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. /I/, /i/, /e/, /æ/, /a/, /o/, /u/, /ə/, /oʊ/, /ɔ/, /aɪ/, /eɪ/, /æɪ/, /aɪ/, /aʊ/, and 8 diphthongs, e.g. /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /eə/, /ɛə/, /ʌə/, /ɒə/, /əʊ/ compared to 6 Nepali vowels /I/, /u/, /e/, /ə/, /ʊ/ 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>/ɪ/</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>29.44</td>
<td>11.</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>21.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>51.48</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>14.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>44.81</td>
<td>12.</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>25.37</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.</td>
<td>/ɜ/</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>15.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>37.77</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.</td>
<td>/ɔ/</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>77.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɔ/</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>47.70</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>38.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/3/</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>17.59</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>31.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʌ/</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>39.62</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/a/</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>37.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.</td>
<td>/ɪ/</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>20.37</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɔ/</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>47.96</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʌ/</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>22.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>19.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʌ/</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>28.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 /æe/. 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 /æ/, 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/, /3/ and /0/, 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, /æI/, /əI/, /ai/, and /ai/ (in one instance) exhibit the error percentages above 30 while /oi/ when contrasted with /iU/ yields 25% errors. /æI/ as compared with /ed/ is slightly more difficult, but /əI/ (in one instance) and /ai/ 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 /ɔ/. The vowel /o/ is equally problematic for both the groups whether it comes in contrast with /ɔ/ or /iU/. It bears the highest error frequency while contrasted with /æ/, 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 /ɛ/, does have 18.82% and 2.89% errors while contrasted with /e/ 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 /3/. Similarly, the vowel /ʌ/ yields more errors while contrasted with /3/ 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, /aʊ/, /əʊ/ and /aI/. The diphthong /aʊ/ seems to be less problematic when it comes in contrast with /æʊ/.
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 ± 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 /ɒ/ followed by /e/ with /ɛ/. 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 /æ/ in all four instances remains more erroneous for the NSs than for their NNS counterparts. The same is the case with /I/, too. The vowels that proportionally yield less errors in the perception of the NNSs are /I/, /æ/, /o/, /ʌ/ /a/, /ɔ/, /ɔ/, /3/, and /ɛ/ (in two instances) compared to their NS counterparts. Similarly, the vowels that bear comparatively more errors in the perception of the NNSs are /i/, /ɔ/, /u/ and /θ/ compared to the NS counterparts. The NNSs yield less errors in all the diphthongs, except /əʊ/ and /ɔθ/ 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 Jo/ 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 /I/ 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, ŋ/, /a, ə/ 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 /ei/, /oj/, /əʊ/ , /ɛə/ and /ʊə/. The present study reveals that comparatively /əʊ/, /iə/, /eə/, and /əI/ (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 /o/ 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/, /j/. /z/, /s/, /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/, /t/, /th/, /d/, /dh/, /c/, /ch/, /j/. /jh/, /k/, /kh/, /g/, /gh/. /m/, /n/, /n/, /r/. /l/, /j/, /w/, and /h/. The consonants that exist in English but not...
in Nepali are /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/ and, conversely, the consonants that exist in Nepali but not in English are /t, d/ (dental) /ph/, /th/, /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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>15.</td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>15.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>25.92</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>32.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>21.11</td>
<td>16.</td>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>34.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>15.92</td>
<td></td>
<td>/f/</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>19.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>16.85</td>
<td>17.</td>
<td>/fa/</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>29.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>28.33</td>
<td></td>
<td>/v/</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>47.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>18.</td>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>43.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/v/</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>23.51</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>32.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>22.59</td>
<td>19.</td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>16.11</td>
<td></td>
<td>/e/</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>/s/</td>
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<td>18.51</td>
<td>20.</td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.51</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/z/</td>
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<td>6.11</td>
<td></td>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>204</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>18.70</td>
<td>21.</td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>140</td>
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<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>22.22</td>
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</tr>
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<td>23.</td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>29</td>
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</tr>
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<td>/n/</td>
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<td>28.33</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
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<td>10.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>39</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>/w/</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>53</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>153</td>
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</tr>
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<td>10.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>23.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 /ʃ/, /m/, /s/, /t/, /ɕ/, /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/, /ʃ/ 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/, /ɕ/, 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/, /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/, /s/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/, and /z/ when contrasted with /n/, /m/, /v/, /G/, /ʃ/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/ and /ʒ/. 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 /G/. 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 /ʃ/ 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>47.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>31.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>79.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. J2
Frequency and percentage of errors in listening comprehension
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Grammatical Items</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Modals and auxiliaries</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1082</td>
<td>36.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1519</td>
<td>35.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Gerund/to-infinitive</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>653</td>
<td>34.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Conjunctions</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1066</td>
<td>32.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Conditionals</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>32.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>30.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Tenses</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1215</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Subject-verb agreement</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>29.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Passive voice</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>29.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>27.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>26.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Reported speech</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>25.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Relative clauses</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>16.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Question tags</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>13.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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-.30S) 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, i.e. 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 in 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:

1. 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**
- must, have to, ought to,
- need/need to
- may, might

**Indicating possibility**
- may, can, will, would, could
- can, could
- will, would
- can, may
- can't, may not, will not,
- shall not, should not, must

**Indicating request**
- have to, ought to,
- need/need to
- may, might

**Indicating ability**
- can, could
- will, would
- can, may
- can't, may not, will not,
- shall not, should not, must

**Indicating likelihood**
- have to, ought to,
- need/need to
- may, might

**Indicating permission**
- can, could
- will, would
- can, may
- can't, may not, will not,
- shall not, should not, must

**Indicating unacceptability**
- have to, ought to,
- need/need to
- may, might

**Indicating past habit**
- have to, ought to,
- need/need to
- may, might


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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 for four years.* (for)
16. *Please wait for me. I'll be back by five o'clock.* (by)
17. *You will have to wait until 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. *Biratnagar 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 the room. (under)
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 languages; 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 : Crying in the street is not good.
ii. as a direct object : Ram enjoys playing football.
iii. as a subject complement : My first assignment had been training teachers.
iv. as an adjectival complementation : I am busy writing my term paper.
v. as a prepositional complement : I am tired of teaching.
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:

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

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Be determined</th>
<th>Pretend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aim</td>
<td>Endea your</td>
<td>Proceed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appear</td>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>Promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrange</td>
<td>Forget</td>
<td>Prove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask</td>
<td>Guarantee</td>
<td>Refuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempt</td>
<td>Happen</td>
<td>Remember</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bother.</td>
<td>Hesitate</td>
<td>Resolve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care  (negative)</td>
<td>Hope</td>
<td>Seem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose</td>
<td>Learn</td>
<td>Swear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td>Long</td>
<td>Tend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condescend</td>
<td>Manage</td>
<td>Threaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consent</td>
<td>Neglect</td>
<td>Trouble (-negative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decide</td>
<td>Offer</td>
<td>Try (=attempt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decline</td>
<td>Plan</td>
<td>Undertake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand</td>
<td>Prepare</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine .</td>
<td>Be prepared</td>
<td>Vow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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-infinite applies. Therefore, the replacement of the gerund with to-infinite 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-infinite. 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* 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 curricula 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.

4.3.151. 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
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 **themselves**. 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, the present** and **the future.** But **linguistically** speaking, **the future tense** is a **mismomer** 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present and Past Tenses</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Simple Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Base form</td>
<td>I want a breath of air.</td>
<td>simple present of &quot;be' + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3rd person singular)</td>
<td>Flora laughs again.</td>
<td>It is boiled before use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'-s' form</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Continuous</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present of 'be'</td>
<td>Things are changing.</td>
<td>present continuous of 'be' + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ '-ing' form</td>
<td>My advice is being ignored.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present of 'have'</td>
<td>I have seen this before.</td>
<td>present perfect of 'be' + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ past participle</td>
<td>You have been warned.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present Perfect Continuous</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present of 'be'</td>
<td>Howard has been working hard.</td>
<td>present perfect continuous of 'be' + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ '-ing' form</td>
<td>(Not common)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Simple Past</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past form</td>
<td>I resented his attitude.</td>
<td>simple past of 'be' + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He was murdered.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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" or 'shall'.

