

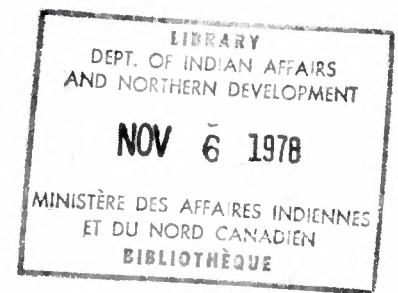
SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING
in the
CANADIAN NORTH

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1. INTRODUCTION

This account of second language teaching will attempt to establish some notions of what teaching is, when we speak of languages, and in turn, of what language is when we speak of teaching. The analysis of language teaching is a multidimensional activity. The description of language and the teaching of languages, are separate but related tasks. The linguist is concerned chiefly with his subject matter. The language teacher is concerned with the relationship between himself, the subject matter, and the learner, In this instance we are concerned with the teaching of English, therefore some study of English and of teaching is involved. The northern student's progress depends on his facility in a language which is not his mother tongue, thus some account of the role and nature of second languages for northern Indians and Eskimos is also involved.

Most teachers of English in the North of Canada have been trained particularly to teach children who already speak English; children who come to school with English as their mother tongue. What does 'language' mean for such children? What does 'teaching' imply for them? By answering these questions, and by asking the same questions of an Indian or Eskimo child, it may be possible to illuminate the dimensions of what is involved. Take, for example, our typical Canadian

child, coming to school on his first day of school. How much does he bring with him, in terms of language, in comparison with the Eskimo or Indian child? What does 'language' mean in the context of a southern Canadian classroom?

2. LANGUAGE FOR THE ENGLISH CANADIAN CHILD

To begin, it is apparent that for the southern child, English language learning started as soon as he began to perceive the world, as soon as the outside world began to impinge on his consciousness. Just how a child learns to speak is, in fact, still very much of a mystery. We can observe only the end product. Before he is six years old, the child has acquired language. He has acquired the use of the major grammatical structures of English. That is to say, he can operate the tense system, making distinctions between I sing, I can sing, I am singing, I used to sing, I sang, I was singing. He can control the complex system of articles, and noun plurality, putting the before words which need it, and adding s to nouns which take plural forms. He can change a sentence such as he is playing into related forms such as is he playing, he is playing is he? he is playing isn't he? where is he playing? what is he playing? He can use words like begin, end, come, go, make, hear, listen. The complexity of the mental operations involved in these skills is such that

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despite extensive studies of children's language, we still know almost nothing significant about how such operations take place. In terms of vocabulary size, the first grade southern school child may have an understanding vocabulary of as many as 25,000 words. In an important sense, as far as the language component of education is concerned for mother tongue speakers of English, the school has very little to teach. The child has already taught himself English before he comes to school. The school's role is to expand his already-present language skills, by enabling him to read and write what he can already say or understand.

The southern child comes to school with the major part of his linguistic knowledge already complete. What he adds to this knowledge as he grows older, comes just as much from outside the school as from within. It comes from television, home life, reading, and all the normal activities of life, which for this child, take place in English. He will not need a great deal of teaching of areas that are really basic to English, such as the use of a and the, of when to put is before a verb ending in ed, of when to use big and not tall, of when to use can before verbs like play and walk, of when to say he walks instead of he walk, or I am coming instead of I come. Six years of use and experience of English have already established the knowledge which enables the child to make these distinctions. How does this southern child compare with the Eskimo or Indian child?

3. ENGLISH FOR THE INDIAN OR ESKIMO CHILD

The fundamental difference between the child for whom English is a mother tongue, and the northern Eskimo or Indian child, is that the southern child is a member of an English speaking community, while the Eskimo or Indian child is primarily a member of an Eskimo or Indian-speaking community. Membership in a language community means that all the aspects of one's daily life -- the situations we encounter, the things we do and say from day to day, our work and our play, the school and home, our employment, our emotional and intellectual life -- all these things take place in a language common to the community. When an immigrant arrives in Toronto, for example, he has to face the problem of becoming a member of an English language community. He has to acquire a sufficient command of English to help him work and live with other Canadians.

