5

Remedial Measures
Thusfar the analysis has been concerned with the identification and description of learners' errors related to spelling, grammatical categories, words and sentences. From pedagogic point of view, these do not constitute the whole thing. Our aim is to make the analysis meaningful to the teaching and learning situation of English. Its design is to cater to the needs of the learners, teachers and such others who are directly or indirectly associated with the process. There is, therefore, the necessity of (a) classifying the errors according to their gravity, (b) tracing them back to their sources and (c) prescribing suitable measures along with model remedial materials (wherever possible) which will be directly helpful to all. This chapter attempts to describe these sources, classifications and remedial measures in details first in a general way and then in a specific way. As it was seen in the previous chapters, the factors have been only casually touched upon for the need of analysis there.

While describing the sources of the errors both \( L_1 \) interference factors and \( L_1 \) independent factors have been taken into consideration. The fundamental assumption in contrastive analysis is 'mother-tongue interference'. Lado (1957: 1-2) remarks: "... individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to
speak the language ... and receptively when attempting to
grasp and understand the language ... as practised by natives
... in the comparison between native and foreign language
lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language
learning". 

However, some errors can not be accounted for
by CA. As Richards (1974 : 192) points out, "Many errors
however derive from the strategies employed by the learner,
in language acquisition, and from the mutual interference of
items within the target language. These can not be accounted
for by contrastive analysis. Teaching techniques and
procedures should take account of the structural and
developmental conflicts that can come about in language
learning".

In classifying the errors, their gravity has
been taken into account. In considering the gravity, factors
like appropriateness and expected standard of the students
have been kept in view. These are again relative terms
depending upon other factors like context in the first case;
and age, syllabus and linguistic input etc. in the second
case. The classification has been based on frequency
occurrence of the errors and degree of comprehensibility in
relation to the above factors.

Finally, there are remedial measures and
remedial materials. After the hierarchy of the errors is
established for the students at this level, it becomes
easier for the teachers and the syllabus makers to grade and organise the teaching materials for proper presentation in the classroom. An attempt has also been made to supply the teachers with a few sample exercise materials which are particularly effective in correcting or preventing such types of errors. The importance of such materials can be evinced from Prof. Tickoo's (1976 : 152) suggestion: "... the birth of a new design in which each new set of materials, prepared for fully-stated learner needs and pedagogic purposes, has a predetermined place, each also contributing measurably to the success of the total programme."

5.1. Classification of errors based on gravity

Analysis of the areas of errors both in spelling and grammatical categories offers a significant insight into the nature of difficulties faced by these L₂ learners of English. Certain areas, such as verb forms and tenses, word formation, voice, number etc. show a large number of errors than others, and within each of these areas there are a great number of errors in certain categories, e.g. substitution of tenses, wrong suffixation, omission of 'was' and lack of SV concord. These errors seem to be systematic and more recurrent than others. These varieties of frequencies need a systematic organisation based on their significance.
The relative significance of an error in the total context of the errors may meet the requirement of a teacher to select and order his teaching items. In order to discover which priorities to adopt in the teaching situation and to decide the most effective and the most appropriate techniques, guidelines are essential. Thus arises the necessity of establishing a scale of priorities, or else, the teacher will remain concerned with the insignificant areas and by-pass the important ones.

The relative importance of an error can be determined on two bases: (i) frequency of errors, and (ii) hierarchy of errors based on comprehensibility and communication.

5.1.1. Frequency of errors

Frequency count of errors in an important criterion in classifying errors and determining their significance. The following table presents the students' main learning problems in order of frequency-occurrence of errors. Starting from the highest it gives the error scores in a hierarchical order and thus establishes a hierarchy of priorities. After the remedial materials are constructed, these can be presented to the learners in order of this hierarchy. Secondly, the more frequently error-prone items could be drilled and taken care of more intensively than the others. Thus frequency of errors would guide the teachers
where to teach and how much to teach.

**Table - 30**

Hierarchy of errors based on frequency count

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Areas of errors</th>
<th>Frequency of errors</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>2300</td>
<td>26.3219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Punctuation and allies</td>
<td>2094</td>
<td>23.9643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Tense</td>
<td>924</td>
<td>10.5746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>SV concord</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>7.1869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>583</td>
<td>6.7292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Word formation</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>6.5232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Case and prepositions</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>4.4289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Uses of words</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>4.1085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>2.8839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>2.3461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>2.0027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Word-order</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>1.7052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Person</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.1559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.0687</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** | 3739 | 100

A close examination of the table reveals that spelling constitutes the greatest problem for these learners. So special care should be taken about spelling. This is the gateway to the language. The next error-sensitive area for
these learners is the mechanics of punctuation and the
acies. These two (spelling and punctuation) account for
more than half of the errors in our study. These, therefore,
need repeated attention by the teacher. Verbs and tenses
are the next error-prone areas. The other areas in order
of frequency occurrence of errors are voice, word-formation,
case and prepositions, uses of words, articles, number,
gender, word-order and person.

5.1.2. **Hierarchy of errors based on comprehensibility**

Burt and Kirpasky (1972: 5) suggest a way of
ordering and working on errors according to their importance.
According to them, "To see what we mean by hierarchy, look
at any sentence riddled with goofs. Then try correcting
one at a time, keeping the rest uncorrected. From this
procedure one can easily see which goofs make the most
difference to the comprehensibility of the whole sentence".
Burt (1975) suggests — wrong word-order (English language
use many people), missing, wrong or misplaced sentence
connectors (He will be rich until he marries), missing
cues that signify application of some transformation (eg.
the omission of the auxiliary 'was' and preposition 'by' in
the passive sentence (The students proposal looked into the
Principal) are cases involving 'global' errors whereas,
auxiliaries and formation of quantifiers are 'local' errors.
Following this schema a distinction can be made between 'global' and 'local' goofs. 'Global goofs', which confuse the relations among the constituent clauses and violate rules involving overall structure of a sentence, affect comprehensibility most (eg. misplacing conjunction). 'Local goofs' are within the clauses and cause trouble in a smaller part of the sentence. 

This obviously leads to the need of correcting the global errors first and local errors subsequently. A hierarchy of goofs based on comprehensibility can be very helpful in teaching language skills. However, in determining this, the researcher has taken into account two more factors—

(a) appropriateness, and (b) expected standard.

(a) Appropriateness:

"Success in communication is obviously connected with appropriateness" (Enkvist, 1973: 16-23). What is appropriate to one context may not be appropriate to another. Each context has a tolerance margin. For our purpose, the prescribed text-books for class VIII (English Reader, Book V and Light and delight) constitute the context. Therefore, answers like 'Ganga came to Orissa' or 'Ganga rose from an ice cave' have been treated as inappropriate. Words like 'dear' are also inappropriate to context like 'deer' and vice versa.
(b) Expected standard:

Here again three factors have been taken into consideration -- age, experience and teaching situation.

i. Age: All the learners are in the age group of 13 +.

ii. Experience: All learners already have 4 years of English learning experience and they are expected to have learnt the structures prescribed by the NCERT.

iii. Teaching situation: The students have learnt the language in classes with more than 40 students through structural method with the minimum of teaching materials. Their exposure to the language is the English spoken by their English teacher in the English class and the English text books.

These considerations have to be borne in mind, because, an error which is serious on the part of an advanced learner can not be so on the part of a young learner. Bhatia, A.T. (1975 : 74) preparing a hierarchy of errors places passive voice form in the second place, tense-concord in the third place, conjunction in the fourth place, pronominal in the fifth place and word-order in the sixth and the final place. But his is a study at the B.A. level and therefore, his hierarchy of errors based on comprehensibility and communication, does not conform to that of this study. This
study is at the class VIII level where the students have only 4-5 years of English learning experience. Thus errors which affected comprehensibility in the present study are:

1. word-order, spelling
2. SV concord
3. case, prepositions and articles
4. verbs and tenses
5. gender, number and person
6. word formation
7. voice

Errors that affect comprehensibility the most are those related to word-order and spelling. These are the worst of errors and should be tackled first. A wrong word-order can convey a completely opposite meaning or no meaning at all. This also relates to the basic structure of the language.

Next, in the line falls SV concord which is again vital for right communication. This is followed by case, preposition and articles; verbs and tenses; gender, number and person; word formation; and voice. This is represented in the following diagram.

```
1. Word-order, Spelling.
2. SV concord.
3. Case, preposition and articles.
4. Verbs and Tenses
5. Gender, number and person.
7. Voice
```

D-6 Hierarchy of errors based on comprehensibility
5.1.3. A mixed strategy suggestion

After the hierarchies have been established both in the line of frequency occurrence and consideration of comprehensibility, a mixed strategy for the teacher to adopt in teaching situations may be suggested.

For ordering the teaching items related to the broader categories, the teacher should adopt the comprehensibility-based arrangements, i.e. word-order first; SV concord second; case preposition and articles third and so on.

Now, coming to word-order first, the teacher may find frequency-based consideration more helpful. That is, within this category of word-order he can deal with the most error-sensitive area first and the less error-prone area next. The findings related to frequency count can thus guide the teacher which subcategory to deal with first and which subcategory to deal with next.

A second aspect in which the frequency-count consideration can help the teacher is in determining the amount of drilling a particular sub-category needs. The sub-category with highest frequency of errors within the category will require the highest amount of drilling and maximum amount of teaching materials and teaching strategies, while the less error-frequency area will need less drilling and less use of materials.
5.2.0. Sources of errors — A General Perspective

After knowing the errors and the amount of relative emphasis required for their remedies, it would be worth while for the teacher to know how to deal with them and where to strike at the errors. This necessitates awareness of the various factors contributing to the errors — the sources or the causes of the errors. Here, we attempt to consider these factors and suggest suitable guidelines to the teachers. After all, a teacher, in his own small way, should be an error-analyst, so that he can encounter effectively all the difficulties that beset the teaching and learning situation.

During the last thirty years linguists have been very much concerned with discovering the sources of errors. Contrastive analysis, interference analysis, intra-lingual considerations and other social, biological and communicational factors have, therefore, come into the fore.

We would, however, like to consider the factors, that go to constitute errors, under three heads: (1) inter-lingual factors, (2) intra-lingual factors, and (3) extra-lingual factors.

5.2.1. Inter-lingual factors

This relates to interference from the mother-tongue, which has been one of the major factors in the
production of errors. Robert Lado (1957: 59) remarks:

"Grammatical structures of the native language tend to be transferred to the foreign language. The student tends to transfer the sentence forms, modification devices, the number, gender, and case patterns of his native language."

