1

Introduction
1.0. Introductory

Language is seldom learnt without committing errors. The presence of errors is a characteristic of language performance at a given stage of its learning and the eradication of errors streamlines the process of learning the language.

The mistakes or errors that students make in the process of learning a second or foreign language have always been a matter of much concern for the teachers and text-book writers alike. This concern is reflected not only in the way writers of pedagogical grammars draw attention to the target language, but also in the many lists of 'common errors' prepared by experienced teachers like George (1972), Smith-Pearse (1968) and Berry (1961).

There have been, therefore, attempts to facilitate the process of target language learning and teaching by studying the phenomenon of 'errors' within a scientific framework that is consistent with both linguistic theory and learning theory. "A systematic approach to the problem of errors, in an effort to account for their linguistic and psychological origin, regularity, predictability, variability etc. is, however, relatively recent" (Sridhar, 1981: 207).
1.1. **The two points of view**

The problem of errors in second language learning has been dealt with from two points of view — the Contrastive Analysis (CA) and the Error Analysis (EA). Though CA does not directly constitute the field of our research, for a proper understanding of EA, we have to know the fundamental principles behind CA. CA is claimed to be central to all linguistic research — in developing a general theory of language based on discovery of the universals of language and of dialectical variation. EA is significant for the insights it provides into the strategies employed in the second language acquisition, and in turn, into the process of language learning in general (Corder, 1967: 25).

In addition to their diversity of claims regarding their applications, CA and EA also differ in a number of respects — in their theoretical assumptions, methodologies, the nature and scope of data considered relevant in each area, the kind of insights they provide into the nature of target language learning and in the implications of the studies carried out for practical classroom teaching and materials preparation (Sridhar, 1981: 208). We need, therefore, examine the trends in theory, methodology and claims thereof and its contribution to target language teaching.
1.1.1. **Contrastive Analysis**

(a) **Definition of CA**

Contrastive Linguistics is a branch of linguistics which seeks to compare two languages with the aim of describing the similarities and differences between them. CA is the technique associated with contrastive linguistics and it may be defined according to Hammer and Rice (quoted in Jackson, 1981: 195) as:

"a systematic comparison of selected linguistic features of two or more languages, the intent of which is ... to provide teachers and text-book writers with a body of information which can be of service in the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses, and the development of classroom techniques."

(b) **Historicity of CA**

Contrastive linguistics has roots that extend further back than the fifties or even the forties. It developed in the 1950s in America out of the behaviourist inclined second-language learning theories and foreign language programme of the time. 'The notions of 'transfer' and 'interference' were borrowed from psychological learning theory and applied to second language learning' (Jackson, 1981: 195). It, then, grew with the idea that knowing errors by prediction, ways and means can be devised to prevent their occurrence. The language can be so presented as to imitate faithfully and learnt stage by stage without falling into error. (Lee, quoted in Sinha and Sinha, 1977: 23-40).
Although several prominent linguists and pioneers in the field of target language (TL) pedagogy, including Henry Sweet (1869), Harold Palmer (1964) and Otto Jespersen (1904) were well aware of the 'pull of the mother tongue' in learning a TL, it was Charles C. Fries (1945: 9) who firmly established contrastive linguistic analysis as an integral component of the methodology of TL teaching. He may be said to have issued the Charter for modern CA when he declared:

"The most effective materials (for foreign language teaching) are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."

The challenge was taken up by Robert Lado (1957: 2) who in his 'Linguistics across Cultures', a classic field manual in CA, expressed:

"The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them."

Chomsky's revolutionary work in linguistics (1965) gave a fresh impetus to CA, not only making it possible for the comparison to be made more explicit and precise, but also giving it what seemed to be a more solid
theoretical foundation by claiming the existence of language universals.

(c) The rationale for CA

The rationale for CA comes mainly from three sources:

1. The practical experience of foreign language teachers show that a substantial number of persistent mistakes made by the students can be traced to the pull of mother tongue. Such a carryover seems to result in the largest number of deviant sentences in areas where the structures of the native language and the target language differ the most.

2. Studies of language contact in bilingual situation also speak of 'interference' which Weinreich (1953 : 1) states as:

   "Those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language."

3. The third source is the learning theory, particularly the theory of 'transfer' which refers to the hypothesis that the learning of a task is either facilitated (positive transfer) or impeded (negative transfer) by the previous learning of another task, depending on, among other things, the degree of similarity or difference between the two tasks.
(d) Pedagogical claims for CA

Based on the above rationale, various claims appeared as to the potential role of CA in target language teaching. Lee (1968: 186) stated:

"What there is to teach can best be found by comparing the two languages and then subtracting what is common to them, so that what the student has to learn equals the sum of the differences established by the Contrastive Analysis."