Here is the fundamental difference in orientation in the English programme for the Indians and Eskimos of the North. Such a programme is not designed to make the learners members of an English speaking community. It is motivated by an attempt to establish a partial use of English, to permit communication with English speaking people, and to enable comprehension of the communications of people who speak English. It is concerned with the economy of effecting communication in English. The English programme in the North does not try to

teach the total grammar of English, or the total vocabulary, or even the vocabulary that a southern child of 6 might understand. Nor does it try to replace the child's mother tongue. This would be an impossible, and inhuman task. What it tries to do is to establish a sufficient grasp of English for the learner to use it as a medium of communication. It may never be as efficient a medium as the child's mother tongue. These general differences between English as a mother tongue, and English as a second language -- that is, as a wider means of communication -- are illustrated in Figure I.

4.1 RESTRICTION IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Figure I introduces a central aspect of second language teaching; the concept of restriction. Those who prepare materials for the teaching of second languages, try to select words and structures which have the greatest power of communication, forms which are of the greatest utility in terms of the learner's needs. Clearly, there is no value in teaching something which the learner might never have the occasion to use. It is, in any event, impossible to teach the whole of a language. Even mother tongue speakers know only a fraction of their language. A language is the reservoir

Figure I

ENGLISH AS A MOTHER TONGUE	ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
The child belongs to an English speaking community.	The child belongs to an Eskimo or Indian speaking community who make some use of English.
<p>The child has perhaps 50 different ways of:</p> <p>expressing satisfaction, dissatisfaction, comfort, discomfort, likes, dislikes, acceptance, rejection, wants, demands, commands, of referring to persons, activities and things, of describing persons, activities and things, of expressing time and space relations, of referring to concepts and relationships.</p>	<p>English may not be required for many of these activities. Where it is needed, fewer alternatives than the mother tongue speaker has available, are needed.</p>
<p>English is the language of:</p> <p>mother↔child, child↔friends, inner thoughts, prayer, church, school, games, entertainment, TV. radio, bedtime stories, the home, family relations, city life. Active language skills develop naturally from all of these activities.</p>	<p>Most of these activities take place in the child's mother tongue. English is needed to understand instructions, to follow the school course, to obtain information, to follow commands, to communicate with outsiders. In later life, to give mobility, to enable cooperation with those working in the community.</p>
The child has as much grammar and vocabulary as this requires. At ten this may mean an understanding vocabulary of 60000 words and an active vocabulary of 5000-20000 words.	The child wants as little grammar and vocabulary as is needed for these tasks. An overall understanding vocabulary of 4-6000 words may be sufficient for the school course and an active vocabulary of 2500 words.

of all the experience of all the speakers of the language. Each speaker individually makes use of only a fraction of that reservoir. The second language teacher needs to be able to recognize those features of the English language which are most important for communication.

This implies that in any language, there are some forms that are very useful, which we can use often, which do a lot of work, and other forms which are less useful. We have the words seat, chair, divan, stool, sofa, bench and couch, but we can use the word seat to replace all of them. Instead of saying I want to go outside, I can say I desire to leave this room, I have the desire to depart from this amphitheatre, I have an intense feeling to quit my present location. The first sentence has greatest usefulness, because it employs frequent words, that is to say, words which can be used in many different situations. Similarly, a sentence like show me the way to go home is more useful than a sentence such as indicate the route to my abode. The words in the first sentence can be used in more situations than the words in the second.

4.2 REDUNDANCY

The fact that language can be reduced in this way to a basic stock of important elements is a product of what is called redundancy. It is an important aspect of language for

us to try to understand. Spolsky gives this illustration of redundancy (1). "Suppose I ask someone whom I have never met before, to write down his name. When I see him write the letter p my uncertainty has been reduced by a large amount, for he has excluded all names that begin with any other letter. When he adds the letter a, uncertainty is further reduced, for it rules out names like Peter and Phillip. Adding the letter u makes it almost certain that the final letter of his name will be l. From this example, we see the way in which different parts of a message carry varying amounts of information. The letter p gave the most information, for it reduced the possibilities from the whole set of possible men's names, to the set of names beginning with p, let us say we are now down to 1/26th of the original possibilities. The letter a reduced the possibilities to an even smaller set, but by a smaller proportion. This is because in English words, only 13 letters can follow p. As more letters are added, the amount of information conveyed by each letter becomes less, until certainty is reached." This is true of all elements of language, and if it weren't, communication would be less effective. Take the case of pronunciation. Instead of saying give me that big black book, I could omit the final sound of each word, saying, gi me tha bi bla boo, and I will still be understood. This is what happens when people speak a foreign or second language. They don't use all of the sounds that the native speaker uses, yet they can