Defining language transfer, Selinker and Gass (1982: 610) say: "Language transfer is the use of the native language (or other language) knowledge in some as yet unclear way—in the acquisition of a second (or additional) language... The definition includes factors such as, avoidance strategies, over production of materials, additional attention paid to the TL (resulting in more rapid learning), transfer of typological organisation, and transfer of first language production strategies."

Along with the transfer of these linguistic elements, there are also evidences of rule transfer—lexical (Adjemian, 1982), phonological (Broselow, 1982), conversational (Scarcella, 1982), speech act (Olshtain, 1982) and syntactical (Krashen, 1982)—and transfer of strategies—rhetorical (Bartlet, 1982), and pragmatic production (Zobl, 1982). Thus $L_1$ interference has been of particular importance in language learning. Dulay and Burt (1974: 105) estimate that approximatively one third of all errors made by TL learners can be traced to $L_1$ interference. $L_1$ interference was considered to be the major source of difficulty by linguists doing contrastive analysis, because,
contrastive analysis was mainly concerned with predicting errors by comparing the linguistic systems of the mother-tongue and the target language. Interference analysis, on the other hand, tends to see from the deviant sentence back to the mother-tongue.

Considering the effects of $L_1$ transfer, Corder (1982: 109-128) suggests that $L_1$ transfer-effects are more prevalent in class-room than outside while Zobl (1982: 306-343) relates it to fossilization, i.e. the cessation of 'Inter-language' learning often shown by the permanent failure of $L_2$ learners to acquire a feature of the TL. Gass (1982: 91-108) argues that transfer is more likely to occur when there is greater transparency in the $L_2$ form or rule. Thus it seems that transfer is predictable in a probabilistic sense and knowing the areas of transfer will greatly help the teacher in efficiently handling them.

5.2.2. Intralingual factors

This refers to items produced by the learners which reflect not the structure of the mother-tongue but generalizations based on partial exposure to the target language. Once the basic rules of the $L_2$ such as those concerning subject-object relationships, predication, negation etc, are acquired, a considerable amount of difficulty in second language learning is related to selections restrictions, surface structure and contextual rules of the language.
Richards (1974: 174) characterises the errors as intralingual and developmental. "Intralingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. Developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or text-book." Thus "they illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition and their origins are found within the structure of English itself, and through reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught ... These are representative of the sort of errors we might expect from anyone learning English as a second language. They are typical of systematic errors in English usage which are found in numerous case-studies of the English errors of speakers of particular mother-tongues."

These errors are divided into the following four categories — (a) overgeneralisation, (b) ignorance of rule restriction, (c) incomplete application of rules, and (d) false concepts hypothesized. We would discuss them separately.

(a) Overgeneralisation:

Generalisation or transfer is the use of previously available strategies in new situations. In second language learning some of these strategies will prove
helpful in organising the facts about the second language, but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities, will be misleading and inapplicable. The learner creates deviant structures on the basis of his experience of the previous TL materials. The origins of these errors can be related to the following three factors.

i. The learner reduces his linguistic burden as in

   He come ---- He comes. Here, by omitting the third person singular suffix <s>, a lot of linguistic burden of the learner is reduced.

ii. The learner adopts a strategy of redundancy-reduction as in Yester day I go ---- Yester day I went. Here pastness is indicated by the word 'yester day'. So, the student does not feel the need to apply past tense to the main verb and so commits errors.

iii. Teaching strategy like over-learning also leads to such errors. (a) Often exercises are made up of sentences interfering with each other, eg. 'He walks' (change into passive voice), the student answers 'He is walks'. (b) Often 'He walks' is contrasted with 'He is walking', so that students commit errors like He is walks ---- He walks.

(b) Ignorance of rule restriction:

   It is related to the observation of restrictions for existing structures, i.e. application of rules to contexts
where they do not apply, e.g. 'His grand fathers made sins', ignores restrictions on distribution of 'make'.

Errors of this type occur due to analogy. It is the major factor in the misuse of prepositions and articles. In the above two examples the first is an analogy with the learner's previous knowledge of 'subject + verb + object' construction, so that he feels something incomplete and adds 'him' as an object after the verb. The second is an analogy with expressions like 'ask him to do it'.

Such analogies are very often encouraged by bad pattern exercises. Parallel statements like 'The sparrow is a small bird' and 'Sparrows are small birds' will lead to errors like 'The sparrows are small birds'.

(c) Incomplete application of rules:

Some errors are also due to partial development of rules in the learner to produce acceptable sentences. This is mostly the case with question forms where either a simple statement is used as question, or a question word is added to the statement or some transformation in the question pattern is omitted.

These are due to the learner's strategy of redundancy-reduction; overpowering need of communication; class room strategies; or bad course books, which have excessive use of questions or no question at all.
(d) False concepts hypothesized:

This relates to the learner's faulty comprehension of some distinctions in the target language. Such errors occur due to poor gradation of teaching materials, bad classroom presentation, contrastive-based presentation, bad course books containing untypical verb and tense uses or concentrating too much on the trouble spots. Thus, in 'It was happened', 'was' is interpreted as the past tense marker, and in 'He is speaks', 'is' is interpreted as the present tense marker.

This also generates another type of errors where words with contrastive meanings are taken to be synonymous, eg. teach ← learn, do ← make, come ← go, and bring ← take etc. Use of progressive for narrative, for action seen as a whole, for events which develop according to plan, for sequence of events taking place at the present, are errors under this category. The usual tense for such events should be simple present.

5.2.3. Extra-lingual factors

These include factors like socio-linguistic situation, modality of learning, age of the learner, successions of approximative systems and universal hierarchy of difficulty.

(a) Sociolinguistic situation:

This takes into account the different situations or opportunities where the language is learnt; different
situations or opportunities where the language is used; the learners' motivation; and the value and position the society attaches to the language. It is in this sense that Kachru (1965: 408) distinguishes between 'deviation' which is explainable in terms of socio-cultural context in which English functions in India; and 'errors' which are breaches of the linguistic code of English. Expressions like 'When you are coming?', absence of copula, reduction of morphological and inflectional systems and grammatical simplification are likely to be socially motivated.

In the present study, the learner's contact with English is limited to English, taught by the English teacher in the English class in the school. His proficiency in English is inevitably restricted since his experience of English has been confined in only one or two social domains, very few role-relationships and a limited number of speech functions. His communicative competence in English is limited to his ability to manipulate the language in very restricted social situations, no matter how strong his motivation to acquire this language, it being instrumental, i.e. largely utilitarian in purpose.

(b) Modality:

The modality of the learner's exposure to and production of TL also shapes the learning process. L2 learners acquire distinctions on the basis of auditory cues or/and articulatory cues. Sentences like 'She is a book' and 'Her name has Sita' etc. have been ascribed by Richards and Sampson
Spelling pronunciations, and confusion of written and spoken styles would be other examples.

(c) Age:

No categorical statement about the relationship of language learning to age can be made. Yet Lenneberg (1967: 156, 176) notes a period of primary language acquisition, postulated to be biologically determined, beginning when the child starts to walk and continuing until puberty.

Children, however, are better imitators of speech sound and consequently it influences much of the errors due to spelling.

(d) Approximative system:

This system refers to Selinker's (1974: 33) 'interlanguage', Corder's (1974: 24) 'built-in-syllabus', and 'transitional competence'. As in first language acquisition, in the development of a second language rule system, many elements are observed to go through a stage where they are some times used and some times omitted. Because of the continuing improvement in learning the target language, the learner often produces 'I has a book'. Such errors, therefore, are only transitional and likely to be set right by the learner himself when his interlanguage improves.
(e) Universal system of difficulty:

It is concerned with the inherent difficulty of certain phonological, syntactic or semantic items or structures. Some forms may be inherently difficult to learn no matter what the background of the learner. Such difficulties affect the learner at his perceptive level and the productive level, i.e., his learning strategy and communication strategy.

Errors related to this category may also largely depend on the learners' previous knowledge, because, it influences his further learning strategy. Errors due to specific pluralizing markers applicable only to nouns, tense-markers applicable only to verbs and word-order constraints, come under this category.

This explains why first learned words and structures tend to be overused and may resist replacements by later taught items. Secondly, words with broad semantic extensions may become overused in preference to more specific vocabulary learned later.

(f) Others:

Apart from the factors discussed here-to-fore, there are some more plausible factors which are summarised by Barbara E Megson (1979: 4) in the following lines:

"There are children who, for one reason or other (illness and truancy being obvious examples), have missed vital stages
in the work; and this is also often true of those victims of our increasingly mobile society, the children whose parents have frequently moved from one district to another. Nor is this the only form of modern mobility affecting children's educational progress; broken homes and isolated one-parent families are increasingly common and such children often join the ranks of others who, for one reason or other, have developed a blockage towards all or part of their school work.

Lastly, another important factor which affects learning is, according to Clark (1979: 19), frequent change of teachers.

5.3.0. A General Perspective — Remedial measures

Here, we would attempt to look at some general guide lines to the teachers relating to methods, materials and other pedagogical necessities. The idea of these guide lines is, however, based on the assumption that most errors can be replaced by correct language behaviour through materials and teaching strategies.

The present analysis has revealed a marked gap between the assumed standard for the learners and the real standard achieved by them. It is, therefore, according to Ramesh Mohan (1980: ix), necessary that a way has to be found ... of bridging gap between real and assumed standards of proficiency in English quickly, effectively ... This is a
major challenge that teachers of English have to face.

Jim, A Mc Nicholas (1979: 32) remarks that "Remedial measures can bridge up this gap. They are the 'ambulance service of the educational system', an 'emergency service which deals with the effects'. Realising this, the U.G.C. National Workshop on syllabus reform in English (1977: 6) has recommended: "Remedial teaching in essential areas of grammar should be provided through controlled and graded exercises, oral as well as written, presented through meaningful contexts relevant to student needs". Margaret M. Clark (1979: 21, 22) also rightly says that "Remedial education has a unique and essential contribution to primary and secondary education and in secondary schools the remedial department is more likely to contain full time teachers..."

But how to bring about these remedial measures, so that it would be effective, systematic and permanent? The traditional methods of remediation have been criticised by Das and David (1980: 15) as being 'unsatisfactory', because they are 'short lived' as they ignore the systematic nature of language and learning, and being 'not conducive to the development of healthy attitude to learning'.

We, therefore, should not ignore the areas of students' success. It is unwise to confront the student constantly with evidence of his failure to learn. Our task should be to restore his confidence in himself. According to
Gurney (1976: 28) only in this kind of an atmosphere which does not reinforce notions of failure, can we hope to provide effective help for those children who need it. The most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows. So, this should be ascertained and the learner be made to start from that point towards success.

