CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1General Background

The trend of learning a second language is overwhelmingly increasing in Nepal. It is because some people are exploring their career in teaching a second language (will be used and defined later) and migrating to the foreign language community for better jobs. The private schools, public schools and even the government aided schools are teaching the English language giving high priority to it. Teaching and learning of the English language in the heterogeneous Nepalese classes has its several prospects and problems. In the government aided schools the medium of teaching and learning is Nepali. This has been an extra burden for the ethnic minorities to compete with the Nepali speaking students. The non-native Nepali speakers are compelled to be bilinguals. In the recent years, the government of Nepal has implemented the policy of mother tongue education at least up to the primary level. It also has its practical challenges such as preparing curriculum, teaching materials, the trained human resource for teaching mother tongue, etc. Moreover those students have to face nonnative classes immediately after completing their primary education; this may be attributed to the alarming rate of drop-out of the students. In such situations the achievement of the English language by the monolingual and bilingual students might differ. This present research work has attempted to find out the real situation on the achievement of writing skill by the monolingual (Nepali native speakers) and bilingual (Tharu native speakers) students.

1.1.1 Language

Language is the most commonly used means of communication. It is one and only the property of human being. It is what that puts human beings different from all the other animals. Human beings use language to express their

emotions, feelings, thoughts, ideas, experiences etc. and more importantly they use it to communicate with each other. Language is perhaps the easiest means to get the things done.

According to Sapir (1978,p.8), "Language is a purely and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of system of voluntarily produced symbols. Similarly, Bloch and Trager (1942,p.5) wrote: "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates" (as cited in Lyons, 1981, p. 4). In rather sociolinguistic way, Wardhaugh (1998,p.1) defines language as "What the members of a particular society speak". Similarly, in the Encyclopedia Britannica (Vol. XIII, p.639) language is defined as "an arbitrary system of vocal symbols by means of which human beings as a member of social group and participants in a culture interact and communicate". Unlike the other definitions mentioned above Chomsky (1957, p.13) has defined language as "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements." (as cited in Lyons, 2005, p.7).

Language is one of the means of communication, in which all aspects of communicative competence should be noted. It is a complex system consisting of at least six components: phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, speech acts and discourse. Language is purely human but structurally complex. It is unique and creative. It is not only a means of communication but it is also a social phenomenon which is used in our society to establish the relationship among the human beings.

Crystal, (1995, p.108) opines that "English holds special status of medium of communication." There are more than 6000 languages spoken in the world. Among them, English is one of the widely used languages and it has gained the status of international language. It is used as a lingua franca because it is used to communicate with the people who are of different linguistic background. It

is claimed that one in every seven people speaks the English language. The English language is taken as the richest language in the world because it has the richest vocabulary in comparison to other languages. Most of the books in the world are written in English, so it is the most dominant language in all areas as in trade, mass media and international diplomacy, etc. It is also the language of the world politics, science and technology, economics, medicine, marketing and so on. So, the sound knowledge of English has been a must.

1.1.1.1First Language

The term first language is self explanatory. This is also known as the mother tongue or native language. It is the language first acquired by a child or the preferred one in a multilingual situation. However, the language preferred in a multilingual situation may not be identical to the language first acquired by a child. For example, the children of many European emigrants (who are nonnative speakers of English) to the USA have come to use English as a first language. "First language is also known as the primary language, the mother tongue or native language" (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p.7).

1.1.1.2 Second Language

According to Mitchell and Myles (2004), "Second languages are any languages other than the learner's native language or mother tongue" (p.5). Second language is the language learned after the native language has been learned. Gass and Selinker (2008) evaluated second language as any language learned after learning the first language (henceforth L1), regardless of whether it is the second, third, fourth or fifth language. The term second language (henceforth L2) would describe a native language in the country as learnt by people living there who have another first language. For example, Nepali is a native language for Nepali speakers but it is an L2 for the Tharu people who have another native language i.e. Tharu.

1.1.1.3 Foreign Language

A foreign language is a language which is taught as a school subject but which is not used as a medium of instruction in schools nor as a language for communication within a country. Mitchell and Myles (2004), have mentioned "It is sensible to include foreign languages under the general term second languages, because we believe that the underlying learning processes are essentially the same for more local and for more remote target languages, despite differing learning purposes and circumstances" (p,6).

On the contrary Gass and Selinker (2008) mention some crucial differences on foreign language and second language. The former is a nonnative language which is learned in the environment of one's native language (e.g. English for French speakers learned in France). On the other hand, second language refers to a non-native language which is learned in the environment in which that language is spoken. (e.g., German speakers learning Japanese in Japan). The second language may or may not take place in a classroom setting. The important point is that the speakers who are learning an L2 have considerable access to the language being learned, whereas the speakers who are learning a foreign language do not have this.

