category is due to **intralingual interference**, because they overgeneralize the **pluralization** rule of English count nouns for making the uncount ones plural.

4.3.28. Errors in Articles: Discussion and Explanation

Grammatical description regarding English articles has already been given in section 4.3.1111. The following is **the** description and analysis of the errors students made in the use of **articles**:

117. *Dr. Sharma is **a** most popular doctor in the city. (the)
118. ***He** asked *the* question. (a)
119. *He is foolish *an* enough to believe such people. (**ø**)

In sentence 117 the definite article *the* is missing while in 118 it is used in place of an indefinite article *a*. But in 119 there is a superfluous use of *an*.

The errors in this category are **78.14%**. The causes of errors in articles are discussed in 4.3.1111 which also apply in the present context. These also get support from **Duskova's** (1969:19) analysis of the errors of Czech learners of English. She states "While failure to use any article might be attributed to interference from the Czech ... the use of the definite articles instead of the indefinite or the zero article is probably due to interference between the various functions of the articles themselves".

4.3.29. Errors in **Modals**: Discussion and Explanation

The test contained the marginal modal *need* but surprisingly, **it** has elicited three different responses from the students. They are analysed below:

120. ***He** *needs not have* taken the medicines without... (need not have)
121. ***He** *needs not has* taken the medicines without... (need not have)
122. ***He** *hasn't needs* taken the **medicines** without... (need not have)

The marginal modal *need* can function both as a modal and as **a** main verb. Unlike other modal verbs, it can be **inflected** but not before the negative **particle**. However, sentences 120 and 121

exhibit its inflected form. In addition, 122 also displays the inappropriate use of the verb *have*. Sentence 122 does not follow the pattern *needn't* * perfect *infinitive*.

This category records 78.14% errors. The possible cause of errors in **modals** here may be, as discussed in 4.3.111, due to the incomplete application of the rules of the items in question by the learners.

4.3.210. Errors in Concord: Discussion and Explanation

The errors in this category are 73.50%. The erroneous sentences obtained from the test are:

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| 123. *One of them have gone to Delhi. | (has) |
| 124. *He generally take medicines without consulting the doctor. | (takes) |
| 125. *He also ask him if he smoke. | (asks/smokes) |
| 126. *He don't listen to anybody. | (doesn't) |
| 127. *My friend agree to do so. | (agrees) |
| 128. *We can't trust these kind of people. | (kinds) |
| 129. *I have two friend. | (friends) |

In sentence 123 *have* is preceded by *them* in which case the students must have applied the principle of proximity. In 124 they make a common error, in that most of the students **fail** to select the appropriate verb form that agrees with the subject-here third person singular. The same problem repeatedly occurs in the next three sentences, i.e. 125, 126 and 127. This, in fact, is a serious problem for most of the English learners in Nepal.

No trace of language transfer can be pointed out in these cases. The inconsistent rules of the English grammar may be the sources of such errors. The researcher can tell from his own experience that such errors are most probably fossilized (cf. 4.3.181).

In sentences 128 and 129 the students **fail** to show a concord between adjectives and nouns. Consequently, the sentences are erroneous. The interference of Nepali is the sole cause of this **Problem** because the plural marker *haru* (*-s*, *-es*) is mainly re-

stricted to the formal form of Nepali. Phrases like of *these* kinds and two *friends* can be expressed in Nepali by dropping the haru element as *yasta kisimka* (< these kind-of) not *kisimheruka* (kinds-of); *duitā sāthī* (two friend) not *sāthīharu* (friends), etc. So these kinds of transfer are obvious here.

4.3.211. Errors in Pronouns: Discussion and Explanation

In the present study only one sentence was included for testing the use of pronouns. For example:

130. *T also tell *his* that I wouldn't have done that. (him)

In 130 in place of an object pronoun, *its* possessive form is used. This is not caused due to the transfer of rules from Nepali, but may be due to the lack of sufficient practice on the part of the learners and inadequate teaching on the *teachers'* part.

Apart from those errors obtained from the items designed in the test, the learners produced some erroneous sentences of their own. These *items*, though not very significant to draw statistical inference, are analysed under different heads like the following:

4.3.212. Errors in Prepositions: Discussion and Explanation

The following sentences under the above category are taken from the *students' responses* for analysis:

131. *Today my friend is asking to me *with* go to
 a doctor's clinic. (ø/to/a)
 132. *But he doesn't listen a any body. (to)
 133. *Dr. Sharma hasn't come a his clinic. (to)

There are three errors in sentence 131. First, the *insertion* of a superfluous *to*, secondly the use of *with* instead of *to* and thirdly, the omission of the article *a*. Similarly, the *preposition to* is dropped in sentences 131 and 132.

Sentence 131 shows an instance of the transfer from Nepali because the *preposition to* is taken for the case ending *lai* and

with for postposition *sita (with)*. But the other two sentences do not show any evidence of transfer. They might probably be caused due to **inadequate** learning.

4.3.213. **Errors in the Verbal Group: Discussion and Explanation**

The correct forms of the verbs in different tenses are discussed in section 4.3.17. The following examples show how far the students succeed in choosing the correct verb forms in their sentences.

134. *Today my friend ^ asking me to go with him. (is)
135. ***Today** my friend is ask me to go with him. (asking)
136. ***So** he ^ foolish to believe such people. (is)

Two types of error are noticed in the verbal group: dropping of the verb *be* and the choice of an inappropriate form of the main verb. In sentences 134 and 136 the *be* verb *is* dropped while in 135 the *-ing* form of the main verb in a progressive form **is** deleted.

The errors in 134 and 136 are developmental in nature and are caused because of the inadequate knowledge of the English language. However, sentence 135 shows a clear example of the transfer from Nepali because *ask* as an infinitive form of verb means *sodhnu* (to ask) in Nepali and needs *cha (is)* element for the formation of a sentence in the simple present tense. Thus, *is ask* becomes *sodhcha* (asks) while taken **literally**.

4.3.3. **Errors Obtained from Translation Test**

The third test given to the students is a translation test containing ten sentences in Nepali to be translated into English. There is a logical sequence in these sentences in order to make the information flow in an order. The full text of the translation test is given in Appendix 2. The three grammatical **items included in the test are:** direct speech, reported speech, and relative clauses. The **aim** of giving this test **is** to assess the errors that the students commit at the production level. **Dušková** (1969:26) claims that translation **into** and from a foreign **lan-**

guage can best display the "... basic difference between errors made on the production level, and those on the reception level." She further discusses the advantage of translation into foreign language as it can "... display errors in the well-formedness of the utterance, resulting from inadequate mastery of the foreign language" (op.cit.26). In addition to this, native habits, if any, transferred to foreign language learning can also be traced while analysing the data obtained from the translated sentences. The following table shows the error frequency and percentage in the items specified:

Table No. 16

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from translation test

S.No.	No.of	Items	Grammatical category	Frequency	Percentage
1	2		Reported speech	447	82.77
2	2		Relative clauses	408	75.55
3	6		Direct speech	910	56.17

The errors obtained from the three items given in the above table are analysed and explained below. While doing so, a hierarchical order in terms of error percentage is maintained.

4.3.31. Errors in Reported Speech: Discussion and Explanation

The types of errors noticed in this category are discussed with examples below-

Firstly, subject-verb inversion is found to be a serious problem for the students, e.g.

137. *He was asking why *didn't you* come to campus yesterday. (you didn't/today)
138. *He said, "*Did* he go to see *film* with *you?*"
(He said that he went to see a film with you.)

In the case of sentence 138, the student meant to say *He said that he had gone to see a film with you.*

Secondly, the errors are made in the selection of appropriate **tense**, in that they extensively make use of the present tense in the place of the past.

139. *He was asking why you *fawn't* come to campus. (didn't)
H0. *He said that he *has* gone to see a **film with** you. (had)

Thirdly, the errors are seen in the use of **inappropriate** conjunction that connects two clauses together, e.g.

141. *He asked **that** why are you ^ not come today. (ø/ø did)

Fourthly, the learners are found unable to distinguish between the **if-and that-clauses**, e.g.

142. *He told him *if* he went to ^ cinema **with** you. (that/had
gone/a/film)
143. *He asked me *whether* he had gone to see - cinema
with you. (said that/
a/film)

Sentences 142 and 143 are the two renderings of a single sentence. The use of reporting verbs, i.e. *told* and *asked* in them is inappropriate since the sentence to be translated does not require an object pronoun but a **that-clause**. The correct sentence would have been *He said that he had gone to see a film with you*. These verbs, *told* and *asked* require an object, but the students fail to observe it in the following sentence.

144. *He *told* that he had gone to see ^ **film with** you. (said/a)

In addition to the categories of the errors described above, students also produced several other problematic sentences, e.g.

145. *He said he had *went/was* gone **with** you
to watch a cinema. (gone/had film)
146. *He says ^ went to look the cinema. (he/see/a/film)
147. *He said that he went to saw a movie
with you. (to see)
148. *He was asked why *don't* you come to
campus. (P/you didn't)

149. ***Someone** asked you *that* why *didn't* you (ø/you didn't)
come to campus.

These sentences exhibit the **students'** problems **in** the areas such as verb phrases, **to-infinitive**, pronoun (subject omission), subject-verb **inversion**, superfluous use of *that*, omission or inappropriate selection of an article and the lexical item *cinema*.

Regarding the use of the present tense for the past in sentences 139 and H0, Duskova (1969) thinks it to be an error of '**performance**' because the learners take the present form as a basic form which they internalize first and make use of it when other forms are yet to be mastered. All other instances also seem to be due to the lack of proper application of grammatical rules. The use of *that* before a **wh-clause** as in 141 is also due to the generalization of the reported speech of the statements. The verbs *told* and *asked* are **inappropriately** used in H2 and H3. In Nepali, the verb *bhanyo* (*said/told*) can be used both for *said* and *told* while *sodhyo* is used for *asked*. Thus, **interchangeability** of *said* for *told* and vice versa is very likely to happen, but the reason for using *asked* for *said* in H2 is not known. The use of *if* or *whether* occurs analogously with the reported speech of the yes/no questions.

The problem of subject-verb inversion **in** 137 and 138 is related to the intricacy of the structure in the target language itself. However, the verbs in 145 *had vent* and ***was* gone** occur in analogy with the Nepali forms *gayeko_thiyo*, i.e. ***gone/vent+was***.

The omission of a pronoun or *that* + pronoun in H6 **is** unique. In colloquial Nepali the sentence can be **said** as "***u sinema gayeko thiye bhancha*** (he says went cinema). Therefore, it may be ascribed to the influence of Nepali. However, pronouns are not always omitted in **Nepali**. Similarly, the word *cinema* as in H2, 143, 145, 146 above **is** an **instance** of transfer from Nepali where it stands for *film*. Regarding the omission of an article in H0 and 144, and **the inappropriate** use of *it* in 146 **have** already been discussed in 4.3.1111.

The errors regarding the **to-infinitive** have already been discussed in 4.3.131 which result due to the **inadequate knowledge** of this form.

Sentences 148 and 149 are also Quite unusual. The use of pseudo or indefinite subject in 149 is not required at all. Though it is used analogously with the passive forms and shows a little more maturity in the language, the subordinate clause that follows is also not error-free.

Reported speech, especially of questions, is found equally difficult for all students irrespective of their previous schooling and language backgrounds. By comparing the error percentage of the present item with those of 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, it can be inferred that **it is** closer to the latter than the former.

4.3.32. Errors in Relative Clauses: Discussion and Explanation

Errors in the relative clauses exhibit two **features**: either the improper use of the relative pronouns or their omission, e.g.

150. *Your friend **Shyam** *which was yesterday with you*
also came here. (who was **with** you yesterday)
151. ***We** went to see Hanumandhaka - made by Man Dev. (which had
been)

Another obvious error related to the relative clauses is the superfluous use of pronouns in the following sentence:

152. *Your friend Shyam who *he* was with you yesterday,
he has come today also. (g/g)

The other errors noted down in this section are the use of the present tense for the past; the problem of word order; the omission of the auxiliary verbs. The following examples **will illustrate** all **these**:

153. ***Your** friend Shyam who *is* with you yesterday also
came today. (was)

154. ***We** visited Hanumandhoka which *is* built by **King**
 Man Dev. (had **been**)
155. ***your friend Shyam** *with* you yesterday who came today.
 (Your friend Shyam who was with you yesterday came today)
156. ***We** have gone to see Hanumandhoka which - made by King
 Man Dev. (had been)

It seems that the learners are not still clear regarding the use of relative pronouns which has been discussed in 4.3.113. The error percentage in this category compared with those of 4.3.1 and 4.3.2. is extremely high.

The use of a personal pronoun in sentence 152 further approves the claim that students do not know that relative pronouns replace the personal pronouns.

Regarding the explanation for replacing the past tense with the present, a possible cause has already been pointed out for the sentences 139 and 140 above. Word order is a problem for the learners of English **of** any level in Nepal. However, the omission of the **auxiliary** verb in sentence 156 may be because of the influence of the Nepali language in which the simple past tense and the past perfect tense are neutralized, also an auxiliary as in 155 may often be omitted without distorting the meaning.

4.3.33. **Errors in Direct Speech: Discussion and Explanation**

The errors in this category are further discussed and explained into two different sub-sections: direct questions and direct statements.

4.3.331. **Direct Questions**

The use of questions is not very normal in free writing. Therefore, three sentences are **included** in the present test to assess the **students'** ability to construct them through translation from Nepali **into** English. There are three questions - **two** are information seeking and one is yes/no type. Though these are

not treated separately, their positions **with** reference to the error percentages can be compared. Surprisingly enough, the error percentage in both types of questions is **equal, i.e. 62.96%**. This shows that the students have an equal degree of difficulty in framing both Information seeking and yes/no type of questions which is illustrated below:

157. *Ram asked Hari, "Where *he had gone* yesterday?" (did/you go)
 158. **Ram*asked, "What, you *dfdn't* go ^ watch ^ *cinema*?"
 (Ram asked, "Didn't you go to watch a film?")
 159. **Ram* asked. "Why you *don't* speak the truth?" (don't you)

Sentences 157, 158, 159 and 162 reveal that the subject-verb inversion rule has been a common problem for the learners. Two possible causes of such problems that yield error can be traced out. One is that they take question words themselves to be the starters of the questions, therefore, they don't feel it necessary to **invert** the auxiliaries present in their sentences. The other cause may be the lack of adequate exposure to them in question formation rules. However, **surprisingly**, they have observed this (subject-verb inversion) rule in sentences 160 through 167 except 162. The other common error, as discussed in 4.3.31, is remarked in the use of the present tense for the past in the following sentences:

160. **Hari*asked, "Where *have* you *gone* yesterday?" (Ram/did you go)
 161. *Ram asked, "*Have* you *gone* to see ^ *cinema* yesterday?" (Did you go/a/film)
 But, conversely, it is also noticed that the past tense is used where the simple present form is expected, e.g.
 162. **Ram* said, "Why you *didn't* tell the truth?" (don't you)

The other types of errors obtained from the corpora are shown in the following examples:

163. *"*Hari*, yesterday, where **did** you go?"
 ("*Hari*, where did you go *yesterday*?")
 164. **Ram* asked to *Hari*, "Where *had* you *gone* yesterday?" (ø/
did you go)

165. ***Hari** said, "Why aren't **you** speak the truth?" (don't)
 166. ***Ram** asked if he had gone to watch **cinema yesterday**.
 (Ram asked, "Didn't you go to watch a **film** yesterday?")
 167. ***Ram** said, "**Did** you vent to see the picture yesterday?" (go)

The misordering of the adverb *yesterday* in sentence 163 seems to be due to the influence of Nepali. The same **is** the case with the preposition of *to* in 164. In Nepali case marker *Jai (to)* is added to the object whereas **le (by)** is attached to the subject. The other reason may be that the learners mixed up *asked to* with *said to* very often encountered in the **direct** speech. In 165, they **failed** to supply a dummy operator *do*.

Reported speech given by the learners for a direct question is very unusual in 166. As the students are used to converting the direct speech into the indirect one, they might have thought of doing so while translating the given direct quote structures. The use of the past verb followed by the past auxiliary as in 167 is similar to the one explained for sentence 145 above.

4.3.332. **Direct Statements**

Errors in direct statements (quote sentences) are drawn from the three sentences given to the students for translation. The following types of errors are noticed **in** the corpora:

4.3.3321. **Use of the Reported Speech**

Instead of giving the translation of the direct statements, the students give the reported speech for them, e.g.

168. ***Hari** said that he hadn't gone anywhere.
 (Hari replied, "I didn't go anywhere".)
 169. ***Hari replied** that he had not gone.
 (Hari replied, "I didn't go anywhere.")
 170. ***At last Hari** said that he had gone to see the movie.
 (At last Hari said, "Yes, I had **gone** to see a film.")

4.3.3322. Use of the Present Tense for the Past

As observed in the earlier two sections, **1.e.** 4.3.31, **4.3.32**, the errors in the use of tenses are also noticed in this category, e.g.

171. *Hari replied, "I haven 't gone anywhere." (didn't go)
172. *"No, I *don 't*" answered Hari. (didn't)
173. *At last Hari said, "Yes, I have gone to see cinema." (had/a film)

4.3.3323. Use of Double Negative

The students used the double negative also, e.g.

174. *Hari answered, "I didn't go nowhere." (anywhere)

4.3.3324. Past Auxiliary with Past Verb

The learners used the past auxiliary with the past verb here similar to the one discussed in 4.3.31, **e.g.**

175. *Hari replied, "I *wasn 't went* anywhere." (didn't go)

It is quite clear that the sentences to be translated are in the quote statements and the learners are asked to translate them as they are but they supply the reported speech of the statements in question. Some of them are grammatically correct if they are treated as they actually are. These are, therefore, considered the learners' performance mistakes and, if asked, they can put them in the structures required.

Use of the present tense for the past has been referred to in 4.3.31 and 4.3.32, therefore, no further explanation is repeated here.

The use of double negative in sentence 174 is similar to the utterances produced by the children acquiring English as a first language and therefore, considered to be developmental in nature.

4.4. Errors Obtained from Word-Formation and Word Meaning Tests

A word is either an independent morpheme (smallest meaningful grammatical unit) or a root plus a derivational or an inflectional morpheme. For example, a word *teacher* is made up of a root *teach* plus a derivational morpheme *-er*. Similarly, the word *reads* consists of a root *read* and an inflectional morpheme *-s*. The basic difference between these two types of morpheme is that in most cases the former, when attached to the root word, changes its syntactic category while the latter does not.

Words are formed by adding the prefixes like *un-*, *dis-*, *en-*, *fr-*, *im-*, *il-*, etc. to the bases e.g. *unkind*, *disorder*, *enable*, */national*, *immature*, *illegal*, etc. Similarly, words are also formed by adding suffixes such as *-ful*, *-ness*, *-dom*, *-ment*, *-al*, etc. to bases, e.g. *handful*, *kindness*, *kingdom*, *development*, etc.

In the present study two tests were devised to assess the ability of the students to form words by adding affixes to the root words /bases and to explore the meanings of the words given in the contexts. This section deals with these tests.

4.4.1. Errors in Word-Formation

Errors in word-formation are discussed under the subsections like *prefixes* and *suffixes*.

4.4.1.1. Prefixes

Table Mo. 17

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from word-formation test with prefixes

S.No.	Items	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Disability	153	56.66
2.	In+capable	152	56.29
3.	Non-smoker	64	23.70
4.	Im+mature	58	21.48
5.	Il+legal	49	18.14
6.	Ir + rational	43	15.92

The above table shows the error frequency and error percentage in the formation of English words by adding the prefixes to the base forms or words. It seems that the learners have Interchanged prefixes like *in-* and *dis-* in the words *ability* and *capable*, respectively. The other prefixes chosen to affix to *ability* are *non-* and *ll-* but by a very few students. The prefix *non-* is also found affixed to *capable*.

Similarly, prefixes *in-* and *dis-* are affixed to the word *smoker* by the students who failed to match it with *non-*. Prefixes *non-* and *in-* are also found matched with *mature* while *dis-* to *legal* and *in-* to *rational* are added.

It is clearly seen that the students do not observe the rule of using the variants of *in-* such as *ll-*, *im-* and *ft-* before the words that begin with /l/, labials and /r/, respectively.

The words like **dislegal*, **ilability*, **imrational*, **non-mature*, **insmoker* and **ircapable* are the outcomes of the prefixes wrongly attached to the words given against them in the test.

The BSPs excel their counterparts in matching the prefixes with the root words/bases except for the word *dis+ability* while the NNSs better their counterparts in all the cases.

4.4.12. Suffixes

Table Mo. 18

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from word formation test with suffixes

S.No.	Items	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Happy + ness	205	75.92
2.	Arrive+al	100	37.03
3.	Mouth+ful	55	20.37
4.	Agreement	54	20.00
5.	Invent+ion	43	15.92
6.	King+dom	36	13.33
7.	Child+hood	34	12.59

The above table shows that the highest error frequency is in the word **happy+ness**. The majority of the students commit errors in the spelling rule of changing the **lettery** to / before a suffix. However, the selection of the suffix is quite appropriate. Only a few of the students have matched the base form **happy** with the suffix **hood** kept against it in the test.

The difference between the error frequency of the words **happy+ness** and **arrive+al** is very **wide**. Quite a few students match **arrive** with **-ion** also. Some of them do not delete the word-final vowel **e** while affixing the suffix **-al** to the root word.

For the rest of the words the students who committed errors opted for the suffixes given against each word in the test such as ***mouth+ment**, ***agree+ness**, ***invent+dom**, ***king+al** and ***child+ful**.

The BSPs exhibit better performance in affixing suffixes to their bases compared with their counterparts whereas the NNSs show their superiority to the NSs in four out of seven items tested.

Errors in this category are caused mainly due to the lack of knowledge in students of the vowel deletion rule while affixing suffixes to the root words or bases. But it is also **inferred** from the errors that students do not have adequate exposure to word-formation rules.

Affixes exist in Nepali and are frequently used. But the students who **failed** to add proper prefixes to the words exhibit their partial knowledge in the English word-formation rules, but not the transfer from Nepali.

4.4.2. Errors in Word Meaning

Six vocabulary items for the present study were selected randomly from the English text books, namely **English Reactors** for grades IX and X of Nepal. These items were used in different

sentences with Tour distractors. The students were instructed to choose the word/phrase that was the closest in meaning to the word/phrase underlined in each sentence. The following table presents the vocabulary items with their error frequencies and percentages obtained from the test.

Table Mo. 19

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from word meaning test

S.No.	Words/Phrases	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Celebrate	95	35.18
2.	Incredible	85	31.48
3.	Abroad	60	22.22
4.	Inaccessible	38	14.07
5.	Settle down	16	5.92
6.	Pounced	8	2.96

The above table shows that the two words - *celebrate* and *incredible* are comparatively more difficult than the rest. In the case of the word *celebrate*, the majority of the students, who fail to choose the correct alternative, opt for *mourn* which is quite unusual. Similarly, the word *terrible* is chosen by **24.8%** of the students for the word *incredible*. The word *abroad* is found to be confused with *boarding the plane*, therefore, 17.77% of the people ticked the alternative ***inside*** the plane for it. The word *attainable* for *inaccessible* is chosen by 8.145% of the students.

The **BSPs'** performance is comparatively better than that of the PSPs whereas the NNSS excel their **counterparts**.

The most probable source of errors in word meaning is the lack of adequate exposure of the students to it.