Secondly, the problem for the learners is not learning the rules, but learning how to use the rules. It is relatively easy to memorize grammatical forms, but difficult to master the use of those forms (Gurney, 1972: 50).

So, we need not give the students the grammatical rules, rather we should create situations so that the students may use the language and practise it. As it will be seen later, the exercises make the students do it.

The teacher has to confirm himself about two things before any remedial item is presented to the class. Those are—(1) Whether the students are prepared to accept the remedies. Remediation is possible when the learner knows what is wrong and when the learner wants to get rid of it. Alexander (1976: 8) terms it as the 'state of readiness'. (2) The teacher must ascertain himself that the errors he is to deal with are systematic and productive. If the errors are unsystematic and careless mistakes, these may be ignored. Also, if it is due to communication strategy, it need not be corrected. Because it is only transitional competence and the correct form would come automatically by exposure to TL.
On the other hand if they are systematic errors, they have to be approached differently with reference to the sources, i.e. (i) If the errors are due to L₁ interference, it will need a comparative teaching of L₁ and L₂. (ii) If the errors are intralingual, then reliable and predictable rules have to be established. (iii) If the errors are due to the teaching strategies, the materials may be rearranged, reorganised and presented.

As this stage the sequencing and presentation of materials need special consideration. The global errors should be dealt with first, and then the local errors. And, the errors with high frequency will be presented to the class. Errors with less frequency or which are typically individualistic, may be dealt with individually. As Gurney (1976 : 21) has pointed out, "teaching all remedial children as one uniform problem is, to do them a disservice". John C. Fisher (1966 : 23) also states, "Errors common to large numbers of pupils can be handled in group fashion while those errors causing trouble to relatively few pupils can be handled on an individual basis".

The teacher should also make it a point to see that one item is properly and effectively established before another item is introduced. An important point of this remedial work is the notion of one item at a time. It is useless and unnecessary to attempt too much at a time.
5.3.1. Two stages of Tests

Two stages of tests and two types of remedial materials are suggested. The two stages of tests are: (a) end-of-unit-test and (b) end-of-program-test.

(a) End-of-unit-test:

Tests, conducted now and then during the lessons, will decide whether the learners should move to the next unit or not.

(b) End-of-program-test:

Tests, conducted at long intervals will decide whether the learners need to continue the remedial program or not.

The two kinds of remedial materials suggested are: (1) relating to mechanics of expression, i.e. pattern practice drills and (2) relating to organisation, i.e. reading comprehension followed by controlled, semi-controlled and free composition.

5.3.2. Pattern Practice Drills

Pattern practice is based on the habit formation theory of language learning. C.C. Fries (1945: 6) claims: "With its repeated recitations of structural patterns, it is a more economical way to reinforce and make structures automatic than any other."
Pattern practice should, however, be built around a structural point, i.e. around a single error observed in the study. It was discovered that pattern practice drills are totally discontinued from the level of class VI, though it is found to some extent in the level of class IV and V. The importance of such drills should be realised and they be practised for effective language learning.

The drills can be constructed on four principles: (i) repetition, (ii) substitution, (iii) transformation, and (iv) recombination. These four factors meet the requirements for a proper remediation. Repetition makes the process habitual, substitution exercises reinforce the pattern, and transformation exercises make the student rethink and re-express his thoughts in a suitable form. The inclusion of one or more additional items into a drill with new structural item "makes the students recombine simple phrases, clauses or sentences into a more complex structure" (Fisher, 1966: 29).

The linguistic method of language teaching is based on the fundamental principle of active practice in the language and careful control and grading of grammatical patterns. Modern techniques still involve a great deal of mim-mem practice (mimicry and memorisation). There is no substitute for them in language learning. The best language teachers know how to lead the students from imitation and memorisation to creating new sentences of his own.
According to Tripathy (1980: 20-25, 1983: 15-22), the core of all language-teaching is still active pattern-drills. We should only try harder to make the students aware of what is happening during such drills, to enlist his active co-operation and to take advantage of his human ability.

To make pattern-practice drills effective, each aspect of the language (grammatical pattern, vocabulary and sounds) should be taught through the following five stages:

(a) Recognition, (b) Imitation, (c) Repetition, (d) Variation, (e) Selection.

(a) Recognition stage:

This involves the ability to discriminate between two different utterances and to recognise that a given word or sentence is a repetition of one which the speaker has already spoken, or that it is a new and different word or sentence. It is taught by means of recognition drills, e.g. 'same-different drill' where the students are taught to recognise that the pair of sentences 'He beat the boy' and 'He beat the boy' are the same, but that 'He beat the boy' and 'He bit the boy' are different. Minimal-pair recognition drills are best known in teaching pronunciation, but can also be applied in teaching grammatical contrasts ('He eats rice' and 'He is eating rice') and vocabulary ('The boy is wise' and 'The boy is intelligent'). More sophisticated recognition
drills require the students to identify which of a pair of minimal utterances has been spoken even though he is given only one member of the pair.

(b) Imitation stage:

Here the student produces the same utterances as the teacher says. The teacher strives for perfection including accurate mimicry, appropriate gestures and facial expression. It is, however, advisable to imitate words in the context of a sentence, and sentences, in turn, in the context of a dialogue, because, first, it is easier to learn in a context than in isolation, second, the pronunciation will be more natural in a context than in isolation, and third, essential grammatical information will also be learnt at the same time.

(c) Repetition stage:

At this stage the response of the students becomes fluent, accurate and it is largely reduced to a physical motor habit. The student's mind is relieved of the burden of consciously controlling all the details of the sentence. If we had to think consciously about all the muscular movements involved in walking, we could not walk very well. By habit, after a period of practice, our attention gets freed. This principle applies to language learning also.

(d) Variation stage:

Here the student learns to vary the patterns he
has learnt. He learns to apply them to new situations. The teacher can make use of three kinds of variation drills—substitution drills, transformation drills and combinatorial drills.

In substitution drills, the student is required to hold constant the basic structure of the sentence and to substitute new vocabulary, one word at a time. If a cue is given 'fish' with a sentence 'The boy eats rice', the student should respond with 'The boy eats fish'. If a cue like 'The boys' is given, it becomes an advanced-type substitution drill, since the student has to make other changes in the sentence, eg. 'The boys eat rice'.

In transformation drill, the vocabulary is kept constant. For example, the students, given the sentence 'Mohan ate rice', may be asked 'Did Mohan eat rice?' or 'What did Mohan eat?' or 'Mohan didn't eat rice, did he?' etc.

In combinatorial drills the students are asked to combine two simple sentences into a more complex pattern.

(e) Selection stage:

Here the students learn when to use a grammatical pattern. This includes understanding the meaning and also the social implication of a statement, eg. is it suitable to make a polite request 'Please shut the window', to a personal
friend of equal status, or is it courteous and formal, suitable for use in situations requiring respect?

It is often found that teachers waste hours of valuable class time trying to explain (in the students' mother-tongue) the subtle distinctions between words (eg. tall and high) or grammatical constructions (eg. He eats rice, and He is eating rice,). But it has to be remembered that all the abstract explanations in the world are not as effective as a few minutes of selection drills, or practice drills which place the newly learned constructions in meaningful and contrastive contexts.

Thus pattern practice drills help the students to understand the underlying structure of English sentences. However, this should not become a mere mechanical skill. The teacher can introduce varieties into it.

Stack (1966: 117) remarks, "Variety in material and ways of presentation helps alleviate the inevitable monotony of systematic practice". Often, for such purpose the lesson may end with talking points, singing, games and story-telling etc.

5.3.3. **Substitution tables**

The importance of substitution tables has been widely realised by George (1967: 1), Forrester (1972: 66),
Mac Carthy (1972 : 9) and Jagannathan (1976 : 12) etc.

With these tables one can speak and write many thousands of English sentences without making a single mistake. It is a valuable device for schematic presentation of linguistic material. It has some advantage as a mathematical table, or a cashmemo has over a narrative statement, in words. The potentiality of these tables are realised from the fact that most of the structures can be practised through them.

Each table can be made to provide practice on one major point. Some minor points can also be related to it. Dacanay (1963) gives examples of eighty different kinds of pattern drills, substitution claiming the major place. Students should be made to pass from simple substitution tables to complex ones. We give below four substitution tables. The complexity of the tables increases as one moves from table 31.a to 31.b and from 31.b to 31.c and 31.d.

(a)

Table - 31.a

Substitution Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>the man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>that town</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>remember</td>
<td>this book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>recommend</td>
<td>Krishna's brother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By taking any one item from each column a large number of correct sentences can be made. It is impossible to make a wrong or absurd sentence. It is useful in the early stage of learning. With each sentence the correct pattern is impressed on the mind. Practice of such sentences will help the students form the correct patterns.

By changing the items in one column the table can be made a little complex, eg. Table-31.b.

(b) Table - 31.b

Substitution Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Know</td>
<td>the man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>grow</td>
<td>that town</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>remember</td>
<td>that book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>eat</td>
<td>Krishna's brother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read</td>
<td>mangoes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>employ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this table it is impossible to make grammatically wrong sentences, but there is every possibility of making absurd sentences like 'They eat that town'. This, therefore, needs attention of the students. This table can be used after the students have sufficient practice of the first table. The second Table, 31.b, is nearer the
Psychological laws of learning that 'the greater the attention, the greater the learning'. Now the table can be made further complex in the next stage as in Table - 31.c

(c)

Table - 31.c

Substitution Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>the man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>grow</td>
<td>that town</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>eat</td>
<td>that book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>remember</td>
<td>rice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>recommends</td>
<td>mangoes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>employs</td>
<td>Krishna's brother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govind</td>
<td>reads</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Any item can be used from column No. 3 provided the sentence is not absurd. Table-31.c becomes more difficult, if the dividing line is removed between 'remember' and 'recommends' in the second column; and it becomes still more difficult if the dividing line in first column is taken out as in Table-31.d. So the teacher at every step must ascertain himself that the students have learnt correctly before the next table is introduced.
The fourth table, 31.d, is much more challenging than the others and should be introduced only when the student has internalised the structure perfectly.

The major point in the tables given so far is related to the present simple tense. The minor point related to it is the third person singular number < -s >. Thus other structures relating to past tense, further relating to future tense, preposition, articles, number, gender, person, etc. can be presented through substitution tables.

(s) Using the tables in the class:

The substitution table, built around a particular error has to be used first for oral practice in the class.