Nickel and Wagner (1968) made similar claims about the crucial role of CA in both didactic, i.e. selection, gradation and exposition and methodic, i.e. actual classroom presentation programming. Lado (1957) and Halliday et al. (1964) suggested that the results of CA provided ideal criteria for selecting testing-items.

(e) Criticism of CA

But by early 1970s CA was already open to attacks on both external grounds (of empirical validity) and internal grounds (of theoretical foundations) leading Selinker to wonder that CA was still thriving 'at a period when a serious crisis of confidence exists as to what it is'. (Selinker, 1971: 1)

Whitman and Jackson (1972), Gradman (1971), Lee (1968), Ritchie (1967), Newmark and Reibel (1968), and Dulay and Burt (1972) have time and again accused CA on
various grounds. CA, originally regarded as a panacea for all the problems of language teaching began to be treated as of no pedagogical use at all. The arguments are that many of the difficulties predicted by CA do not show up in the actual learner’s performance and many errors that do turn up are not predicted by CA. Secondly, it predicts errors on the basis of $L_1$ independant errors. But the real problem of language learning is much more complex as is illustrated by Jakovits (1970 : 192) in

$$P_{12} = f ( P_{11}, t_{11}, R_{11} - L_2 ).$$

This formula says that attained proficiency in $L_2$ will be some joint function of attained proficiency in $L_1$, training in $L_1$, training in $L_2$ and the structural relationship between $L_1$ and $L_2$.

1.1.2. Error Analysis

(a) Traditional Error Analysis

Error Analysis has probably the longest tradition. Yet, until recently a typical Error Analysis went little beyong impressionistic collection of common errors and their taxonomic classification into categories. Little attempt was made either to define 'error' in a formally rigorous and pedagogically insightful way or to systematically account for the occurrence of errors either
in linguistic or psychological terms. Hence, it is substantively correct to say that traditional Error Analysis was an ad hoc attempt to deal with the practical needs of the classroom teacher.

(b) Goals of traditional EA

The goals of traditional EA were purely pragmatic - EA was conceived and performed for its 'feedback' value in designing pedagogical materials and strategies. It was believed that EA, by identifying the areas of difficulty for the learner, could help in

i - determining the sequence of presentation of target items in textbooks and classroom with the difficult items following the easier ones,

ii - deciding the relative degree of emphasis, explanation and practice required in putting across various items in the TL,

iii - devising remedial lessons and exercises, and

iv - selecting items for testing the learners' proficiency.

(c) Methodology in traditional EA

The traditional EA adopted uniform methodology like

1 - Collection of data.
2 - Identification of errors.
3 - Classification of errors.
3 - EA is not confronted with the complex theoretical problems encountered by CA.

All these led scholars like Wilkins (1968: 102) to argue that there was no necessity for a prior comparison of grammars and that an EA based analysis was "equally satisfactory, more fruitful and less time consuming". Pisiak (1981: 7) maintained that CA predicts errors and EA verifies CA predictions - a posteriori, explaining the explanatory power of CA and extends beyond it. The development of the notion 'interlanguage' further led to the reorientation of EA.

1.1.3. Errors

(a) The notion of error

The traditional attitude to errors was that all errors other than those made by native speakers are abnormalities. But in recent years, particularly in the wake of the Chomskyan revolution in linguistics, this traditional view of learners' errors as deficiencies has given way to a more rational view. Corder (1967: 21) in his influential paper suggested a new way of looking at errors made by the learners of TL. Because of the substantial similarities between the strategies employed by the infant learning his native language and those of the second language learners, the observed deviations are no more errors than
the first approximations of a child learning his mother
longue are errors. Like the child struggling to acquire
his language, the L2 learner is also trying out successive
hypotheses about the nature of the target language, and
from this point of view, the learner's errors are not only
inevitable but are a necessary part of the language learning
process.

Thus the traditional practice to take a
teacher-centred view-point of the learner's performance was
changed and the latter began to be judged in terms of the
norms of the target language.

Errors are now viewed as evidence of the
learner's progress towards acquiring the target language.
The learner is now seen as constructing for himself a
minigrammar of the TL on the basis of the linguistic data
he is exposed to. He tries out this minigrammar whenever
he performs in the TL and produces errors.