still be understood. A language always has more information built into it than it appears to need. This enables us to understand conversation in a noisy crowded subway, even though we are not able to hear every sound that the person speaking to us makes. Redundancy protects the message. Newspapers make use of redundancy, as we do when we send telegrams. Film star murdered police hunt killer. We understand the message 100%, even though we would not write or speak a sentence like that ourselves. The child who says Dad go to work at 6 o'clock, instead of Dad goes to work at 6 o'clock is reducing the redundancy in the English language. The s for the 3rd person -- he goes -- as far as he is concerned, is a useless piece of language. It carries no extra meaning, since he go carries as much information as he goes. Likewise if I say yesterday I go to school and I meet my new teacher, I am reducing redundancy in the language. Why should pastness have to be expressed both by a word like yesterday, and in the verb, by changing it from go to went? One of them is redundant and can be done away without reducing understanding.

Of course, as teachers, we are sometimes obliged to teach forms which are redundant, simply because they are a part of the grammar of the language. At other times, when we are faced with a choice between two or three different ways of saying the same thing, we can chose the form which is of greatest usefulness and ignore the others.

4.3 CHOOSING THE MOST USEFUL TEACHING ITEMS

Thus it is that a professional teacher of English as a second language is usually trained to restrict the words and types of sentences he uses, for his task is to build up the central areas of the language, -- those which are essential for communication --, rather than those which belong to the periphery. The textbook writer must do the same thing. He is not free to use any word or sentence type which he finds convenient. He has to stop and ask himself: is this the most useful word or sentence type which I can find for this purpose? He usually has access to a word list which presents the most frequent and useful words of the language. The grammar of the language is more difficult to analyze but can be approached from a similar direction. What we need to know is the relative importance of the different elements of the language. Which elements of the language would we be best advised to concentrate on in the time available in the school course? Do we spend as much time teaching It would have been finished as on It is finished?

As far as the verb is concerned, two verb uses account for half of the average uses of the English verb. These are the simple present and the simple past tenses. This is where the initial priority of teaching time is given when we teach English as a second language. The many uses of these two tenses, statement, exposition, description, explanation

and narrative, account for much of our normal use of English. There are other items which will also require teaching time, but the amount of teaching time needed will be determined by the role these items play in the normal use of English.

The complexity of the verbal group in English, for example, is illustrated in such groups or combinations as can finish, is finishing, is finished, can have finished, can be finishing, can be finished, has been finished, is being finished. There are even groups with four and sometimes five elements: can have been finishing, can have been being finished. Not all of these verb groups are of equal importance. There is a law of language that says the more complex an item is, the less likely we are to use it. Two item groups like is finished are frequent. Groups with can and may are quite frequent. The frequency, and hence the usefulness of the remaining groups, decreases as their complexity increases. The complex groups can usually be replaced by simpler groups. Instead of saying I should have liked to have gone, I can say I wanted to go. Instead of saying His car would have almost certainly been being mended, we can say It was probably being mended. In second language teaching, we delay teaching the complex forms until the learner can master the simpler more useful ones.

5. INADEQUACIES OF MOTHER TONGUE MATERIALS

This is one important reason why an English course that was designed to teach children whose mother tongue is English, may put the second language learner at a very real disadvantage. Rather than getting a systematic and carefully graded introduction to English, with constant repetition of the basic parts, he may get little teaching of the central areas and simply a haphazard introduction to language skills he is not ready to use. There will be far too many words that he has no real use for, and sentences which have a complexity beyond the level of his capacities. There is a mistaken but widely held belief, that simply immersing a child in English will turn him into a fluent English speaker. Many teachers will confirm that this is not always the case. Being immersed in English may create the need to communicate in English, but not necessarily to communicate in correct English. In terms of communication, I wanting waters, is just as effective as could I have a glass of water please. Inadequate teaching of English, especially when the child's mother tongue is not taught and used in the school, often prolongs the use of a substandard variety of English.

Materials designed for southern children are thus usually quite unsuitable for children for whom English is a second language. This is well illustrated in the following passage, which is from a reader designed for children whose mother tongue is English (2).