After the teacher writes up the table on the black-board and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>the man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>grows</td>
<td>that town</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govind</td>
<td>eats</td>
<td>that book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>recommend</td>
<td>rice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>remember</td>
<td>mangoes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>employ</td>
<td>Krishna's brother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>reads</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
briefly explains to the class as to how the table works, he makes some sample sentences from the table. The class repeats after him. Then he asks individuals to read out sentences from the table. He repeats these and the class repeats after him. After practising a good number of correct sentences, he asks the class to write five or six sentences from the table.

This is an important stage in the lesson and the teacher should go round the class to help the poor and deficient students. After the class has written the sentences, the teacher can make a rapid check either by himself or by the students themselves exchanging their note-books with one another.

Further practice can be given through a variety of exercises which can serve as home task. The various kinds of exercises are discussed below.

5.3.4. Type of Exercises

(1) Substitution-table exercises:

The students can be asked to substitute new items in the substitution table discussed earlier. Only one column is to be taken at a time.

(2) Matching exercises:

Words or groups of words under one column are
to be paired with words or group of words under a second column so as to make grammatical and sensible sentences.

(3) Substitution exercises:

Here a sentence is given with the list of clue-words or clue-symbols below it on the left. When there are more than one sentence, the clue for each sentence can be given to the left or the right in a bracket.

(4) Transformation exercises:

In this case the clues are to be given in grammatical terms, e.g., change into negative etc.

(5) Completion exercises:

Sentences are to be given with blanks, which are to be filled up with the correct form of a tense, the appropriate tense, the appropriate preposition etc.

(6) Advanced completion exercises:

In the next stage the students are asked to complete sentences not with words, but with clauses.

(7) Pattern-based free sentence exercises:

Here, students are asked to make up sentences of their own on a given pattern like use of present tense, frequency adverb in the mid position etc.

These exercises can fruitfully be applied in the teaching situations of English as a second language.
5.3.5. Teaching of writing

The pattern practice drills will give the students a good grasp of mechanics of expression at the sentence level which is termed as 'meristic strategy' as against 'holistic strategy', i.e., enabling efficiency at the sentence and paragraph level. This, then, can be related to passages in the text. When they come to writing, however, it is important for the teacher to know where the students are on the continuum in each of the skills—listening comprehension, speaking and reading. Writing is a derived skill that comes after the students have some experience in the production of the language in the form of reading. The teacher, then becomes concerned with the several dimensions of the writing act—spelling, vocabulary, structures etc. So the teaching of writing has to be approached in a graded sequence. The following six steps are recommended in their sequential order: (a) copying, (b) dictation, (c) controlled writing, (d) reading with comprehension, (e) semicontrolled writing, and (f) free writing.

(a) Copying:

In the initial stage, the students' skill in mechanical writing can be developed through transcription of printed or written materials from the black-board, i.e., copying known and familiar words, expressions, sentences
and paragraphs. Copying is a good model to draw students' attention to graphic elements such as silent letters and verb endings. The order of sequence is again important and the students need considerable command of one step before they proceed to the next.

(b) Dictation

The use of dictation along with copying in a classroom teaches spelling and listening comprehension. The sequential order of dictation would be previously studied and familiar words, expressions, sentences and paragraphs. Dictation as an exercise can consist of activities like oral repetition, memory writing, writing a phrase as a response to a question from the teacher, description of a picture and spot dictation involving fill-in-procedures, i.e., passages with several blanks, where students are asked to fill them as the teacher reads aloud the whole passage. As Sawyer and Silver (1972: 227) remarks, such exercises force the students to be aware of their spelling errors, train them in hand writing and provide cues to spelling and punctuation based on the teacher's pronunciation. Most important of all, he is forced to correct the errors he makes.

(c) Controlled writing

Here, the students are made to use particular grammatical and lexical items. The desired goal here is to create situations where the students can not make serious
errors. The teacher helps the students in various ways of writing by providing control of vocabulary or and structural patterns. The substitution table 31.a provides the idea of such function. Errors related to spelling and grammatical categories can be corrected through the 'trio' — copying, dictation and controlled writing.

(d) Reading with comprehension:

Reading must play as important a role in writing as listening does in oral production. As D.A. Wilkins (1974: 67) observes, "In language learning, a rich exposure to language can only be provided through extensive reading and listening." To the Indian context such a need is still intense. B.K. Das (1980: viii-xiv) remarks, "Sustained, controlled and progressive exposure to the language being taught, is a minimum, if not a sufficient condition for learning. Such exposure can best be provided, in the Indian context, through reading ... Intensive reading provides ... a convenient economical base for a variety of learning activities catering to all round language ability, including the learning of grammar and vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, comprehension, note-taking and composition and even the speech skills".

The study of model text by stimulating the thinking process helps the students discover the linguistic pattern and thus establishes a relationship between reading and writing.
(e) Semi-controlled writing:

The concepts of 'controlled', 'semi-controlled' and 'free' writings are based on the degree of teacher-control and student-freedom. In controlled writing, the student's writing is fully teacher-controlled and there is no scope of error. In semi-controlled writing, the teacher lessens his control and the students are allowed some freedom. The substitution tables 31.b, 31.c, 31.d and the other exercises listed under the subsection 'exercises' come under semi-controlled writing.

(f) Free-writing:

The degree of teacher control is at the lowest in 'free' writing. It includes writing short answers to textual questions, or writing paragraphs on a given topic. The students have complete control so far as the arrangement and choice of the details are concerned. However, total control like selection of 'topic' should never be allowed to students at this level.

Thus the steps discussed above will help the students write grammatically correct and acceptable sentences. However, a teaching approach is not an end in itself. The manner in which it is executed is of great importance. Of all, the teachers, their preparations, planning and materials are of vital importance in successful application of these exercises.
5.4.0. The specific viewpoint: Sources and remedies of errors

5.4.1. Spelling

The large amount of errors related to spelling in this study may be ascribed to the following factors.

(i) Non-discrimination of sound: The learners can not distinguish between one sound from another both at the vowel and consonant levels. So that one sound is substituted by another or omitted completely or misplaced elsewhere in the word.

(ii) Defective or incomplete perception: According to Srivastava (1981: 85-96) both at the visual and auditory perception levels the learner's perception is either defective or incomplete, so that the sounds can not be organised properly and encoded in its spelling. This is particularly true in case of homophones.

(iii) Non-familiarity: The learners are ignorant about the words or the proper names, so that such words are always misspelt.

(iv) Inconsistencies of English spelling system: Bolinger (1975: 480) states, "No other spelling system in the world has been the occasion of so much amazement, frustration, irritation, sarcasm and cold fury as that of English". Far from being a 1:1 system, English orthography has a many : many system. The problem of silent letters as in 'write', 'could', the problem of one letter representing various
sounds in different combinations like 'garden', 'gentleman' and 'prestige' or one sound represented by various letter or letters as in 'but', and 'bought' are baffling to these learners. Thus it leads to a lot of spelling errors.

(v) Erroneous pronunciation: 'The teacher's own pronunciation is at most a non-native variety, loosely called Indian English' (Bhatia, S.C., 1975: 152-157). Accent is also not properly placed so that these wrong pronunciations and accent habits are transferred into spelling leading to errors. Richards and Sampson (1974: 9) ascribe such errors to modality.

(vi) Literal transliteration: The habit of literal transliteration of mother-tongue which has one to one correspondence between phonemes and letters of alphabets is transferred to English spelling system, thus causing a lot of spelling errors.

(vii) Over-generalisation: The simple rule 'that plurals are formed by adding < s >'as in 'father-fathers', 'mother-mothers' is overgeneralised for other words which cause misspelling as in the case of 'wifes' instead of 'wives'.

(viii) Difficult words: Some words like 'luxurious', 'compound', 'distribute' etc. seem to be difficult to the learners at this level, so that these words have wrongly been spelt many times.
(ix) Lack of drilling : Lack of sufficient drilling and feedback in teaching strategy to reinforce spelling seems to have accounted for many errors.

(x) Haste and carelessness : Finally, the students' haste in writing leading to carelessness towards spelling may be accounted for a part of the spelling mistakes in the present study.

Ability to spell correctly can impede development in writing. In view of the importance of conformity which the present society attaches to spelling, it needs greater attention. However, care should be taken to see that learning to spell does not become an obstacle to the students' writing English. The following suggestions could be fruitfully implemented to improve spelling at this level.

(i) Habit of correct pronunciation : Habit of correct pronunciation and stress has to be imbibed among the teachers and the learners. Bansal and Harrison (1974 : 106) suggest that the reading of a text should be done carefully with proper grouping of words and avoiding substitutions and omissions. Consonants should not be misrepresented.

(ii) Special care for vowels : Vowels < e > and < i > are the major sources of spelling errors. So special care has to be taken about them in teaching, reading and writing.
(iii) List of demons: It is always worth the trouble to prepare a list of 'demons', the words causing errors for the learners. These words could be taken special care of, can be repeatedly drilled and displayed on the school-wall or students note-books. For more detailed idea Smith-Pearse (1968 : iv) may be consulted.

(iv) Mnemonics (simple memory sentences): The idea of 'mnemonics' should be imbibed among students. Mnemonics like: You poor fool, I don't care whether you're senior or junior, superior or inferior, major or minor, and rhymes like: 'Here's develop—lop off e; stopped has always double'P', 'help fix spellings in the learner's mind.

(v) Spelling rules: Inspite of the much talked of inconsistencies in spelling system, 'English contains many consistent phoneme-grapheme relationships, a knowledge of which can profit students (Ort and Wallace, 1976 : 5). From 80 to 90 percent of English sounds are consistently spelled with the same letter or letters. Presentation of spelling drills in patterns like:

- rhyming patterns — dip, lip, rip, sip;
- non-rhyming patterns — tape, take, tame, tale; and
- vowel changing patterns — bat, bet, bit, but,

will lead students to discover generalizations about phoneme-grapheme relationships and to discover morphemic
principles like adding suffixes to
VoVoCo or VoCoCo patterns, eg. clearly, helpful;
words ending with final < e >, eg. state-stating;
words ending with Co + < y >, eg. steady-steadily;
and words with CoVoCo pattern, eg. big-bigger, etc.

Thus some classes of errors could be guarded
against by providing suitable clues to the spelling system.
Some useful spelling rules are discussed ahead which may be
carefully taken into account.

(vi) Drilling : Spelling drills with special stress on the
particular part of a word found difficult should be conducted
in the class. Drilling in case of plural and past tense
formation need special care. The drills should be followed
by exercises like translation; insertion of missing letter;
re-arranging letters to form meaningful word; writing
synonyms, antonyms; matching exercises; dictation; cross-
word puzzle, picking out the incorrect or odd one from a
group etc. to reinforce the skills and concepts.