(b) Errors and mistakes

Various terms - mistakes, errors, goofs, slips -
are currently in use. 'Violation of rules and other
descriptions included in grammar produces goofs ... . A
goof is an error students tend to make in learning English
as a second language for which no blame is implied' (Burt
and Kirpasky, 1972 : 2).

Pit Corder (1967 : 24) distinguishes between
systematic and unsystematic errors. According to him,
"The key point is that the learner is using a definite system of language at every point in his development, although it is not that of the second language. The learner's errors are evidence of this system and are themselves systematic".

(c) Importance of EA

Thus errors of performance, i.e. slips of tongue or of pen are random or unsystematic. These are occasional and "related to factors like fatigue, memory limitations and psychological conditions. The learner is immediately aware of them and can correct more or less with complete assurance" (Corder, 1967: 24). The errors of competence, on the other hand, are systematic and consistent deviations. They are productive and representative of either transitional stage in the development of a grammatical rule or the final stage of the learner's knowledge. If it is the final stage, the errors are permanent in a learner's language and Selinker (1972: 36) calls it 'fossilized structure'. According to Corder (1967: 25) the transitional language behaviour changes with the progress in learning. One can reconstruct the learner's knowledge of the language to-date by recognizing this transitional competence. The learner's errors, therefore, give us an insight into his system at a particular stage of learning which Nemser (1971: 55) calls an 'approximative system'.
Systematic study of errors through Error Analysis, thus, will discover the learner's 'built-in-syllabus' and his learning strategy, and will be useful to teachers, learners and text-book writers.

Corder (1971: 57-64) maintains that "EA has too often concerned itself exclusively with the applied goal of correcting and eradicating the learners' errors at the expense of the more important and logically prior task of evolving an explanatory theory of learner's performance. The study of the systematic errors made by the learners of a target language yields valuable insights into the nature of language learning strategies and hypotheses employed by learners and the nature of the intermediate 'functional communicative systems' or languages constructed by them. Thus the theoretical aspect of EA is as worthy of study in and of itself as is that of child language acquisition and can, in turn, provide insights into the process of language acquisition."

EA can, therefore, be an effective aid to second language learning and teaching situation. It explains why the errors are made and implies what ought to be done to equip the language learner with better strategies. Lee (1957: 252) opines that EA can guide the whole of a language course at every stage.
1.2. **Importance and necessity of the study**

Class VIII in Orissa is an important stage for English language learning since it constitutes the fifth year of its learning. The students here are expected to learn the last 21 structures of the NCERT syllabus which has been planned and distributed over five years (BSE, Orissa 1983 : 3). Then it is useful to have a project of evaluation and suggestions which could be of immense help both the teacher and the taught.

The present project includes conducting tests, based on English grammar and lexis, on class VIII students in selected High Schools of Orissa. The analysis of these test-papers will high-light students' errors which will be discussed in a series of chapters keeping two different points of views — biological and pedagogical.

(a) **The biological viewpoint**

The importance of the study is realised in view of the biological relation that language learning has, particularly, over the age-group that the students of class VIII belong to. Lenneberg (1967) notes a period of primary language acquisition, postulated to be biologically determined, beginning when the child starts to walk and continuing until puberty. Dulay and Burt (1974 : 110) maintain that,
... children below the age of puberty will make goofs in L2 syntax that are similar to
L1 developmental goofs ... has been shown ... by Ravem (1970), Milon (1972) and Natalicio
and Natalicio (1971)".

Medical physiology (Mac Millan, 1982 : 706,
Gyton, 1961 : 1076) says,

"The normal changes that indicate the onset of
puberty usually begin at about the age of 10
or 11 in girls and about 12 or 13 in boys".

The students of class VIII include both boys
and girls and they are in the age group of 13 or 13 + ,
which in view of the above facts seems to be a critical
stage for language learning. It is, therefore, felt that
the performance of class VIII students in learning English
as L2 will be of some help to linguists doing on language
learning.

(b) The pedagogical view-point

The results of the analysis will be of much
help to the English language learning programme of Orissa
in averting common errors. It will be helpful to the English
learners as it will provide correct causes and explanations
of their errors and ultimately suggest remedial courses —
to eradicate these errors. It will also help the teachers
so far as it will show them where, why and how much the
learner goes wrong and would thus guide them, on the basis
of the hierarchy of errors, to improve their teaching by
devising and following new methods of teaching. Jain (1974: 208) maintains that it will provide them with clues on how to take the learners from limited rule schemata to more generalized ones establishing the latter as more significant than the former. It will enable the English text-book writers to be familiar with the error-prone areas of the students and to provide right amount of materials in the text-books for their eradication. It will also be profitable for the syllabus-makers as the newly explored areas will equip them with guidelines in grading and arranging the English teaching items.