4.5. Errors Obtained from Reading Comprehension (Cloze) Test

Oiler (1973:92) defines cloze test as "One of the most promising types of **integrative** skills tests which has been proposed for measuring either achievement or proficiency **in** foreign language or second language situations". It was first used **with**

the native speakers by Taylor (1953) to assess the difficulty of the reading materials. Though there are differences among the scholars in respect of the exact nature of a cloze test, it **is** a **test** in which every *n*th word is deleted so that the subjects may test their "... linguistic knowledge, textual knowledge and knowledge of the world" (Cohen 1980:97) in order to refurbish the text by filling in the words deleted.

Richards et al. (1985) assume it to be a technique for measuring reading comprehension. However, Alderson (1979b) finds it more a grammar and vocabulary test than reading comprehension. Similarly, Madsen (1983:47) regards it as an "integrative" test used to assess the overall language proficiency.

A wider perspective of the cloze test is discussed by Porter (1983:63) who mentions it "... to be a means of assessing the ability to use the various discourse constraints ranging over a text in order to set up and then confirm or modify linguistic predictions; this ability is widely held to be a characterizing component of general proficiency in a language." Though these features of the cloze test are appropriate in order to call it an integrative test, he hesitates to do so on the theoretical ground.

The purpose of the present study is not to discuss the theories behind the cloze test but to put it into practice following the procedures suitable in the present context.

It is generally agreed that there are two types of cloze test or method of deleting words: the **fixed ratio method**, in which every *n*th word from the test is deleted, and the **variable ratio method**, in which the words are deleted from the text depending upon the variables decided to be tested.

The scoring of the cloze test is done in **five** different ways: They are: counting (a) **exact words** (b) **synonymous words** (c) **semantically acceptable words** (d) **identical form class words** (e) **any grammatically correct word** regardless of **form** class, function, or meaning. However, Madsen (1983:50) suggests two ways of

scoring the cloze test - the **exact word method**, i.e. counting the words that were deleted from the text, and the **acceptable word method**, i.e. counting the words that are grammatically and semantically acceptable in the given context.

For the purpose of the present study, three texts (one paragraph for each) containing 226 words were written and the **fixed ratio method** was applied, i.e. every fifth word was deleted. For scoring, as Oiler (1973:193) suggests, the **acceptable word method** was used. It so happened after deleting every fifth word from the texts that there were totally 44 slots comprising of both content and function words to be filled in by the students (see Appendix 2). Table No. 9 above shows the categories and the number of items included in each category.

After scoring the test, the following error frequencies and error percentages are obtained. The items are put in a hierarchical order from the highest to the lowest error percentages.

Table Mo. 20

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from reading comprehension (cloze) test

S.No.	Function words	Fre- quency	Percen- tage	Content words	Fre- quency	Percen- tage
1.	Auxiliary Verbs	394	72.96	Verbs	1577	58.40
2.	Articles	823	60.96	Nouns	800	49.38
3.	Conjunctions	822	60.88	Adjectives	251	46.48
4.	Pronouns	867	40.13	Adverbs	228	42.22
5.	Prepositions	375	34.72			
Total		3281	50.63		2856	52.88

Table No.20 shows that students find function words comparatively less difficult than the content words. Porter (1983: 70) reports that in comparison to the function words, content words are more difficult to predict, even for the native speakers and "... four times as difficult to predict exactly for non-natives". The present study, though does not show that kind of wide difference between these word groups, confirms his findings.

What follows is a discussion and explanation of the errors obtained from the cloze test. The performance of the **BSPs** excel their counterparts in all the items tested. Similarly, **NNSS** excel the **NSs** in all the items but two, **i.e.** articles and nouns.

4.5.1. Function Words: Discussion and Explanation

Richards et al. (1985:61) define function words as those words "... which have little meaning on thier own, but which show grammatical **relationships** in and between **sentences** (**grammatical meaning**)."

Conjunctions, auxiliaries, prepositions, pronouns, articles, etc. are included under function words.

The errors in the function words are further discussed into the above five categories.

4.5.11. Errors in Auxiliary Verbs

Errors in the auxiliary verbs rank the first position with **72.96%**, which are obtained from the two slots to be filled in by the students. The two sentences given in the test are:

176. *She feared that she _____ be dismissed. (could,would,might)

may
will
was
has
can
leave
go
and
to, etc.

177. *The prices _____ very high but the people bought the things they need. are (were)

is
was
of, etc.

Since sentence 176 is in the past tense, a choice of the present form of the verb is contextually not acceptable. Though a

past modal is required to be filled in the slot, the students choose both modals (not appropriate) and non-modals. In addition, they also choose words belonging to other categories like prepositions, conjunctions and nouns as well.

In sentence 177 a past plural auxiliary is required. However, the students, in addition to the present auxiliaries like *is* and *are*, choose prepositions (*of*), main verbs (*became*, *raises*), adverbs (*very*, *always*) adjectives (*more*, *much*), etc. Quite a few students have opted for phrases **like** *of these are*, *of the thing*, etc. too.

Causes of errors in the auxiliaries, though discussed in the section **4.3.111**, are due to the inadequate learning on the part of the learners.

4.5.12. Errors in Articles

Errors in the articles are very common among the learners of English and especially for those whose native languages do not have these. Articles occupy the second highest rank yielding **60.96%** errors in the cloze test. The typical examples obtained from the students' corpora are given here:

178. ***The** people of Japan stand as _____ example of it. (an)

the
for
a
independent
Mt. Everest, etc.

179. *Sita worked hard from the early morning
to _____ late evening. (the)

very
every
until
till
sleep, etc.

180. *She decided to quit____job for ever and become____village school teacher. (the/a)

<i>a</i>	<i>t/10</i>
<i>for</i>	<i>as</i>
<i>from</i>	<i>in</i>
<i>leave, etc.</i>	<i>good, etc.</i>

Through the examples 178-180 above, it can clearly be **seen** that the students frequently interchange the definite and the indefinite articles because of their inadequate knowledge or the lack of native-like **intuition** pertaining to the use of English articles. However, it is surprising to find that they have replaced articles with prepositions, verbs, pronouns, determiners, **intensifiers**, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc.

While explaining for the possible causes of such errors, **Duškova** (1969:19) rightly **observes**: "... the use of the definite article instead of the indefinite or the zero article is probably due to interference between the various functions of the articles themselves" (1969:19). However, the use of other grammatical items in place of articles may be ascribed to the transfer of language rules from Nepali, since it does not have an article system (Sthapit 1978:603) and the students opted for other possible items.

4.5.13. Errors in Conjunctions

The examples of errors in conjunctions given below exhibit that the students replace conjunctions with nouns, verbs, prepositions, adverbs, pronouns, determiners, etc.

181. *His father asked him____they were laughing. (why)
- that*
when
and, etc.

182. *She couldn't say anything against the shopkeeper
____she feared that she would be dismissed. (because)
- but*
so
and
then, etc.

183. "One day she asked him for leave _____ the shopkeeper
wouldn't allow her to take any. (but)
shop
to
from
job, etc.

This category yields 60.88% errors. This shows that conjunctions are equally problematic for the learners of English even at this level. The errors in this category may be caused due to the inadequate learning on the part of the students.

4.5.14. Errors in Pronouns

In the present test personal, relative, possessive and **indefinite** pronouns such as *he, she, they, who, his, their, and anything* are included. In order to complete the **items** in this category, an understanding of a simple definition of pronoun, i.e. a word used in place of a noun or a noun group - is enough. Pronouns too, **with** a record of **40.13%** errors, are not less problematic for the **students** at this level.

The students used nouns, articles, verbs, **prepositions**, adjectives, conjunctions and even the phrases like *his son and daughter*, and clauses **like** *why they were laughing* instead of pronouns **in** sentences 184 through 186. The following examples show the words with the higher error frequency.

184. ***When** he came **back**, _____ told the story to his elder brother
and younger sisters. (he)
and
home
to, etc.

185. ***He** told the story to his elder brother and younger sisters
_____ also joined **him in** laughing. (who)
are
they
and
he
she
his son
an, etc.

186. ~~Without asking~~ _____ to anyone she began to **laugh**. (anything)
question
him
reason
stories
them
why
 no *question*, etc.

In sentence 184 the conjunction **and** and the noun *home* do not fit in the slot. The same is the case with the preposition *to*. None of the words **filled** in sentence 185 fits in the context since the slot requires the relative pronoun *who*. The words *question* and *reason* require a preceding article in sentence 186 while the pronouns *him* and *them* do not make any sense. The word *stories* may be acceptable, but **Bhanu** is simply telling a story only.

It is inferred from the above examples that the errors in pronouns in this section are caused due to inadequate learning.

4.5.15. Errors in Prepositions

Errors in prepositions rank the last in the category of function words yielding **39.21%** errors. In place of prepositions, the students have used articles, **conjunctions**, verbs, pronouns, adverbs and nouns, etc. The following examples are **illustrative**:

187. *People must work hard _____ develop their country. (to)
for
in, etc.

188. *The shopkeeper made Sita work hard _____ the early (from)
 morning to the late evening.
in
since
open
get up, etc.

The two prepositions used in sentence 187 need a participle form of the verb to follow them in a given context. The preposition *in*, which has the highest error frequency in 188, is chosen to replace *from* in order to express the duration of **time**. The

position of *since* **in** the same sentence is not compatible **with** the context but the students may have used it in analogy **with** the Nepali *dekhi* (from). In other cases it **is** the lack of clarity regarding the use of English prepositions that causes them commit errors **in this** category.

4.5.2. Errors in Content Words: Discussion and Explanation

Richards et al. (1985:61) define content words as those words "... which refer to a thing, quality, state, or action and which have meaning (*lexical meaning*) when the words are used alone." Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are **included** under content words.

Errors in content words are discussed and explained in this section under the following four categories.

4.5.21. Errors in Verbs

Errors in verbs contain 58.40% in all. A careful analysis of the words chosen by the students to **fill** in the ten slots shows that they do not have a reasonably good knowledge of the English verb system. The following examples **give** a clear picture of **it**:

189. *Bhanu went to _____ a film. (see/watch)

saw
look
watched, etc.

190. *The shopkeeper wouldn't _____ her to take any. (allow/permit)

let
leave
be
gave, etc.

191. *Bhanu's mother came in and _____ everyone laughing. (saw)

see
watched
started
them
seeing, etc.

192. *He told the story to his elder brother and younger sisters who also joined him in _____. (laughing)

story
laugh
enjoying
family
happy, etc.

Sentence 189 requires an infinitive form of the verb. Though the selection of the verb, e.g. **saw** and *watched* is alright, the past forms are not acceptable. The verb *look* does not fit in the context. Similarly, none of the verbs given in sentences 190 through 192 is fit to be used in the slots given. The use of function words on the one hand and other **inappropriate** content words on the other shows that students may not have adequate exposure to the use of English verbs as in the given contexts.

4.5.22. Errors in Nouns

The vocabulary **items** expected in this section are very common and occur in day-to-day use such as people, citizens, lesson, owner, shopkeeper, etc. However, 49.38% error yield of **this** category **indicates** that the students find a problem here, too. The following examples exhibit the types of errors they **commit** in nouns:

193. *The _____ of Japan stand as an example of it. (people)

country
people's
development
developed, etc.

194. *___mother came in and saw everyone laughing. (**Bhanu's/His**)

And
When
Their's, etc.

195. *Sita worked in a _____ selling household goods. (shop)

small
hard
goods, etc.

For the given slot in sentence 193 above the word *development* may be acceptable but **it** does not agree **with** the plural verb (***stand***) in the sentence. The word *people* without a possessive 's can be the right choice.

In 194 *and* and *when* require an **independent** clause to follow or precede them. The words *small* and *hard* in 195 are adjectives and require a noun to be followed, but on the contrary, the students have made an awkward choice of *goods*.

The errors in nouns reveal two things. One is that the students do not have adequate knowledge of the English sentence structure and the other is that they lack the stock of vocabulary required of them.

4.5.23. Errors in Adjectives

Errors in adjectives are recorded 46.48* in this test. The following sentences exhibit the words chosen by the students which have relatively higher **frequencies**:

196. *All the _____ countries should learn a
lesson from Japan. (developing)
undevelop
people
develop
world, etc.

197. ***People** from **diferent** places came there to buy foodstuffs
and many of _____ goods. (household, useful, other, etc)
of
things
kind
kinds
are, etc.

Participial forms of *undevelop* and *develop* are needed in sentence 196 to make them **fit in** the given context. A large number of adjectives are formed by adding *-ed* or *-ing* suffixes to the transitive verbs, **with** a few **exceptions**; and have a passive

meaning. Students do not seem to have observed **this** rule. The other two words do not **give** any sense **in** the sentence. In 197 none of the words supplied makes any sense. The errors **in this** category occur due to the **incomplete** knowledge of the students in the formation of adjectives from verbs, nouns and even from adverbs. It is also obvious that they lack appropriate adjectives needed in the context **like in** 197.

4.5.24. Errors **in** Adverbs

In the present test adverbs of degree **like** *very, really, quite, etc.* are required. A knowledge of **intensifier** (submodifiers) - words which may function as a modifier of an adjective or of another adverb to make it more emphatic, e.g. *very, completely, etc.* is also required. The following examples are given to see whether the students find the appropriate adverbs of degree required **in** the given **contexts**:

198. *Bhanu went to see a film which was _____ funny. (very/quite)
a
about
real
like
much, etc.

199. *They developed their country in a _____ short period of time. (very)
develop
few
quiet, etc.

Students supplied articles, prepositions and adjectives for adverbs. Sentences 198, 199, show the excessive use of adjectives. It may be that they are confused between adjectives and adverbs. Therefore, these errors seem to be **intralingual in** nature and caused due to **inadequate** exposure of the students to the English adverbs.

4.6. Errors Obtained from Writing Test

This section presents a description and analysis of the errors committed by the students in their written compositions. The importance of free writing for error analysis has been stressed by the error analysts such as Dušková (1969), Schachter (1974), etc. The learners get freedom in the selection of lexis and structures, though there still remains the possibility of avoidance. In the present study, as mentioned in chapter three, four topics were given to the students to write an essay on any of them in about 150 words. Familiar topics of general interest were selected for this purpose. The following table presents the number and percentage of the students in the selection of the topics for essay writing.

Table No. 21

Frequency and percentage of the topics chosen for writing test

S.N.	Topics given for essay writing	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Your village or town	114	42.22
2.	Your aim in life	95	35.19
3.	An unforgettable event in your life	37	13.70
4.	How did you spend your winter vacation?	24	8.89
Total		270	100.00

The above table shows that the majority of the students have opted for the topic - *Your village or town* - that they are familiar with and is descriptive in nature which follows the imaginary topic *Your aim in life*. The selection of language structures and lexis largely depends upon the topic of the essay chosen. This study is not an exception to it. The lexis and structures chosen by the learners for composition reflect the level of their linguistic competence. After a careful scrutiny of the compositions, it is found that the students used between 100 to 250 words in their writings. In this section, a careful analysis of those sentences that can be repaired is presented. There are some sentences that contain more than four or five types of error. All these errors are taken into account in their respective

categories as shown in table No. 22 below. Punctuation errors are not **included** in the present study. However, spelling errors get a treatment here because many writers **give** more **importance** to them as they make the sentences unintelligible. Since the study is limited to the sentence level analysis of errors only, textual analysis is not taken **into** consideration. Thus, only the errors on grammatical items, lexis and spelling obtained from the written compositions are analysed in this section. Keeping the analysis of errors in the previous sections in **view**, in which the **BSPs** excel their PSP counterparts in most **items**, such a comparison is not focused in **this** section. Similarly, no such comparison whatsoever between the written performance of NSs and NNSs **is made** here. Therefore, irrespective of schooling and mother tongue backgrounds, all the students are treated as a single group in this section. The following table displays the frequency and percentage of errors obtained under each category.

Table No. 22

Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from writing test

S.N.	Error category	Frequency	Percentage
Grammatical errors			
1.	Articles	827	16.95
2.	Tense and verbal groups	739	15.15
3.	Prepositions	587	12.03
4.	Plurality	455	9.33
5.	Subject-verb agreement	198	4.06
6.	Pronouns	134	2.75
7.	Word-order	77	1.58
8.	Clauses	70	1.43
9.	Gerund/ to-infinitive	55	1.13
10.	Conjunctions	51	1.04
11.	Adjectives	42	0.86
12.	Possessives	31	0.64
13.	Subject deletion	25	0.51
14.	Adverbs	20	0.41
	Orthographic (Spelling) errors	912	18.70
	Lexical errors	655	13.43
Total		4878	100.00

The table above shows that spelling errors yield the highest error frequency whereas adverbs, the lowest. Similarly, articles, and tense and verbal groups rank top first and second **positions**, respectively in the error frequency under the head grammatical category. The following description and analysis shows the types and nature of errors and their sources in each category.

4.6.1. Grammatical Errors

The grammatical errors divided into 14 different categories are as follows:

4.6.11. Errors in Articles

The errors under this category are further classified into the following way:

i. Omission of the Definite Article

- 200. * ^ English language is a(n) **international** language. (The)
- 201. *I want to serve ^ nation. (the)
- 202. * ^ **main** occupation of the villagers is agriculture.(The)

ii. Omission of the Indefinite Articles

- 203. *I went to see ^ film. (a)
- 204. ***I** live in ^ small village. (a)
- 205. *So it is ^ undevelop (ed) village. (an)
- 206. ***Whenever** anybody ask (s) me to tell about -
unforgettable event in my life... (an)

iii. Wrong Use of the Definite Article

- 207. ***When** I become *the* forest officer, I (will) try to
develop. (a)
- 208. ***I** live in *the* village. (a)
- 209. *I shall surely **service(work)** in *the* industry. (an)

iv. Wrong Use of the Indefinite Articles

- 210. ***There** is a small stream near a village. (the)
- 211. *She was of a same class and level that I was
going to begin. (the)
- 212. ***They** can't (be) able to give **a** doctor('s) fee. (the)
- 213. ***In** a future, I want to open the eyes of
uneducated people. (the)

v. Use of the Indefinite Article *an* for *a* and the Vice Versa.

214. *Nepal is *a* agricultural country. (an)
215. *I have taken *a* aim in life. (an)
216. *When I become *an* forester, I will save
and protect the forest. (a)
217. *My aim in life is to be *a* engineer. (an)

vi. Superfluous Use of the Definite Article

218. "It lies between *the* Raipur and Hattiya. (Ø)
219. *The unknown citizens change into *the* good. . . (Ø)

vii. Superfluous Use of the Indefinite Articles

220. *There are no facilities of *an* electricity
and phone. (Ø)

The hypothesis made in 4.3.1111, that the articles can be the most problematic grammatical items for the Nepalese learners since they do not exist in Nepali, is confirmed in this section as the articles come up here with the highest error frequency. It may also be the reason that the majority of the errors in articles crop up because they are omitted. This omission of articles is ascribed to the transfer of the Nepali language habits. Dulay et al. (1982) exemplify that the omission of articles reveals that the learners are still in the developmental stage. While the other errors in articles are attributed to the limited exposure of the learners to the target language.

4.6.12. Errors in the Tense and Verbal Group

The second largest error frequency occurs in the use of tenses and verbal groups. The description and classification of the errors in tenses and verb groups will be done separately in what follows';

4.6.121. Errors in Tenses

Errors in tenses are classified in the following way:

i. Use of the Present Tense for the Past

221. *We again went to Birgunj as my father has
some business. (had)

ii. Use of the Present Tense for the Future

222. *I give first priority for (to) their thinking. (will give)

iii. Use of the Past Tense for the Present

223. *I *couldn't* forget the bad evidence (incident). (can)

iv. Use of the Past Perfect for the Simple Past

224. *Tomorrow (the next day) (my) father and mother
had taken (me) to hospital at Birgunj. (took)

v. Use of the Past Continuous for the Simple Past

225. *The heavy weight (load) which was falling from the
ceiling... (fell)

vi. Use of the Future Tense for the Past

226. *I will go to campus... (went)

vii. Use of the Present Continuous for the Simple Present

227. *In leisure time, I am going (to) CC. (Computer Centre) (go)

xi. Use of the Past Tense for the Habitual Tense

228. *I always went. (go)

229. *Everyday, I remembered... (remember)

ix. Use of the Present Continuous for the Present Perfect

230. *...our class is starting. (has started)

4.6.122. Errors in Verbal Groups

Several types of errors in the verbal group are recorded. They are classified into the following way.

i. Omission of the Main Verbs

231. *My target will ~ near... (be)
232. *I will - (a) job in the school. (get)

ii. Misformation of the Next Verb

233. *How could we farming? (farm)
234. *I will helps_____ (help)
235. *If I can solved. (solve)
236. *It has becomes 25 days. (become)
237. *I was fall from the ladder. (fell)
238. *I didn't ventured... (venture)
239. *The truck will ranaway. (run)

iii. Omission of the Be Verbs

240. *The village had ~ able to see the light, water and
a small (narrow) road from the highway. (been)
241. *I ~ always attracted by... (was)

iv. Inappropriate Selection of the Verb

242. *I make an engineer. (will be)

v. Omission of **Do** in Negative Sentences

243. *Health post fsn 't help my village. (does)
244. *The event is not taken too much time. (didn't take)

vi. Incorrect Use of the Causative Verbs

245. *One's aim will make man reached upto point of
success. (reach)
246. *He made us to take... (0)

vii. Superfluous Use of the Be Verbs

247. *My village is lies... (lies)
248. *Many students are went. 188 (went)

249. ***People** *ere* used water. (use)
 250. "Vehicles *are run* on the road. (run)
 251. ***These** factories *are destroyed* climate. (destroy)
 252. ***We** *were enjoyed* **very** much. (enjoyed)
 253. ***I** *was* become school first. (**became**)

viii. Misordering of the Verb

254. * *People's each other discuss...*
 (People discuss with each other.)

ix. Be for Have and Vice Versa

255. "There *have* a lack of transport. (**is**)
 256. ***The** event *is* not taken too much time. (has)
 257. ***Our** village *is* no school. (has)

x. Omission of -s, -es, -ed and -ing Suffixes

258. *I *was* so surprise. (surprised)
 259. "After *reached* Besi my father had forgotten... (reaching)
 260. *After *passes* **B.Sc.** I will read (study) **M.Sc.** (passing)
 261. ***Man** *want* to live freely with (in) good
 environment. (wants)

x1. Be + Verb (the Present form) for the Simple Present

262. *Shree **Atmabodh** school *is stay* at the top
 of **this** place. (lies)
 263. ***Our** village *is develop* very fast. (developing)

The majority of the total errors in this section come under the change of the one tense into another which corresponds to the 30.37% of tense-related errors in the multiple choice tests discussed in section 4.3.171. Errors attributed to the deletion of the verbs take the second position in this category. On the one hand there is an omission of the verbs (auxiliaries and the main) while on the other there is a superfluous use of the auxiliaries.

The use of the present tense for the past and vice versa as discussed in other test-results analysed earlier, has been recorded here, too. In the present case the use of the present tense is found exceeding to other tenses. It is also seen that

students feel **comfortable** using the progressive aspect rather than the **non-progressive** and perfective. The data also reveal that verbs are either **misformed** or omitted or inappropriately used.

The **inconsistency** noticed in the use of the present continuous tense for the habitual one in section 4.3.171 and for the past in the present test shows the **inadequate** knowledge of the students in English tenses. The excessive use of progressive aspect is developmental in nature because children also **make** use of it in place of the **non-progressive** aspect.