Bobby's New Shoes

"I wish I had shoes like Peter's," said Bobby one morning. "I wish I had some big shoes with high tops."

"I must have my shoe now," said Peter. "I'll be late for school if I don't hurry."

"Bobby must have new shoes soon," said Mother. "We will buy them today."

Right after lunch they went downtown, and Mother bought new shoes for Bobby.

"Now!" said Bobby. "At last I have big shoes with high tops like Peter's."

"I must have new shoes," said Mother.

The man opened and shut box after box of shoes. Mother tried on shoes, and Bobby waited. He sat and sat and sat.

At last Bobby could not sit and wait for his mother any more.

Suddenly his big high shoes started making big high steps. Away they walked with Bobby's feet inside them.

Left foot up! Right foot down!

Left, right! Left, right!

The big high shoes were making big high steps, big high steps across the floor.

Bobby walked right out of the store.

Left, right stepped the new shoes along the sidewalk. Left, right! Left, right!

Bobby came to the end of the walk and turned the corner. Then he began to count his steps.

"One, two! One, two! he counted.

He turned corner after corner, but he did not count the corners.

Soon Bobby and his new high shoes came to the corner of a busy street....

The first thing which strikes us about the passage is that it contains a number of words and constructions which have not been thought out in terms of the child experiencing English as a second language. Many of them are likewise not important from the point of view of communication in a second language. We have for example big shoes with high tops. The last two words are semantically confusing when applied to shoes. Right in Right after lunch introduces a quite redundant piece of vocabulary, and the comprehension of its meaning is not helped when a few sentences later the reader encounters Left, right and Bobby walked right out of the store. Here are three different meanings of right within one paragraph. Steps in big high steps is again a rather unnecessary word. The writer's failure to control his language is illustrated by the fact that in one sentence he talks of the sidewalk, which becomes, in the next sentence the walk. When he writes Mother tried on shoes rather than Mother tried on some shoes, we wonder what concept of article usage the Indian or Eskimo child is likely to develop.

Elsewhere we find stylistic variations in word order which may be easily understood by a southern child, but which hardly help the northern child grasp the essentials of English word order. We have Away they walked instead of They walked away. Left right stepped the new shoes along the sidewalk

instead of They stepped along..... Notice too, the occurrence of The man opened and shut box after box... he turned corner after corner. Doubtless, the child has been previously taught put it in the corner. How many corners.... Now he is expected to understand that corner can also mean 'many' corners in a structure like corner after corner. This introduces unnecessary difficulties for the second language learner. Of course, the mother tongue child understands such a construction without difficulty, because he has probably heard his mother say I've told you time and time again not to do that! A few sentences later in the same reader we find two quite different and unrelated meanings of happen occurring in close proximity. How did you happen to run away? and This isn't what happened.

The lexical, structural and semantic complexity of the few sentences analyzed here, illustrate why many second language children using books written for mother tongue speakers of English, have persistent reading and comprehension problems. They do not understand what they read, and may lose all interest in reading. Northern children for whom English is a second language need completely different reading materials, from children whose mother tongue is English. If this forces us to focus on the "what" of teaching, and to ask the question -- What is language when we speak of teaching? -- so too it may be useful to ask -- What is teaching when we speak of languages?

6. LEARNING A LANGUAGE

Since teaching is simply the provision of the opportunity for learning, it might be useful to look briefly at what we mean by language learning. Let us consider a child learning to speak his mother tongue. Since parents do not give their children instruction in language, it is often assumed that children must learn through imitating their parents speech. Observation soon shows that this is both an incorrect, and, an inadequate account of how children learn language. A child hears a great deal of connected speech but his first sentences are only single words, boy, sock, mommy and so on. He hears forms of the verb such as eats, coming, goes and walked, but produces only the simple forms, eat, come, go and walk. When he begins to produce two word sentences between the ages of 18 and 24 months, the sentences he produces are not imitations of the sentences his parents produce. Almost always a two-word sentence is formed by putting a word before one of the words which previously constituted a single word sentence. Thus a word like big, will start to be combined with a word like boy, or sock, but it will never occur on its own as a single-word sentence. The child's two-word sentences are of the following type

1

all gone
big
bye bye
pretty
my
see
more

2

boy
shoe
sock
mommy
boat
milk

The child's language is not haphazard. It is quite systematic. To form a sentence, he selects a word from column 2, or says any word from column 1 before any word from column 2. What he is doing is creating his own grammar of English. This is a very far step from mere imitation. In building up his grammatical skills in English, he follows a sort of step by step process. Here is another example which suggests how language learning is a sort of do-it-yourself process, the parent or the teacher exposing the child to a certain amount of English, and the child doing the rest. If you listen carefully to the speech of children of 3 or 4 years old you may hear certain question forms like this (3).