(c) Lack of previous works

A large scale EA covering the entire state of Orissa at the class VIII level has not been carried out. 'Surveys of research in education' (Buch, 1979) and 'Indian Dissertation Abstract' (Saraswathi, 1981) make no such entry and do not mention any work done in this field. Alam (1976: 75 - 86) made a study of spelling errors of the Final Matriculation level students in an English medium Public School. But there has been no such work in case of Oriya medium schools in Orissa which outnumber English medium schools and where bulk of the students receive their education. Secondly, Alam’s study is confined to the spelling errors only where as we feel that the total aspect of English grammar need be analysed. And thirdly, it is necessary that the learners’ errors be detected at an early
stage and early remedies provided. As Gains and Mc Nicholas (1979 : 185) remark,

"Remedial specialists should reconsider their role in relation to such trends as early diagnosis and prevention."

In Orissa or for that matter in India command of good English remains a qualification for better jobs. There seems to be a high co-relation between English learning and socio-economic environment of the learner. An understanding of the operant conditions might, therefore, generate information relevant to teaching and learning English as a second language.

However, the study makes no claim to completeness, nor is it intended to be a statistical count, but rather as an investigation into certain areas of errors while learning English as L₂.

1.3. Limitations of the study

There are obvious limitations in the ability of any individual in analysing deviant language behaviour or errors.

The present study deals with errors in L₂ learning situation, especially relating to writing as a skill. To minimise the size of the work the spoken aspect
has not been taken into account and only urban schools in Orissa have been taken. The scope of the study is further limited to the descriptive study of the language errors. The historical aspect has not been attempted here.

Again keeping in view of the age of the pupils and the amount of English learnt by them higher skills of writing like 'style' has been excluded. It is limited to errors in syntax, morphology and mechanics of writing.

There has not been the consideration on the level of learners' general curricular proficiency. Equivalence has been established in terms of class level, i.e. all informants belong to class VIII in the school system of Orissa under the curricular control of the Board of Secondary Education, Cuttack.

Thus it is limited to the geographical boundary of Orissa only. With all its limitations, the study, we hope, in its small way, would be a modest contribution to the English learning and teaching situation at the class VIII level in the state of Orissa.

1.4. Importance of English language

"Man needs two kinds of language; he needs an expression of the 'dear and intimate things', a language of the home, the fire-side, the motherland - a language of emotion and of unexpressed associations. He needs also a language of fact."
knowledge, exact argument, scientific truth — a language in which words are world-current and steadfast in their meanings" (West, quoted by Varma, 1977 : 35).

In Indian context English mostly serves the purpose of such a second language.

As C. Rajagopalchari (quoted by Tharyan, 1984) often reminded, 'English is Saraswathi's precious gift which can be turned down only at the nation's peril'. It is a valuable legacy of the British. After 37 years of independence of India, English still serves the purpose of a window to wider knowledge, a tool of international understanding and as the language of intellectual status, commerce and diplomacy. It is the vehicle of modernization in the country; medium of communication among elites, scientists, technocrats, and the sole medium of contact with the rest of the world.

Literature written in almost all Indian languages, has been indebted to English in content, style, taste, mode, syntax, meter and diction (Pattnaik, 1981 : 160).

English in India has become re-adjusted in terms of the system of the mother tongues. It has often been termed as the 'source language', 'link language', and 'library language' (Govt. of India, 1971 : 10). It is naturalised in its uses and home-grown in the midst of a multitude of languages. In view of the feel of the educated Indians for English and the bidirectional pattern-pressure of English and
Indian languages, it is no more considered a foreign language. These factors, along with the present role and status of the language, are responsible for its acceptance as one of the two official languages of the Union.

In spite of all anti-English slogans like 'Angrezi Hatao', English is firmly rooted in India and knowledge in English has always its rewards — social, economic, political and occupational. To sum up with the words of S.P. Sinha (1978 : 145)

"English to-day means a further discipline, apart from what our languages can give us, for attainment of higher and nobler ends that is the grace of mankind — the enlargement of vision, enrichment of culture and civilization".