Omission of verbs and **inflections** are also attributed to developmental errors. However, the **misordering** of the verbs as in 4.6.122.viii seems to be an instance of language transfer, as it resembles the ordering of the Nepali sentence structure, **i.e.** (SOV). Similarly, the **misformation** of the verbs in 4.6.122.11 is also attributed to the influence of Nepali. **Gautam** (1990:62) also lends confirmation to **this** study that the word-order **aux+V** stem for **with/without** -s morpheme is the result of the influence of the Nepali structures. However, the use of the past verbs after the auxiliaries in the present case creates a new problem. This phenomenon cannot be ascribed to the argument mentioned above. This misformation of the verbs is difficult to explain. But the use of the past auxiliary followed by a past verb as in 4.6.122.vli corresponds to the use of the present auxiliaries followed by a present verb in the same. These examples can be said to be the **instances** of language transfer. Rest of the errors like the use of the past form of the verb and **to-infinitive** after the causative verbs are caused due to the inadequate application of rules.

4.6.13. Errors in Prepositions

Three major types of error are recorded in the compositions of the students - omission, superfluous use, and replacement of one preposition with another. These are exemplified below:

i. Omission of the Prepositions

264. *I hope I **will** pass ^ (the) first division. (ln)
265. *My village ls ^ Gorkha district. <ln)
266. *I called my best friend to go ^ Pokhara. (to)
267. *When I pass M.Sc. I **will** return ^ my village. (to)
268. *There aren't any facilities - anything. (of)
269. *Other people accused my father ^ murdering. (of)
270. *Besides, we have to **wait** - 3-4 hours. (for)
271. *I was patiently waiting - the bus. (for)
272. *I am studying - PN campus in the Education faculty. (at)
273. *But I met people who were looking ^ (the) dead body
lying on the ground. (at)
274. *When we travel ^ one place to another, we can
learn so many things. (from)
275. *I passed the **SLC** Exams ^ **57%** marks. (**with**)

The other prepositions **with** one or two frequencies which are also omitted are: *by, off, into, after, about, on, and against*.

ii. Superfluous Use of the Prepositions

276. *I will help *in* (the) farmers and village people.(?)
277. *I enjoy *fn* teaching English. (?)
278. *I will help *to* them to open a cottage **industry**. (?)
279. *We use *to* well and streamwater. (?)
280. *We all *of* were tired. (?)
281. "In **future**, *of* my aim is (to) be a good English
teacher. (?)
282. *I love *with* my village. (?)
283. *Now I am reading **IA** first year *with*
taking social service. (?)
284. *We reached *at* Pokhara early *ln* the morning. (?)
285. *We reached *at* the picnic spot *at* **8** a.m. (?)
286. *Foreign people come there and enjoy *from*
these things. (?)
287. *My village (**is**) *from* *near* the secondary
school. (?)

The other prepositions used **superfluously** are *on, by, about* and *of* with error frequencies of 4,3,2, and 1, **respectively**.

iii. One Preposition Replaced with Another

- a. *fn* for *on*

288. *In the first day, I reached there....

289. *In 10 Poush 2049, I went to see my maternal uncle in Dailekh.

b. in for to

290. *So I returned in my village in Syangja.

291. *That is why I have given higher priority in it.

c. on for in

292. *It lies on Gandaki zone and Kaski district.

293. *They work hard on their fields.

d. for for to

294. *I give first priority for the thinking.

295. *we should give improved seeds for the farmers.

e. at for in

296. "At the evening, the day became cloudy and it started raining.

297. *A small health post is established by the villager(s) at the village.

f. in for at

298. *In that time, it was a green, (and) beautiful valley.

299. *So I am reading (studying) in (the) Institute of Engineering (at) Pulchowk Campus.

g. at for on

300. *I met all my friends at (the) first day.

301. *~~At~~that day, I was very happy to visit Pokhara.

h. for for fn

302. *It is rich for natural resources.

303. *My village (has) fallen behind for the development...

There are 55 other instances in which one preposition is replaced with another. However, 31 of them have a single frequency similar to the ones which Dušková (1969:15) calls nonce mistakes. Of the 587 errors in the use of prepositions, 233 are omitted by the learners which Burt et al. (1982:155) attribute to the developmental errors. However, the errors in sentences 288, 290, and 300 seem to result due to the influence of Nepali because the Nepali equivalence for the prepositions like *in*, *at*, *on* to refer to both the time and space only *ma* is used. Therefore, the learners are found interchanging these prepositions freely as in the case of sentences in a, c, e, f, and g above. This claim can be justified by translating these sentences into Nepali. In the case of the superfluous use of the **prepositions**, the errors may be ascribed to inadequate exposure of the students to them.

4.6.14. Errors in Plural Formation

Errors in this section refer to the morphological problems and basically of inflectional in nature. Therefore, they are classified in the following ways:

i. Omission of **-s**, **-es** Suffixes

e.g. farmer(s), village(s), bus(es), etc.

ii. Plural Modifiers for Singular Nouns

e.g. many event, all patient, etc.

iii. Pluralized Uncountable Nouns

e.g. transportations, sceneries, etc.

iv. Superfluous Plurals

e.g. peoples, childrens, etc.

Of the total 455 errors in this category 399 (that is. 87.69%) fall under the /above in which plural markers, i.e. -s, -es are omitted. Similarly, // is also an instance of the plural marker deletion. Burt et al. (1982:165) put them under developmental errors, since they are similar to the ones made by the children acquiring English as their first language. The errors under /// and fv result due to the **overgeneralization** of the previously learned rules. It shows that the learners have not yet mastered the rules of **pluralization** in English.

4.6.15. Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement

The following types of errors are found in this category:

i. Surrogate Subject There Followed by a Singular/Plural Noun Group

304. *There are a large jungle... (is)

305. *There is two market days. (are)

ii. Here Followed by a Singular/Plural Noun Group

306. *Here is so many villages... (are)

307. *Here are lack of new kinds of seed. (is)

iii. Plural Verbs for Singular Subjects

308. *Someone ~~have~~ high and someone have low aim. (has/has)

309. *It pollute - environment. (-s)

310. *Every programme are started. (is)

iv. Singular Verbs and Plural Subjects

311. *The villagers ~~doesn~~'t need to walk... (do)

312. *Many people has gone to worship... (have)

Of the total errors, 75, that is 37.87%, fall under section 4.6.15. / and //above, which must have resulted due to the learners' failure to observe as Sinclair (1992:711) states: "... a singular form of be in front of a singular noun group, and a plural form in front of a plural noun group."

The omission of -5 in the present form of the verb in sentence 309 is a common problem in the learners caused due to the incomplete application of rules for subject-verb agreement, and the same cause applies with sentences 311, and 312, too. The subjects like *someone* and *every* in 308 and 310 are confusing because they "... even puzzle the native speakers" (Celce-Murcia et al. 1983:37). These inherently difficult items are naturally more difficult for the foreign language learners.

4.6.16. Errors in Pronouns

The following types of errors are noticed in the use of pronouns:

1. Omission of Pronouns

313. *Therefore I determined to be (an) agricultural
scientist before ^ passed the SLC. • (I)
314. *They asked ^ about our visit. (us)
315. *Then "came back. (he)

11. Use of Pronouns without Antecedents

316. *When I join the village campus, I will go and
talk to *their* parent(s). (students')
317. **They* must go in practical in *daily life*.
(Engineers must go to the practical field in their daily life.)

111. Superfluous Use of Pronouns

318. *There are no hospital(s) *their*. (ø)
319. ""There are no road(s) to reach our every home. (ø)

iv. Use of Subject Pronouns for Object Pronouns

320. *All of ~~we~~ come to our own houses. (us)

v. Problem of Concord

321. *Someone is also working for *their* bright
future. (his/her)

322. *Everybody has (a) different aim in *their* life. (his/her)

vi. Misformation of Reflexive Pronouns

323. *People from village come to (perform) the Pooja and
take *themselves* holy ... (themselves)

324. *The picnic was organized by *ourselves*. (ourselves)

The omission of a pronoun in the situations given in sentences 313 through 315 cannot be the instances of transfer from Nepali. Therefore, such errors are attributed to inadequate learning. The use of pronouns without antecedent subjects as in sentences 316 and 317 is a very acute problem in the writing of the Nepali learners of English. All the remaining examples given in this section are the results of inadequate exposure to English pronouns and are developmental in nature.

4.6.17. Errors in Word Order

Errors in word order are classified into the following ways:

i. Subjects Wrongly Ordered

325. *But *ft* will tell future.
(...future will tell it.)

326. *It can be taken my *village* as a good *village*.
(My village can be taken as a good village).

ii. Direct Objects Wrongly Ordered

327. **I will serve a lot the country.*
(I will serve the country a lot.)

328. **It is necessary to make a village school.*
(... to make (a) school (in) a village.)

iii. Indirect Objects Wrongly Ordered

329. **I haven't let to see her.*
(I haven't let her see.)

330. **We don't allow to read them.*
(We don't allow them to read.)

iv. Verbs Wrongly Ordered

331. **Many foreign country tourists come.*
(Many tourists come (from) foreign country (countries).)

332. **One of them my village is Deurali.*
(One of them is my village called Deurali.)

v. Head of the Noun Phrase Wrongly Ordered

333. **And the district of my name is...*
(The name of my district is...)

334. **Different region of people. .*
(People of different region(s)...

There are quite a few instances of the fronting of verb complement (... *this moment, I can't forget in my life*); **misordering** of subject-verb (... *and side of its a...*); fronting of the verb phrase (*learn to few things we had must...*), etc. Such errors are nonce only. The instances of verbs shifted after the objects as in sentences 331 and 332 are attributed to the **influ-**

ence of Nepali because of **its** SOV order. If the examples given **in** sentences 333 and 334, are translated they also resemble the Nepali patterns giving one a room to confirm that they are the instances of language transfer. The errors from 4.6.17 1 to 111 seem to be resulted due to the lack of adequate exposure of **the** students to the word order in English.

4.6.18. Errors in Clauses

It is found from the data that students have some difficulty in the clause structures of English. Mainly the following clause structures are found difficult for the learners:

i. Errors in Conditional Clauses

335. *If I ~~will~~ pass the (PCL in) education, I will be an excellent teacher. (Ø)

336. ***If** I *get* a chance to study engineering, I would be devoted and disciplined in my study. (got)

337. *If I go to other country, I *should* speak the English language. (shall)

338. *In this way, village **is** poor condition unless **technological** change.

(In this way, my village will remain poor unless technological change is introduced.)

ii. Omission of the Main Clauses

339. ***Because** there are Rupatal, Phewa **Tal**, Machapuchre Himalaya stays (are situated) there ...

340. *As vacation may consist of 15 to 30 days ...

341. *As our campus remained closed from 20th **Mangsir** to 21st of Paush as winter vacation ...

111. Errors in the Clauses of Time, Concession and Place

342. *When I ~~will~~ pass ~~engineering~~, I ~~will~~ come back to my village. (Ø)

343. *Although all the people are ~~illiterate~~ and ~~conservative~~, ~~but~~ I have though (thought) to make my village the most developed in my district. (Ø)

344. *There were many ~~facilit(ies)~~ to ~~(for)~~ tourists in my village where I was born ~~in this place~~. (Ø)

The majority of errors are found in conditional clauses followed by the omission of the **main** clauses and adverbial clauses.

In the case of the conditional clauses in sentences 335 through 337, the students **fail** to observe the rules given in 4.3.15 whereas 338 **is** not a complete sentence **in itself**. It is very **interesting** to note that the students could supply adverbial clauses in sentences 339 through 341, however, they **fail** even to note the deletion of the main clauses there. Adverbial clauses of **time** exhibit the **incompatibility** of the tenses given in the two clauses, e.g. the futurity in 342 and the past form of the verb in 343 create syntactic problems of **acceptability**. Similarly the **main** clause of concession as in 343 should start with a conjunction **but**, because it is an independent clause. In the same way the adjunct **in this place** in 344 is redundant as the relative pronoun *where* has denoted a place given in the matrix clause itself.

The errors in clauses are caused due to the lack of adequate knowledge of them.

4.6.19. Errors in Gerund and ~~To~~-Infinitive

The following types of errors are recorded in this category:

4. Omission of to before an Infinitive

345. *I would like teach in my own campus. [to)
346. *I think ^ study English is better because
 it is an international language. (to)

11. Past Forms of the Verb after to

347. *I will also hard work there to *finished* my course. (finish)
348. *It is very hard to *passed* M.A. (pass)

iii. Use of Nouns to Replace an Infinitive

349. *I open a clinic in remote areas to *treatment* the sick
people. (treat)
350. *I suggested them to *growth* the forest. (**grow**)

1v. Present Participle Form after to

351. *I would like to **teaching**English although my English is
not good. (teach)
352. *After launch we wanted to cooking. (cook)

v. *To*-Infinitives in Place of Gerund Forms

353. *But the villagers are thinking of to **build** a gravel road. (building)
354. *We will control to cut the trees now-a-days. (cutting)

vi. ~~To~~-Infinitive after the Verb *Let*

355. *I haven't let (her) to see my paper. (JO)

The above examples exhibit that gerunds and ~~to~~-infinitives have relatively higher percentage of errors. The errors in **this** category are both **intralingual** as well as **developmental**. The omission of *to* before an **infinitive** can be assumed as developmental while the others are intralingual. These errors expose that the learners have not mastered gerunds and ~~to~~-infinitives to the extent they are supposed to be at **this** level inspite of their being **included in** the syllabuses and textbooks.

4.6.20. Errors in Conjunctions

Errors in conjunctions do not seem to be very serious as they yield only 1.09%, however, they are no less **important in** order to see the state of the **learners'** language. Errors in conjunctions have been analysed and discussed earlier in sections 4.3.141 and 4.5.13. Therefore, the present section may be regarded **complimentary** to them. Some of the examples taken from the **students'** writing are stated below:

i. Omission of the Conjunctions

356. *I will set up hospital(s), clinic(s) ~ nursing home(s)
at different centre(s). (and)
357. *They are my village people - only unliterature
(illiterate). (but)
358. *I felt that day ~ I have no existence in (on) **this** earth.
(that)

ii. Miscellaneous Errors

359. *It is not only forgettable - it is marvellous
and sudden as well. (...but also)
360. ***There** was neither **smile** on her face - any **sign** of
sympathy. (... nor)

The learners think that while giving a list of something putting a comma in between them is enough. However, an **and** is needed before the last **item in** the list. Similarly, a conjunction - whether coordinating or subordinating - **is** needed to **join** two clauses which is not observed by the students. Sentences 359 and 360 show that students have tried to use *not only...but also* and *neither...nor* constructions but they **failed** to exhibit their correct usages.

The data reveal that most of the errors account for omissions of conjunctions **in** the sentences written by students. It seems that these errors occurred because of the **inadequate** practice given to the students in connectives in spite of their properly being **incorporated into** their syllabuses.

4.6.21. Errors in Adjectives

The errors in adjectives are classified **into** the following ways :

i. Wrong Participial Adjectives

361. *I have to make my village a **good, development**
village. (developed)

362. ***Most** of the **villagers** are hard *worker*. (working)

ii. Inappropriate Use of *Few, Much, More*, etc.

363. ***There** are *much* lower (secondary) schools. (many)

364. *Due to remote place more **village(s)** and *little* school(s)...

365. ***My** district (has) *very less* **advocate(s)**. (a few)

366. ***Before** a *few* time I have read (studied) in that school. (some)

367. *There are *more* houses **in** my village. (many)

111. disordering of Adjectives

368. *And people of the society may create *new clear* definitions for girls and boys. (clear, new)

369. *The **main** look like place of my village is a good **big temple** of Krishna god. (big, good)

Apart from the errors classified above, there are quite a few others noticed in the use of adjectives like *more better* (a double comparative form), *is **sured** that* (an adjective used as a verb), etc. These are taken as performance errors since their frequency is **insignificant**. While frequency counts are compared, the errors that crop up in the use of adjectives are not as serious as **in** other categories. However, they are worth analysing keeping the analyses of similar other categories in mind.

The examples above (as **in** sentences 364 through 369) show that a strong likelihood of being Nepali habits transferred into English can undeniably be accepted. It has earlier been mentioned in section 4.3.1101 that *many* and *more*, and *less*, *few* and *little* can be represented by two Nepali words *dherai* and ***thorai*** or ***alikasi***, **respectively**. In such cases, one adjective for another within the two groups specified above can be used by the learners creating erroneous utterances. How the ordering of adjectives in English as in 368, 369 **is** influenced by the system of Nepali has already been **illustrated** in sentences 368 and 369 and discussed **in** 4.3.1101. Apart from these causes of errors, there are also examples of **overgeneralizations** as *more better*, *sured*, etc. One clear instance of the literal Nepali translation **into** English is *The main look like place* whose word-to-word translation is ***mukhya herna manaparne thau***.

4.6.22. Errors **in** Possessive Case

The two types of errors recorded **in** possessives are:

1. Omission of 's

370. *My village ^ name ls. ('s)

371. *I **like** teacher - job. ('s)

372. *The school ^ name ls... (s)

11. Superfluous Use of 's

373. *My village's **lies** (at) **Adhikhola**. (0)
374. *It's **main** cause is... (0)

The word-order in phrases like *my village name*, *teacher job*, and *school name* is similar to be found in Nepali and therefore, can be considered to be the results of transfer into English. However, case marker *ko* between the two nouns in the above examples is equivalent to the English possessive 's morpheme which the learners dropped in sentences 370 to 373. **Gautam** (1990:65) believes that these examples are "... the **learners'** mother tongue influences on the target language." In sentence 374 the superfluous 's is created in analogy with *fts* form, or may be that they are unable to see the difference between *fts* and *it's* whereas the 's of *my village's* in 373 is hard to explain.

4.6.23. Errors in Subject Deletion

The two types of error noticed in this section are as follows :

i. Deletion of the Surrogate Subjects *There* and *It*

375. *In my village - (is) a common garden also. (there)
376. *But ^ upset (s) that climate is too hot in (it)
summer time.

ii. Deletion of Other Subjects

377. *Development is impossible unless - educate man. (we)
378. *Then ^ improved in my lifehood than student life. (I)

The students have sometimes missed the surrogate subjects *there* and *it* which do not have any semantic content. Burt and Kiparsky (1972:14) say that "*There* and *it* are simply place holders, or surrogate subjects, to meet this demand ... Every finite English sentence must have a subject."

Dulay et al. (1982) think that subject deletion is a developmental error but they do not specify whether it is the deletion

of surrogate subjects in sentences 375 and 376 or other subjects such as **exemplified in** 377 and 378 as well. However, the subjects deleted here are the **instances** of developmental errors because Nepali lacks such surrogate subjects. The learners do not know until late how these subjects are used. On the other hand they are used to translating and **understanding** *there* as an adverb of place *tyaha* and *it* as a pronoun *yo*. Therefore, the learners' failure to use them properly can be ascribed to developmental errors as well as an example of difficulty equated **with** problems.

4.6.24. Errors in Adverbs

The errors in adverbs have already been discussed in 4.3.24. Here the types of errors obtained from the written expressions are recorded.

i. Distortion of Adverbs

hardly for *hard*

welly for *well*

ii. Misordering of Adverbs

379. **People has not produced yet foodstuff properly.*

(People have not produced foodstuff properly yet.)

iii. Adjectives for Adverbs and Vice Versa

380. **My village is very comfortably.* (comfortable)

381. **There is a road which links Naudada to Juggle*
but *unfortunate* it is not black-topped. (unfortunately)

The errors in adverbs comprise **0.41%** of the total in the composition writing. Analogical creation or **overgeneralization** as in the case of 4.6.24 i and iii above and the lack of adequate exposure to rules as in sentence 379 may be referred to as the sources of errors.

4.6.2. Orthographic (Spelling) Errors

The highest error percentage, that is **18.7%**, in a single category **is** yielded by the spelling errors in free writing because of the complex sound-symbol relationship in English. To make the point clear, it should be mentioned here that when there is not much difference between the spelling and pronunciation of Nepali words, most English words show a wide gulf between their spelling and pronunciation. This difference plays a vital role in creating the highest error percentage in spelling for the Nepali learners of English. This inconsistency in English sound-symbol relationship creates a great problem to its learners.

Several studies such as Brown (1970), Ibrahim (1978), and Bebout (1985) have been carried out on spelling errors. Some of these studies concentrate on a list of isolated words to be spelt by the learners, however, they have several limitations. One of them is that the words to be spelt may not be in the vocabulary of the person to be tested. Bebout (1985) used a **fill-in-the** blank type of test, to overcome the limitations of the previous studies. But the present study makes a record of only such words as are often misspelt by the students in their free writings. The following error categories are devised from the data of the present study:

1. Consonant Doubling Errors

Two types of consonant-doubling error recorded from the study are as follows:

a. Failure to Double Consonant Letters

*Competed, **di**soused, occured, **slap**ing, planed, trafic, traveling, **realy**, toped, **valey**, mater, worshipping etc.*

b. Unnecessary Doubling of Consonant Letters

***Widder**, **untill**, **proffessor**, hottel, **peace** full, **successfull**, parrent, allmost, **helpful** 1, fulfill, **useful** 1, etc.*

11. Omission of Vowel or Consonant Letters

*weste(r)n. hous(e), som(e). wel(l), villag(e), natur(e),
becaus(e), discus(s), remot(e) beli(e)f, he(a)lth, creat(e).
g(u)ard. jungl(e). math(s), othe(r). co(u)ntry, stud(y)ing
etc.*

11.1. Other Errors

(a) The retention of y as in *call(y)ing. dutyful, beautyful.*
and (b) misordering of letters as in *twon (town)., streest
(streets). frist (first). produly (proudly), avialable
(available). brith (birth), seam (same), etc.*

The retention of letter y as in 4.6.2 iii (a) is a serious error as it can also be seen in section 4.4.12, but the misordering of letters in iii (b) of the same may be referred to as nonce mistakes.

The main factor for causing orthographic errors exemplified above is the lack of correlation between letter and sound in English. The lack of adequate exposure of the learners to such confusing words or pairs may be taken as the secondary cause of them.

4.6.3. Lexical Errors

Lexical errors constitute a large chunk (13.43%) in the totality of errors committed by the students in their free writings. Lexical errors are classified into the following categories.

\. Omission of Content and Function Words

This is a very common feature detected in the learners' writings. For reasons less clearly known, they omit words of the following classes:

nouns	: people, course, school, land, etc.
pronouns	: we, it, he, its , etc.
adjectives	: some, clean, much, this , etc.
verbs	: eat, study, provide, distribute, come, etc
adverbs	: sound, far, there, away, etc.
determiners	: one, all, any, etc.
modals	: need, will , etc.
auxiliaries	: have, be, etc.
preposition	: for, etc.
connectives	: that, etc.

Out of the total 655 lexical errors, 139, i.e. **21.22%**, are errors of deletion and omission. Regarding the omission of the content words **Dulay et al.** (1982:155) say that "Omission of content words, although typical in the early stages of L1 acquisition, is not as common in sequential L2 acquisition where the learner is older and more cognitively matured. If content words are omitted in **L2** speech, it is usually occasioned by the lack of vocabulary, and learners usually indicate their awareness of the missing constituents."

In the present context the learners have omitted both content and function words. The errors in this juncture are significant because the students with a minimum of seven years of exposure to English cannot be expected to omit such simple vocabulary items as are incorporated into their texts or syllabuses.

11. Errors in Homophonic and Formally Similar Words

The second common feature shown by the students' writing is the lack of ability to choose correct word from formally similar or homophonic words of the following types - they wrongly select one for the other.

than-then, there-their, **beside-besides**, Quite-quiet, **th rough-throw**, **effect-affect**, **advice-advise**, live-leave, **seen-scene**, born-burn, **see-she**, vary-very, sum-some, movement-moment, lock-lack, must-most, no-know, hole-whole, **sometime-sometimes**, **expect-except**, etc.

These words are really **intricate** because, sometimes even a very advanced learner of English may commit errors of this type. But such errors could be quite common in listening comprehension rather than in writing. Errors in the lexical **items** are caused due to the **learners'** inadequate exposure to them.