(vii) Rote-learning : Learning 5-10 words a day by rote
should be practised and developed among students.

(viii) Syllabification : Exceptions can be noted at the
level of words, or of syllables and the phonemes. The latter
method is evidently more economical. By this method it would
not be necessary, for example, to learn all the letters of
the word 'separate'; it would be enough to note that the
syllable < pa > has < a > instead of the expected ( ? )
< e >. The teacher should encourage this method by syllabifying
exceptional words when teaching; a rough and ready syllabi-
fication is sufficient (P.T. George, 1972 : 6-17).

(ix) Visual memory and kinaesthetic memory alongwith picture-
reading and functional phonics' should be stressed and
developed.

(x) The following books on spelling would be of immense
help to the learners and the teachers: (a) Word book
spelling program (Ort and Wallace, 1976), (b) Correct spelling,
punctuation and pronunciation (Maison, 1977), (c) English
sounds and spelling (Hill, 1962), and (d) The English errors
of Indian students (Smith-Pearse, 1968).

(xi) Use of dictionary: The students should be
encouraged to use a dictionary which is a valuable aid in
spelling achievement.

(xii) Some useful spelling rules: The following are some
of the spelling rules which can be of particular help to the
learners and the teachers.

1. Root words ending in VoVoCo/VoCoCo do not undergo changes
to take a suffix, eg.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{VoVoCo} & = \text{clear} + \text{ly} = \text{clearly}, \\
\text{VoCoCo} & = \text{help} + \text{ful} = \text{helpful}.
\end{align*}
\]
2. Words with a final <e>, except <ge> and <ce> ending, do not change to take a suffix beginning with Co, but drop <e> to take a suffix beginning with Vo, eg.

- state + ment = statement
- state + ing = stating, but
- change + ed = changed, and
- peace + able = peaceable.

3. Words ending with Co + <y> substitute <y> for <i> to take all suffixes except <ing>, eg.

- steady + ly = steadily
- steady + est = steadiest
- steady + ing = steadying.

4. The <s> in 'dis-' and 'mis-' suffixes are never doubled.

5. Words ending with <c> add <k> before taking suffixes like <ed> and <ing>, eg.

- frolic + ed = frolicked.

5.4.2. **Punctuation**

Virtually, there is no difference in the rules of punctuation between English and Oriya. The marks are also the same except for the full-stop which is substituted by a vertical straight line (|) in Oriya. Yet the high degree
of errors in punctuation, seems to establish the fact that deficiencies in the source language (Oriya) are mirrored in the target language.

Some of the errors in punctuation can be ascribed to the teaching strategies. Teachers, while reading out the text material don't always follow the usual full pauses and half pauses denoted respectively by full stops and commas and thus make students fail to perceive the significance of these marks. Evidently, therefore, the habit is transferred by the students to their written productions.

Another plausible factor contributing to punctuation errors is the fact that punctuation is never taught carefully to the students in a separate period.

However, the major factor behind the punctuation errors is the students' ignorance and lack of perception. They fail to feel the idea in the utterance, spoken or written, for, punctuation, largely, is a matter of feeling the sense in the linguistic unit. Two thirds of punctuation is governed by rule and one third by personal taste (Margaret Maison, 1977: 89).

With stress, intonation and rhythm, speech is more variable in structuring of information than writing. Punctuation is one of the various ways in which written
meaning can be presented and arranged for effective communication and proper understanding. As Margaret Haun (1977: 84) says, "Faulty punctuation can make nonsense out of sense, can lead to court cases, ruined careers and even loss of life. On the other hand, to punctuate intelligibly is a commercial and social basic unit or minimum requirement; to punctuate well, a social advantage; to punctuate very well, a social and intellectual distinction".

Correct punctuation should, therefore, always be expected of a student. In the present case, the learners badly need practice in full-stop, comma, apostrophe's', marks of interrogation, exclamation and inverted commas. As revealed from the analysis, comma needs the highest priority of all the marks.

The errors in punctuation could be remedied through practice. Time and again, the teacher should set passages or lines to the class to punctuate.

Some separate periods could be allotted in the session for this class where the learners would be made familiar with the punctuation marks, and would be given general rules with examples for correctly using these marks. However, the use of comma should be specially stressed upon.

In loud reading the teacher should conform to the required pauses, stress and intonation and he should look for the same from the students' loud reading.
The students also need familiarity with the
collapsed forms like 'didn't', 'isn't', 'aren't', 'wouldn't',
and 'can't' etc. They also need to distinguish between 'its'
and 'it's'.

5.4.3. **Capitalization**

The use of small and capital letters of
alphabet are quite significant for clear and correct writing.
As against one set of letters of alphabet in Oriya, English
distinguishes between its small and capital letters. The
errors related to the use of these two sets of letters in
the present study are quite revealing so far as it establishes
the fact that learners are not even familiar with the two
sets of letters of alphabet in English. It is quite ironical
that the school course should demand such pupils to write
complex and compound sentences grammatically correct.

To rectify this problem the pupils need first
recognise the 26 letters of alphabet both capital and small.
They should be trained properly to shape the letters
correctly. This has to be reinforced through regular hand-
writing exercises, which can be set as a home task. Spelling
accomplishment is greatly influenced by hand-writing and
hence it has to be dealt with due emphasis. It seems to be
a forgotten practice whereas regular hand-writing practice
at this level is a need felt by the researcher.
Finally, the rules of using capital letters should be given to the students with proper and sufficient examples. The teachers and students will find the following six rules quite helpful in this context. Capital letters are used for the first letter in (i) proper nouns and proper adjectives, (ii) the first word of a paragraph or after a full stop, (iii) the first word of a sentence, written in inverted commas, (iv) initial letters, written alone, (v) words used in special senses like titles, religious terms, calendar, personifications etc. and (vi) 'I' the personal pronoun.

5.4.4. Number

The errors related to number are due to \( L_1 \) interference and \( L_2 \) development.

Duplication of numericals like 'a two friends' is clearly due to mother-tongue influence. In Oriya such duplication is possible, i.e., one can say

jane dui jana bandhu - one two friends,
gotie dui phala - one two fruits.

Errors like 'lifes' seem to be \( L_2 \) developmental phenomenon. This does not reflect native language structure, but are found in the \( L_1 \) acquisition data of the target language.
Failure to observe concord of number as in 'some fruit', 'many time', and substitution of singular for plural are due to the learner's strategy of redundancy-reduction. Jain (1974 : 191) notes of a 'telegraphic stage' applicable both to the native child and the second language learner. According to him in language learning from that of a child learning his native language to that of an adult learning an $L_2$, the learning strategy of reducing speech to a simpler system seem to be employed by every learner. To the learners the words 'some' and 'many' by themselves are plural markers, so that they don't feel the need of pluralising 'fruit' and 'time'.

However, error like 'sweets fruits' is hard to be explained in terms of $L_1$ or $L_2$. It may either be over looked as a 'slip' or may be ascribed to the $L_3$ effects in the sense that it is an influence of Sanskrit language. Sanskrit conforms to the concord of similar number both in the noun and its adjective. At class VIII level students are required to learn three languages at a time — Oriya, Sanskrit and English. It seems quite plausible to accept that the three languages will act and interact with one another in the learning strategy of the learner leading to the production of such errors.

The errors in number could be prevented by regular practice through exercises. Matching exercises, filling the blanks, substitution table exercises will be of particular
help in teaching items in number. Students should be particularly guarded against overgeneralisation in a wrong way so far as formation of plural is concerned. Broader generalising rules will be helpful to them, eg. the final < f > changes to < ves > when it is pluralised.

The maintenance of concord in number needs special attention.

5.4.5. Gender

Most of the errors related to gender may be attributed to L₁ pattern, i.e. Oriya. Like English and Hindi in its pronominal place, Oriya does not differentiate gender either in the subject-pronoun or object-pronoun place. Oriya language uses, instead, one type of inflection to refer both to masculine and feminine gender, eg.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Oriya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ram is a boy.</td>
<td>Rāma gotie bālaka.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is his pen.</td>
<td>→ ehā tāhāra kalama.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sita is a girl.</td>
<td>→ sitā gotie bālikā.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is her pen.</td>
<td>→ ehā tāhāra kalama.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>Oriya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He, She</td>
<td>waha → se</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Him, Her</td>
<td>usko → tāku</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His</td>
<td>uskā → tāhāra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Her</td>
<td>uski → tāhāra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above description shows that whereas Hindi discriminates between the gender in the genitive pronominal place, Oriya language discriminates between gender nowhere. It is plausible therefore to believe that gender errors in this study are $L_1$ effects. A few could be ascribed also to learning strategy, eg. substituting 'he' for 'she'.

However, since gender in English is strictly visible in case of pronouns, students could be practised through substitution-table-drilling, matching-exercises, filling-up-gaps, etc. to establish and reinforce their correct knowledge in and application of generic reference in English.

"There is usually some element of semantic consistency in the system (gender), turning on sex, animateness, size, shape, degree of abstraction and the like ..." (Hockett, 1959 : 232). However, the exceptions are important and these exceptions should clearly and widely be given to the students.

5.4.6. **Person**

Errors in person, i.e. omission of person in the subject place, substitution of persons or misplacement of person are due to lack of control over the $L_2$ sentence patterns. To avoid such errors the students should be drilled on SVO pattern.
5.4.7. Articles

Errors in article usage may be called according to Jain (1974: 203) 'asystematic' errors. This refers to the fact that certain generalisations remain as hypothesis with the learner and he can not give it a status of rule and can not apply it with any degree of consistency. Thus he has no productive control of article usage. In the context of such errors, it is difficult to state precise rules for the occurrence of learner's errors. Jain (1974: 204) states: "Teaching techniques, the learner's experience with the second language - the facts of surface structure at times may completely obscure the generalisation - the popular school grammar, folklore about the second language, the learner's sociolinguistic situation, the various practices and tradition, all may promote certain selected areas of indeterminacy in the learner's syllabus".

After knowing from the school grammar that 'a' is to be used before singular count nouns and not before abstract nouns, if the learner comes across expressions like 'A thing of beauty is a joy for ever', 'Man is selfish' where count noun has no 'a' and abstract noun has 'a', he becomes indeterminate about its use. Further, the folklore 'that article use in English is very difficult and is governed by no rule worsens the situation. Thus he begins to operate with a 'hit or miss' strategy. The system of second language in these areas demands a combinations of decision
at several levels of syntax, teaching techniques, popular grammar, teaching materials, teachers and learners.