1.5. Position of English in Orissa

Education in Orissa was neglected till the first quarter of the 19th century. The first attempts of imparting English to the people of Orissa were made by the British missionaries. According to the Report of the 4th educational survey, Orissa, 1982, the British missionaries started the first modern school in 1822. By the end of 1823 the number grew to 15 : with 368 students. In spite of their attempts the state of English education in Orissa was far from satisfactory (D.P.I., Orissa, 1982 : 12 - 13).

The need for educating the ruling chiefs in the interest of the British Administration was felt and 'Pooree
Free Academy1 was started on 17.6.1835. But the apathy of
the orthodox people, especially the Brahmins, who feared that
it may undermine Oriya culture and religion, did not allow
English education to grow (Das, 1977).

In 1842 the council of Education was set up
which started vernacular schools at Khurda, Puri, Balasore,
Remuna, Mahanga, Kendrapara and Haripur (D.P.I., Orissa,
1982 : 9). After 1854 many schools were established in
Orissa. Yet, the spread of English education remained
unsatisfactory.

In the 1920s due to national consciousness and
political movement, there was a demand for regionalization
of the medium of instruction and in 1950 Orissa fell to this
line. Then unrealistic examination system, out-dated text-
books and unsystematic methods of teaching led to a sharp
decline in the standard of education and the decline was
steeper in English than in other subjects.

The recommendation of the three-language formula
by the Education Commission in 1949; its subsequent revision
in 1956 and approval in 1961; and further modification in
1964-66 made on all India level the three languages — regional:
Hindi and English — compulsory from St. VIII to St. X
(Hasan, 1975 : 14).

English in Orissa is taught as a compulsory
subject in the Primary School from class IV just as it is
in the states of Assam, Meghalaya, Mizoram and Himachal Pradesh (Govt. of W.B., 1981). Realising that the 10+2+3 pattern of education, recommended by the Kothari Commission 1968 and approved by the Central Advisory Board of education, was an educational reform of great significance (Bakhshi, 1975 : 17-20; Hasan, 1975 : 5-16) the Govt. of Orissa decided to adopt it in 1976. Resolution No. 2555 dt. 19.6.1976 of Education Department, Govt. of Orissa (Das, 1977 : 218) reads,

"... while accepting this pattern, Govt. have therefore been pleased to decide that the new pattern [10+2+3] will be introduced in Orissa in a phased manner."

The usual method followed in the schools at the turn of the century was grammar-translation method which gradually was widely substituted by Direct method. The first structural syllabus was introduced in 1957 in the school system of Orissa.

Although Oriya is the official language of the state, English still continues to be the language which is widely used in administration and courts of law. Among the educated, it is used in communication with friends and often at home too. The semi-educated also feels proud to use a bit of English or 'broken English' in conversation. According to Carroll (1953 : 4) it is taken to be a language of social index and a symbol of home, family, class and status in the state.
A type of 'bazar English' is also found among peers in cities, towns and semi-urban areas too. And, even if Oriya is the alternative medium of instruction in college education, English is most often used for the purpose. It is taught as a compulsory subject both in the High Schools and Colleges of Orissa.

Oriya literature has greatly been influenced by English language and literature. Oriya poets like Radhanath Ray, Madhusudan Rao, Nandakishor Bal (Das, 1962: 22-37) have immensely drawn from English in theme, diction and style. Modern Oriya writers like Sachi Rautray, Binod Naik, Mayadhar Mansingh, Sitakanta Mohapatra, Souvagya Mishra, and G.P. Mohanty etc. are greatly influenced by their English counterparts (Samantaray, 1964). Oriyas like Jayanta Mohapatra, Deba Pattanaik etc. have written poems in English of international fame and popularity (Nandy, 1973: 44-59, Despande, N.D. : 147).

Thus English still plays the role of a source language, library language and to some extent link language in Orissa. Despite all these, English education in Orissa seems largely unsatisfactory and presently disturbed too. With the elimination of one paper from the regular High School course, English education at this level is definitely affected. The objectives of English education in the state, seems to be not clearly spelled out. The teaching mainly remains school or college bound. Since the syllabus remains
status-oriented, it is hardly related to the environment. The large number of untrained teachers seem ill-equipped to teach English at the Primary and Middle School levels, since they are poor in content, ignorant about modern methods and indifferent to values.

Thus English language teaching still remains to be improved in the state. Unless its present position is properly taken care of, even after 10-12 years of instruction, a learner can neither speak with facility, read with speed and comprehension, nor can he write with accuracy.