111. Errors in Words Having Similar Meaning

Words with similar meanings are no less confusing for the learners. They are semantically similar but not identical. The learners may choose one for the other and commit errors **in** the words of the following **type**:

*read-study, enough-more, before-ago, very-many, settle-stay, glad-happy, income-earn, big-large, few-little, give-supply, much-many, **fear-frightened**, said-told, etc.*

These types of errors are semantic **in** nature, and an extensive exposure to **the target** language, i.e. English, is often required to **make** a distinction between these pairs of words. In the present context, the students fail to make a distinction between each pair of words because of the language transfer. For most of these pairs Nepali has only one word. For example, for both *said* and *told* there is only one word *bhanyo*, and as a result, students opt for any member of these pairs without caring for their semantic contexts.

Apart from these, students fail to distinguish between words of one class from another. So they use nouns like *unemployment*, *development*, and *beauty* for adjectives like *unemployed*, *developmental* and *beautiful*. Also an instance of a verb, e.g. *develop* is recorded being used for a noun, i.e. *development*. These errors can be ascribed to the inadequate exposure of the learners to the target language.

4.7. Conclusion

The present chapter deals with the description and analysis of the errors obtained from the different tests administered to the **PCL-I** year students at various campuses under Tribhuvan University of Nepal. The analysis of errors is divided into five sections, namely **listening, grammar, word-formation and word meaning, reading** comprehension, and **writing**.

Listening test is are further divided into three sub-sections: **vowels**, consonants, and **comprehension**. Errors in this section are obtained from the two tests, i.e. sound discrimination test for vowels (19 items), and consonants (27 items), and listening comprehension of a passage (5 items).

It is found that the error percentages of vowels and consonants differ from one context to another depending upon the vowels or consonants they are contrasted with. It is also interesting to note that pure vowels yield more errors than diphthongs. However, in most cases, long vowels yield more errors compared to their short counterparts. Similarly, consonants are less problematic than the vowels. In comprehension, answers that involve inference produce more errors than those which demand facts. Since errors in listening are the results of tests at the perception level only, a different result can be obtained if tested at the production level.

The errors in listening are caused by both interlingual and intralingual **interferences** in general and the lack of adequate exposure of the learners to those items in particular.

The section on **grammatical errors** is further divided into three sub-sections based on the three different tests given. The first section which comprises of 114 **multiple choice items** is divided into 14 different grammatical categories. The second one is **error Identification test** which contains 16 items spread into 11 categories. Finally, the **translation** test contains 10 Nepali sentences to be rendered into English which are further divided into three different categories.

Some categories such as *modal verbs, prepositions, subject-verb agreement* are repeated in the first two tests while a few such as *nouns and adverbs* are not. The **intentional** repetition of categories into different tests serves the purpose of eliciting the maximum number of errors from the learners so that the yield can be cross-checked and compared with a **view to inferring** common pedagogical **implications**.

It is, therefore, found that the same category yields different percentages of errors, e.g. *modal auxiliaries* yield the highest error percentage in one test (**multiple choice test**) whereas their yield in another test (**error identification test**) is placed in the 8th rank. The former test yields **36.43%** errors whereas the latter yields **78.14%** which means that ranking and error percentages are different things. This also shows that students produce more errors when they have to find the answers themselves than in those cases in which the answers are supplied and they have to choose the right answer only.

Errors in *grammar* are caused mainly due to the lack of adequate exposure to the items in question. However, at times, the influence of Nepali on the one hand and intralingual influence of English itself on the other are also recorded for **some items**.

The section on **word-formation and word meaning** is further divided into two sub-sections, namely *errors in word-formation*, and *word meaning*. **Word-formation** is further divided into *prefixes* containing six items and *suffixes* containing seven items. *Word meaning* contains six vocabulary **items** taken from the secondary school textbooks that the students have gone through. It is observed that the students lacked practice in *word formation* resulting in considerable error percentages in some prefixes (**dis-** and **in-**) and suffixes (**-ness**). It is also noted that they lacked the knowledge of complicated spelling rules of English and adequate practice in word meaning.

Errors in *reading comprehension* are obtained from the **cloze test** which contains 44 slots to be filled in with 24 function words and 20 content words. It is observed that auxiliary verbs under *function words* and main verbs under *content words* yield the highest error percentages in their respective categories. It is found that *content words* yield more errors than the *function words*. It may be that either the learners lack the stock of vocabulary needed for the present purpose or they **fail** to select the appropriate **items** for the given context.

Four topics are given to the students for composition writing and majority of them (**42.22%**) opted for *your village or town* - a very familiar topic for them. Errors obtained from their writings are analysed into three **sections**: *grammatical*, *orthographic* and *lexical*. *Grammatical errors* are further divided into 14 categories while the *orthographic* and *lexical errors* are treated separately. Different grammatical categories under composition yield less percentage of errors in **comparison** with similar categories in other tests. For example, errors in *articles* rank the highest with 16.95% in **composition** whereas they rank 11th yielding 26.48% in **multiple choice test** and 9th yielding 78.14% in **error identification test**. The reason behind this may be that the students become conscious of the items they are not sure of while writing compositions, and as a result, they apply error avoidance principle. Errors in grammatical items are caused by both interlingual and **intralingual interferences**. Some errors fall in the developmental categories, too.

Spelling errors which yield the highest error percentage in a single category of composition are caused by intralingual interference. However, it cannot be denied that the students lack adequate practice in them. Similarly, errors in lexis (13.43%) result either due to the lack of vocabulary items or improper use of them.

CHAPTER - FIVE

ERROR GRAVITY

5.1. Introduction

Several studies on error gravity have appeared after Nickel (1973) and Johansson (1973) and several criteria for evaluating learners' errors have also been proposed (see 2.4.1). However, *comprehensibility* and *grammaticality* remain the two major criteria for such an evaluation with a growing emphasis on the former.

The studies carried out by James (1977), Hughes and Lasca-ratau (1982), Davies (1983), Sheorey (1986) and McCretton and Rider (1993) come to a consensus that native speaker evaluators are more lenient in evaluating the errors committed by the non-native learners of English as compared to non-native evaluators. Native speakers' superiority in the language concerned and the criterion of *comprehensibility* which they assume to be the measuring rod for the evaluation of learners' performance seem to be instrumental in making them lenient while assessing the non-native speakers' errors. The other variables like sex, age, and educational background of the assessors are also claimed to be influential factors in such assessments.

Unlike many of the previous studies in which erroneous sentences are picked up from different sources, the present study on error gravity depends considerably on the analysis reported in the previous chapter. It tries to compare the seriousness of errors in terms of their frequency or their percentage given in the previous chapter with the error *garvity* in the items specified by the evaluators so that conclusions can be drawn which can be applied to the teaching and learning of English in Nepal.

The present study also tries to see whether the native speakers are really lenient in the evaluation of the non-native learners' errors as is claimed in the previous studies mentioned above. This study further tries to establish a rank ordering of

the errors towards the development of a universal hierarchy which Sheorey (1986) proposes. However, McCretton and Rider (1993:186) claim "... that such hierarchies are merely the **subjects'** conditioned responses to well-established educational practices".

An attempt is also made here to see whether the native speakers have a meeting of mind with the non-native speakers or they leave a very wide gap in case of certain categories they evaluate.

In the present study errors are analysed from the acceptability viewpoint taking the nature of the syllabus that the learners get through into consideration.

5.2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study on error gravity in the present context are:

1. to evaluate the errors made by the students under study in terms of their **acceptability** or seriousness,
11. to find out whether there are any significant differences between the native and non-native teachers of English in their **error-gravity** perceptions, and
- iii. to see if an error hierarchy can be established.

5.3. The Data

The present study uses 60 sentences taken from the data elicited for error analysis from 270 first year university students of Nepal who were given a variety of tests (see Appendix 2). While selecting the sentences, every attempt had been made to include most of the categories analysed in the earlier chapter such as pronouns, subject-verb (s-v) agreement, articles, modals, adjectives, **conjunctions**, conditionals, gerund and ~~to~~-**infinitive**, question tags, present participle, tenses, prepositions, possessives, reported speech, passive voice, direct question, word order, verbals, plurality, **causatives**, **word-choice**, concord,

adverb clauses, **adverbials**, relative clauses, and spellings, however, the data obtained from the listening test and word-formation and word **meaning** tests are not **included** here.

All these, **more** or less, included the categories that had been studied by several researchers including the ones mentioned in section 2.4.2.

As some of the sentences taken for the present study contained multiple errors, a **repairment** was done to leave a single error in each sentence so that a uniform treatment could be given to the evaluation of that particular error **in** question.

The limitation of the present study is that the sentences were taken out of the context; so the evaluators had to assess them as they were. Many of the native assessors, though they were not asked to supply their comments, have voluntarily given comments on this aspect.

5.4. The Evaluators

The evaluators of the present study were 50 non-native teachers of English (hereafter NNT) and the same number of native teachers of English (hereafter NT).

The average age of the NNTs, who were all university teachers in Nepal, was 32.26 years - the oldest member being 62 and the youngest 24. Of them only five were females and all others, males. The selection of the evaluators was done randomly, though an attempt was made to cover most of the campuses chosen previously for the data collection bearing the fact in mind that the evaluators (i.e. University teachers) may have the better knowledge of the linguistic proficiency of their own students.

The average teaching experience of the NNT evaluators was 9.97 years **with** a maximum of 32 and a minimum of one. Two of them were Ph D degree holders while the others had an M A **in** English. Six of them were trained teachers with a minimum of a B Ed degree. Thirty six of them, that is **72%**, had Nepali as their native

language followed by six Maithili speakers, two each representing Rai and Newari speech communities and one each from Limbu, Magar, Awadhi and Malayalam. This information could now be compared with the information on the background of the NTs.

The average age of the NTs was 23.34 with a range of 65 and 18 years between the oldest and the youngest member of the population. Twenty of them were females and the rest males. All the NTs were the native speakers of British English except four American English speakers, with an average teaching experience of 4.06 years ranging between 35 and one.

Six of the NTs were MA degree holders in English while 16 of them were BA's and 28 of them had A-Level pass of the British education system. Those evaluators had a varied teaching experience in Nepal ranging from the teaching of English at the primary to the tertiary levels. They were also familiar with the background of English that the learners in Nepal at all levels of education have.

5.5. Procedure

A questionnaire (as explained in 5.3 above) was used for collecting the data for the present study. Those sentences were listed in a random order. The evaluators were asked to judge those sentences in terms of a five-point letter scale, that is A,B,C,D,E, correlated with *absolutely correct*, *fairly acceptable*, *may be acceptable*, *may not be acceptable*, and *absolutely correct* values, respectively (see Appendix A) with a view to making them less conscious of grading the errors while comparing it with the number-scale technique. The tabulation of the responses was done separately for each group, i.e. NTs and NNTs.

5.6. Analysis

While making the statistical analysis of the data, the letter grades given by the evaluators, were converted into number grades. Thus A,B,C,D,E were converted into 0,1,2,3,4 values, respectively. The sentence assessed as zero was considered

absolutely acceptable and the least serious error **whereas** number 4 **indicated** that the sentence or the construction **was** absolutely unacceptable and the most serious error. Thus, the number assigned to each sentence by an evaluator was considered the deduction of that much of marks from a total of four.

The raw scores were multiplied by the appropriate number grading assigned to the sentences. The maximum points that an evaluator could deduct for an item was 4 with a maximum of 200 by all the 50 assessors. The mean score of each item was calculated having grouped all the 60 items of the **questionnaire** into 26 **categories**.

5.7. Results and Discussion

It is after James (1977) that a split-half process (which means that the items of the **questionnaire** are divided into two halves in order to compare the **evaluators'** judgements in them) **is** adopted to see the patterns of deduction maintained by the evaluators in the two halves of the items separately. In the present test the NTs deducted 5.53% points more in the first half compared to the deduction they made in the second half. But the NNTs seem to maintain consistency in the deduction of the points which is a very negligible sum of 0.88%. Point deduction in the individual items is given in the Appendix 4. The total points deducted by both the groups are given **below**:

Table Mo. 23
Total points deducted by two groups of evaluators

	Items 1-30	Items 31-60	Items 1-60	Points deducted
Native	3448	3116	6564	<_____Total
Evaluators	57.46	51.93	54.70	<_____Percent
Non-Native	4053	416	8159	<_____Total
Evaluators	67.55	68.43	67.99	<_____Percent

The above table shows that the NT evaluators deducted a total of 6504 points out of 12000 which is **54.70%** while the NNTs deducted 8159 **points,i.e.** (67.99%). The deduction of points by NNTs is **13.29%** more than that of their NT counterparts.

5.7.1. The Range

The highest total of points deducted by the NTs is 197 and the lowest is 9 which gives a range of 188 whereas the NNTs have totals between 63 and 193 with a range of 130.

While in James (1977) native speakers operated on an 8-point scale and non-native speakers on a **10-point** scale, in the present study the NTs operate on an **18-point** scale and the NNTs, on a **13-point** scale. It should be mentioned here that the present study confirms what James (1977:119) stated: "... native speakers ought to make finer distinction than non-native speakers."

5.7.2. Rank Order of Error Categories

The errors are spread into 26 categories of grammar, lexis and spelling. The following table presents the total points deducted by each group of evaluators and the rank ordering of the **gravity**.

Table No. 24
Comparison of rank order of gravity

Jo. Error category	Ro. of items	Total points deducted NTs		Rank order of gravity	Total points deducted NNTs		Rank order of gravity
		Mean score	Raw score		Mean score	Raw score	
1 Adverbials	1	3.82	191	1	3.44	171	3
2 Verbals	4	3.23	647	2	3.62	724	2
3 Word choice	3	3.13	469	3	3.30	495	5
4 Causatives	1	3.06	153	4	2.54	127	18
5 Present participle	1	3.04	152	5	3.72	186	1
5 Direct questions	1	2.98	148	6	2.88	144	8
7 Pronouns	2	2.66	266	7	2.99	299	7
8 Passive voice	2	2.55	255	8	2.87	287	9
9 Adjective	4	2.37	474	9	2.64	529	16
10 Possessives	2	2.34	234	10	2.66	266	15
11 Conditionals	1	2.22	111	11	2.84	142	11
12 S-V agreement	3	2.21	331	12	2.45	368	20
13 Reported speech	3	2.21	332	13	3.01	451	6
14 Modals	1	2.16	108	14	2.26	113	24
15 Concord	2	2.11	211	15	2.85	285	10
16 Prepositions	3	2.07	311	16	3.37	505	4
17 Spelling	2	2.05	205	17	2.78	278	13
18 Adverb clauses	1	2.04	102	18	2.28	114	23
19 Question tags	?	1.95	195	19	2.79	279	12
20 Plurality	1	1.92	96	20	2.48	127	19
21 Word-order	4	1.74	348	21	2.39	479	21
22 Tenses	8	1.63	653	22	2.58	1034	17
23 Gerund/ to- infinitive	2	1.53	158	23	1.73	173	26
24 Articles	3	1.57	235	24	2.73	410	14
25 Conjunctions	2	1.52	152	25	2.36	236	22
26 Relative clauses	1	0.36	31	26	1.86	23	25

The above table shows that the greatest intergroup consensus of opinion is found in the categories like verbals, pronouns, conditionals, plurals, and relative clauses in terms of the rank order of gravity although the deduction of error points is comparatively higher in the evaluation performed by the NNTs.

In all but three cases, that is **adverbials**, causatives and direct questions, the NNTs deducted **comparatively** more points than the NTs. Except for one or two other **categories**, the rank order of the NTs and NNTs doesn't even correlate closely. It is quite obvious that the category which is very serious for one group is not equally serious for the other. The NTs give fifth rank to the present participle whereas the NNTs rank it first.

5.7.3. Judgement of Error Gravity

Discrepancy in the reduction of points for the same category in different sentences is also noticed in both the groups, e.g.

	NTs	<u>NNTs</u>
1. *All of we came to our own houses.	166	147
2. *The picnic was organized by ourself.	125	177

For the NTs, an error in the object pronoun is more serious than in the reflexive pronoun while for the NNTs the reverse is the case. These two sentences reveal the fact that the NTs deducted 41 points more for sentence 1 compared to the deduction of 125 points for 2. The NNTs deducted 30 points more for 2 than 1.

A similar tendency is revealed by these evaluators in the subtraction of the points in different sentences of the same grammatical category, for example tenses, in the following sentences :

	NTs	NNTs
3. *The winter had been cold last year.	100	101
4. *The boy was caught when he stole the watch.	27	89
5. *It is 8:30 a.m. now and he is still reading. By 10:10 a.m. he is reading for over two hours.	127	155
6. *He was dead before the doctor arrived.	9	99
7. *Our family were gone to picnic at Deurali.	145	160
8. *You have missed the plane. It had just left.	99	134
9. *After two years my I.Sc. is finished.	84	167
10. *Our village improved a lot to-day.	65	119

A deduction of points by both the groups is correlated in sentence 3 above while a very wide gap is seen in 6 where a difference of 75 points can be observed. It seems that the native English teachers find it to be the least serious error and is

acceptable to them, but it may not be so to the NNTs. The inter-category reduction of points ranges between 9 and 145, i.e. the difference of 136 points for the NTs while the NNTs are between 99 and 169 with a difference of 70 points. This analysis supports and strengthens the claim that NTs make a finer distinction between one sentence and another within the same category, compared to the NNTs. Within the same grammatical category, too one sentence is rated as more serious than the other. However, this feature forms a regular pattern in all the categories for both the groups of evaluators. The most serious error for the NTs is the **verbal** in sentence 11 while the least serious is the error in **tense** in 12 below.

- 11. *All of us not falling into the greed of money.
- 12. *He was dead before the **doctor** arrived.

Similarly, the most serious error for the NNTs is the **verbal** in sentence 13 and the least serious is **the word-order** in 14 below :

- 13. ***They** are do so hard work for their aims.
- 14. *There is neither smile on her face nor any sign of sympathy.

The NTs deducted 191 points for sentence 11 and only 9 for sentence 12 creating a difference of 182 points, while the NNTs deducted 193 points for sentence 13 and 63 for 14 creating a difference of 130 points. However, a meeting point for both the groups is seen in the verbal category. Another meeting point for both the groups in the deduction of points is the example 15 cited below;

- 15. ***Would** you mind to open the window?

Both the groups deducted 92 points for the error in the **gerund**. Thus, keeping the overall picture of the error gravity analysed above in mind, it can be stated that the NNTs mark more severely than their NT counterparts. This confirms the results of James (1977), Hughes and Lascaratou (1982), Davies (1982), Sheorey (1986) and McCretton and Rider (1993).

Nickel (1973) and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) have put forward a hypothesis as to why the native teachers are more lenient in assessing the errors. They claim that a better command over the target language in the NTs makes them do so. They perceive the language in a wider range of **acceptability**. The second reason, according to McCretton and Rider (1993) is that while assessing the errors, the evaluators themselves (in case of the NNTs) feel that their knowledge of language is being tested. Therefore, they become more severe towards the evaluation of errors and consequently, a wider gap is noticed between their judgement and that of the NTs. The other probable cause as has been commented by many evaluators might be that the sentences were given for evaluation without their contexts. The result would have been different had they been provided with the contexts in which **the** sentences occurred.

5.7.4. A Hierarchy of Errors

Previous studies on error gravity referred to here like James (1977), Hughes and Lascaratou (1981) Vann et al. (1984) and McCretton and Rider (1993) have tried to establish a hierarchy of errors with a view to suggesting a universal hierarchy which can be used for teaching and learning of English. McCretton and Rider (1993:103) give an **absolute** or **combined** hierarchy of errors "... by taking a Mean of the rank orderings given by the two groups; and by taking a Mean of the Mean scores given by the same groups". The consequence of this two-way calculation resulted in the following **absolute hierarchy**:

1. Concord
2. Verb forms
3. Prepositions
4. Word-order
5. Negation
6. Spelling
7. Lexis

They have further contrasted their hierarchy **with** those of **James** (1977) and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) which can be presented in the following table.

Table No. 25

Comparison of three rank order hierarchies

	McCretton and Rider			James			Hughes & Lascaratou		
Error category	NS	NNS	ABS	NS	NNS	ABS	NS	NNS	ABS
Concord	?	1	1	2	1	2	5	2	3
Verb forms	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
Prepositions	3	2	3	4	3	3	6	5	6
Word-order	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4
Negation	5	5	5	3	4	4	-	-	-
Spelling	6	5	6	-	-	-	3	6	5
Lexis	7	7	7	6	6	6	1	3	2

Source: *McCretton & Rider 1993: 194*

Commenting on the discrepancy seen in the hierarchy above, McCretton and **Rider** (1993:185) observe that "... firstly, that the greatest correspondence between the native **assessors'** and non-native **assessors'** hierarchies is shown in our own study, and the least **in** that of Hughes and Lascaratou. Secondly, we may note the similarity between the '**absolute**' hierarchies of James and the present study; Hughes & **Lascaratou's** hierarchy differs **from** ours principally in the placing of Prepositions and Lexis".

The differences **in** the inclusion of uncontrasted items in the study **makes** it rather impossible to think of an absolute hierarchy of errors a point with which McCretton and Rider (1993:186) also agree. They believe that "... hierarchies are **merely** the **subjects'** conditioned responses to well-established educational **practices**".

The present study is different from the previous ones, in that **it** uses several error categories for evaluation. It is done with a **view** to giving a clear picture to the English language teachers **in** Nepal, particularly to emphasize on such **items** as are

considered serious by the evaluators. These categories also correspond to those of the syllabuses that the students have gone through or are likely to go through. The present researcher has tried to make a two-way calculation of the rank order after McCretton and Rider (1993). But in this study the mean of the rank order of both the groups and the mean of the mean scores deducted by both groups do not absolutely correlate with one another which is given in the following table-.

Table No. **26**

Mean of the mean score and rank order of error gravity

Error Category	Rank Order	Combined mean of the mean score	Mean of the rank Order
Adverbials	1	3.63	2
Verbals	2	3.42	2
Present participle	3	3.38	3
Word choice	4	3.21	4
Direct questions	5	2.93	7
Pronouns	6	2.82	7
Causatives	7	2.80	11
Prepositions	8	2.72	10
Passive voice	9	2.71	9
Reported speech	10	2.61	9
Conditionals	11	2.53	11
Adjectives	12	2.50	13
Possessives	12	2.50	13
Concord	13	2.48	12
Spelling	14	2.41	15
Question tag	15	2.37	20
S-V agreement	16	2.33	16
Modals	17	2.21	19
Plurals	18	2.20	19
Adverb clauses	19	2.16	20
Articles	20	2.15	19
Tenses	21	2.10	19
Word order	22	2.06	21
Conjunctions	23	1.95	23
Gerund/ to- infinitive	24	1.65	24
Relative clauses	25	1.11	25

The above table shows that the mean point of the mean score and the mean of the rank order of the two groups correlate in certain cases such as **verbals, present participle, word choice,**

passive voice, conditionals, subject-verb agreement, conjunctions, gerund/to-infinitive, and relative clauses. In other cases it can only be considered to be a close correlation.

Establishing a universal hierarchy of errors is a very difficult task mainly due to the heterogeneity in the inclusion of error categories in the studies referred to here. McCretton and Rider (1993) had included seven categories as opposed to six in James (1977), Hughes and Lascaratou (1992); while Sheorey (1986) and Vann et al. (1987) had included eight and twelve categories, respectively. The category of negation was used by only McCretton and Rider (1993) and James (1977). Again, spelling was not used in James (1977). The categories common to all three studies were *concord* (Sheorey used the term *agreement* and Vann et al. used *subject-verb agreement*), *verb forms* (Sheorey and Vann et al. include it under *tense*), *preposition* and *lexis*. Only these categories can be compared with those given in table 26 above. Adverbial errors in the present study occupy the position of the most serious category whereas verb-forms occupy this position in James (1977) and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) as opposed to the category of question-formation and spelling in Sheorey (1986) and Vann et al. (1984), respectively.