Along with other factors, $L_1$ factors seem to be contributing to such indeterminacy. Richards (1974: 176) ascribes the misuse of articles to ignorance of rule-restriction based on analogy.

To remedy such errors the simple rules of using indefinite articles 'a' and 'an' with its exceptions should be given to the students. The rules relating to the use of definite article can be given simultaneously. The rules should be extensively demonstrated in examples. Further it should be reinforced through drilling and various types of exercises. Here again the students and teachers would find the filling in blanks exercises, matching exercises and substitution table exercises quite helpful.

In a second language learning situation, it is always worth the trouble to tell the students if there is a rule in $L_1$ which is parallel to that of $L_2$. In this case, Oriya language has an equivalent to the English definite article 'the' and students would face no trouble in using the definite article. Oriya uses 'tI' in almost the same way as English uses 'the'. The difference is that in Oriya, the use is obligatory and it is used after the noun where as in English 'the' precedes the noun. Lyons (1968: 204) notes of
post-positional article to which Oriya 'ti' seems to belong. For example the Oriya translation of 'Give me the book' is

me book the give
mote bahi ti dia.

What remains, therefore, is the use of 'a' and 'an' for which special care has to be taken in teaching and learning. The popular rule in this case seems to be "'an' before vowels and 'a' before consonants".

5.4.8. Case

The errors related to case also are partly due to L₁ influence and partly due to L₂ learning strategy.

Errors due to misplacement of case-markers, which affect the word-order in the sentence are due to L₁ influence. In Oriya the usual word order is SVO, as against the SOV pattern in English. This explains why the students write 'The monkey blackberry ate'. (SOV) instead of 'The monkey ate blackberry'. (SVO).

Errors in the sub-category of 'omission of possessive markers' are L₂ developmental errors. The native learners of English also have been found to drop the possessive markers in the course of their learning the language. The 'substitution of cases', 'insertion of cases' and 'omission of accusative cases', however, are due to
the students' lack of knowledge in the system of the language.

The errors in 'case' could be remedied by establishing the word order in English.

The students need be clear that in English possession is realised by two processes, eg. (i) by 's' as in "student's" "students'" and (ii) by 'of' as in "of the student" and "of the students". The students also need reinforcement in the inflection of the personal pronouns for possessive and accusative case. Because, as it is evident from the scripts students know the inflected form, but use it in a wrong way. A student who knows both 'his' and 'him' uses 'his' instead of 'him' or vice versa.

5.4.9. Prepositions

Like articles, prepositions in English form another area of indeterminacy. A learner, after using a preposition in one context now, meets with another use of the preposition the next moment. The numerous use of a preposition, its further combination with other prepositions, prepositional phrases, the established convention relating to prepositions and multiple availability of more than one equivalents in L₂ for L₁ words or highly baffling. This complex nature in the system of the language is more
responsible for the majority of prepositional errors in
the study than anything else.

Many of the errors may be attributed to the L1
influence. The students have either used prepositions
semantically equivalent to L1 words or they have literally
translated a cluster of prepositions. Thus we have errors
like:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Oriya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) on this time</td>
<td>ehi samayare.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) in this time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) burnt in ashes</td>
<td>niānre jaligalā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) for catch the deer</td>
<td>harinaku dharibā pāin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) was heard to Sita</td>
<td>sitānku sunāgalā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) came to there</td>
<td>sethāku āsitā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) to under of the tree</td>
<td>gachhara talaku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) near of / to Sita</td>
<td>sitānka pākhaku</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are 3 equivalents in English— in, on, at—
for Oriya 're'. So that by semantically substituting the
students produce (a) and (b) for 'ehi samayare', and (c) for
niānre jaligalā. Whenever the learner is confronted with
two or more alternatives, he reduces the learning burden by
over-extending the use of one of those forms to contexts
where the other form should have been used.

The errors relating to omission of prepositions
are due to the students' lack of control over the language
system.
Also a large number of the errors are due to the teaching strategy so far as the prepositions are presented and taught to the students in a disjoined manner. Richards (1974: 176) ascribes the misuse of prepositions to ignorance of rule restriction based on analogy.

The remedies relating to errors in prepositions should, therefore, be systematic, effective and careful. The prepositions with wider potentiality of occurrence should be taken up first. This is because, (i) the students learn the semantic significance first than the conventional uses and (ii) generalisations which are in larger agreement with the $L_2$ facts are less productive of errors. The often occurring prepositions in this study are 'on', 'in', 'at', 'into', 'of', 'by' and 'under'.

The prepositional phrases with set conventions could be taken up a later stage after the first category of prepositions are established. L.A. Hill (1968: 4) has divided the use of each preposition into elementary, intermediate and advanced in a suggested teaching order, in which a student whose mother-tongue is not English might find a new learning effort.

The learners' capacity to generalise must improve, for, progress in learning a language is made by adopting generalisations and stretching them to match the facts of the language (Jain, 1974: 207). Teaching
strategies and materials must provide them with a stronger inclination and better ability to formulate rules. Contrastive presentation of items at this stage should be discouraged, i.e., items like 'for' and 'since' should not be introduced at the same time. They should be taught at different times with different contexts and with different exercises.

For demonstration of the subtle differences among prepositions visual aids should be sufficiently used. The following types of diagrams could be of help to teachers in teaching some of the prepositions and adverbials.

above, over, on,
on the top of.

back, behind.

before, in front of

below, under.

The following types of diagrams could be of help to teachers in teaching some of the prepositions and adverbials.

D-7(A)

on the grass.

D-7(B)

in the grass.

D-7(C)

across the grass.

D-7(D)

through the grass.

D-7(E)
5.4.10  **Affixation**

The errors in affixation are due to the English language system and due to the learning and teaching strategies.

The uses of wrong prefixes and wrong suffixes are due to the learner's overgeneralisation. Finding that 'mis-', 'un-', 'in-' are used as prefixes in certain words he extends the rule to form incorrect forms like 'mispublic', 'unside', 'inappear' etc. The same explanation holds good for suffixation and the learner produces 'publicable', 'marryly', 'playous', 'faithness', 'sadful', 'publicer', 'faithful', 'handeding' etc.

The availability of more than one equivalents in $L_2$ eg. the negative suffixes – 'in', 'im', 'un', 'dis', 'non' etc. Confuse the learner and he operates with a hit or miss strategy. Thus the learners produce 'dishopeful', 'invisible', 'inappear', 'nonlucky', 'unorder' etc.

However, the uses of prefixes as suffixes and suffixes or prefixes show the students' lack of perception in the English affixation system. The errors due to the use of free-forms like 'on', 'of', 'no', 'one', and the innovations like 'des', 'dise', 'diss', 'miss' etc. are also due to the same reason.

The analysis reveals that the students find difficulty mostly with the prefixes of negation – 'in', 'un', 'im', 'dis', 'mis' and 'non'. So these areas of prefixes
should be properly guarded. The students ought to know
that 'dis' and 'mis' are not to be written with double < s >,
however, the root, if it ends with < s >, will retain it.

In case of suffixes the difficulty is mostly
with 'able', 'ous', 'ness', 'er', 'y', and 'ful'. This also
constitutes the largest area of errors in affixation, i.e.
wrong suffixes are used or suffixes are prefixed.

A bit of rule in each case of teaching these
items will help the learners. This should, however, be
established through practice, both oral and written.
Substitution table and such other exercises could be of
ample help to the teachers.

5.4.11. **Compound word formation**

The errors in compound word formation can
equally be attributed partly to the random system of English
and partly to the students' 'hit or miss' strategy.

Rules and procedures of compounding can hardly
prevent the errors related to it. The teaching strategy
has to be improved in this case. The teacher should draw
attention of the students to the particular compound words
occurring now and then in the text. Students could be given
practice in compounding through matching exercises and
filling up of gaps.
5.4.12. **Passivization**

Most of the errors in passivization seem to be teaching-induced though some of it can be attributed to the learner's inability of control over the language.

When passive voice is taught to the students in a disjoined manner without any sequence and when voices in different tenses are taught simultaneously or, when different kinds of analogical sentences are demonstrated at the same time, it becomes difficult for the students to see clearly into the pattern of the language in passive voice. This seems a possible reason in case of the errors due to lack of structural conformity in the sentences, i.e., a part of the noun phrase in the active voice sentence is retained in the same place even in the passive voice.

However, the maintenance of the tense and aspect of the active voice while changing it into a passive voice is due to the learners' inability to handle the tense system of the language. They seem to have not yet cultivated the use of 'be' and '-en' (past-participle) form of the verb along with 'by'.

Very few of the errors, like 'The sound was heard to sita' is due to $L_1$ influence. This has already been dealt with in the sub-section 'preposition'.

To eradicate these errors and to improve the students' learning passive voice, sequential presentation of materials with regard to tense is necessary. The students
must not be required, at this level at least, to do many things at a time.

Passive sentence construction, however, is an intricate process for learners at this stage. It needs maintenance of tense, mutual replacement of subject-object elements, transformation of the past participial form of the verb, and the use of instrumental marker 'by'. Students with poor knowledge of 'be' and '-en' form are apt to commit mistakes.

The simple rules of passivization, therefore, have to be established along with examples that (i) the subject of the active clause becomes the object in the passive clause and vice versa, (ii) the tense in the active clause is retained in the passive clause, (iii) the passive voice takes the verb form be + verb-en, and (iv) the verb phrase in the passive clause is followed by 'by + agent'. Thus, a sentence 'Ram wrote a letter', when changed into passive voice, becomes

The letter was written by Ram.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{be + ed(past)} & \quad \text{write(MV) + en} \\
\text{passive} & \quad \text{NP}_1 V_{\text{Act}}, \quad \text{NP}_2 \rightarrow \quad \text{NP}_2 V_{\text{Pass}}, \quad \text{by NP}_1
\end{align*}
\]

Palmer (1974: 82) gives a simple and general formula for the construction of passive from the active: \[ NP_1 V_{\text{Act}}, \quad NP_2 \rightarrow \quad NP_2 V_{\text{Pass}}, \quad \text{by NP}_1 \]
Teaching of voice needs consideration of sequencing oral drills and a lot of written exercises for its perfect reinforcement. Time and again, the students need adequate, corrective feedback through short, spaced and meaningful repetitions.

The past participial forms of the verbs, however, have to be practised through rote-learning. More about the verb forms would be taken up in the sub-section 'verb and tense'.

5.4.13. Word-order

"English is a language with what is commonly called 'fixed word-order' (Lyons, 1968: 76). If the order of the words in a sentence is disturbed, it can cause sufficient damage to the sense it is meant to convey. Word-order is, therefore, sufficient to convey semantic relations. In view of these facts, the errors related to word-order in the present study need the highest attention.