1.6. High Schools in Orissa

Conceptually the Middle stage covers the grades VI, VII, and VIII, but in Orissa the Middle School has a 2-grade structure. Class VIII is notionally regarded as a Middle Grade, but structurally speaking it is a part of the High School (D.P.I., Orissa, 1982 : 11).

The number of High Schools in Orissa in 1949 was 172 which increased to 278 in 1957 and to 1030 in 1965. It almost doubled when the number reached 1974 in the year 1973. In 1978 the number increased to 2167 and during 1979-80 it was 2306. By 1980-81 it came to 2443 and by the end of February 1982 the number was recorded to be 2584 (D.P.I., Orissa, 1982 : 12). In 1983 the number of High
Schools in the state was 2902 (B.S.E., Orissa, 1983 : 23) and in 1984 it rose to 3218 (B.S.E., Orissa, 1984).

The bar-graph gives a year-wise report of the number of High Schools in the state. (D-1)

At present there are also upgraded Middle English Schools in Orissa with teaching provisions for class VIII students. But for our purpose, we have not included those schools for data collection.

For collection of data Govt. High Schools (B.S.E., Orissa, 1978) which are supposed to be well-equipped with educational materials and training personnel were taken. Two schools from each Revenue District were taken, so that for the 13 districts in the state, 26 schools supplied the corpus. The following list shows the names of selected High Schools district-wise —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN.</th>
<th>Names of the Districts</th>
<th>S.N. of Schools</th>
<th>Names of High Schools (H.S.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cuttack</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Dhamasala Vidyapitha, Cuttack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Balikuda H.S., Cuttack</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Puri</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>R.C.H.S., Khandapara</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Nigamananda H.S., Gop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Balasore</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>B.M.B.H.S., Bhadrak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Subarnarekha H.S., Bauria</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Sundargarh</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>B.S.H.S., Sundargarh</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Khuntagaoa H.S.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1 2 3 4

5. Sambalpur 9  Kuchinda Govt. H.S.
10  R.B.D.H.S., Deogarh
6. Kalahandi 11  B.M.H.S., Bhawanipatna
12  U.S.H.S., Jaipur
7. Balangir 13  Maharaja H.S., Sonapur
14  Titlagarh H.S.
8. Boudh-Khondmals 15  Balliguda H.S.
16  J.D.H.S., Boudhraij
9. Dhenkanal 17  Chhendipada H.S.
18  Sarangadhar H.S., Kamakhyanagar
10. Mayurbhanj 19  Tirinp H.S.
20  Udala H.S.
11. Keonjhar 21  B.N.H.S., Anandpur
22  Nntab H.S., Champua
12. Koraput 23  S.S.Govt. H.S., Umarkot
24  Malakanagiri H.S.
13. Ganjam 25  Peoples' H.S., Buguda
26  M.R.H.S., Paralakimidi

All of these schools are under the curricular control of the Board of Secondary Education, Orissa and follow one syllabus and similar text-books. These schools are situated in urban areas. The English teachers for class VIII in these schools are either trained or untrained Intermediates, graduates or Post-graduates.
Number of High Schools in Orissa (in thousands)

Year:
- 1957: 278
- 1965: 1030
- 1973: 1974
- 1978: 2167
- 1980: 2306
- 1981: 2443
- 1982: 2584
- 1983: 2902
- 1984: 3218

Diagram 1
In class VIII with a detailed text-book —
My English Reader, Book V (B.S.E., Orissa, 1980a) — and
a non-detailed text-book — Light and Delight (B.S.E., Orissa, 1980b) — there is the provision of 7 periods in a week each
of 45 minutes' duration for teaching English as a Second
language (B.S.E., Orissa, 1980c).

Consequent upon the restructuring of classes
in pursuance of the Govt. Resolution No. 16867 / EXS, dated
8.5.1979, in the academic year 1979-80, there were two
different sections of class VIII — class VIII and class VIII
Junior (B.S.E., Orissa, 1980c : 3). However there was no
such bifurcation in class VIII during the year 1981-82 and
it was under such circumstances that tests were conducted
to collect data for this project.

1.7. Mother tongues of the informants

The mother-tongues of the informants were
Oriya, Hindi, Bengali and Telugu. There were 25 students
with Hindi as their mother-tongue, 15 students with Bengali
as their mother-tongue and only 9 with Telugu as their
mother-tongue. The majority of the informants i.e. 211 were
Oriya speaking English learners. They were in the age group
of 13 or 13 plus. There was no distinction of sex and both
boys and girls were taken for the test. 65 informants were
girls and 195 were boys. The following circle 'A' represents
the ratio of the boys and girls and circle 'B' represents ratio of the informants – Oriya speaking and non-Oriya speaking.