The following table shows future tenses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;will&quot; or &quot;shall&quot;, + base form</td>
<td>&quot;will be&quot;, or &quot;shall be&quot;, + past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will arrive tomorrow.</td>
<td>More land will be destroyed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

future continuous

"will be", or 'shall be', + '-ing' form

I shall be leaving soon.

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' + '-lng' form + past participle
By March, I will have been doing (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. (had)
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:

49. *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.
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.

(1) 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:

(1) Some of my friends are submitting 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.g. 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 bra ye.

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>big</th>
<th>bigger</th>
<th>biggest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bright</td>
<td>brighter</td>
<td>brightest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>good</th>
<th>better</th>
<th>best</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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
vi. 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, -ely 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. Unlike 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 aliketi 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 rtherai 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. lamo (long), aglo (high), thulo (big) ghar (house): sulo, thulo, lamo ghar; thulo, lamo, aglo ghar and contextual ordering, e.g. meri san i bhatiji: san meri bhatij (i.e. my small niece). Me 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 university, 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 is an university student.  
79. *This is the nice way of dealing with the people.  
80. *Eat a apple everyday in the morning.  

A good number of students missed the use of the definite article before the unique proper noun in 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 in 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For persons</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>who</td>
<td>whom/who</td>
<td>that</td>
<td>whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>that</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For persons</td>
<td>who</td>
<td>whom/who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For things</td>
<td>which</td>
<td>which</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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, do you? (don't)
90. *He didn't find your books, didn't be? (did)
91. *He worked hard, doesn't he? (didn't)
92. *He worked hard, didn't he? (didn't)
93. *He is ten years old, doesn't he? (isn't)
94. *But nobody complained, didn't 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Items tested</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gerund and to-Infinitive</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>94.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>92.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tenses</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>90.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>87.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Clauses</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>87.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Indirect Question</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>85.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>79.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>78.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8b</td>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>Modals</strong></td>
<td>211</td>
<td>78.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Concord</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>61.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>49.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.

4.3.2. 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 to visit Dr. Sharma. (visiting)
96. *If you count on me helping you, you have to stop smoking. (to help)
97. *So he is foolish to believed such people. (believe)
98. *He had to stopped smoking. (stop)
The phrase think of in sentence 95 usually follows a gerund, however, count on in 96 follows a to-infinitive. 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 4.3.17.1. 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)

(2) **Aspect** : politically, financially, socially, technically, 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.

106. *The clerk says that the doctor often comes lately.

107. *The clerk says sometimes the doctor often comes lately.
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 a him. (have/been)
111. *I shall call you, when I will be ready.  (am)
112. *He should call you, when I will be ready.  (w1ll/he 1s)

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.  

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:

1. **Proper nouns**: Ram, Sita, etc.
2. **Common nouns**: enemy, army, etc.
3. **Collective nouns**: family, group, etc.
4. **Material nouns**: gold, silver, etc.
5. **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 most popular doctor in the city. (the)
118. *He asked the question. (a)
119. *He is foolish an enough to believe such people. (ə)

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...
121. *He needs not has taken the medicines without...
122. *He hasn't needs taken the medicines without...

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 kisimharuka (kinds-of); duita sathli (two friend) not sathharu (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. *I 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. (to/a)
132. *But he doesn't listen to anybody. (to)
133. *Dr. Sharma hasn't come to 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 lātā 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 is asking me to go with him. (is)
135. *Today my friend is asking me to go with him. (asking)
136. *So he is 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No</th>
<th>No.of Items</th>
<th>Grammatical category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Reported speech</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>82.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Relative clauses</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>75.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Direct speech</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>56.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 be low-

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's)

HO. *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. (g/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 (θ/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/went+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-indefinite 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. (as)

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.
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?" (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, i.e. 4.3.31, 4.3.32, the errors in the use of tenses are also noticed in this category, e.g.