The present study compares well with McCretton and Rider (1993) in the areas of verb forms to which both accord a second rank, but James (1977) and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) put them in the first position among the most serious errors. Word choice is in the fourth position in the present study but it is fifth in Sheorey, (1986) and the second in Hughes and Lascaratou (1982). Hughes and Lascaratou corroborate with Johansson (1973), Lindell (1973) and Olsson (1973) in the claim that lexical errors render a language most unintelligible. The present study also confirms their claim, because lexis is ranked fourth among a total of 26 items which underscores the seriousness of lexical errors. Preposition errors occupy the third rank in McCretton and Rider (1993) and James (1977), but fifth in Vann et al. (1984) and sixth in Sheorey (1986) and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) whereas they rank eighth in the present study. Word-order errors fall somewhere midway, i.e. occupying fourth rank in McCretton and Rider

(1993), and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982). James (1977) puts **the** on the 5th position and they occupy the twelfth (and the last) **in** Vann et al. (1984) whereas 22nd **in** the present study. Article errors are the most serious for Vann et al. (1984) (the second rank) but not very serious (7th) for Sheorey. They fall **in** the 20th rank **in** the present study which **indicates** that they are not very serious.

If 2 is taken as a mid-point on the five-point scale of the present study, the errors that fall between 0 to 1 may be termed as the *Jeast serious*. Similarly, the errors that fall between 1 and 2 may be regarded as less serious while those that fall between 2 and 3 may be regarded *serfous* and those that fall between 3 and 4 may be regarded as the *most serfous*. In other words, the errors categorized in the present study under table No. 26 may be classified **as**: rank order 1-4 the *most serious*, 5-22 *serfous*, and 23-25 *Jess serfous*. Since no category **is** recorded below the mean score of 1, the category of the *least serfous* errors may not be presented.

5.8. Comparison Between Error Frequency (percentage) and Error Gravity

A brief comparison between the seriousness of error **frequency** (percentage) discussed **in** chapter IV and error gravity **in** this chapter is presented here in order to see how far they correlate with one another.

i. Errors in *modals* and *auxiliaries* occupy the highest position **in** the **multiple choice test** (4.3.1) but they rank the 17th in the error gravity (5.7.4). Similarly, *question tags* rank the last **in** terms of the error percentage **in** the same test (4.3.1) but they take the 15th position in error gravity which shows that these are more serious than *modals* and *auxiliaries*. However, a consensus is seen **in** *pronouns*, and the *passive voice* which rank 6th and 9th **in** both the cases, **respectively**.

ii. The *gerund* and *to-infinitive* take the highest position in the **error identification test (4.3.2)** whereas they are not considered serious by the evaluators giving them the **24th** rank out of 25 in the error gravity. *Pronouns* are seen as the least serious items in the test (i.e. 10th position) but they come in the 6th rank in the error gravity. In both the cases, **adverbials** are put in the most serious category, however, they do not tally the exact ordering.

iii. *Reported speech* bears the highest percentage in the **translation test (4.3.3)** but it falls in the **10th** rank in error gravity. *Relative clauses* are considered the least serious items by the evaluators giving them the last ranking (i.e. 25th) on the contrary, they occupy the **second** position in the translation test.

iv. In **writing test (4.6)** errors in *spelling* occupy the highest error frequency but they are ranked the **14th** in the error gravity. *lexical errors* and errors in *adjectives* are considered equally serious in both the cases. A consensus, however, is seen in *tenses* (treated separately in error gravity) and *verbal groups* and *pronouns* ranking the **2nd** and the **6th** positions, respectively.

This brief comparison between the hierarchy of errors shown by the error frequency (percentage) and the rank order of error gravity regarding the seriousness of errors reveals that except for a few items, they do not correlate with one another. The items that are seen the most serious in terms of their frequency (percentage) are not rated equally serious by the evaluators in the error gravity and vice versa.

5.9. Conclusion

This chapter deals with the assessment of the gravity of errors made by the students of PCL first year of Nepal. For this purpose two groups of evaluators (each consisting of 50 native and 50 non-native teachers of English) were given a set of 60 erroneous sentences extracted from the answers of the subjects under study.

The analysis, in confirmation with most of the findings of the previous studies, reveals that the native English teachers evaluate the errors more leniently than their non-native counterparts. It is obvious that the native English evaluators must have borne the comprehensibility aspect rather than grammaticality in mind while evaluating the sentences.

An attempt is also made here to establish an error hierarchy making a comparison of the present study with the previous ones; but it is concluded that such a hierarchy, at least in the present study, except for a few categories, cannot be established. However, a hierarchy, which may not be universal, is proposed for the teachers of English in Nepal for teaching as well as evaluating their students. It is also seen that the items observed serious because of error frequency (percentage) are not considered equally serious by the evaluators and vice versa.

CHAPTER - SIX

SUMMARY. FINDINGS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Summary

The teaching of English in Nepal began more than a century ago and has extended **until** today, but it has never been satisfactory to the expectation of one and all. The cause of dissatisfaction is traced at the failure percentage of the students in English of the SLC and university level examinations which is conspicuously high. There may not be any immediate solution to this problem since none of those who are involved in the enterprise of teaching and learning English in this country (for example, policy makers, syllabus designers, textbook writers, teachers, etc.), seems willing to take the **initiative in improving** the situation. However, the research works and surveys, carried out now and then, report that there is an immediate need for an overhaul in the English language teaching and learning programme. Some of the most specifically pointed out areas that call for the immediate attention are syllabuses, textbooks, teaching materials, teaching and learning environment, training of teachers and **examination** system. The situation can be improved only by overhauling the syllabuses, getting new textbooks written accordingly, providing schools/campuses with adequate teaching aids and trained teachers who can handle the materials properly, and by improving the evaluation system.

Due to the lack of a conducive environment for the teaching and learning of English in Nepal even the teachers tend to become indifferent to the **learners'** problems. Consequently, their errors are either left unattended or are corrected very harshly without surmising the possible psychological effect of such corrections on the learners.

This study has shown that the Nepali learners of English commit errors in the **items** tested as well as in the their compositions due to interlingual and **intralingual** transfer. At times, they are also developmental **in** nature.

6.2. Findings

On the basis of the analysis and **interpretation** of the data, the following findings have been drawn-.

6.2.1. **Listening** Tests

Errors obtained in this section are discussed under three sub-sections-- vowels, consonants and listening comprehension.

6.2.11. **Vowels**

i. While contrasting short/long vowel pairs, it has been found that the long vowels specially /i/, /ɔ/ and /u/ yield more errors than their short counterparts.

ii. The vowel /ɔ/ contrasted with the diphthong /əʊ/ yields the highest error percentage, i.e. 77.59 followed by the yield of /e/ contrasted with /ex/, i.e. **51.51%**.

iii. The error percentage of a vowel is found differing from one context to another, e.g. /ʌ/ records **47.70%**, 39.62%, 28.70% and 22.40% errors while contrasted with /ɜ/, /a/, /o/, and /a?/ **respectively**.

iv. Diphthongs such as /ɜx/ (in one case) and /ox/ are found easier than others because they bear **insignificant** number of errors, **i.e.** below 5%.

v. The diphthongs /əʊ/ and /ɪə/ contrasted with /ɔ/ and yield the highest error percentage, **i.e.** 38.70% followed by the yields of /eə/ and /aɪ/ contrasted with /ɪə/ and /ox/, that is 31.29% and **30.37%**, respectively.

vi. The performance of the **BSPs** is recorded comparatively **better** than that of their PSP counterparts. **Similarly**, the NNSs exhibit comparatively better results than their NS counterparts.

vii. Irrespective of the mother tongues and schooling backgrounds of the learners, a regular error pattern has been observed in their performance, that **is**, difficult **items** are equally difficult for all the learners and the same is the case with easier **items**. **This** feature has been recorded in error percentages that those **items** bear.

viii. The causes of errors in vowels are due to the lack of adequate exposure to the learners of the **items** in question. The students may be **influenced** by, short/long vowel **neutralization** in Nepali and the contexts in which they are contrasted.

6.2.12. Consonants

i. Comparatively higher error percentages have been recorded for consonants **/p/** contrasted with **/f/**, **/v/** with **/b/**, and **/s/** with **/ʃ/**. **This** is caused due to the **influence** of Nepali.

ii. Consonants yielding more than 30% errors are **/ʒ/, /m/, /θ/, /t/, /ð/, /n/,** and **/ʃ/**; between 20% - 30% are **/b/, /g/, /dʒ/, /d/, /ŋ/,** and **/z/**; between 10% - 20% are **/f/, /k/, /tʃ/** and **/r/** while below 10% are **/j/** and **/h/**. **This** error tendency is not consistently revealed by all the above consonants except for **/g/, /dʒ/, /ŋ/, /ʃ/** and **/ʒ/**, because the error percentages for them are found varying **from** one context to another.

iii. Both the NNSs and the BSPs excel their counterparts in most of the consonant sounds.

iv. Besides the **influence** of Nepali, the other cause of errors in consonants **is** due to the various contexts in which they are contrasted.

6.2.13. **Listening Comprehension**

i. More errors are recorded against the questions requiring slightly inference type of answers rather than the mechanically lifted ones.

ii. The **BSPs** are found to have excelled their counterparts in listening **comprehension** also. **Similarly**, the **NNSs** better their counterparts in **all** the items but one.

iii. The sole cause of errors in listening comprehension may be due to the lack of practice in it.

6.2.2. **Grammar Tests**

Different error percentages have been recorded for the same grammatical item tested **consecutively** in three different tests. The hierarchy of error percentages (from the highest to the lowest) and items tested are given under the type of test in question below.

6.2.21. **Multiple Choice Test**

i. The error hierarchy of the 14 items in terms of the percentage has been found as **follows**:

1. **modals and auxiliaries,**
2. **prepositions,**
3. **gerund/to- infinitive,**
4. **conjunctions,**
5. **conditionals,**
6. pronouns,
7. tenses,
8. **subject-verb** agreement,
9. passive voice,
10. adjectives,
11. articles,
12. reported speech,
13. relative clauses, and
14. question-tags.

ii. The **BSPs** excel their counterparts in all the items tested except for articles, conditionals, the passive voice, and reported speech. **Similarly**, the NSs better the NNSs counterparts in eight categories while the latter excel the formers in six, such as, **modals** and auxiliaries, the gerund and **to-infinitive** conjunctions, pronouns, passive voice, and articles

iii. The errors in this test are caused due to both interlingual and intralingual interferences and they are also found of developmental nature.

6.2.22. Error Identification Test

i. The hierarchy of error percentage, from the highest to the lowest, obtained from this test is given **below**:

1. gerund and **to-infinitive**,
2. adjectives,
3. tenses,
4. adverbs ,
5. clauses,
6. indirect questions,
7. nouns,
8. articles and modals,
9. concord, and
10. pronouns.

ii. The performance of the BSPs was better than that of their counterparts in all the **items** tested the NNSs excelled the NSs in **all** the **items** but modals.

iii. The causes of errors are both interlingual and intralingual **interferences**. In some cases they are found developmental **in** nature also.

6.2.23. Translation Test

i. The reported speech recorded the highest error percentage followed by the relative clauses and direct speech.

ii. In all the items the performance of the BSPs has been found better than that of their counterparts. Similarly, the NNSs excel their NSs counterparts.

iii. The causes of errors are found to be both interlingual and intralingual influences.

6.2.3. Word-Formation and Word Meaning Tests

i. In prefixes, the highest error frequency is recorded for *dis-* and *in-* followed by *non-*, *im-*, *il-*, and *tr-*.

ii. The highest error frequency is noticed for the suffix *-ness* followed by *-al*, *-ful*, *-ment*, *-ion*, *-dom*, and *-hood*. The noticeable errors in **suffixes** occurred because of the lack of **students'** knowledge in changing Y to I, e.g. y of *happy* while *-ness* is affixed to it, and the deletion of the vowel, e.g. in *arrive* while *-aI* is added to it.

iii. Of the six words asked, the word *celebrate* is found to **be** the most difficult which yields **35.18%** errors and the word *pounced* which bears only **2.96%** errors, is the least difficult.

iv. The BSPs generally exhibit better performance in word-formation and word meaning compared to their counterparts. Similarly, the NNSs are found exhibiting better performance in the use of prefixes and word meaning than that of their NS counterparts while the latter excel the former on the use of suffixes.

v. Errors in word-formation are due to the lack of knowledge of the rules pertinent to it whereas errors in word meaning are caused due to the lack of practice in it.

6.2.4. Reading Comprehension (Cloze) Test

i. Errors obtained from the cloze test reveal that students **commit** more errors in content words compared with the function words.

ii. Auxiliaries and main verbs record the highest error percentages in their respective groups, i.e. function words and content words.

iii. Students have been found using content words for function words, e.g. nouns for articles.

iv. The present form of the verbs are used for the past exhibiting the problem in tenses.

v. The performance of the **BSPs** is **comparatively** better than that of their counterparts. Similarly, NNSs excel the NSs in all items, but articles and nouns.

vi. The causes of errors are mainly the lack of adequate stock of vocabulary and knowledge of selectional restriction rules. At times, the influence of Nepali is also recorded especially in **prepositions**.

6.2.5. Writing Test

i. Grammatical errors record 67.87% in composition, but the highest error percentage in a single category is taken by spelling errors which comprises **18.70%**. Lexical errors yield 13.43% in total. The hierarchy of grammatical errors obtained from composition are as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. articles, | 8. clauses, |
| 2. tense and verbal groups, | 9. gerund/to-infinitive , |
| 3. prepositions, | 10. conjunctions , |
| 4. plurality, | 11. adjectives, |
| 5. subject-verb agreement, | 12. possessives , |
| 6. pronouns, | 13. subject deletion, and |
| 7. word order , | 14. adverbs. |

ii. Compared to the errors obtained from the three tests mentioned under section 6.2.2, the **grammatical** categories yield less error percentages **in this** test. It may be because of the avoidance factor on the part of the learners to escape from possible errors. However, the errors are caused by both **interlingual** and **intralingual influences**. In addition to these, some developmental errors **are** also recorded there.

6.2.6. Error Gravity

i. It has been found that the native English speaker teachers are more lenient compared with their non-native counterparts while evaluating the errors of the learners. It may be because of their superiority in the **TL** itself.

ii. Reduction of the points in different sentences (by both groups) within the same category **is** also found varying.

iii. Non-native English speaker teachers are found making a finer distinction while evaluating the errors.

iv. It is found, except in a few categories, that the **items** that bear highest error frequency (percentage) are not rated by the **evaluators** equally serious and vice versa.

v. While evaluating the errors, a consensus is found between both **the** groups of evaluators in the seriousness of errors for verbals, pronouns, **conditionals**, plurality and relative clauses. Though establishing **a** universal error hierarchy is found to be difficult on the basis of the present study, native and non-native speaker **teachers'** combined error hierarchy taking the mean of the mean scores is given here (from highly serious to not **serious**):

1. **adverbials,**
2. verbals,
3. present particles,
4. word choice,
5. direct questions,
6. pronouns,
7. **causatives,**
8. **prepositions,**
9. passive voice,
10. reported speech,
11. conditionals,
12. adjectives and possessives (equal rank),
13. concord,
14. spelling,
15. question-tags,
16. subject-verb agreement,
17. modals,
18. plurals,
19. adverb clauses,
20. articles,
21. tenses ,
22. word order,
23. **conjunctions,**
24. **gerund/to-Infinitive,** and
25. relative clauses.

6.3. Pedagogic **Implications**

This section deals mainly with two **areas:** (i) correction and evaluation of errors and (ii) pedagogical suggestions.

6.3.1. Correction of Errors

It has already been discussed that there are mainly two viewpoints regarding error correction based on the people's attitude towards errors. First, errors are unwanted and they should be treated as soon as they crop up. Second, they are inevitable and can give feedback to the teachers as to what learning process

the learners have been following and what they need to learn. The first view is often practised by non-native teachers of the TL because they think that "Failure to do this (correction) is considered an abdication of **responsibility**. One result of **this** is that teachers often work too hard, particularly on the correction of written work, and feel guilty **if** they are not seen to be correcting enough" (Bolitho 1995:48). Errors for the followers of **this view** are **signs** of *poor learning* and *punishable sins*. Therefore, it is the **teachers'** job to **improve** learning before these (errors) are fossilized. It has been a social obligation and also a traditional practice that the teachers correct the deviant oral utterances immediately before they get fossilized and use a lot of red marks on the written compositions.

The second viewpoint of looking at errors is relaxing and equates the second language acquisition **with** that of the **first**. The followers of this view believe that errors in the **second/foreign** language learning are inevitable to occur as they are natural in the first language acquisition. In course of time, the learners achieve mastery in the TL and all such errors automatically disappear. Therefore, they think that overt correction is not necessary.

A **compromise** between these two viewpoints is essential keeping the objectives of language teaching and learning in view on the one hand and the situation in which a language is taught on the other. Duff (1988) considers errors of the students very helpful because they tell the teachers what they still need to teach. Unless the students commit errors, the teachers cannot tell what their students do not know. Equally important is to decide whether these errors are to be corrected or not. Now-a-days, teachers are of the view that the errors that impede comprehension are to be treated first leaving the minor ones that do not seem so serious. Regarding this, Foster and Newan (1988) suggest that the errors that affect the meaning of an utterance should be corrected first rather than the mechanical mistakes such as misspellings of common words.

Studies on error gravity have tried to develop a hierarchy of errors in terms of their seriousness, but it has been found that no two groups of evaluators reach a consensus for evaluating an error as equally serious. An **item** tends to become very serious for one evaluator whereas it does not seem to be so for the other. Another important factor to be borne in mind is whether the objective of language teaching **is** to develop accuracy or fluency. In the case of the latter, the assessor may **skip** the errors so long as the learners are able to communicate the message, but in the case of the former, all the errors may be equally important and get fossilized if not treated on time. However, the level of the learner and his expected proficiency in the TL should also be taken **into** account.

Keeping the total ELT setting or Nepal in view, it can be stated here that correction of errors is of utmost **importance**, but care should be taken in that **it** "... is a way of reminding students of the forms of standard English. It should not be a kind of criticism or punishment" (Edge 1989:20). It should, therefore, be an encouraging activity so that students do not become disheartened and develop a repulsive attitude towards the English lessons. Emphasis in the English classes in Nepal is laid on accuracy, **i.e.** mastery over the formal aspects of the concerned language. Therefore, three types of correction techniques, **viz. self-correction, peer correction, and teacher correction** can be suggested depending upon the classroom situations. The teachers can make use of anyone of them or all of them whichever applies in their contexts. These are briefly discussed **below**:

6.3.11. Self-Correction

Students should be given an opportunity to correct their own errors. It may be that they have some slips, but given an opportunity, they themselves can correct them. The teacher's job is to show that an error has been committed and give some **time** to the students to recognize and correct it. **This** technique can be applied while correcting errors in all the language skills. One way of correcting the errors in writing is what **is** called using a **diagnostic technique** of error **correction** in which the teacher

supplies the symbols such as **S** (spelling), **P** (Punctuation) **A** (Article, etc.) on the left **side** margin of the **students'** exercise books and the students are required to **find** out errors and correct them. However, a discussion between the teacher and students should be held before commencing the task. **Giri** and **Awasathi** (1995) **find** this technique very successful **in** one of **the** private schools **in** Kathmandu. It can be applied in other schools and campuses in Nepal as well.

6.3.12. Peer-Correction

Students learn better from their peers than from their teachers. It is because they feel free to discuss with each other and the level of language they possess is also an asset in this regard. In order to facilitate this, the teacher can divide the students into pairs and groups and assign them such tasks as dialogues, language games, puzzles, problem solving exercises, etc. so that they discuss with each other and get through the tasks. These kinds of tasks do not only enhance listening and speaking skills but also reading and writing. Peer-correction can be done in **pairs** or in groups depending upon the task devised by the teacher. Correction competitions can also be organized for ensuring maximum participation of the students. **Edge** (1989:54) believes that "All these techniques reduce the amount of time that the teacher has to spend on correcting written work, while also **increasing** the usefulness of correction to the learner". Such activities on the one hand give fun to the learners while on the other they **give** a chance to them to develop a sense of cooperative feeling to help one another.

6.3.13. Teacher Correction

The teacher undertakes the task of correction if none of the techniques mentioned above works. It **is** essential to mention here that any correction **initiated** by the teacher should be encouraging. **Edge** (1989:56) rightly points out that "... correction does not mean making everything absolutely correct: correction means helping people learn to express themselves

better." The teacher shouldn't minimize the attempts, particularly "When the teacher knows that the students have not yet learned the language necessary to express what they want to say, ~~we~~ call their mistakes attempts" (Edge 1989:10). It demonstrates their eagerness and ability or readiness to learn though they may not be able to show what they intend to. Writing and rewriting activities can be practised, **if** the piece of writing has to maintain absolute accuracy. If the **ideas** flow beyond sentences, proper use of sentence connectors can be practised. While correcting paragraphs, a teacher can make comments on the content also which will help **in** the improvement of the draft of the text.

A teacher is often challenged by the overcrowded classes where correction becomes a very difficult job. In such cases, and especially at lower levels, the teacher should give such writing tasks as are easy and limited; so that the students do not make too many mistakes for the teachers to correct them easily. Duff (1988) has suggested the following three steps for correcting simple written work in the class;

- i. The teacher writes the correct answers on the board, or gets students to come and write them. If spelling is not important, he or she can go through the answers orally.
- ii. As the teacher gives the answers, students correct their own works and the teacher moves round the class to supervise what they are doing; or students can exchange books and correct each other's work.
- iii. When the teacher notices errors made by a number of students, he or she can draw attention to these for the benefit of the whole class" (Duff 1988:193).

The techniques employed for correcting the works of advanced classes slightly differ from those discussed here. As Duff (1988:193) suggests, "With more advanced classes it **is** more important for the teacher to correct **students'** work individually ... As with the oral work, the teacher's corrections should have a positive effect on the student's work rather than a **discouraging** one."

While correcting students' works, the teacher should concentrate on most important errors or the errors of a certain kind only. Duff (1988) further suggests the teachers to write the corrections on the margins so that the amount of underlining could be reduced and consequently, the page would look less heavily corrected. This may have a better psychological impact upon the learners.

These are the correction techniques that a teacher can adopt depending upon the situation in which one is expected to work. All these techniques can be used in the Nepalese context as well, but the teacher has to be content with what Edge (1989:68) says that he "... cannot guarantee to be both fluent and accurate at the same time". However, he can make the correction work a pleasant and encouraging activity, and less burdening at the same time.

6.3.2. Evaluation of Errors

It has been noticed in chapter five that the teachers do not necessarily assess the items containing the highest error frequency or percentage as the most serious one in their evaluation. Similarly, consensus is also not recorded between the two groups of evaluators, i.e. native English teachers and non-native English teachers in the evaluation of the errors except in a few items. Therefore, the hierarchy obtained from the combined mean of the mean scores of the two groups given in 5.7.4 can be taken as a basis for the evaluation of errors which will bring a positive result in the SLC as well as university level examinations.

6.3.3. Pedagogical Suggestions

Some pedagogical suggestions based on the present study are given below:

6.3.3.1. Listening

Listening is the most neglected language skill both for teaching and testing purposes in Nepal. The present study records

errors in listening at the reception level. However, a similar pattern may or may not occur at the production level. But listening practice supplemented by oral practice tends to produce the desired results. The university should make a provision of providing **its** campuses **with** prerecorded cassettes especially for teaching the listening skill. The materials for **this** purpose should be designed keeping the desirable efficiency of the learners in view. **This** activity can also be conducted even in large classes. Provision for testing the listening and speaking skills should be made, if they are to be developed at all.