It is, however, to be noted that in Orissa, at class VIII level, the students have to learn English as second language along with a third and a fourth language — Hindi and Sanskrit.

1.8. Nature of the data

Tests on E.A generally includes two types of questions – composition type and objective type. So exclusively free composition type of questions were not included for our purpose. To allow comparative freedom to the students short-answer type questions also were set.

Test Question (TD) No. 10 has three bits – the first two from the detailed text chap. I and chap. III.
The test papers contained sufficient space for the students to record their answers on it. It had, however, to be made sure that all English materials prescribed in the syllabus were taught to the students. It was, therefore, thought useful to administer the tests towards the end of the academic session.

The duration of the test in each case was fixed at 45 minutes i.e., one period in the curricular system of the schools. Uniform instructions were followed always. The seating arrangements for the subjects taking the test were made in such a way that the distance between any pair of students precluded the possibility of cheating by copying out another's answer. The presence of subject teachers minimised the scope of conversation among the subjects. The test administration thus had the advantage of procedural uniformity.

1.9. Methodology adopted

1.9.1. The pilot study

An English test paper, with sufficient space to record answers on it, was prepared keeping in view the course materials and the course covered in class VIII. Two High School teachers, teaching English at this level were consulted for this purpose. The test was first administered to 20 bonafied students of class VIII in a nearby High School
as a pilot study to find if it conformed to the students' standard at this level.

After a thorough correction and verification of these answer papers by us and further consultation with the two High School teachers the model test paper was framed and thereafter with suitable alterations it was finally printed.

A large number of corpus was considered necessary in a view to make it meaningful after the unavoidable loss of information that may take place in the detection and categorization of errors. So two High Schools from each of the 13 districts in Orissa were selected at random. This also met the criteria of covering the entire state of Orissa geographically. The map with black, bold marks shows the location of these schools spread over in Orissa.

1.9.2. The field work

Before proceeding to field work, the field investigation techniques were properly grasped as suggested by Harris (1969), Kibrik (1977) and Nida (1957) etc.

Careful attempts and keen interest had to be maintained to collect authentic and accurate data. Since the data had to be collected from allover Orissa, it obviously constituted a gigantic task. It demanded utmost
sincerity, punctuality and hard work. The Head Masters of each of the schools were first contacted through correspondence and their co-operation and consent was solicited. To our great fortune all of the Head Masters sent their consent and assured all possible help and co-operation.

It was considered necessary to conduct the tests after the school course in English was complete and before the final examination was over, so that there would not be the time factor to affect the input and output capacity of the students by way of late test or early test. This would also lead to conformity of the time element.

In view of the hugeness of the total task, the tests were planned to be completed in a process of three trips. In the first trip during the month of March 1982 Bolangir, Kalahandi, Koraput and Boudh districts were covered. Again during the second trip in April 1982, the tests were administered in the selected schools of Cuttack, Puri, Ganjam and Dhenkanal districts. And during the first fortnight of May 1982, the other five districts — Sambalpur, Sundargarh, Keonjhar, Mayurbhanj, and Balasore were covered.

The field experiences were varied and memorable. The class teachers and the Head Masters in each case were found extremely amicable and co-operative. The students taking the tests were equally good, disciplined and prepared to sit for the test without hesitation. Since only twenty students were being tested in each school and
the test coincided with the regular curricular activities, a separate class room was necessary, which fortunately was always available and twenty students of class VIII had to be taken all the time. During the tests, there were always one or two teachers present and sometimes the Head Master too. This project could never have been a success but for the unhesitating help and co-operation of these teachers and students. The experiences of varied places, people and situations will continue to be a live memory on the part of the researcher for all time to come.

1.9.3. The analytical procedure

Thus 520 answer papers were collected. Out of these, 10 answer papers from each school were selected at random. So a total of 260 test papers each with four full-scape sized pages formed the corpus of the present analysis.

Each of these schools and answer papers was serialised and corrected. The samples were checked and rechecked. Five model test papers from five different schools, serialised and corrected, are attached to the Appendix along with an 'Error Count Table' (Appendix 'A' and 'B').