The errors related to word-order are, to some extent, due to mother-tongue influence. The normal word-order in Oriya is SOV. The study reveals maximum errors in case of 'SOV' arrangement of English sentences where the pattern should have been SVO. It is quite plausible to infer, therefore, that the word-order of the mother-tongue has a clear influence in the production of English sentences in case of these $L_2$ learners.
The omission of the various elements like subject, object, verb etc. are due to lack of control over the L₂ Pattern. Dulay and Burt (1974 : 108) state that 'the strategies of L₂ acquisition are similar to those of L₁ acquisition, e.g. use of word-order as the first syntactic rule, omission of functors'.

Duplication of objects and substitution of verbs could also be ascribed to the learners' lack of control over the L₂ system while duplication of verbs seems to be because of L₁ effect. The age of the learner, the factor that he is required to learn three different languages simultaneously at this stage, his socio-linguistic environment all seem to be combining-factors leading to such low achievement of English language learning.

To remedy the errors related to word-order, the sequences of structures should be established from simple structure to complex one. 'One-word-commands', like 'come', 'go', 'read', etc. which are 'minimal words' as against 'non-minimal words' like 'unfriendly' should be followed by two-word-structure, like 'come here', 'go there', 'open it', etc. and it should lead to the teaching of minimal sentences, i.e. 'Subject + Verb + Object' pattern of sentences. The next immediate teaching item should always contain not more than one teaching element as compared to the previous item. That is, if SVO is taught at one time,
SVO(O) should be taught the next time. Adjectival elements could be added in the next teaching item and adverbs could be added only in the next period. Thus, the students should be led from easy items to complex ones.

The teachers need distinguish between the structure words like prepositions, auxiliaries, conjunctions, articles, demonstratives (eg. to, on; was, have; and, or; a, the; one, two) which are also called empty words or grammatical items or close class; and content words (also called full words, lexical items or open class) like nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs (eg. table, desk; love, read; good, beautiful; slowly, quickly). This will help them not to present to the class words of one category, mixed up with the words of another category. The need of distinguishing between various kinds of vocabulary also seems important. In teaching, the 'adhoc vocabulary' should be emphasised since it is this vocabulary which the student will come across again and again in the text and that is the only kind of 'language bath' we can provide to the learners at this stage and in Indian context. This will lead to an automatic sorting out by the student of his 'active vocabulary', i.e. vocabulary, necessary for regular use. 'Passive vocabulary' which is occasional in occurrence may not be emphasised at this level.

Word-order being very much important, it has to be established and reinforced through listening, reading and writing. Listening could best be provided by drilling,
and writing through various types of exercises leading from substitution table exercises to composition exercises. As our study reveals, the order of verbs needs maximum attention for these learners.

The errors related to content-words are also due to a combination of factors — L₁ influence, L₂ system, teaching strategy, learners' ignorance and the socio-cultural situation of the learners.

Because the English language contains certain phonetically similar sounds, the learners confuse and use one for another. The errors like 'leave' for 'live', 'hart' for 'heart' and 'ones' for 'once' can be traced to the L₂ system. Certain words are distorted, eg. 'successed' because the learner operates with the 'overgeneralisation' that past tense is formed by adding '-ed' and '-ly' is used as a suffix. The rule restriction is not known to him. So, there are a number of errors in the category of misuse of nouns, verbs, and adjectives etc. In 'The monkey seat on the tree', the noun 'seat' is misused as a verb; in 'Sita learnt' for 'Sita heard', the verb is misused, and in 'Ganga heavenly' for 'Heavenly Ganga', the adjective is misused.

As it has been discussed earlier that an L₁ word has many equivalents in L₂, the learner confuses
which one to use and commits errors like 'said' for 'talked', 'fall' for 'drop', 'dead' for 'killed' etc. Errors under distortion of phrases, like 'for free of' for 'for freeing', 'by pray of' for 'by praying', and 'all day' for 'every day' etc. may be ascribed to L₁ influence, because, the learners in these cases have literally translated the Oriya concept as shown below.

**Oriya**

Sāgara rejānka mukti pāin — for free of Sagar princes

sabu dina — all day

**English**

So also are the insertions of unnecessary nouns and adverbs in sentences, e.g. 'one day morning', 'near a sea there'.

The errors like took — brought and put — took etc. may be explained in terms of teaching strategy. Richards (1974 : 178) states a confusion between 'too', 'so' and 'very', between 'come' and 'go' and so on could be traced to class room presentation.

However, a lot of these errors are also due to the learners' ignorance. Insertions of unnecessary verbs and adjectives and insertion of many unnecessary words like 'carry', 'is to the' in one place seem to belong to this category, e.g.

From it (carry) Sita believed — From it Sita believed ...

The heavenly (is to the) Ganga came — The heavenly Ganga came.
Apart from all these, the social, linguistic and cultural environments in which the learners live, seem to be operating in varied ways on them to commit errors. This seems a plausible explanation for errors like

- tank ← river
- told ← cried
- travelling ← walking, etc.

It is possible that in one social context, 'told' can be used for 'cried', and 'travelling' can be used for 'walking'.

To remedy these errors, along with graded presentation and repeated corrective feedback, proper and intensive care should be taken, especially, the area of words phonetically and semantically similar, for, this constitutes the bulk of the errors in this sub-section.

5.4.14. Verbs and tenses

Errors related to verbs and tenses can be ascribed partly to the L₂ system, partly to L₁ influence, some to the learning strategy of the learners and some to the teaching strategies and the socio-linguistic situation of the learners.

The errors related to substitution of tenses like: become ← became, drop ← dropped, eats ← ate,
looks ← looked etc. are developmental errors which are related to the learning process, for language is a creative and hypothesis building phenomena.

The reduction of the target language to a simpler system seems to be best effected through generalizations, which are very often restricted in nature, and thus carry within them potential errors through over-application of these generalizations. As a part of a reduction strategy aimed at learning economy, the learner, by and large, ignores subclasses and subsumes them in highly generalised rules. This leads to errors like:

- is like ← like
- is knows ← knows
- was take ← took
- were take ← took
- is came ← came
- are fell ← fell
- was ran ← ran
- were became ← became
- will came ← came
- caughted ← caught
- spokeed ← spoke
- to rolled ← to roll
- to caught ← to catch

The learner operates with the idea that 'is' and 'are' are present tense markers, and 'was', 'were' are past
tense markers while 'will' is the future time marker. So, without consideration of the verbs (present or past form), he goes on adding 'is, are', to mark present tense; 'was', 'were' to mark past tense and 'will' to mark future time. This over generalization also explains errors like 'spoke' and 'to rolled' where '-ed' is added to form past tense like regular verbs, and, 'to + V + ed' to form complement pattern with 'to' infinitive.

According to Richards (1974 : 172-173) and Parasher (1977 : 41-47) the learners' strategy is held responsible for errors like omission of auxiliaries (was, were) both in active and passive voice sentences, dropping of modals and errors in negation. The learner's imperfect perception, faulty comprehension and lack of control over the L2 system due to ignorance lead to errors like mingling of tenses - past with present and simple with progressive, etc.

Not only the learner operates with the principle of reduction, Jain (1974 : 198) notes, "In fact all other components in the teaching situation - teaching materials, teaching techniques, popular school grammar, teaching and learning goals - are attempting to bring about learning economy through reduction of the second language along one dimension or another. Limited vocabulary, limited structures, abridged and simplified texts, simplified and very often
over simplified school grammar books are attempts in the same direction.

Some errors like caught ← catch may be called teaching-induced. The students, quite often, are so rigorously drilled with exercises that errors like is eating ← ate, dazzled ← is dazzling seem to be the product of these teaching-strategies.

Jain further says that certain generalisations seem to be encouraged by particular teaching-strategies, some of them, in turn, are influenced by the learners' age and/or the sociolinguistic situation of the learners. For example, in English language teaching situation in India, the written words through books, newspapers, journals and magazines are dominant — the spoken words are reduced to a uniform style — the rigid written code. The result is what has been described as dictionary-oriented and Nesfield-possessed English.

The substitution of simple past for past perfect and vice versa; and future for simple past and vice versa are indicative of the learners' inability to control over the '-ed' form '-en' form of verbs, and modals.

Some of the errors can be ascribed to the linguistic burden on the learners so far as they are
required to learn three or even four languages simultaneously at this tender age — Oriya, English, Sanskrit and Hindi. Some errors may still be accounted for slips of pens caused purely by psychological conditions, such as intense excitement and/or physiological factors, viz. tiredness. Khanna and Agnihotri (1982 : 50) also note that achievement in English is, greatly affected by such social and psychological variables as proficiency in English, medium of instruction, exposure to English through novels and films, using of English at home, previous scores in English, non-ethnocentrism and democratic feelings towards others, positive attitude towards other languages and mother’s education.

F.R. Palmer (1974 : 1) remarks that the verb or rather the verb-phrase is central to the structure of the sentence and it, itself is complex internally in semantic and syntactic structure. For almost any language, the part that concerns the verb is the most difficult. Learning a language is, to a large extent, learning how to operate the verbal forms of that language.

Our analysis reveals highest number of errors related to verbs and tenses. Hence, this area needs special attention. To repair the learners' errors in verbs and tenses a multi-level attempt is required. Some rules have to be provided along with practice of the four skills and their subsequent feed-backs have to be stressed upon.
The majority of the errors relate to past tense formation and usage. So this area should properly be taught by training students to form past tense and use them. It is always good to practise the three forms (present, past and past participle) whenever a new verb occurs. The rule restriction in these cases for verbs should be amply exhibited through sufficient examples.

The distinction between auxiliary 'be' and the copula 'be' need properly be established. 'Be' is required to carry the tense when no other lexical verb is present. But when there is a lexical verb, then the 'verb stem + -s' is used to form the simple present and the 'verb stem + -ed' is used to form the simple past.

To repair the progressive forms produced by the students the following rule will be useful — to put a verb in the progressive tense, an appropriate form of 'be' must be used before the main verb to which 'ing' is attached.

The errors related to complement formation with infinitive 'to' can be repaired by demonstrating that 'to' must be followed by the bare stem of the main verb. The confusion between present and past participle also relates to the type of complement (infinitival or participial) a verb can take. So, this rule, along with its restrictions should be well established.
The learners can rectify their perfect tense if they understand clearly that the auxiliary 'have' is followed by the -en form of the main verb to make the perfective tense. 'Be' can not be used to form this tense. It should be amply illustrated that modal auxiliaries like will, would, shall, should, may, might, can, could are mutually exclusive with 'do'. They can only be followed by the uninflected form of the main verb 'be' or 'have'.