What he can ride in?
Where I should put it?
Why he's doing it?

These questions share a common structural feature which makes them different from adult questions. In these questions, that part of the sentence which normally comes after the subject in the statement form, such as can in he can do it, has been left in this position in the question form, instead of being put before the subject, as in what can he ride in. Now at about the same time as children are producing sentences like this, they are able to make questions which don't require a wh word such as where or why. They can say can he ride in a truck, but when they use a wh word, they fail to change the word order, producing what he can ride in. It is clear that the child is not imitating the speech he hears around him. It seems that at

this stage in his life, the child has built up the grammatical knowledge that deals with sentences that can be answered by Yes or No, -- he can accurately produce sentences such as Can I go outside -- but he cannot produce an adult type of sentence that requires both the can form and a wh word.

7. TEACHING AND LEARNING

Language learning at every point, seems to involve, not imitation, but the acquisition of a huge variety of complex rules that the child builds up in his brain over a period of time. They seem to be the sort of rule which orders us to change the position of certain words when we turn statements into questions; that orders us to have grammatical agreement between the subject and the verb, which tells us to add an s to the 3rd person or to add an s to plural count nouns and so on. We do all these things without thinking about them. It is only when we try to teach others how to use our language, that we realize how complex they are. One of the most important realizations about language learning for a teacher to have, is the realization that it is not a passive but an active process. What language learning seems to involve is a 3 step process, only the first stage of which has anything to do with the teacher. First of all, we provide the child with certain language experience; we select certain constructions,

words or sentence patterns, and we arrange them in a way which we think might help the child to learn them. But language learning is not a question of memorizing bits of language; it seems to involve the child abstracting from the language we give him, some sort of information about the way the English language is put together. If the first stage of learning a second language is what the teacher does, the second stage is perhaps the most important, for it is precisely what the learner does. What does he actually understand from what we teach? I am using understanding here in a special sense, because I am using it to include the process mentioned above whereby we saw briefly how the child built up his knowledge of English grammar, piece by piece. For someone to be able to produce a sentence which we recognize as English, he must first have established the rules such as those which enable him to put words in a particular order, to put questions into a different form from statements, or to add the ed for pastness. All the grammatical relations of our language seem to be related to mental operations which are well beyond the level of consciousness. The third stage is what the child actually says or writes. This stage is of great interest too, because it may suggest what went on in stage 2 -- which may in turn lead us to examine what we did in stage 1 to see if it really helped or hindered the learner.

8. ERRORS

This might appear to be a far step away from the work teachers are engaged in from day to day. To demonstrate that this is not the case, I have collected a sample of typical errors which people make when learning English or when speaking English as a second language (see Appendix) (4). In second language learning there are two sorts of errors which we commonly hear. The first sort is the type of thing which happens when we translate word for word from the mother tongue as, for example, when a speaker from India says He took news from her. Errors of this sort may be called bilingual errors. But there are also a different class of errors we observe in second language learning, which come about not from an attempt to use the patterns of the mother tongue, in English, but from the three stage process we saw above. They come about because the learner is making an intelligent attempt to build up a system from his experience of English, a system that will enable him to generate English sentences.

Table II, 4, contains an example of the continuous form being used instead of the simple form; Yesterday I was going down town instead of Yesterday I went down town. What went on in stages 1 and 2, to produce a sentence like this? It may have been something like this. First of all, the teacher, or the course book, introduced the verb is meaning

'present state'. The book is on the desk. Then he changed the position of the book. Now it is on the chair. It was on the desk. It is on the chair. Thus was seems to indicate a past state. Now, probably the learner has already been taught that is plus a verb in the continuous form, is used to mean 'present action'. I am opening the window. He may now come to feel that was plus ing = 'past action'. Thus instead of saying Yesterday we went to church, he will say Yesterday we were going to church.