171. *Har1 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-, ir-, im-, in-, 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 No. 17
Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from word-formation test with prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Disability</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>56.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>In+capable</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>56.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Non-smoker</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>23.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Im+mature</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Il+legal</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Ir + rational</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>15.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 1l- 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 im- to rational are added.

It is clearly seen that the students do not observe the rule of using the variants of in- such as 1l-, 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Happy + ness</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>75.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Arr1ve+al</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>37.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Mouth+ful</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>20.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Agree+ment</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Invent+lon</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>15.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>King+dom</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Child+hood</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 letter y 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Words/Phrases</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Celebrate</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>35.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Incredible</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>31.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Abroad</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>22.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Inaccessible</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>14.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Settle down</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Pounced</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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$\text{th}$ word is deleted so that the subjects may 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$\text{th}$ 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 No. 20**

**Frequency and percentage of errors obtained from reading comprehension (cloze) test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Function words</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Content words</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Auxiliary Verbs</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>72.96</td>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>1577</td>
<td>58.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>823</td>
<td>60.96</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>49.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Conjunctions</td>
<td>822</td>
<td>60.88</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>46.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>867</td>
<td>40.13</td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>42.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>34.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3281</strong></td>
<td><strong>50.63</strong></td>
<td><strong>2856</strong></td>
<td><strong>52.88</strong></td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 their 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.

4.5.1.1. 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. (were)

are
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 medals (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)

\[\text{a} \quad \text{t/10} \]
\[\text{for} \quad \text{as} \]
\[\text{from} \quad \text{in} \]
\[\text{leave, etc.} \quad \text{good, etc.} \]

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 re-
placed articles with prepositions, verbs, pronouns, determiners,
intensifiers, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc.

While explaining for the possible causes of such errors,
Dušková (1969:19) rightly observes: "... the use of the defi-
nite 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 gram-
matical items in place of articles may be ascribed to the trans-
fer 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, prepo-
sitions, adverbs, pronouns, determiners, etc.

181. *His father asked him___they were laughing.   (why)
\[\text{that} \quad \text{when} \]
\[\text{and, etc.} \]

182. *She couldn't say anything against the shopkeeper
___she feared that she would be dismissed.     (because)
\[\text{but} \quad \text{so} \]
\[\text{and} \quad \text{then, etc.} \]
183. "One day she asked him for leave_____ the shopkeeper wouldn't allow her to take any.  
shop  
to  
from  
job, etc.  
(but)

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 end 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.*  
and  
home  
to, etc.  
(he)

185. *He told the story to his elder brother and younger sisters also joined him in laughing.*  
are  
they  
and  
his  
son  
an, etc.  
(who)
Without asking anyone she began to laugh. (anything)

In sentence 184 the conjunction 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)

188. *The shopkeeper made Sita work hard the early morning to the late evening. (from)

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.

4.5.2.1. 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 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 different 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.N.</th>
<th>Topics given for essay writing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Your village or town</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>42.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Your aim in life</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>35.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>An unforgettable event in your life</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>13.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>How did you spend your winter vacation?</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.N.</th>
<th>Error category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>827</td>
<td>16.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Tense and verbal groups</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>15.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>12.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Plurality</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>9.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Subject-verb agreement</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Word-order</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Clauses</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Gerund/to-infinitive</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Conjunctions</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Possessives</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Subject deletion</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orthographic (Spelling) errors</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>18.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lexical errors</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>13.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4878</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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:

4.6.1.1. 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 a nation. (the)
202. *main occupation of the villagers is agriculture. (The)

II. Omission of the Indefinite Articles

203. *I went to see a film. (a)
204. *I live in a small village. (a)
205. *So it is an undeveloped village. (an)
206. *Whenever anybody asks me to tell about an 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. (0)
219. *The unknown citizens change into the good... (0)

vii. Superfluous Use of the Indefinite Articles

220. *There are no facilities of an electricity and phone. (0)

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:
1. Use of the Present Tense for the Past