For the past and the past-participal forms of the irregular verbs, the students, however, have to depend on rote-learning and constant practice in their use.

S.K.Verma (1982: 95) suggests the following presentation which may be of help to the teachers and the learners.

(i) \[\text{do} + \text{v}\] \\
\[\text{does} + \text{v}\]

The verb that comes immediately after do/does/did is in its neutral/unmarked form.

(ii) \[\text{have} + \text{v-}\text{en}\] \\
\[\text{had} + \text{v-}\text{en}\]

The verb that comes immediately after has/have/had is in its past participal form.

(iii) \[\text{be}\] \\
\[\text{am} + \text{v-ing}\] \\
\[\text{is} + \text{v-ing}\] \\
\[\text{are} + \text{v-ing}\] \\
\[\text{was} + \text{v-ing}\] \\
\[\text{were} + \text{v-ing}\]

The verb that comes immediately after be/am/is/are/was/were in the active voice is in its -ing form.
The following suggestions by H.V. George (1962: 20) may also help the teachers in teaching of tenses.

(i) The tenses need to be looked at as a system, so that presentation of one tense, whether that tense is situationally 'effective' or not, does not confuse later presentation of other tenses.

(ii) A situation in which two tenses are brought into contrast is not necessarily a typical situation for the presence of the new tense.

(iii) Typical usage in a situation which is typical should have priority.

(iv) A new tense ought not to be taught simply because it exists in the language and therefore in a teaching programme; it ought to be taught because the need for it arises, because a new type of context occurs.

For negation, the following general rules have to be established.
(i) 'Do' appears in negatives when there is no other auxiliary present.

(ii) In negatives, 'do' or any other auxiliary is followed by 'not', often contracted 'n't'.

(iii) The auxiliary or 'do' carries the tense and not the main verb.

For SV concord the following conceptions will be useful to the students and teachers.

(i) All verbs in English have two present tense forms — the < -s > form which is used with pronouns 'he, she, it' and singular noun phrases; and the simple form which is used with all other pronouns 'I, you, we, they' and plural noun phrases.

(ii) 'Be' has two past tense forms — 'was', which is used with 'I, he, she, and it', and 'were', which is used with 'we, you, they' and plural noun phrases.

(iii) 'Be' has a special form for first person singular present tense — 'am'.

Exercises like substitution tables will be of immense practical help in teaching verbs and tenses.

5.5. The case for a grammar: some considerations

Though Das and David (1980 : 14) seem quite
radical to introduce formal grammatical rules in the class, we endorse to the remarks of Wilga M. Rivers (1968: 85) that, "A short elucidation of a grammatical point in the native language will help, the students much more than a prolonged attempt to explain and re-explain in the foreign language and will leave more time for practice of the feature under discussion — practice that is essential if such students are to be able to use the structural patterns about which they are learning".

S.K. Verma (1982: 97) also thinks of liberally about the case of a grammar. According to him, at the school levels it may be useful to present grammatical facts in the following order.

(i) Presenting sentences in discourse and/or identifying sentences in textual contexts.

(ii) Helping students make significant generalizations.

(iii) Teachers and students together working out a formula as a mnemonic device.

(iv) Producing sentences in discourse based on rules already learnt.

What emerges out of this organization is a cyclic order as shown in the following diagram.
However, grammar in this case has to be used sparingly. It should not be an end in itself, but means to an end. Too much of it will result in 'grammar fatigue' and might have counter effects on learning. Core grammar items of SV concord, structure and meaning of tenses and auxiliary inversion should be the items of choice.

5.6. Some suggestions for teacher-correction

It is found quite often that the corrections made by teachers are too general and they are practically of no help to the students. The students can not understand what the red and blue lines mean. Unless proper brackets, underlines and marginal notations are provided, it would not serve the students' purpose. The philosophy behind the system of correction is not to provide a close editing of the learners' written work, but to point out the areas of difficulty by various means. The use of coloured pencils for such purpose will, particularly, be suitable.

The teacher should also maintain a record of the errors of a student, which could also be recorded in the students' note-books. This will indicate precisely the cause
of the errors based on various contexts and the gravity of errors. Students' self-correction and peer-correction are more effective. They learn from correcting their own errors. The students should be guided to go over their own work several times — once to check spelling, once for punctuation, once for SV concord and so on. They should also be asked to correct each other's work. One outcome of this idea is that it relieves the teacher of the big burden of correcting the whole thing by himself. Thus, it saves much of his time and energy.

5.7. Zonal distribution of errors

It is possible to assume that languages in the neighbouring states might be influencing the English as L₂ learning situation in the border districts of Orissa. Bengali might be influencing schools in Balasore and Mayurbhanj. Hindi, spoken in Bihar and Madhya Pradesh might be influencing schools in Keonjhar, Sundargarh, Sambalpur, Kalahandi and parts of Koraput. And, schools in Ganjam and part of Koraput might be influenced by Telugu, spoken in Andhra Pradesh.

To find out, therefore, if any similarity or dissimilarity existed in English language learning due to regional peculiarities, dialectical differences or geographical locations, the 26 schools in our study were divided into 4 zones as shown in the map (D-8).
1. Schools located in the Northern zone were taken to be Sundargarh, B.S. High School, Khuntgaon H.S., Kuchinda H.S., Deogarh H.S., Champua H.S. and Tiring H.S.

2. High schools at Baliapal, Bhadrak, Udala, Anandpur, Dharmasala, Balikuda and Gop were taken as schools situated in the Eastern zone.

3. The High schools of Khandapara, Buguda, Baliguda, Baudhraj, Sonepur, Chhendipada and Kamakhya-nagar were treated as schools situated in Central zone.

4. High schools of Parlakhimedi, Malkangiri, Umarkote, Jaypatna, Bhawanipatna and Titlagarh were taken to be schools situated in the South-West zone.

It was found (as represented in Table-II, Appendix B) that schools in the East showed maximum errors in vowels, consonants, punctuation, gender and affixation. The Centrally located schools showed maximum errors in consonant-cluster, capitalization, tense, voice and compound word formation. The maximum errors of the Northern schools were in person, preposition and misuse of words while the schools in the South-West showed maximum errors in articles, number and case. The schools in all the four zones, however, showed almost equal proportion of errors in word order and SV concord.
It would, thus, be in the interest of the schools in a particular zone to pay more attention to the areas distinguished here. However, to consider the whole thing, in general terms, each of the school should treat the areas in our study equally importantly in view of the seriousness and amount of errors.

5.8. Conclusion

The study has attempted to analyse the errors in written English of Oriya learners at class VIII level while learning it as $L_2$. The data collected from the 13 districts of Orissa — two schools from each district and 10 students from each school — yielded 8738 errors relating to spelling, punctuation, capitalization, morphology and syntax.

The division of errors, the search for their sources and suitable remedial measures for their preventions are not easy, and the path is beset with numerous difficulties. The learners' psychological learning behaviour, physical factors, socio-cultural considerations and such other abstract accounts that greatly affect the learning strategy can only be marginally inferred from the performance data. Yet, in doing so, along with these factors, their $L_1$, $L_2$ and the other languages seem to be highly responsible for these errors.
The analysis and description of the errors may fruitfully be utilised for pedagogical purposes. Of course, the descriptions have to be processed for such pedagogical consumption. This extremely important operation will involve a process of selection, modification and rejection of items according to the demands of language teaching. The classification of errors based on their frequency occurrence and the hierarchical order established in the study will go a long way in determining the teaching points and the relative emphasis required for them; in assessing learning and teaching strategies and determining priorities for future efforts. Realistic goals have to be set for particular learning situations, based on generalization. Teacher training manuals have to familiarise future teachers with the varieties of language which learners may be expected, and indeed encouraged, to produce at given stages of learning. Depending on the errors, it may be absolutely essential to re-examine and modify teaching techniques, the presentation of the primary linguistic data, the disabusing of the learners' language learning device of the heresies of popular but erroneous generalizations.

Teachers have to acquire a deeper understanding of language and a more human attitude to language teaching, so that learners' errors would no more be viewed as 'linguistic sin' to be eradicated but necessary stages in the language learning process.
The view prevalent that if a language is taught for a longer period, it is learnt well, seems to be well-conceived. But trained teachers, well written textual materials and improved methods of teaching are more important than the length of time for teaching. In the near absence of all the three, the introduction of English from class IV seems a wastage for Orissa both in terms of teaching and learning time and financial input. It is in consideration of such hard realities that English should be introduced from class VI.

Since the learning of English is largely school-bound, more emphasis needs to be placed on reading with comprehension than any thing else. Perhaps, in the present context of English language teaching in the schools, larger measure of language exposure and better scope for creative and self-corrective learning can be provided only through books.

Our study has been limited to the written form of the language. But, speech is the primary form of a language and written is secondary. Natural language learning begins with speech. So, it would probably be incomplete if the primary form, i.e. spoken aspect is not touched upon here. All the time it should be remembered that speech constitutes the initial stage of language learning and hence, in teaching and learning English, speech and pronunciation must be stressed upon. Students at this level should be
provided with ample situations to practise speech and pronunciation. The teaching should aim at creating such situations in the class. Varieties of situations for free conversation among the students can make English function as another L₁ for them. The normal teaching in the schools seems to be orthography first and speech next. But, effective teaching should take into consideration the natural process of learning a language, i.e. a word should not first be written and then pronounced, but, it should first be pronounced and practised and then written.

To bring about a successful revolution in the teaching of English in the state, the objectives should be clearly spelled out and the confusion between methods and materials should be eradicated. To bring about this, teacher-training programme, inservice-teacher-training programme and teacher-educators-training programme have to be further intensified.

Alongwith the exploitation of mass media like radio and television for teaching of English, multimedia approach like film strips, slides, cassettes, tapes, charts, wall posters and flash cards etc. should be extensively used.

However, the English language teaching situation is largely dependant upon good teachers and good teachings. A good teacher always has in his bag every trick for good teaching — explanations, descriptions, and comparisons;
In view of the limited scope of the study, certain areas could not be investigated, the further researches of which will immensely contribute to the present English learning situation in the state. An indepth analysis of the data would be significant to sociolinguistics, as it could highlight the correlation between L₂ learning and socio-economic background. A new remedial grammar course, specially suited for the class VIII learner could be constructed on the basis of this analysis. The influence of mother-tongue (i.e. Oriya) on English language learning can be investigated in more details. And finally, the effect of learning English could be studied in the context of three or four languages learning situation (eg. Oriya, Sanskrit, Hindi and English) at the school level of Orissa.