In Table I, we see examples of is being interpreted as a marker of the present tense. The examples with was in Part 2 of Table I -- he was died last year, are examples of was being interpreted as a marker of the past tense. This is a very intelligent type of mistake. In parts 3 and 4 we see examples of how one part of the English language interferes with another part. Usually, every new item we teach, interferes with what we have previously taught. Thus, if we teach she goes, and a little later, she cannot go, almost certainly some learners, a few days later, will say she go, or she cannot goes. And if we can say I like to speak French, why shouldn't we be able to say I can to speak French?

An important aspect of teaching is not merely seeing that the teaching materials are clearly presented and well drilled. We have to go a step further and try to find out what

the learner is likely to do with the things we teach, as he attempts to build up his understanding of English. What he may build up in his mind may be quite different from what we want.

Further examples of the interference we get between one part of English and another are illustrated in Tables 3, 4 and 5. Prepositions are particularly difficult, because once the learner encounters one type of preposition with one verb, he may attempt to use the same preposition with similar verbs. Thus he showed me the book leads to he explained me the book, he said to me leads to he asked to me, we talked about it gives we discussed about it; ask him to do it produces make him to do it; go with him produces follow with him. After having spent some time teaching I saw him -- (subject, verb, object) -- it is normal that the learner should feel that there is something incomplete about that's the man who I saw. He feels more comfortable with that's the man who I saw him. Other examples are seen in Part 2 of Table 3.

The errors in Tables 1 to 5 are typical of the learning difficulties children all over the world experience when they come to learn English as a second language.

9. CONCLUSIONS

In this discussion of second language teaching in the Canadian North, we have concentrated on both sociolinguistic,

pedagogic and linguistic aspects of instruction in a language which is not the child's mother tongue. The child going to school in a southern Canadian environment and the Eskimo or Indian child being schooled in English, have fundamentally different language experience to draw upon. The southern child is being taught his mother tongue; the Eskimo or Indian child's mother tongue may not be taught. We are dealing with quite different patterns of community life in both cases, and hence of different roles for English in an English speaking and Eskimo or Indian speaking community. The teacher of English in the North is dealing with the English language needs of people who require the means of wider communication and mobility. Three dimensions have been given here to second language teaching: the first, is sociolinguistic, since it deals with what language means for the community. This leads to an examination of how an English programme can set about meeting those needs. The third dimension is purely linguistic since it is concerned with the mechanisms of language acquisition. These are just a few of the many factors ⁽⁵⁾ which have a bearing on the conception and implementation of programmes for the distribution of languages of wide communication.

References

1. Slightly adapted from Bernard Spolsky, "Reduced Redundancy as a Language Testing Tool". Paper prepared for the Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics, Cambridge, September 1969, pp. 6-7.
2. "Bobby's New Shoes". More Friends and Neighbors. New Basic Readers, Gage, Toronto, p. 30.
3. Examples taken from Ursula Bellugi, "Linguistic Mechanisms Underlying Child Speech". Proceedings of the Conference on Language and Language Behaviour. E.M. Zale (ed.), New York, Appleton-Century Crofts, 1968, pp. 36-50.
4. This sample of errors is based on a study of common errors found in English written by speakers of Polish, Czech, Japanese, Chinese, Burmese, French, Tagalog Maori, Mallese and the major Indian and West African languages.
5. See Derek, Smith. "Occupational Aspirations of Mackenzie Delta Students" in Proceedings of the 7th Annual Conference of the Canadian Association for Indian and Eskimo Education, 1969, for further factors.

Appendix

Major sources of difficulty in English as a second language.

TABLE I

Errors in the Production of Verb Groups

1.	<p><i>be + verb stem for verb stem</i></p> <hr/> <p>We are live in this hut</p> <p>The sentence is occurs . . .</p> <p>We are hope . . .</p> <p>He is speaks French</p> <p>The telegraph is remain . . .</p> <p>We are walk to school every day.</p>
2.	<p><i>be + verb stem + ed for verb stem + ed</i></p> <hr/> <p>Farmers are went to their houses.</p> <p>He was died last year.</p> <p>One day it was happened.</p> <p>The teacher was told us.</p> <p>They are opened the door.</p>
3.	<p><i>wrong form after do</i></p> <hr/> <p>He did not found . . .</p> <p>He did not agreed . . .</p> <p>The man does not cares for his life.</p> <p>He did not asks me.</p> <p>He does not has . . .</p>

(cont'd.)