6.3.32. Remedial Learning Materials

Taking the error percentages of the items under study into **consideration**, learning materials for the teaching of grammar, reading comprehension, and vocabulary should be devised for remedial purposes supplemented with teaching aids (both audio and visual) and trained teachers to handle them. Emphasis should also be given to the **items** assessed to be the most serious and serious by the evaluators for devising such materials.

6.3.33. Grammar

Teaching **grammar** has always been a tedious job for most of the English language teachers in Nepal. Therefore, they prefer the teaching of other **skills** to that of grammar. However, an innovative teacher can make its teaching a most lively activity that students may enjoy.

The point is whether teaching of grammar is to be done overtly or covertly; explicitly or **implicitly**; deductively or inductively, i.e. the teacher should begin with overt grammatical rules and then make the students discover the working of rules through examples and exercises while presenting the lessons. The latter type of activity, though getting popularity elsewhere, is yet to take off in Nepal. The school syllabuses emphasise the teaching of patterns in situations, but it has not been practised by the teachers to the extent they are expected to. The **students** are often exposed to overt grammar rules **with insufficient** prac-

tice in them. As a result of which the students who enter the university do not have the required proficiency in the English grammar and they are found even unable to exhibit their ability in the grammatical **items** repeated in the PCL first year syllabus. This proficiency gap can be bridged by **introducing** remedial courses on English Grammar specially devised to cope with the reality represented in the present study. Such remedial exercises can either be incorporated into the existing PCL syllabus or treated separately.

The teaching of the grammatical items **included** or not **included** in the present study can be presented and practised following the works of Celce-Murcia et al. (1983), **Harmer** (1987), **Celce-Murcia** and **Hilles** (1988), Hall and Shephard (1991), Seibel and Hodge (1991) and Dart (1992).

Harmer (1987:10) proposes both covert and overt kind of teaching of grammar, but he suggests that "... we must teach not only the form, but also one of its functions, and not only *meaning* but also *use*". He also mentions that the presentation of the **grammar** lesson should be clear, efficient, and **interesting; appropriate** and **productive**. such a presentation should be **supplemented** by charts, dialogues, mini-situations, etc. Discovery techniques are also suggested to make the students discover rules from the examples given to them. Celce-Murcia and **Hilles** (1988) suggest a similar approach but they present four steps or stages in a grammar lesson, like presentation, focused practice, communicative practice (which incorporates information-gap, choice and feedback), and teacher feedback and correction.

The presentation of the grammatical item should be done preferably inductively using a variety of techniques that suit teachers' strength, **students'** preference and the nature of the text. Exercises for focused practice (i.e. for manipulative purposes) are easier to devise but difficult for **communicative** practice. Keeping this practical problem **in** view, this section includes some model exercise adapted from Herman and Young (1978), Seibel and Hodge (1991) and Dart (1992) for the teaching

of articles, modals, reported speech, spelling, and verbs and adverbs. For teaching of other grammatical items, similar types of exercises can either be adapted or devised by the teachers.

6.3.331. Model Exercises

A. Reported Speech

1. Using each direct statement given in Quotation marks, compose a **that** - cJause. Follow the rule of sequence of tenses when it is appropriate:

Example: "I won't ever forget you. "

A: What did she say at the airport before you parted?

B: She said that she wouldn't ever forget me.

i) "I'm going home because I didn't sleep well last night, and I'm just too exhausted to work."

A: Why is your secretary putting on her coat?

B: She says _____.

li) "I've a stomachache because I ate something bad last night."

A: She's always got some kind of problem hasn't she?

B: Yes, just last week, she complained _____

2. Hari is studying at the University of Hyderabad. Last week he called home. His mother was there; his father was out of the country on a long business trip. Change *Hari's quoted speech* in the left hand column to reported speech in the right-hand column:

Hari said: In a letter to Hari's father, Hari's mother wrote. "It's very hot here. " He also said that it was very hot there.

"My studies are going well" _____

"Can you send me some clothes?" He asked if _____

"I know that I haven't written _____
many letters but I promise _____ but he promised

I'll write soon." that _____

"Do you want me to send anything?" _____

"Last night I met a man _____
from our hometown." _____

"I plan to come home **this** _____
summer for a **while**." _____

B. Modal Verbs

1. *Using must, should or ought to, put an appropriate verb phrase in each blank. Use the base forms given in parentheses, and use adverbs when they are required. Use pronoun subjects of your own choice when required:*

Example: A: *My friend says he's going to ~~give~~ me a car for my birthday.*

B: (be) *You shouldn't be so crazy. Why, he doesn't even have a single penny to his name. (pull) He must have been pulling your leg when he told you that.*

A: Oh! Wow! My stomach is beginning to growl; it almost hurts.
I am so hungry!

B: (be) Well, you _____ hungry; you haven't eaten anything since yesterday morning at **breakfast**. (growl) your **tomach** _____.
Why are you on this crazy diet? I love you the way you **are**. (be) you _____ a little crazy.

2. *Fill in the blanks with appropriate forms of can, could, or be able to:*
The subject pronouns you and one frequently occur.

A: Yes, **Hari**, just why was Mohan disappointed?

B: (finish) He _____ his voyage around the world.

A: Listen, you're not strong to walk, are you?

B: (hardly I get up) Oh, my, _____, I'm afraid (even/lift) I _____ my arm, I'm so weak.

C. Articles

1. *Supply in each blank a, an and the wherever necessary.*

A: Have you read _____ article in _____ Rising Nepal?

B: Yes, just _____ other day in fact.

A: What was _____ article about?

B: It was about _____ political situation in _____ capital.

2. *Supply in each blank a, an and the wherever necessary.*

A: Where were you yesterday?

B: I had to attend _____ day-long meeting.

A: **Was** _____ meeting about opening a **new** school in the village?

B: Yes, and it **was** _____ complete waste of my **time**.

p. *Spelling*

1. form each of the *following* words-.

For example: **guide+ance** * guidance.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| i. create+ion = | vii. resemble+ance . |
| ii. please+ure • | viii. love+ing |
| Complete+ion • | ix. smoke+ed = |
| iv. dy+ing • | x. scare+ed - |
| v. awe+ful • | xi. arrange+ing = |
| vi. true+ly • | xii. receive+er . |

2. All of the following sentences contain *spelling* errors.

Rewrite the sentences, correcting the errors, in the space *provided*:

- i) Shyam was curseing **his** fate. Cursing
- 11) I have applied to three campus. _____
- Hi) I am looking for a peice of action. _____
- iv) New Road is the busyest street in **Kathmandu**. _____
- v) I am a very **happly** married man. _____
- iv) All these partitions are **moveable**. _____

E. *Verbs and Adverbs*

1. *Underline* all the verbs in the following sentences. / is done for you.

- 1. Sita washed the dishes and then dried them.
- 2. Tourists were swimming in the ocean and tanning themselves on the beach.
- 3. We stripped the wall paper and ainted the walls.
- 4. The fans were cheering and waving banners.
- 5. Reena took the course and learned to speak English.
- 6. He was moaning and groaning all night long.
- 7. They were angry and did not hesitate to tell us so.
- 8. I called her and told her the news.
- 9. We have always worked hard, and now it is paying off.
- 10. In the summer, I sneeze a lot and get itchy eyes.

2. *Finish sentence 8 so that it has about the same meaning as sentence A.*

- 1. A. Someone stole the mayor's car last night.
B. The mayor's car _____
- 2. A. The police have not found the car yet.
B. The car _____

3. A. The mayor hopes that **they will** find it soon.
B. **The** mayor hopes that **it** _____
4. A. It would be great to **win** the **prize**, but I don't think I will.
B. I **wish** I _____, but I probably won't.
5. A. I would jump for joy if I won the prize.
B. If I _____ to win the prize, I would jump for joy.
6. A. I would have to be taller to play basket ball.
B. If I _____.
7. A. He hopes to graduate in May.
B. He hopes that he _____.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX - I GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Code | _____ |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Name : | 2. Age : |
| 3. Sex : Male/Female | A. Mother tongue : |
| 5. Birth place : | District : Village/Town : |
| 6. Name of the school you have passed the SLC from : | |
| 7. a. Medium of instruction at School: English/Nepali/others (specify): | |
| b. Your marks in English in the SLC Examinations: | |
| 8. Name of the campus- | Faculty/Institute: |
| 9 a. Father's qualification. | 9b. Occupation: |
| 10a. Mother's qualification. | 10b. Occupation: |

Please tick (✓) in the appropriate box in reply to the following questions:

Note: A=Always, S=Surely, Some=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

- | | A | S | Some | R | N |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 11. Do you speak Nepali at home? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. Do you speak English at home? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. Do you read English stories/
novels/poems? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. Do you read English newspapers/
magazines? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. Do you listen to English music? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Do you comprehend English songs? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. Do you see English movies? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Do you commit errors/make
mistakes while speaking in
English? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Do you commit errors/make
mistakes while writing in
English? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Can you read an English passage
accurately with reasonably
high speed? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

21. Was your performance good in
English in your school level
examinations?

--	--	--	--	--

27. Do your parents speak **English**
at home?

--	--	--	--	--

23. Do your **brothers/sisters**
speak **English** at home?

--	--	--	--	--

24. Do you **speak English** with
your friends?

--	--	--	--	--

Table Mo.t
Information obtained from the general questionnaire

Faculty/ Institute	HUM	MGT	MED	AGR	SC	EDU	ENGG	FOR	LAW	TOTAL	PER- CENT.		
<u>Sex</u>													
Male		20	-	25	24	22	30	25	20	166	61.48		
female	30	10	30	5	6	8	-	5	10	104	38.52		
<u>Mother tongue</u>													
1.Nepali	16	19	20	30	25	24	16	17	18	185	68.52		
2.Newari	8	8	4	-	2	1	2	5	2	32	11.85		
3.Gurung	1	?	6			1		3	1	14	5.18		
4.Maithili					\		6	2	4	13	4.81		
5.Bhojपुरi					1	1	3		3	6	2.96		
6.Magar	-	-	-	-		2	-	2	2	6	2.22		
7.Limbu	?		-	-		-	-	1	-	3	1.11		
8.Rai	1					1				2	0.74		
9.Tamang	1	-	-	-		-	1	-	-	2	0.74		
10.Tharu	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2	0.74		
11.Thakali		-			1					1	0.37		
12.Sherpa		1								1	0.37		
13.Khaling	1	-								1	0.37		
<u>Birth place</u>													
Village	15	16	22	26	18	27	26	25	23	198	73.3		
Town	15	14	8	4	12	3	4	5	7	72	26.7		
<u>Medium of instruction</u>													
English	10	2	4	2	9	1	-	4	1	33	13.04		
Nepali	15	24	19	22	13	24	30	22	25	194	76.68		
Both		3	4	2	5	2	4		3	3	2	6	10.28
<u>Schooling</u>													
General	12	20	23	23	15	27	30	23	28	201	74.44		
Boarding	18	10	7	7	15	3		7	2	69	25.56		
<u>Age (average)</u>										Average			
	17	17	18	17	18	19	18	18	18	17.7			
<u>Marks in English</u>													
(average)	54.1	47.9	52.2	56.1	60.3	47.4	56.4	50.9	46.5	52.4			

Parents' Qualifications and Occupations

Qualifications	Male	Female	Occupations	Male	Female
Illiterate	67	145	Agriculture	109	80
Under SLC	58	41	Job (service)	87	12
SIC	26	72	Business	34	4
PCL	25	12	Housework	-	138
Bachelors' Level	59	8			
Masters' Level	21	3			
Ph D	3				

Table Mo. 2

Use of **English** outside the classroom

Please tick (✓) in the appropriate box in reply to the following questions :

Note: A=Always, S=Surely, Some=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never.

	A	S	Some	R	N
11. Do you speak Nepali at home?	164	54	30	4	10
12. Do you speak English at home?	2	11	99	57	94
13. Do you read English stories/ novels/poems?	3	44	156	41	18
14. Do you read English newspapers/ magazines?	12	35	143	48	21
15. Do you listen to English music?	14	22	102	51	75
16. Do you comprehend English songs?	3	16	58	53	117
17. Do you see English movies?	7	36	97	46	65
18. Do you commit errors/make mistakes while speaking in English?	16	74	122	42	12
19. Do you commit errors/make mistakes while writing in English?	10	65	120	45	14
20. Can you read an English passage accurately with reasonably high speed?	19	92	63	50	35
21. Was your performance good in English in your school level examinations?	35	74	68	39	29
22. Do your parents speak English at home?	2	8	51	28	159
23. Do your brothers/sisters speak English at home?	7	25	101	46	71
24. Do you speak English with your friends?	16	33	147	47	22

APPENDIX-2

TEST PACKAGE

I. LISTENING TEST

1. Sound Discrimination Test

Listen carefully. One word from each pair of **the** words **given** below **will** be pronounced only once. Circle the word you hear on the **cassette** recorder.

For example: You will hear: */pin/*. You may have been given options like, pen, pin, or pun, etc. But you will circle around the word */pin/*.

3. Vowels

No,	a	b	c	d
1. ease	is	feet	fit	deep
2. had	head	sat	set	land
3. hid	head	sit	set	wrist
4. not	naught	stock	stalk	pot
5. bud	bird	shut	shirt	such
6. cut	cart	hut	heart	bun
7. large	lodge	last	lost	heart
8. full	fool	pull	pool	look
9. bug	bag	mud	mad	fun
10. hut	hot	cut	cot	gun
11. firm	farm	heard	hard	dirt
17. alloy	alloy	and	ant	as
13. pen	pain	tell	tail	men
14. law	low	hall	hole	bought
15. hair	here	air	ear	dare
16. toy	tie	boy	by	voice
17. poor	pair	cure	care	sure
18. load	loud	know	now	gone
19. bay	buy	race	rice	rate

b. Consonants

No.	a	b	c	d					
1.	ten	den	set	said	sight	side	time	dime	
7.	path	bath	rip	rib	peas	bees	Jap	lab	
3	could	good	cot	got	leak	league	pick	pig	
4.	fan	van	fine	vine	leaf	leave	belief	believe	
5.	thigh	thy	thin	this	ether	either	bath	bathe	
6.	rice	rise	race	raise	advice	advise	seal	seal	
7.	dilu- tion	delu- sion	pres- sure	plea- sure	ravish	ravage	dec- sion	divi- sion	
8.	chin	gin	chest	jest	rich	ridge	cheap	jeep	
9.	met	net	might	night	beam	bean	sum	sun	
10.	sin	sing	ran	rang	ton	tongue	sinner	singer	
11.	led	red	light	right	alive	arrive	long	wrong	
12.	vet.	wet	vine	wine	vest	vest	verse	worse	
13.	yet	wet	yell	well	yard	ward	you've	we've	
14.	tin	thin	tank	thank	fate	faith	tick	thick	
15.	day	they	die	thy	dish	this	wordy	worthy	
16.	three	free	thirst	first	death	deaf	thin	fin	
17.	best	ves	r	boat	vote	ban	van	Jib	live
18.	see	she	ass	ash	sell	shell	sock	shock	
19.	ship	chip	wish	which	washing	watching	share	chair	
20.	thick	sick	path	pass	theme	seem	useful	youthful	
21.	ledger	leisure	major	measure	pledge	pleasure	bridge	beige	
22.	risen	vision	razor	erasure	rose	rouge	lose	luge	
23.	cloth- ing	closing	breethe	breeze	clothe	close	teethe	tease	
24.	hand	and	hall	all	hear	ear	heart	art	
25.	pin	fin	pan	fan	pit	fit	pat	fat	
26.	some	sung	rum	rung	ram	rang	clam	clang	
27.	lose	lodge	vase	badge	freeze	bridge	razor	major	

(Note: The italicised words are the correct answers which were not supplied in the test given to the students).

i i. *L f stoning Comprehension rest

L fs ten to the passage carefully. The passage will be read only once. You will then have to answer the Questions asked.

Launching Your Kite

Ideal conditions for flying a kite are a large open place like a field or a beach, and fairly strong wind, blowing from one direction without any sudden gusts. Avoid places such as river banks, where the wind changes suddenly. Small kites will be much

easier to fly in a gentle wind, and may well tear if the wind is too strong. Stand with your back to the wind and unwind several metres of thread, holding the kite at arm's length and pulling on the thread gently. A kite should never be thrown into the air, but **simply** be released when the wind is strong enough to lift it. Be very careful in handling your kite and try to avoid any sudden movement once it is in the air. If a particularly violent gust of wind causes it to lose height, unwind a little of the thread to give it **extra** play. Never pull it **along** on the ground once it has come down or you will tear it.

If you want to bring the kite down in a hurry, make the thread fast or give it to some one to hold, put your arm over the thread and run towards the kite. Always take a pair of scissors, some glue, cellotape and two or three strips of paper with you for on the spot repair. Never fly a kite near a railway line, electricity poles, or a busy road. If the kite comes down suddenly, in front of a car, it may cause an accident. Never fly a kite in stormy weather because it could act as a lightning conductor.

Now tick (✓) the best answer.

1. It is best to fly a kite
 - a. by a river.
 - b. *in a field.*
 - c. near a **railway line.**
 - d. on a busy road,
2. **The** best wind for a small kite is
 - a. *gentle.*
 - b. fairly **strong.**
 - c. very **strong.**
 - d. stormy.
3. You must not fly a kite
 - a. near a **school.**
 - b. in a **field.**
 - c. in a **beach.**
 - d. *by a road.*
4. Which of the following is not needed while repairing a kite?
 - a. some glue.
 - b. paper **strips.**
 - c. **needle.**
 - d. *cellotape.*
5. If your kite suddenly starts coming down, you should
 - a. pull it along on the **ground.**
 - b. wind the kite in.
 - c. *unwind the thread slightly.*
 - d. snap the thread quickly.

(Note: Correct alternatives are italicised but this was not done in the original test)

f. Multiple Choice Test

*Circle or underline the word or phrase **which** best completes the **sentence**.*

Example: Ram (~~is playing~~) (~~playing~~) (plays) badminton everyday.

1. Come and sit beside (mine) (myself) (**me**)
2. They are fond of (**themselves**) (~~each~~ other) (their).
3. Everyone should ask (oneself) (**themselves**) (himself), if they are properly guided by their parents.
4. Don't tell me your problems. I have got enough of (me) (~~mine~~) (~~my own~~).
5. Is that your **purse**? No, it is (her) (her's) (hers).
6. I thought it was (of you) (your's) (~~yours~~).
7. A **man** with four children (~~was~~) (~~were~~) killed.
8. There (~~is~~) (~~are~~) a pen and a pencil on the table.
9. There (is) (**are**) five pens and ten pencils on the table.
10. The **Sharmas** (is) (~~are~~) very rich in the city.
11. Either Rita or Sita (~~is~~) (~~are~~) present today.
12. Each of them (~~play~~) (~~plays~~) basketball.
13. Sheep (~~give~~) (~~gives~~) us wool.
14. Some of them (is) (~~are~~) good in Mathematics.
15. Neither he nor I (~~are~~) (~~am~~) ready to pay for the bill.
16. One of you (~~has~~) (~~have~~) to go shopping.
17. (~~The earth~~) (~~An earth~~) (~~Earth~~) moves round the sun.
18. She **is** (an) (~~a~~) (~~-~~) university student.
19. This is (~~a~~) (~~the~~) (~~an~~) nice way of dealing with people.
20. Eat (~~the~~) (~~a~~) (~~an~~) apple every day in the morning.
21. We (~~must~~) (~~can~~) (~~might~~) (~~may~~) eat food to stay alive. With out food we would die.
22. If you want to catch the bus, you (~~could~~) (**might**) (~~should~~) (~~may~~) run fast.
23. You (**must**) (~~should~~) (~~needn't~~) (~~mustn't~~) drive fast because there is a speed **limit** here.
24. You (~~must~~) (~~should~~) (~~needn't~~) (~~mustn't~~) do your homework tonight. You can leave it **till** tomorrow.
25. He can speak **English** very well; he (~~can~~) (~~could~~) (~~must~~) (~~may~~) do so even when he was at school.
26. Take **some** money. You (~~can~~) (~~could~~) (~~might~~) (~~may~~) **need** it at any time.
27. I (~~can~~) (**may**) (~~might~~) (~~would~~) see no light in the room. Sita may be out.
28. He (~~would~~) (**was able to**) (~~might~~) (~~can~~) swim halfway before he collapsed.
29. You (~~would have~~) (~~ought to~~) (~~need~~) (~~might~~) finish your work before going out.

30. They (**must have**) (could have) (**might**) (may) broken several **plates**. There are lots of pieces scattered around.
31. He (can) (may) (might) (**must have**) passed the **M.A.** He is teaching at a campus.
37. Me had no formal **qualifications**, (because) (as) (because of) (**however**) he got the job.
33. (Because of) (In spite of) (**Although**) (As) the books are expensive, students do buy them.
34. I went to the bank (and) (for) (so that) (in order to) draw some money.
35. (**In spite of**) (Because of) (Because) (Although) his illness, he went to school to hand in his home work.
36. (So that) (As) (Because of) (In spite of) there was no sugar, we drank coffee without it.
37. (As) (As soon as) (Although) it is getting late, I suggest we break off now.
38. Take an umbrella (**so that**) (as though) (however) (because) you don't get wet.
39. We got **completely** wet (because) (**even though**) (in spite of) (due to) we took an umbrella.
40. I went to the market (in order to) (so that) (for) (and) buy a pair of shoes.
41. He **didn't** buy a silk sari (however) (because of) (so) (**for**) it was too expensive.
42. We started early (**so that**) (for) (because) (since) we **might** not miss the bus.
43. It **will** be done (so that) (however) (in order to) (**since**) you **desire** it.
44. Ram is (strong) (**stronger**) (the strongest) than Hari.
45. A boy of sixteen is often as (taller) (**tall**) (tallest) as his father.
46. This boy is the (**cleverest**) (more clever) (most cleverest) of all in the class.
47. **It** is the (less) (lesser) (**least**) attractive of all the houses I have seen.
48. Of the two boys in the class, who is (honest) (**more honest**) (the most honest)?
49. She read as (many) (**much**) as she could.
50. Are there (**any**) (some) letters for me?
51. There is (**some**) (any) milk in that jug.
52. He hadn't won (much) (**many**) races.
53. She wanted some stamps but there weren't (**any**) (some).
54. Ho prefers to buy (velvet blue) (**blue velvet**) saris.
55. Your nephew is (**a nice little**) (a little nice) boy.
56. If I were you, I (need) (**would**) (must) buy a car.
57. **If I** (**had known**) (knew) (know) that you are coining today, I would have met you at the airport.
58. **If I** (have) (**had**) (have had) a typewriter, I would type my letters myself.