1.1.1.4 Filter Language

Filter language is the language through which the language being learned is perceived. Generally, L1 is the filter language but not always. As far as my present research is concerned, I have considered Nepali as a filter language for the monolingual Nepali students but the Tharu students, who are not the native speakers of Nepali but are bilinguals, have two filter languages i.e. Nepali and Tharu. My research work mainly aimd to find out whether this case of bilingualism affects in the achievement of the language being taught to both of them i.e. English. And if this affects, is the influence interfering or supportive?

1.1.2 Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is a subconscious and spontaneous process of picking up of a language, which results into knowing a language. It takes place in an informal social situation. Ellis (1985, p. 6) states, "The term 'acquisition' is used to refer to picking up a second language through exposure." Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive, produce and use words to understand and communicate. This capacity involves the picking up of diverse capacities including syntax, phonetics, and an extensive vocabulary. This language might be vocal as with speech or manual as in sign. Language acquisition usually refers to first language acquisition, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language, rather than second language acquisition that deals with acquisition in both children and adults of additional languages.

1.1.2.1 Monolingualism

Monolingualism is the ability to use only one language. It also means as the possession of or being able to use only one language by a person. A person who knows and uses only one language is called monolingual. According to Richards et al. (1985), "Monolingual is a person who has an active knowledge of any one language, though perhaps a passive knowledge of another." Being monolingual is a natural process. Every normal human child, whatever class, cast or nation s/he is able to acquire his/her mother tongue automatically and effortlessly in about the same age whether s/he receives training or not.

1.1.2.2 Bilingualism

Bilingualism means the ability to use more than one language. It means possession of or being able to use two languages. A person who knows and uses two languages is called bilingual. According to Richards et al. (1985), "Bilingual usually means a person who speaks, reads or understands two languages equally well." It means, bilingual does not mean just using tit bit of two languages; he/she has to be like native speaker in both the languages. A

person can be a good bilingual only when he/she digests the cultures of both languages because producing grammatically correct sentences is not enough, they should be communicatively appropriate as well. This means that to be a good bilingual he/she must speak the way that the native speakers speak. But equal mastery of two languages is impossible. Even a native speaker may not speak whole of his/her language. For example, he/she may not know the language of sports or music or others if he/she is not related in these fields. A person may have a good mastery in one skill of one language and in another skill of another language. Same degree of mastery of all the skills of two languages is not possible. According to Richards et al. (1985) a bilingual person usually has a better knowledge of one language than that of the other. For example, he/she may:

- a) be able to read and write in only one language.
- b) use each language in different types of situation, e.g. one language at home and the other at work.
- c) use each language for different communicative purposes, e.g. one language for talking about school life and the other for talking about personal feelings.

This shows that there might be different ways to be bilingual. Some people become bilingual in the early childhood before going to school. They learn those languages informally in the society where they live. They are the natural bilinguals who learn two languages more or less at the same time. For example Tharu speaking people in Nepal learn Nepali as naturally as they learn their own language (Tharu). They learn both their mother tongue and the Nepali language at the same time, in their childhood before they join school so they are natural bilinguals. On the other hand, some people become bilingual in school or at work where they learn other languages formally or informally.

Being bilingual is an individual as well as societal phenomenon. According to Romaine (1992, p. 23-24) the connection between individual and societal

bilingualism also becomes evident when we consider some of the following reasons why certain individuals become bilingual.

- 1. Usually the more powerful groups in any society are able to force their language upon the less powerful groups.
- 2. The minorities whose languages do not have equal right as those granted to be the official language, language of media, formal education, business, science and technology are dominated by the language which has got right. So these people are extremely forced to learn that granted language. In such situation, there is always danger of forgetting their mother tongue.
- 3. Children who speak the language of majority also learn other languages at school which is determined by the policies of individual government. For example, students learn English and Sanskrit in Nepal.
- 4. In family where the parents speak different language from that of the society and the language spoken in the society may also be dominant one, the children of these families learn both languages.

There are some disputes among the researchers on when to call a person a bilingual; whether at any point of SL learning process or to the end part. Edwards (2006) says that "Everyone is bilingual. That is, there is no one in the world (no adult anyway) who does not know at least a few words in languages other than the maternal variety." (as cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 25). On the basis of his arguments the Nepali speaking students are also bilinguals because they can at least have command over some limited functions such as greeting, thanking, etc. in English. Edwards (2006) still argues that it is easy to find definitions of bilingualism that reflect widely divergent responses to the question of degree. This argument is the process oriented argument.