TABLE I (Cont'd.)

4.	wrong form after modal verb
	<p>Can be regard as . . .</p> <p>We can took him out.</p> <p>I can saw it.</p> <p>It can drawing heavy loads.</p> <p>They can used it.</p> <p>It can use in state processions.</p> <p>She cannot goes.</p> <p>She cannot to go</p> <p>They would became</p> <p>We must made.</p> <p>We can to see.</p> <p>We must worked hard.</p>
5.	<i>be</i> omitted before <i>verb + stem + ed</i> (participle)
	<p>He born in England</p> <p>It used in church during processions.</p> <p>They satisfied with their lot.</p> <p>He disgusted.</p> <p>He reminded of the story.</p>
6.	<i>ed</i> omitted after <i>be + participle verb stem</i>
	<p>The sky is cover with clouds.</p> <p>He was punish.</p> <p>Some trees are unroot</p>

(cont'd.)

Table I (cont'd.)

7.	<i>be</i> omitted before <i>verb + ing</i>
	<p>They running very fast.</p> <p>The cows also crying.</p> <p>The industry growing fast.</p> <p>At 10.30 he going to kill the sheep</p>
8.	verb stem for stem + <i>s</i>
	<p>He alway talk a lot.</p> <p>He come from India.</p> <p>She speak German as well</p>

TABLE II

Errors in the Distribution of Verb Groups

1.	<i>be + verb + ing</i> for <i>be + verb + ed</i>
	<p>I am interesting in that.</p> <p>The country was discovering by Columbus.</p>
2.	<i>be + verb + ing</i> for <i>verb stem</i>
	<p>She is coming from Canada.</p> <p>I am having my hair cut on Thursdays.</p>
3.	<i>be + not + verb + ing</i> for <i>do + not + verb</i>
	<p>I am not liking it.</p> <p>Correct rules are not existing.</p> <p>In French we are not having a present continuous tense and we are not knowing when to use it.</p>
4.	<i>be + verb + ing</i> for <i>verb + ed</i> in narrative
	<p>. . . in the afternoon we were going back. On Saturday we were going down town, and we were seeing a film and after we were meeting my brother.</p>
5.	<i>verb stem</i> for <i>verb+ed</i> in narrative
	<p>There were two animals who do not like each other. One day they go into a wood and there is no water. The monkey says to the elephant . . .</p>

(cont'd.)

Table II (Cont'd.)

6.	<i>have + verb + ed for verb + ed</i>
	<p>They had arrived just now.</p> <p>He had come today.</p> <p>I have written this letter yesterday.</p> <p>Some weeks ago I have seen an English film.</p> <p>He has arrived at noon.</p> <p>I have learned English at school.</p>
7.	<i>have + be + verb + ed for be + verb + ed</i>
	<p>He has been married long ago.</p> <p>He has been killed in 1956.</p>
8.	<i>verb (+ ed) for have + verb + ed</i>
	<p>We correspond with them up to now.</p> <p>This is the only country which I visited so far.</p>
9.	<i>be + verb + ed for verb stem</i>
	<p>This money is belonged to me.</p> <p>The machine is comed from France</p>

TABLE III
Miscellaneous Errors

1.	Wrong verb form in adverb of time
	<p>I shall meet him before the train will go.</p> <p>We must wait here until the trail will return.</p>
2.	Object omitted or included unnecessarily
	<p>We saw him play football and we admired.</p> <p>This is not fit to drink it.</p> <p>This is the king's horse which he rides it every day.</p> <p>That is the man who I saw him.</p>
3.	Errors in tense sequence
	<p>He said that there is a boy in the garden.</p> <p>When the evening came we go to the pictures.</p> <p>When I came back I am tired.</p>
4.	Confusion of <i>too</i> , <i>so</i> , <i>very</i>
	<p>I am very lazy to stay at home.</p> <p>I am too tired that I cannot work.</p> <p>I am very tired that I cannot go.</p> <p>When I first saw him he was too young.</p> <p>Honey is too much sweet.</p> <p>The man became so exhausted and fell on the floor.</p>

TABLE IV

Errors in the Use of Prepositions

1.	<i>with</i> instead of	Ø from against of at	met with her, married with her suffering with a cold fight with tyranny consist with laughed with my words
2.	<i>in</i> instead of	Ø on with for at to by	entered in the room, in the next day in T.V. fallen in love in Ophelia in this purpose in this time go in Poland the time in your watch
3.	<i>at</i> instead of	Ø by in to for	reached at a place, at last year held him at the left arm at the evening; interested at it went at Stratford at the first time
4.	<i>for</i> instead of	Ø in of from since	serve for God one bath for seven days suspected for, the position for Chinese coolies a distance for one country to another been here for the 6th of June

(Cont'd.)