59. I will stay her@ tomorrow, **if** it (*rains*) (rained) (**will rain**).
60. I would help you, if I (have) (*had*) (would have) time.
61. Do you enjoy (to teach) (*teaching*)?
62. We began (to *walk*) (walking) down the road.
63. She is old enough (to *travel*) (traveling) by herself.
64. Did you **remember** (to post) (posting) that letter J gave **you**?
65. He gave up (to smoke) (*smoking*).
66. Would you **mind** (to open) (*opening*) the window?
67. I have tried (to do) (doing) my best.
68. You take sugar in tea, (do you) (*don't you*) (won't you) (is it)?
69. He didn't find your books, (**din't** he) (doesn't he) (*did he*) (did you)?
70. He worked **hard**, (does he) (doesn't he) (did he) (*didn't he*)?
71. He's ten years old (hasn't he) (*isn't he*) (doesn't he) (wasn't he)?
72. But nobody complained, (don't they) (didn't they) (*do they*)?
73. She (was) (has been) (is being) (*is going to be*) a doctor when she completes her studies.
74. The winter (will be) (has been) (*was*) (had been) cold last **year**.
75. The sun (is rising) (rose) (*rises*) (will rise) **in** the east very morning.
76. I'm sure it (rained) (*will rain*) (has rained) (rain) **tomor-row**.
77. she (is writing) (*was* writing) (has written) (writes) **a** letter, when we reached her home.
78. It's 8.30 a.m. now **and** he is still reading. Dy 10.30 a.m. he (is reading) (has read) (read) (*will have been reading*) for over two hours.
79. **Hari** (is writing) (*has been writing*) (was writing) (writes) since early morning. He is still writing.
80. The train (didn't come yet) (*hasn't come yet*) (has already come) (already come) but it will **come** soon.
81. Before the end of this year, they (had passed) (will passed) (*will have passed*) (will be passing) **B.Sc.**
82. He (dies) (*had died*) (was dead) (was dying) before the doctor arrived.
83. You have missed the plane. It (was just leaving) (had just left) (*has Just left*) (just left).
84. After the film last night, I (*came*) (had come) (would come) (come) home.
85. Mr. Sharma (writes) (*is writing*) (writing) (was writing) a letter now.
86. Hari (will) (will have) (*will be*) (is going to) completing his studies next year.

87. Ram (ls working) (**hadbeen** working) (was working) (works) in this factory for five years before he got his first promotion.
88. **My** school starts (in) (on) (at) (from) 10 o'clock.
89. I came to **Kathmandu** (on) (in) (at) (from) 1989.
90. We have a half holiday (in) (from) (at) (on) Friday.
91. He has been working here (for) (**in**) (since) (to) 1970.
92. They have been studying in this campus (since) (**for**) (to> (on) five years.
93. Please wait for me I'll be back (on) (in) (for) (by) 5 o'clock.
94. You **will** have to wait (until) (at) (in) (to) Thursday.
95. Meet me (on) (for) (at) (from) the bus stop.
96. It is difficult to **keep** the dogs (off) (out) (over) (of) the flower beds.
97. You and **Ram** must settle the matter (in) (among) (**between**) (by) yourselves.
98. **Biratnagar** is (at) (from) (in) (**to**) the east of Kathmandu.
99. The thief came **in** (over) (from) (throughout) (through) the window.
100. Many planes fly (into) (across) (under) (**from**)the Atlantic now-a-days.
101. We hung your calender (over) (besides) (under) (on) the fire place.
102. My hat fell (in) (over) (at) (under) the chair as I was **leaving** the room.
103. When it rained, we all went (into) (over) (underneath) (about) the tree.

Tick (✓) the sentence **which** is closest in **meaning**.

104. They **make** these artificial flowers of silk.
- These artificial flowers of silk is made by them.
 - These artificial flowers of silk made by them.
 - These artificial flowers of silk they had made.
 - These artificial** flowers of **silk** are made by them.
105. They have organized a seminar recently.
- A seminar have been organized by them recently.
 - A seminar has been organised by them recently.
 - A seminar is organized by them recently.
 - A seminar had been organized by them recently.
106. Students are writing research papers this term.
- Research papers are being writing by students **this** term.
 - Research papers are being **written** by students this term.
 - Research papers are written by students **this** term.
 - Research papers were being written by students this term.

107. They **built** this campus in 1980.

- a. This campus is built by **them** in 1980.
- b. *Th is* campus was **built** by them in **1980**.
- c. This campus is built in 1980 by them.
- d. This campus had **built in** 1980 by them.

108. "I am not well", said Ram.

- Ram said
- a. that I am not well.
 - b. he had not been well.
 - c. *that he was not well*
 - d. that I was not well.

109. He asked her, "Where are you going?"

- He asked her
- a. where she is going.
 - b. *where she was going.*
 - c. where was she going.
 - d. that where she was going.

110. He said, "Bring me a glass of water."

- He said
- a. that bring me a glass of water.
 - b. *to bring him* a glass of water.
 - c. to bring me a glass of water.
 - d. that I bring a glass of water.

111. He said to us, "Did you win any prizes last year?"

- He asked us
- a. *if we had won any prizes the year before.*
 - b. if we won some prizes the year before.
 - c. if we won any prizes the year before.
 - d. if you won any prizes the year before.

*Tick f ✓) the sentence **which** is made by joining these sentences:*

112. He has sent me a book. I had asked for it.

- a. He has sent me a book that I had asked for it.
- b. *He has sent me the book which I had asked for.*
- c. He has sent me that book I had asked for it.
- d. He has sent me the book I had asked for it.

113. The boy was caught. He stole the watch.

- a. The boy was caught **when** he was stealing the watch.
- b. The boy was caught that he stole the watch.
- c. The boy was caught where he stole the watch.
- d. *rhe boy who stole the watch was caught.*

114. He spent most of his valuable days in Patan. He was born in Patan.

- a. He was born in Patan where he spent most of his valuable days in Patan.
- b. *He spent most of his valuable days in Patan where he was born.*
- c. He spent most of his valuable days in Patan where he was born in Patan.
- d. He spent most of his valuable days in Patan where he was born.

(Note: Correct alternatives are italicised here, but this was not done in the original test)

//. Error **Identification** Test

Read the following paragraph and rewrite the sentences by correcting the errors in the space only given under each **sentence**:

Examples: 1. He comes to see me **seldom**. > He seldom comes to see me.
2. **Either** Ram or **his** brother have to **find** the money. >
Either Ram or **his** brother has to **find** the money.

I have two friends. One of them 1 have gone to Delhi. The other one 2 is suffering from fever since yesterday. He hasn't been to see a doctor. He generally 3 take medicines without consulting the doctor. Such medicines do not cure him. Sometimes he takes 4 advices from the chemist also. I always tell him that we can't trust these 5 kind of people. I also tell 6 his that I wouldn't have done that, if I 7 was him. He 8 needs not have taken the medicines without the doctor's advice. But he doesn't listen to anybody. He is 9 enough foolish to believe such people. His sickness is serious this time. So he is thinking of 10 to visit Dr. Sharma. Dr. Sharma is 11 (the) most popular doctor in the city.

Today my friend **is** asking me to **go with him** to the doctor's **clinic**. When we reach New Road, we **find** that Dr. Sharma hasn't come to **his** clinic **12 now**. The clerk says that the doctor often comes **13 lately**. But after some **time** he comes **in**. He says to us, "I shall call you, when I **14 will be ready**." After an hour, he calls my friend. My friend tells him what has happened to him. The doctor checks him over. He asks my friend why **15 doesn't he** call him **1n time**. He also asks him if he smokes. My friend admits to it. Then the doctor says, "If you count on me **16 helping you**, you have to stop **smoking**." My friend **agrees** to do so.

(Note: Errors are italicised and numbered here, but not in the original test).

Answers: 1 has, 2 has **been**, 3 takes, 4 advice, 5 kinds, 6 him, 7 had been, 8 need, 9 foolish enough, 10 visiting, 11 the, 12 yet, 13 late, 14 am, 15 he **doesn't**, 16 to help

111. Translation test

Translate the following sentences into English.

1. "हरि, हिजो तिमी कहाँ गयो?" रामले सोध्यो।
2. हरिले जवाफ दियो, "म कहिँ छनि गइन।"
3. रामले सोध्यो, "के तिमी हिजो सिनेमा हेर्न गस्नौ?"
4. "अहं गइन।" हरिले जवाफ दियो।
5. रामले भन्यो, "तिमी किन खाँचो बोल्दैनौ?"
6. तिम्रो साथी क्याम जो हिजो तिमीसित थियो आज पनि आयो।
7. आज तिमी क्याम्पस किन आस्नौ भनेर सोध्दै थियो।
8. उसले भन्यो कि उ तिमीसित सिनेमा हेर्न गस्को थियो।
9. आज हामी हनुमानढोका हेर्न गयौं जुन राजा मानदेवले बनाएका थिए।"
10. अन्तमा हरिले भन्यो, "हो, म सिनेमा हेर्न गस्को थिएँ।"

Answer to the translation test:

1. "Hari, where did you go yesterday?" Ram asked.
2. Hari replied, "I didn't go anywhere".
3. Ram asked. 'Didn't you go to see/watch a film yesterday?"
4. "No, I didn't". Hari replied.
5. Ram said, "Why don't you speak the truth"?
6. Your friend Shyam who was with you yesterday came today also.
7. He was asking why you didn't go to campus today.
8. He said that he had gone to see a film with you.
9. Today we went to see Hanumandhoka which had been built by King Mandev."
10. At last Hari said, "Yes, I had gone to see a film."

III. WORD-FORMATION AND WORD MEANING TEST

i. Word-formation test

a. Prefixes

A. Match the following prefixes with the words given:

Example:	un-	lucky	unlucky
	dis-	legal	illegal
	il-	ability	disability
	im-	rational	irrational
	non-	mature	immature
	in-	smoker	non-smoker
	ir-	capable	incapable

b. Suffixes

Match the following suffixes with the words given:

Example:	use	-ful	useful
	king	-al	k ingdom
	happy	-hood	happiness
	agree	-ness	agreement
	invent	-dom	invention
	arrive	-ion	arrival
	child	-ful	childhood
	mouth	-ment	monthful

(Note: Answers are given in italics for the present purpose)

11. Word Meaning test

C. Tick (✓) the word or phrase that is closest in **meaning** to the word or phrase **underlined** in each of the following sentences:

1. As **the** tiger saw **a** goat, **it** pounced upon it.
a. measured b. attacked c. walked d. crushed to pieces
2. There are several **inaccessible** places in Nepal.
a. reachable b. attainable c. remote d. approved
3. Krishna Bahadur used to tell **incredible** stories.
a. unbelievable b. believable c. charmless d. terrible
4. Gopal Bahadur **settled down** in **Janakpur**.
a. scattered b. argued c. lived d. travelled
5. Many students wish to go **abroad** for further studies.
a. inside a plane b. a meadow c. a meeting place **d. overseas**
6. We **celebrate** Tihar in the month of Kartik.
a. curse b. mourn c. neglect d. observe

(Note: Answers italicised for the present purpose)

IV. CLOZE TEST

Read each passage (*the entire* paragraph.) **carefully**. Then fill in the words that have been left out. **Each** blank must be filled **with** only one **word**:

1. Yesterday, Bhanu went to (1) _____ a film which was (2) _____ funny it made him (3) _____. When he came back (4) _____ told the story to (5) _____ elder **and** younger sisters (6) _____ also joined him in (7) _____. His father asked him (8) _____ they were laughing Bhanu (9) _____ **him** the story and (10) _____ began to laugh also (11) _____ mother came in and (12) _____ everyone laughing Without asking (13) _____ to anyone she too (14) _____ to laugh.
2. People must work hard (15) _____ develop their country. The (16) _____ of Japan stand as (17) _____ example of **it**. They (18) _____ so hard that they (19) _____ their country in a (20) _____ short period of **time** (21) _____ are now proud of (22) _____ own labour. All the (23) _____ countries should learn a (24) _____ from Japan.

3. Sita worked in a (25) **selling** household goods. People (26) different places came there (27) buy **foodstuffs** and many (28) goods. Though the prices (29) **high** people bought all (30) **things** that they need (31) that was the only (32) in the locality. The (33) made Sita work hard (34) the early morning to (35) late evening. She couldn't (36) anything **against** the shopkeeper (37) she feared that she (38) be dismissed. One day (39) asked him for leave (40) the shopkeeper would not (41) her to take any (42) she decided to **quit** (43) **job** forever and become (44) **village** school teacher.

Answer to the Cloze test

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| 1. see, watch, etc. | 18. worked/tried/
laboured, etc. | 31. because |
| 2. very/quite/
really/so/too, etc. | 19. developed/changed,
etc. | 32. shop/store |
| 3. laugh | 20. very | 33. shopkeeper |
| 4. he | 21. they | 34. from |
| 5. his | 22. their | 35. the |
| 6. who | 23. developing/
developed/
poor/other
neighbouring etc. | 36. say/do |
| 7. laughing | 24. lesson | 37. because |
| 8. why | 25. shop/store | 38. would/
could/
might |
| 9. told/narrated | 26. from | 39. she |
| 10. he | 27. to | 40. but |
| 11. Bhanu's/his | 28. other/similar/
useful, etc. | 41. allow/grant/
give, etc.
agree |
| 12. saw/found/
noticed | 29. were | 42. then/so |
| 13. anything | 30. the/many/various, etc. | 43. the/that, etc |
| 14. began | | 44. a |
| 15. to | | |
| 16. people/citizens | | |
| 17. an | | |

¥. WRITING TEST

Write an essay in about **150** words on any one of the following topics:

- An unforgettable event in your life
- Your **village** or town
- Your aim in life
- How did you spend your winter vacation?

APPENDIX - 3
TEST ANALYSIS

Table Mo. t
Errors obtained from sound discrimination test (vowels)

SI	Vowels	NS		MS		OSP		PSP		TOTAL	
		F	t	F	t	F	%	F	t	F	%
1	/i/	186	50.2	92	54.11	56	40.57	222	55.22	278	51.48
	/ɪ/	112	30.27	47	27.64	36	21.17	123	30.59	159	29.44
2	/æ/	170	45.94	72	42.35	32	18.82	210	52.23	242	44.81
	/a/	49	13.24	17	10.00	4	2.89	72	17.19	76	14.07
3	/ɛ/	102	27.56	35	20.58	17	12.31	120	29.85	137	25.37
	/e/	27	7.97	14	8.23	4	2.89	37	9.20	41	7.59
4	/o/	145	39.18	60	35.29	50	36.23	155	38.55	205	37.77
	/ɔ/	159	42.97	84	49.41	54	39.13	189	47.01	243	45.00
5	/ʌ/	173	46.75	63	37.05	49	35.50	187	46.51	236	47.70
	HI	67	18.10	28	16.47	6	4.34	89	22.13	95	17.59
i	/a/	147	39.72	53	31.17	46	33.33	154	38.30	200	37.03
	/ʌ/	155	41.89	59	34.70	37	26.81	177	44.02	214	39.62
7	/a/	76	20.54	34	20.00	18	13.04	92	22.88	110	20.37
	lol	41	11.08	12	7.05	10	7.46	43	10.69	53	9.81
8	/ʊ/	167	45.13	60	35.29	61	44.20	166	41.29	227	42.03
	/u/	166	44.86	93	54.70	55	39.85	204	50.74	259	47.96
9	/ʌ/	90	24.32	31	18.23	13	9.42	108	26.86	121	22.40
	/æ/	15	4.05	2	1.76	-	-	17	3.14	17	3.14
10	/o/	74	20.00	29	17.05	14	10.14	89	22.13	103	19.07
	/ʌ/	108	29.18	47	27.64	34	24.63	121	30.09	155	28.70
II	/a/	83	22.43	32	18.82	13	9.42	102	25.37	115	21.29
	/ɜ/	62	16.75	26	14.05	12	8.69	76	18.90	88	16.29
12	/ə/	22	5.94	10	5.88	4	2.89	28	6.96	32	5.92
	/θ/	23	6.21	17	10.00	5	3.62	35	8.70	40	7.40
13	/e/	221	59.72	95	55.88	71	51.44	245	60.94	316	51.51
	/ɛɪ/	62	16.75	23	13.52	16	11.59	69	17.16	85	15.74
14	/ɔ/	275	74.32	144	84.70	102	73.91	317	78.85	419	77.59
	/əʊ/	132	35.67	77	45.29	50	36.23	159	39.55	209	38.70
15	/ɜə/	140	37.83	69	40.58	49	35.5	160	39.80	209	38.70
	/eə/	122	32.97	47	27.64	22	15.94	147	36.56	169	31.29
16	/ɪə/	10	2.7	3	1.76	3	2.17	10	2.48	13	2.40
	/aɪ/	113	30.54	51	30.00	31	22.46	133	33.08	164	30.37
17	/eə/	50	13.51	21	12.35	12	8.69	59	14.67	71	13.14
	/eɪ/	46	12.43	4	2.35	4	2.89	46	11.44	50	9.25
18	/ɔ/	37	9.72	8	4.70	7	5.07	37	9.20	44	8.14
	/ə/	87	23.51	48	28.23	31	22.46	104	25.87	135	25.00
19	/ɛɪ/	32	8.64	10	5.88	7	5.07	35	8.70	42	7.77
	/ə/	19	5.13	4	2.35	1	0.72	22	5.47	23	4.25

Table 7

Errors obtained from sound discrimination test (consonants)

	Sound	r.		HMS		OSP		TOTAL	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	/H/	17	4.59			3	2.17	14	3.40
	/m/	102	27.56	30	22.35	29	21.01	111	27.61
2	/p/	87	23.51	27	15.00	14	10.14	100	24.07
	/b/	50	15.67	20	16.47	21	15.21	85	16.16
i	/k/	65	17.56	21	15.29	22	15.94	69	17.16
	/g/	122	32.97	31	10.23	31	22.46	122	30.34
4	/t/	17	3.13	7	4.11	2	1.44	17	4.22
	/d/	11	20.54	51	30.00	23	13.52	104	25.07
5	/θ/	90	24.32	32	10.02	25	10.11	77	24.12
	/ð/	63	17.02	24	14.11	12	8.69	75	11.15
6	/s/	17	20.27	25	14.70	11	10.50	82	20.39
	/z/	25	6.75	0	4.70	2	1.44	31	7.71
J	/ʃ/	00	21.47	21	12.35	12	8.69	89	22.13
	/ʒ/	16	1.32	12	1.05	5	3.62	23	5.73
n	/tʃ/	34	9.10	4	5.29	2	1.44	41	11.11
	/dʒ/	104	20.10	20	16.47	11	11.59	116	20.05
"	/w/	50	13.51	31	10.23	21	15.21	11	14.92
	/ɪ/	110	29.77	43	25.29	43	31.15	111	27.36
11	/m/	117	31.62	50	34.11	44	31.00	131	32.50
	/ʃ/	125	33.70	35	20.50	35	20.50	125	31.11
11	/r/	37	10.00	19	11.17	13	1.11	43	10.69
	/l/	15	4.05	4	2.35	2	1.44	17	4.22
17	/v/	N	10.37	37	10.02	21	15.29	74	10.40
	/w/	11	2.97	5	2.94	5	3.62	11	2.73
13	/w/	11	4.06	5	2.94	4	2.09	19	4.72
	/j/	33	0.91	5	2.94	6	4.34	32	1.11
14	/t/	114	30.81	69	40.50	40	20.90	143	35.57
	/θ/	39	11.51	11	11.1	7	5.17	40	11.94
15	/V/	52	10.5	33	19.41	21	15.21	11	15.92
	/θ/	121	34.05	52	30.50	34	24.63	144	35.17
16	/θ/	134	36.21	54	31.76	40	20.90	140	36.01
	/f/	50	15.67	47	27.11	32	23.10	73	10.15
17	/b/	113	30.54	47	27.64	34	21.13	121	31.34
	/v/	175	47.79	82	40.23	40	34.70	209	51.99
11	/θ/	156	42.16	77	45.29	11	47.02	117	41.54
	/r/	113	30.54	61	35.11	27	19.56	147	31.51
19	/tʃ/	34	10.54	19	11.17	4	1.52	49	12.10
	/l/	31	8.37	5	2.94	2	1.44	34	8.45
20	/θ/	74	20.00	17	15.29	12	8.69	11	21.09
	/s/	111	40.00	56	32.94	11	43.47	144	35.02
11	/ʒ/	92	24.11	40	24.23	31	22.46	109	27.11
	/b/	85	22.97	35	20.50	27	19.56	13	23.13
27	/z/	56	15.13	11	10.50	15	10.06	59	14.67
	/ʒ/	152	41.00	71	41.76	11	44.20	162	40.29
17	/z/	74	6.40	5	1.11	0	5.79	21	5.27
	/θ/	17	26.40	40	20.23	27	19.56	119	21.11
24	/A/	17	5.94	15	0.02	3	2.17	34	8.45
	/ɔ/	20	10.01	3	3.52	7	10.14	16	3.90
	/a/	27	14.59	12	14.11	7	10.14	32	7.96
	/u/	1	4.32	2	2.35	2	2.90	0	7.99
25	/p/	294	79.45	135	79.41	94	11.11	335	83.33
	/f/	40	10.01	13	7.64	0	6.52	44	10.94
26	/v/	159	42.97	56	32.94	40	20.90	175	45.53
	/u/	113	31.51	40	23.52	20	20.20	125	31.09
2)	/b/	113	30.54	20	16.47	11	13.04	123	30.59
	/z/	11	23.70	30	22.35	20	20.70	●	24.57
		m							

Tab 10 to.1

Errors obtained from listening comprehension test

Item No.	OS		NNS		BSP		PSP		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.	21	11.35	7	8.23	3	4.34	25	12.43	21	10.37
2.	81	43.78	46	54.11	21	30.48	106	52.73	127	47.03
3.	59	31.89	25	29.41	8	11.59	76	37.81	84	31.11
4.	94	50.80	41	48.30	19	27.53	116	57.71	135	50.00
5.	157	81.62	64	75.29	40	57.97	175	87.06	215	75.62

table to. 4

Errors obtained from multiple choice test

SNGrammatical Items	Nb. of Items	OS		NNS		BSP		PSP		TOTAL	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Modals & auxiliaries	11	751	36.90	331	35.40	169	22.26	913	41.29	1082	36.43
1. Prepositionse	16	1021	34.49	492	36.17	360	32.60	1153	35.85	1513	35.02
3. Gerund/ to-infinitive	7	465	35.9	188	31.59	111	22.98	542	38.52	653	34.55
4. Conjunctions	12	735	33.10	331	32.45	152	18.35	914	37.89	1066	32.90
5. Conditionals	5	295	31.89	137	32.23	111	32.17	321	31.94	432	32.00
6. Pronouns	7	399	30.8	178	29.91	96	23.18	481	34.18	577	30.52
7. Tenses	15	825	29.72	390	30.58	303	29.27	912	30.24	1215	30.00
8. S-V agreements	9	495	29.7	223	29.15	177	25.65	541	29.90	718	29.54
9. Passive voice	4	216	34.17	101	29.70	83	30.07	234	29.10	317	29.35
10. Adjectives	12	606	27.29	283	27.74	193	23.36	696	28.85	889	27.43
11. Articles	4	189	29.9	97	28.52	88	31.08	198	24.62	286	26.48
12. Reported speech	4	167	24.42	107	31.47	77	27.89	197	24.50	274	25.37
13. Relative clauses	3	86	15.49	46	18.03	26	9.66	112	18.57	132	16.29
14. Question-tags	5	116	12.54	66	14.11	58	16.81	118	11.74	121	13.03

Table to. S
[errors obtained from error identification test]

SN	Gramatical it MS tested	No. Of Items	NS F	NS I	NS F	NS I	BSP F	BSP I	PSP F	PSP I	TOTAL F	TOTAL I
I.	Gerund/ to infinitive	1	351	94.86	158	92.94	120	86.95	389	96.76	509	94.25
1.	Adjectives	1	172	92.97	78	91.76	53	76.81	197	98.00	250	92.59
3.	Tenses	1	170	91.69	74	87.05	57	82.60	187	93.03	244	90.37
4.	Adverbs	2	332	89.72	143	84.11	109	78.98	366	91.04	475	87.96
5.	Clauses Indirect Ques- tions	2	373	87.29	148	87.05	109	78.98	362	90.04	471	87.22
6.	Reported speech	1	160	86.48	71	83.52	53	76.81	178	88.55	231	85.55
7.	Nouns	1	149	80.54	66	77.64	47	68.11	168	83.58	215	79.62
8a.	Articles	1	148	80.00	63	74.11	37	53.62	174	86.56	211	78.14
8b.	Modals	1	132	71.35	79	92.94	36	52.17	175	87.06	211	78.14
9.	Concord	3	343	61.80	153	60.00	100	48.31	396	65.67	496	61.23
11.	Pronouns	1	96	51.89	38	44.70	16	23.18	118	58.70	134	49.22