The errors were collected under spelling, grammatical categories, words and sentences separately on sheets of papers along with its subdivisions i.e. for spelling - vowel errors, consonant errors, cluster errors
etc., and for grammatical categories — number, gender, case, tense etc. The same procedure was adopted for errors relating to words and sentences. Such categorization and sub-categorization have been made with a view to making the analysis of immediate relevance to classroom situation.

In total the 260 answer books yielded 8738 errors of different types. The standard against which a particular item was considered erroneous was often a matter of concern. The identification of errors is essentially subjective. As Cottle (1969: 7) remarks more than one form may be acceptable. Thus it is largely dependant on the error-recognition capacity of the individual investigator. Error is said to be a deviation from the norm of the native speaker, the deviation being unconscious on the learner's part. So an error, for the purpose of this study is any word, phrase or sentence which deviates from its manner of use by an educated native speaker of standard British English or violates any rule of contemporary English grammar and usage, dictionaries and other such documents.

Identification of errors have been done with reference to the particular context. So that words often lexically correct have been considered incorrect i.e. covertly erroneous, e.g. words like 'dear', 'then', 'begin' etc. which are otherwise correct are errors for our purpose, because the context needs 'dear', 'than', and 'began' respectively.
(d) When the word needs two different vowels to be written in one place and only one has been written it is 'vowel omitted' and not 'vowel singled'.

(e) When two different vowels are needed and those two have mutually exchanged each other's place, it is 'vowel transposed'. When one of them appears in its place and the other elsewhere in the word, it comes under 'vowel misplaced'.

(f) When the word has an extra vowel, it is categorized as 'vowel inserted'. It becomes doubled if the extra vowel is one that the word already has and appears close to it.

Lastly, lower frequency of an error need not necessarily mean that the point in question is less difficult, but simply that the point itself occurred in some, not in all papers (Duskova, 1959: 15).

1.9.4. Principles followed during the tests

The following principles were followed during all tests.

(a) The duration of the test was 45 minutes only.

(b) The test was well-timed. All test papers were sealed on the front page by the school seal.

(c) Test paper found defective or where the candidate had begun to mark in an improper way, was replaced.
(d) The test was conducted in a quiet, well-lighted room where there was a minimum of outside noise and interference. It was large enough for the candidates to be at reasonable distance.

(e) Tables or desks were provided to them.

(f) Only 20 students from class VIII were taken. There was no selection of any kind. They were taken at random.

(g) No book, cheat or outside help was allowed.

(h) As far as practicable, the seat-arrangement was as follows,

\[1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5\]
\[x \times x \times x \times x \times x \times x\]
\[6 \times 7 \times 8 \times 9 \times 10\]
\[x \times x \times x \times x \times x \times x\]
\[11 \times 12 \times 13 \times 14 \times 15\]
\[x \times x \times x \times x \times x \times x\]
\[16 \times 17 \times 18 \times 19 \times 20\]

(i) Candidates were allotted seats at random so as to prevent friends from sitting near each other.

(j) The doors were closed. No late-comer was allowed to sit for the test. If anything had to be discussed, it was done outside the test-room.

(k) The test papers were put on the tables with backs upwards before the students entered the test-room.
(1) When students were seated, they were told: 'the test will be for 45 minutes. Each of you has been given a test paper with spaces to answer. When I say open the test book to problem number one and begin work, then only you will start. And stop as soon as I say 'stop your work on the test, put down your pens and close your test papers'.

(m) The students were instructed as to how the personal data would be filled in. Often Black Board was used.

(n) Then they were allowed to start and 45 minutes from now on was allowed.

(o) No question from the candidates in between the test was allowed. If they felt anything difficult the direction was paraphrased in Oriya. Examples were never added.

(p) We walked quietly around the room, within the first few minutes, checking to see that students were marking their answers in the prescribed manner. If anyone had not understood, he was briefly instructed in soft voice. It was ensured that nobody was cheating.

(q) At the end of 45 minutes they were told to stop. If students had not completed their answers more time was allowed. Care was taken to find full response from all candidates.

(r) At the end they were told 'stop and remain quiet until we have collected the books individually'. When we had the full set they were dismissed.
(s) The question set for dictation was dictated to the students. They were advised to write the dictation on the space specified for it in the answer-sheet.

(t) The students were told that the test had got nothing to do with their class-promotion, that it only tried to measure the effect of English teaching and learning in Orissa, that this test was being conducted in all the other districts of Orissa, and so there was no need of cheats or books or copying from friends' but to write sincerely whatever they knew themselves.