221. *We again went to Birgunj as my father has some business. (had)

11. Use of the Present Tense for the Future

222. *I give first priority for (to) their thinking. (will give)

111. Use of the Past Tense for the Present

223. *I couldn't forget the bad evidence (incident). (can)

1v. 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)

v1. Use of the Future Tense for the Past

226. *I will go to campus... (went)

v11. Use of the Present Continuous for the Simple Present

227. *In leisure time, I am going (to) CC. (Computer Centre) (go)

¥111. Use of the Past Tense for the Habitual Tense

228. *I always went. (go)
229. *Everyday, I remembered... (remember)

1x. 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.

1. 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 ran away. (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 are 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.)

dx. 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)

xl. 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 anlaysed 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.vii 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:
1. Omission of the Prepositions

264. *I hope I will pass (the) first division.
265. *My village is Gorkha district.
266. *I called my best friend to go Pokhara.
268. *There aren't any facilities anything.
269. *Other people accused my father murdering.
270. *Besides, we have to wait 3-4 hours.
271. *I was patiently waiting the bus.
272. *I am studying PN campus in the Education faculty.
273. *But I met people who were looking (the) dead body lying on the ground.
274. *When we travel one place to another, we can learn so many things.
275. *I passed the SLC Exams 57% marks.

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 in teaching English.
278. *I will help to them to open a cottage industry.
279. *We use to well and stream water.
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 in 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. in 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 villagers 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:

1. Omission of -s, -es Suffixes
   e.g. farmer(s), village(s), bus(es), etc.

11. Plural Modifiers for Singular Nouns
   e.g. many event, all patient, etc.

111. Pluralized Uncountable Nouns
   e.g. transportations, sceneries, etc.

1lv. 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 f are 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:

1. Surrogate Subject There Followed by a Singular/Plural Noun Group

304. *There are a large jungle... (is)
305. *There is two market days. (are)

11. 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)

111. 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. (1s)

1v. 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 1s 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 ...

324. *The picnic was organized by ourself. (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:

1. Subjects Wrongly Ordered

325. *But it 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:

1. Errors in Conditional Clauses

335. *If I will pass the (PCL in) education, I will be an excellent teacher. (¶)

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.)

11. 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.

343. *Although all the people are illiterate and conservative, 
but I have thought (thought) to make my village the most developed in my district.

344. *There were many facilities to (for) tourists in my village where I was born in this place.

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:
I. 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)

II. 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)

IV. 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 in spite 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:

1. Omission of the Conjunctions

356. *I will set up hospital(s), clinic(s) and 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)

2. 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.

4.6.2.1. Errors in Adjectives

The errors in adjectives are classified into the following ways:

1. Wrong Participial Adjectives
   361. *I have to make my village a good, development village. (developed)
   362. *Most of the villagers are hard worker. (working)

2. 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)
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 alikati, 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

368. *My village – name ls. ('s)
369. *I like teacher – job. ('s)
370. *The school – name ls... Cs)
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 Ao 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 its form, or may be that they are unable to see the difference between its 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:

1. 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.

1. Distortion of Adverbs

hardly for hard
welly for well

11. Misordering of Adverbs

379. *People has not produced yet foodstuff properly.

(People have not produced foodstuff properly yet.)

111. 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 1 and 111 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, disoused, occured, slap ing, planed, trafic, traveling, rea ly, toped, valey, mater, worshipping etc.

b. Unnecessary Doubling of Consonant Letters

   Widder, untill, proffessor, hottel, peace full, successfull, parrent, allmost, help ful 1, fulfill, use ful 1, etc.
11. Omission of Vowel or Consonant Letters

western, house(s), some, well(l), village(s), nature(s), because(s), discuss(s), remote(s) behalf, health, create(s), yard, jungle, math(s), other, country, studying etc.

111. Other Errors

(a) The retention of y as in calling, dutyful, beautyful, and (b) misordering of letters as in town (town), street (streets), first (first), proudly (proudly), available (available), birth (birth), same (seam), 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 unemployed, 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 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 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.