Table IV (Cont'd.)

5.	<i>on</i> instead of <i>in</i> <i>at</i> <i>with</i> <i>of</i> <i>to</i>	<i>Ø</i> 	played on the piano for an hour on many ways, on that place, going on cars on the end angry on him countries on the world pays attention on it
6.	<i>of</i> instead of 	<i>Ø</i> 	aged of 44, drink less of wine rich of vitamins book of Hardy depends of civilization a reason of it
7.	<i>to</i> instead of 	<i>Ø</i> 	join to them, went to home, reached to the place an occupation to them his love to her

TABLE V

Errors in the Use of Articles

1.	Omission of <i>the</i>												
	<table> <tr> <td data-bbox="305 457 850 606">(a) before unique nouns</td><td data-bbox="850 457 1438 606">Sun is very hot Himalayas are . . .</td></tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="305 606 850 670">(b) before nouns of nationality</td><td data-bbox="850 606 1438 670">Spaniards and Arabs . . .</td></tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="305 670 850 861">(c) before nouns made particular in context</td><td data-bbox="850 670 1438 861">At the conclusion of article She goes to bazaar every day She is mother of that boy</td></tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="305 861 850 989">(d) before a noun modified by a participle</td><td data-bbox="850 861 1438 989">Solution given in this article</td></tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="305 989 850 1053">(e) before superlatives</td><td data-bbox="850 989 1438 1053">Richest person</td></tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="305 1053 850 1191">(f) before a noun modified by an <i>of</i>-phrase</td><td data-bbox="850 1053 1438 1191">Institute of Nuclear Physics</td></tr> </table>	(a) before unique nouns	Sun is very hot Himalayas are . . .	(b) before nouns of nationality	Spaniards and Arabs . . .	(c) before nouns made particular in context	At the conclusion of article She goes to bazaar every day She is mother of that boy	(d) before a noun modified by a participle	Solution given in this article	(e) before superlatives	Richest person	(f) before a noun modified by an <i>of</i> -phrase	Institute of Nuclear Physics
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2.	<i>the</i> used instead of \emptyset												
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(e) before <i>some</i>	The some knowledge												

(cont'd.)

Table V (Cont'd.)

3.	<i>a</i> used instead of <i>the</i>	
	(a) before superlatives	a worst, a best boy in the class
	(b) before unique nouns	a sun becomes red
4.	<i>a</i> used instead of \emptyset	
	(a) before a plural noun	a holy places, a human beings, a
	qualified by an adjective	bad news
	(b) before uncountables	a gold, a work
	(c) before an adjective	. . . taken as a definite
5.	omission of <i>a</i>	
	before class nouns defined by adjectives	he was good boy he was brave man

TABLE VI

Errors in the Use of Questions

1.	Omission of inversion
	<p>What was called the film?</p> <p>How many brothers she has?</p> <p>What she is doing?</p> <p>When she will be 15?</p> <p>Why this man is cold?</p> <p>Why streets are as bright as day?</p>
2.	<i>be</i> omitted before <i>verb + ing</i>
	<p>When Jane coming?</p> <p>What she doing</p> <p>What he saying?</p>
3.	Omission of <i>do</i>
	<p>Where it happened?</p> <p>How it looks like?</p> <p>Why you went?</p> <p>How you say it in English</p> <p>How much it costs?</p> <p>How long it takes?</p> <p>What he said?</p>

(Cont'd.)

Table VI (Cont'd.)

4.	Wrong from of auxiliary, or wrong form after auxiliary
	<p>Do he go there?</p> <p>Did he went?</p> <p>Did he finished?</p> <p>Do he comes from your village'</p> <p>Which road did you came by?</p>
5.	Inversion omitted in embedded sentences
	<p>Please write down what is his name .</p> <p>I told him I do not know how old was it.</p> <p>I don't know how many are there in the box.</p>