Errors obtained from* translation test

SN	Gramatical Items	No. of Items	NS F	NS I	NS F	NS I	BSP F	BSP I	PSP F	PSP I	TOTAL F	TOTAL I
1.	Reported speech	2	307	82.97	140	82.35	92	76.81	355	88.30	447	82.77
2.	Relative clause	2	281	75.94	127	74.70	64	47.10	344	85.57	408	75.55
3.	Direct Speech	6	631	58.85	279	54.70	176	42.51	734	60.86	910	56.17
a.	Direct questions	3	350	63.06	160	62.74	97	46.85	413	68.49	510	62.96
b.	Quote sentences	3	281	50.63	119	46.66	79	38.16	321	53.23	400	49.38

Table to. 7
Errors obtained from word-formation ttest (prefixes)

SN	Items - Prefixes	MS		MS		BSP		PSP		TOTAL	
		F	%	F	t	F	t	F	t	F	%
1.	dis+ability	107	58.91	44	51.76	40	57.97	113	56.21	53	56.66
2.	in+capable	110	59.45	42	49.41	37	53.62	115	57.21	52	56.29
3.	non+smoker	54	29.18	11	11.76	9	13.04	55	27.36	64	23.70
4.	im+mature	45	24.32	13	15.29	7	10.14	51	25.37	58	21.48
5.	il+legal	37	20.00	12	14.11	6	8.69	43	21.39	49	18.14
i.	irr+ational	33	17.83	10	11.76	6	8.69	37	18.40	43	15.92

Table - 8
Errors obtained from word-formation ttest (suffixes)

SN	Items- Suffixes	NS		NNS		BSP		PSP		TOTAL	
		F	X	F	%	F	%	F	t	F	%
1.	happy+ness	140	75.67	65	76.46	41	59.42	164	81.59	205	75.92
2.	arrive+al	72	38.91	28	32.94	18	26.08	82	40.79	100	37.03
3.	mouth+ful	35	18.91	20	23.52	7	10.14	48	23.88	55	20.37
4.	agree+ment	36	19.45	18	21.17	9	13.04	45	22.38	54	20.00
5.	invent+ion	28	15.13	15	17.47	4	5.79	39	19.40	43	15.92
6.	king+dom	25	13.51	11	12.94	5	7.2	31	15.42	36	13.33
7.	child+hood	25	13.51	9	10.58	4	5.79	30	14.92	34	12.59

Table - 9
Errors obtained from wordmeaning ttest

SN	Words	NS		MS		BSP		PSP		TOTAL	
		F	%	F	%	F	t	F	I	F	t
1.	celebrate	67	36.71	28	32.94	23	33.33	72	35.82	95	35.18
2.	incredible	61	32.97	24	28.23	16	23.18	69	34.32	85	31.48
3.	abroad	44	23.78	16	18.82	7	10.14	53	26.36	60	22.22
4.	inaccessible	25	13.51	13	15.29	5	7.2	33	16.14	38	14.07
5.	settled down	12	6.48	4	4.7	1	1.44	15	7.46	16	5.92
6.	pounced	5	2.7	3	3.52	*		8	2.96	8	2.96

Errors obtained fm reading comprehension (Cloze) test

SN	No. of Items	Items	NS		MS		BSP		PSP		TOTAL	
			F	%	F	t	F	t	F	t	F	%
FUNCTION WORDS												
1.	?	Auxiliary Verbs	285	77.02	189	(4.11	70	50.72	324	80.59	344	72.96
2.	5	Articles	540	88.37	283	66.58	144	47.53	(59	(5.57	823	(0.96
3.	5	Conjunctions	668	72.21	194	45.(4	166	48.11	666	(5.27	822	(0.88
4.	8	Pronouns	616	41.62	251	36.91	163	29.52	704	43.78	877	40.13
5.	4	Prepositions	291	39.32	85	24.78	61	22.10	314	39.05	375	34.72
											3281	50.63
CONTENT WORDS												
1.	10	Verbs	1112	(0.10	445	54.70	323	46.81	1254	(3.38	1577	58.40
2.	6	Nouns	541	48.73	259	50.78	176	42.51	(24	51.74	800	49.30
3.	2	Adjectives	149	40.27	102	30.00	30	12.31	221	54.97	251	46.48
4.	2	Adverbs	170	45.94	58	34.11	21	7.(0	207	51.49	278	42.22
											2856	52.88

APPENDIX - 4

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ERROR GRAVITY

Name: _____ (Optional) Sex-. M/F
 Age: _____ (Years)
 Qualification: _____
 Area of specialization/Areas of research interests: _____
 Profession: _____ Teaching experience: _____
 Years: _____
 Mother tongue: _____
 Subject(s) you are teaching: _____

Dear Sir/Madam

Please read the following sentences drawn from the writings of the first year University Students (Certificate Level) of Nepal and evaluate them in terms of degree of their acceptability or the seriousness of their errors. Please fill in the blank space with A, B, D, D, £ whichever you feel necessary, against each sentence following the correlations given below. (Please note that A is not serious at all while £ is very serious):

Absolutely correct A
 Fairly acceptable B
 May be acceptable C
 May not be acceptable D
 Absolutely incorrect £

Total points deducted by both groups
 NNT NT

1. All of we came to our own houses.	147	166
2. A man with four children were killed.	167	170
3. I live in village.	71	90
4. Take some money. You can need it at any time.	113	108
5. The boy is the most cleverest of all in the class.	150	106
6. Although it is getting late, I suggest we break off now.	111	100
7. I will stay here tomorrow, if it will rain.	142	111
8. Would you mind to open the window?	92	92
9. But nobody complained, didn't they?	166	139
10. After passes B.Sc. I will study M.Sc.	186	152
11. The winter had been cold last year.	101	100
12. I came to Kathmandu on 1969.	146	116
13. My village name is Khanikhola.	117	87

14.	He asked her that where she was going.	161	149
15.	These artificial flowers of silk made by them.	169	164
16.	Where you went yesterday?	144	148
17.	The boy was caught when he stole the watch.	99	74
18.	In that temple once a year there will be pooja .	144	59
19.	My aim also a simple one.	166	138
20.	Buses, trucks and cars run on this route always.	101	70
21.	One of my friend brought the newspaper.	124	96
22.	He made her to take promise.	127	153
23.	Our village stays near a hill .	154	148
24.	I am a jeneral student.	149	134
25.	All of us not falling into the greed of money.	189	195
26.	There are a pen and a pencil on the table.	79	78
27.	Nepal is a agricultural country.	129	71
28.	It is 8:30 am now and he is still reading.		
	By 10:30 am he is reading for over two hours.	155	127
29.	Then the tiger was completely died.	155	148
30.	He was dead before the doctor arrived.	99	09
31.	They have been studying in the campus since five years.	129	100
32.	It will be done however you desire it.	125	52
33.	The doctor asks my friend why doesn't he call in time.	155	167
34.	Our family were gone to picnic at Deurali.	160	145
35.	we collected money from each students.	144	128
36.	He gave me money whenever I asked for money.	93	31
37.	I wouldn't recognize my mixtake .	155	93
38.	You have missed the plane. It had just left.	134	99
39.	Each of them play basket ball.	122	83
40.	He prefers to buy a velvet blue sari.	84	65
41.	After two years my I.Sc. is finished.	167	84
42.	The picnic was organized by ourself .	152	100
43.	Every person on this earth has their own aim.	141	83
44.	She is an university student.	126	74
45.	A short or long holiday will renewed our vigour.	176	125
46.	My district has very less advocates.	140	155
47.	There is neither smile on her face nor any sign of sympathy.	63	82
48.	I would like teaching English.	81	66
49.	He worked hard, did he?	163	56
50.	Our village improved a lot today.	119	65
51.	Most villagers believe on traditional treatment.	84	95
52.	I like a teacher job.	149	147
53.	Ram said that I was not well.	135	16
54.	This campus had built in 1980 by them.	118	91

55.	When I will pass engineering, I will come back to my village.	114	102
56.	They do so hard work for their aim.	193	189
57.	I am reading hardly and carefully.	172	191
58.	There are about three thousand population in my village .	170	155
59.	I think no respect for the teachers.	171	166
60.	I will also hard work there.	171	111

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

Jai R. Awasthi
Tribhuvan University
Kirtipur, Kathmandu

APPENDIX - 5

TEACHING ITEMS FROM SYLLABUS

A. *Teaching Items of Lower Secondary Level English* (Grade VI)

SN	Teaching Items
----	----------------

- | | |
|-----|---|
| 1. | one/the other |
| 2. | which |
| 3. | how much? |
| 4. | a lot of/a little ; a few/much, many |
| 5. | can/can't |
| 6. | made of |
| 7. | simple past (be/have/do/v ed) |
| 8. | want/infinitive |
| 9. | present continuous/adv. (future time) |
| 10. | because |
| 11. | why |
| 12. | want+obj+inf. |
| 13. | phrasal verbs |
| 14. | adverbial (manner) |
| 15. | adverbial of sequence (place and time) |
| 16. | adverbial (frequency) |
| 17. | question - tags (positive) |
| 18. | how often |
| 19. | future simple |
| 20. | with |
| 21. | function (used for +v-ing) |
| 22. | noun-modifiers |
| 23. | comparison of adjs |
| 24. | comparison of equality (as tall as) |
| 25. | present perfect tense |

SN	Teaching Items	
1.	adverbials (position)	
2.	measurements, weights, distance	
3.	prepositions	
4.	plural-only nouns	
5.	either/neither	
6.	infinitive of purpose	
7.	both	
8.	past habitual (used to)	
9.	direction	
10.	either... or, neither... nor	
11.	place names (with or without 'the')	
12.	past continuous	
13.	comparisons of adjectives	
14.	between/among	
15.	opposite/against	
16.	belong to	
17.	may/can/must	
18.	inside/outside	
19.	comparison of adverbs -- clearly , badly, well, past, quick, etc	
20.	requests	
21.	someone, somebody, anyone, anybody	
22.	everybody, everyone, no one, nobody	
23.	except but	
24.	already, yet, still	
25.	for/since	
26.	let's	
27.	Speech	
	diphthongs	
	consonants	for both grades, VI-VII.
	consonant cluster	
	stress	

C. Teaching Items of Secondary Level English (Grade VIII)

SN	Teaching Items
1.	make+n+infinitive
2.	adverbial clauses of time/condition
3.	reported speech-command,request,statement and question
4.	impersonal verbs
5.	vb+ing+is+adj(it is +adj+to-infinitive)
6.	know+how/wh+to-infinitive
7.	relative clauses (who, which, that...)
8.	whose
9.	requests (would)
10.	opposition
11.	passive ("agent, agent)
12.	adverbs of direction and position
13.	reflexive verbs
14.	each other/one another
15.	what... like ?
16.	be (vb)/look+like
17.	present perfect continuous
18.	too+enough/for+n/to+inf
19.	too/enough+to+inf
20.	gerund
21.	<u>Speech</u>
	stress/intonation
	drill on the difficult sounds

D. reaching Items of Secondary Level *English* (Grade IX and X)

SN	Teaching Items
1.	modal auxiliaries
2.	would rather/prefer
3.	remember/forget+to inf.(only in past)
4.	enjoy/like+v-ing
5.	to infinitive/gerund
6.	causative verbs
7.	vb+n+adj
8.	concept of reason; because, for, since etc
9.	concept of result and purpose: for, to, so that
10.	illogical or unexpected result; although, even though
11.	conditional concepts; present/past unreal
12.	past perfect with when, after, before
13.	it is/was+adj+of+pro.
14.	take (it takes)
15.	what/how (exclamatory) optative sentences
16.	however, therefore/as far as, so far as
17.	clause marker: where, who, when...
18.	conditional; if clauses
19.	unless clauses
20.	possibility and degree of certainty
21.	passive voice
22.	ways of expressing future
23.	punctuation
24.	'I>\. asking for information direct/indirect question
25.	use of articles with NP
26.	function words-time and place: then, next
27.	comparative and superlative forms of adjs.
28.	Speech stress/intonation

***E. Teaching Items of Proficiency Certificate Level English
(First year)***

SN	Teaching Items
1.	personal pronoun
2.	shall, will/going to future
3.	simple present/past tense
4.	past perfect/continuous
5.	prepositions/articles
6.	adjectives/comparison
7.	have to/must
8.	present participle/to-infinitive
9.	reported speech
10.	phrasal verbs
11.	relative clauses
12.	modals
13.	gerund/to-inf.
14.	conditional
15.	idiomatic use of preposition
16.	punctuation
17.	s-v agreement
18.	verbs
19.	compound and complex sentences
20.	spoiling rules
21.	reported speech
22.	word order
23.	Speech
	vowels and diphthongs, consonants

APPENDIX-6

School Leaving Certificate Examination Question 2051

English - 1995

Time : 3 Hrs

Full Marks 100

Pass Marks 32

1. a) **Give** an antonym or a synonym of the underlined words as **indicated** in brackets: 2
- i) **His** joke delighted everyone. (Synonym)
ii) She behaved rudely. (Antonym)
- b) rewrite the following sentences using a single word for the underlined words; 2
- i) The man who **kills wild** animals must be **punished**.
ii) **Gambling is again** at the **law** in Nepal.
- c) Rewrite the following sentences using the correct form of the words in **brackets**: 2
- i) Mount Everest is the (high) mountain in the world.
ii) I've never read such an (interest) book.
- d) Use any three of the following phrases in sentences of your **own**: get rid of; to come about; to call on; to look after; look forward to. 3
2. a) The word "knight" has the same initial consonant sound as the word "....." (quite, new, **knife**, fight) 1
- b) The word "so" has the same vowel sound as the word "....." (sew, sum, sort, some) 1
- c) '**Have** you finished your work?' has a "....." tone. (rising, falling, falling and falling, falling and rising) 1
- d) In the word 'President' the stress falls on the "....." **syllable**. (first, second, third) 1
3. **Answer the following questions:**
- a) Rewrite the following sentences with appropriate articles; 1
- i) water in the glass is dirty.
ii) He is not ...honourable man.

b) Rewrite the following sentences using appropriate prepositions: 1

i) He is ill fever.

ii) He is true his master.

c) Rewrite the following sentences using correct question-tags: 2

1) She sang well?

ii) I didn't hurt you?

iii) Let's go for a walk?

iv) Come and see me tomorrow?

d) Rewrite the following sentences, choosing one of the correct words from among those given in brackets: 2

i) (I, she, we, they) is going to school now.

ii) She did it (herself, himself, itself, themselves)

e) Punctuate the following piece of text correcting the spelling errors, where necessary: Ill come at 4 miss l?ai replied. 7

Attempt these Questions;

a) Change the form of speech of the following; (any two) 2

i) They said. "We came home late last night."

ii) "I cannot do this now." said Hari.

iii) He requested me to lend him my pencil.

b) Rewrite the following sentences, supplying the correct form of the verb in brackets; (any two) 2

i) He (die) before the doctor arrived.

ii) I (see) my uncle next week.

iii) They (live) here since March.

c) Combine the pairs of sentences into one with the clues given in brackets: (any two) 2

i) He was fined. He was sent to prison. (not only ... but also)

ii) We learn English, We learn Urdu. (as well as)

iii) He was wealthy. He never bought a watch. (in spite of)

Transform the following sentences as indicated: (any two) 2

- i) You are sometimes **foolish**. (into negative)
- ii) I've sold **my** car. (into yes/no question)
- iii) She did not go to school **yesterday**. (into affirmative)

e) Change the voice of the following sentences as indicated in brackets: (any two) 2

- i) No **one** can **answer** your **question**. (into passive)
- ii) He **was** saved by his dog. (into active)
- iii) **Boys play games**. (into passive)

5. *Attempt any four questions, choosing at least one from each group:* t\

- a) Complete the following sentences in such a way that it conveys the same meaning as contained in the first:
 - i) She feels sad when she hears that song. That song makes
 - ii) The girls cried when they saw the film. The film made
- b) Rewrite the following sentences with the infinitive form or the "-ing" form of the verbs given in **brackets**:
 - i) (find) fault is **easy**.
 - ii) The old man was tired of (walk)
- c) Rearrange the words into a sensible sentence:

His **education/over/many** of his neighbours/**an advantage/gives** him/**but/advantage** of them/**he** never takes.

6. *Attempt any six: (Short-answer Questions)* 6x2=12

- a) What were the difficulties of **using** animals as money?
- b) What did the Prince do before going to the Judge?
- c) How do bees communicate with each other?
- d) When were tea and coffee introduced into Europe?
- e) Why did Captain **Morehouse** send some sailors to the ship?
- f) What had **Bal** Bahadur thought before he settled down in **Chitwan**?
- g) What do you mean by R.N.A.C? When did **it** start its service?
- h) Why do people think of farming the ocean floor?

- a) What did the young farm girl think to do after selling a pot of milk?
- b) Give three advantages which jet planes have over ordinary planes.
- c) What did Bhairab Bahadur do to save Ram Singh's life?
- d) What did Gopal Bahadur say about the tiger he met in the Terai?

8. *Read the following passage and answer the questions that follows:*

15

Once a dog got a piece of flesh. He was going by the side of a stream and came to a bridge. He wanted to cross the bridge. While going over the bridge, he saw his own reflection on the clear water of the stream. He took it for another dog with a piece of flesh in his mouth. Then he said to himself, "If I snatch away that piece of flesh, I shall have then two pieces of flesh."

Thus led by temptation, he gaped his mouth to snatch away that false piece of flesh. When he did so, the piece of flesh in his mouth dropped into the water and was carried away by the current of the stream. Having lost his own piece of flesh, the dog went away disappointed.

- a) What was the dog carrying in his mouth while crossing the bridge?
- b) What did he think when he saw his own reflection on the water?
- c) How did he lose the piece of flesh?
- d) What kind of dog was he?
- e) What lesson do you learn from this passage?

9. *Write an essay in about 120 words on 'A place of historical importance.' Or*

Write an essay in about 120 words on 'Siddhartha Highway' using the following hints:

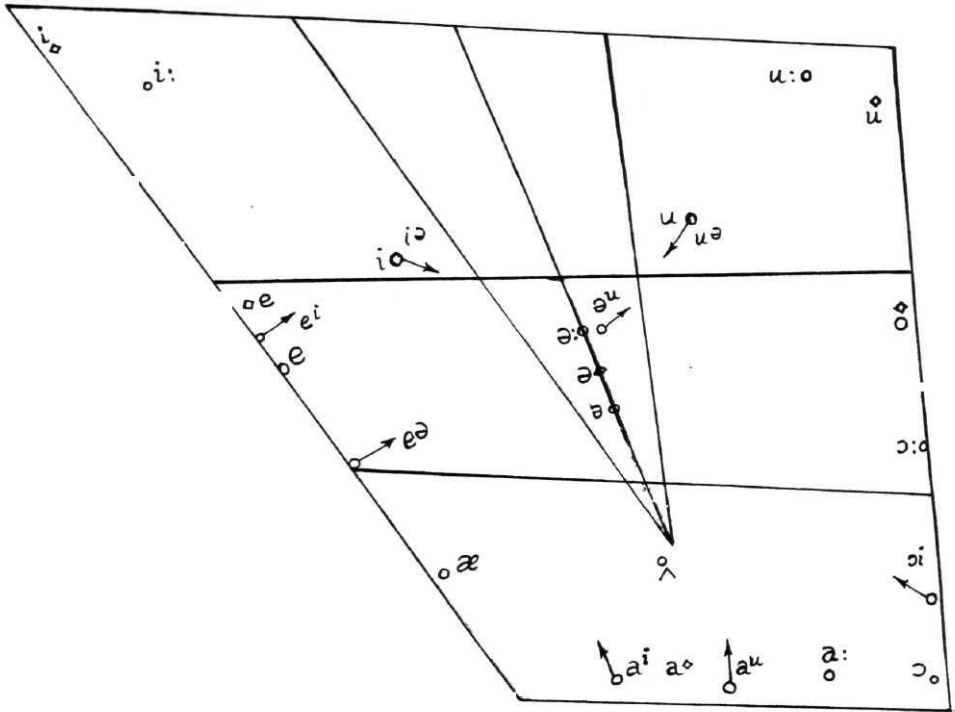
Sunauli to Pokhara 200km. -1964 to 1972- 34 bridges crosses...Kali Gandaki-Lord Buddha -India.

10. *Write an essay in about 180 words on any one of the following:*

12

- a) The Spring Season
- b) The Book you Like Most
- c) Forests of Nepal

A. COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND NEPALI VOWELS



0 English vowels
◊ Nepali vowels

(Source: Sthapit 1978, p 533)

B. NEPALI AND ENGLISH CONSONANTS

i. Nepali Consonants

		Bi- labial	Apico- dental	Apico- alveolar	Lamino- alveolar	Retro- flex	Dorso- velar
Stop	vl unaspl	p	t		c	t	k
	asp	ph	th		ch	th	kh
	vd unaspl	b	d		j	d	g
	asp	bh	dh		jh	dh	gh
Nasal	vd	m		n			ṅ
Fricative	vl				s		
Trill	vd			r			
Lateral	vd			l			
Semivowels		Dorsopalatal y		Dorsovelar w		Glottal h	

(Source: Sthapit 1978:13-14)

ii. English Consonants

Manner\Place of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio- dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato- Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g	ʔ
Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Roll				r				
Lateral				l				
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Frictionless Continuant or glide	w						j	

(Source: Gimson: 1976:33)

APPENDIX - 8
CAMPUSES SELECTED FOR THE STUDY

1. Forestry Campus, Pokhara
2. **Mahendra Ratna Campus, Kathmandu**
3. Nursing Campus, Pokhara
4. **Padma Kanya Campus, Kathmandu**
5. **Paklihawa Campus, Bhairahawa**
6. Prithvi Narayan Multiple Campus, Pokhara
7. Pulchowk Campus, **Lalitpur**
8. **Sanathimi Campus Bhaktapur**
9. Shanker Dev Campus, Kathmandu

APPENDIX - 9

NAMES OF THE DISTRICTS REPRESENTED BY
THE POPULATION OF THE PRESENT STUDY <In alphabetical order>

1	Achham	30	Lamjung
2	Arghakhachi	31	Mahottari
	Baglung	32	Makawanpur
4	Baitadi	33	Morang
5	Bajhang	34	Mugu
	Banke	35	Myagdi
7	Bara	36	Nuwakot
8	Bardiya	37	Nawalparasi
9	Bhaktapur	38	Okhaldhunga
10	Chitawan	39	Palpa
11	Dadeldhura	40	Panchthar
12	Dang	41	Parbat
13	Darchula	42	Parsa
14	Dhading	43	Pyuthan
15	Dhankuta	44	Ramechhap
16	Dhanusa	45	Rautahat
17	Doti	46	Rukum
18	Gorkha	47	Rupandehi
19	Gulmi	48	Saptari
20	Jhapa	49	Sarlahi
21	Jumla	50	Sindhuli
22	Kailali	51	Siraha
23	Kanchanpur	52	Solokhumbu
24	Kapilvastu	53	Sunsari
25	Kaski	54	Syangja
26	Kathmandu	55	Tanahu
27	Kavrepalanchowk	56	Taplejung
28	Khotang	57	Terhathum
29	Lalitpur	58	Udayapur