On the other hand, Bhatia (2006) states this in an interesting way when he says "the process of second language acquisition—of becoming a bilingual". (as

cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008, p.25). In other words, the end result of SLA is a bilingual speaker.

Thus, Edwards(ibid) is saying that one is bilingual at any point in the SL learning process, whereas Bhatia is referring only to the end point and does not deal with whether or not that end point has to be native or not. Valdés (2001 a) argues that:

there are in fact, different types of bilinguals and that it is, therefore, more appropriate to think of bilingualism as a continuum with different amounts of knowledge of the L1 and L2 represented. In this view the term bilingualism can refer to the process of learning as well as the end result, the product of learning (as cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 26).

Despite the compromising conclusion of Valdés (ibid), I have, in my research work, considered bilingualism as argued by Bhatia. Thus, I have considered the Tharu speaking students as bilinguals because they have learned Nepali to a great extent since they need to use it to survive in that language community; and the Nepali speaking students as monolinguals, since they have less or no command in both Tharu and English.

1.1.3 Language Skills

A language is recognized in terms of different skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. A skill means to do something expertly and to be able to use the language, to convey thoughts, intentions, wishes, information, etc. a person needs a mastery of various elements. The four skills mentioned above can be classified as receptive and productive skills. Generally, listening and reading fall under the category of receptive skills while speaking and writing are productive skills.

1.1.3.1 Writing Skill

Writing, being secondary and dependent on speech, makes use of graphic symbols to represent spoken sounds. Richards et al. (1985, p. 313) say, "Writing is a system of written symbols which represents the sounds, syllables or words of language." It means all languages of the world which have their written form, use graphic symbols that represent spoken sounds. Byrne (1993,p. 1) says, "The symbols have to be arranged, according to certain convention to form words, and words have to be arranged to form a sentence." Writing uses not only linguistic resources but also makes use of graphological devices at the same time. Further, writing is a process and involves several elements. The writer follows a systematic approach. He thinks about the content, audience, purpose, grammar, lexis and overall organization of the text. At the same time, he also thinks and uses some graphological devices like punctuation, spelling and rhetorical devices, Rivers (1972, p. 241). Writing is an activity through which human beings communicate with one another and transmit their accumulated cultures from one generation to another. It equally provides us with possibilities to discover and articulate ideas in many ways.

Thus, "Writing is an act for transmitting thoughts, feelings and ideas from 'up here in head' to 'down there on paper' since writing is a thinking process in its own right that demands conscious intellectual efforts." The essentials of writing are the spelling and punctuation, sometimes also known as mechanics of writing or graphological resources.

In conclusion, writing is a very complex process that requires many composite skills; mental, rhetorical and critical. It is a skill that improves with constant practice. The writer becomes more comfortable and fluent in putting his/her thoughts exactly on paper.

1.1.3.2 Components of Writing

Writing is not merely an activity of encoding verbal thought in printed symbols. It consists of a number of other components. They are given below:

a) Mechanics

Mechanics of writing mainly includes capitalization, spelling and punctuation. The learner must have the knowledge of mechanics of writing, use of correct and appropriate words and sentences, treatment of content, stylistic skills and judgment skills. Bowen et al., (1985,p. 259) view that:

the mastery of mechanics of writing and practice in the basic skills are necessary first steps for child or adult learners. Under mechanics of writing, the learners should learn the alphabet, the left to right direction of English writing system, upper and lower case, letters, rules for capitalization, basic spelling patterns of English and rules for words and sentences, punctuation.

Use of capitalization refers to the correct use of capital letters. For example 'I' is a capital letter. It is written and printed with capital letter. There are rules of capitalization, that is where and when to use a capital letter. The knowledge of using capital letter is important for writing.

Spelling is to name or write the letters of a word in their correct order. Spelling plays a very important role since addition, omission or replacement of one letter with another can change the entire meaning of the word or of the whole message. Mastery of writing system requires the ability to spell, particularly in English the relationship between sounds and letters is very complex and therefore, mastery in spelling is needed.

Punctuation is one of the graphological devices of writing process. Speech has its supersegmental features like pitch, stress, intonation and length which help to convey meaning. These supersegmental features like pitch, stress, intonation

and length help to convey meaning. Although these supersegmental features can not be represented in writing devices like punctuation (capital letters, word and sentence boundaries, comma, question mark, etc.) are extremely used to help convey meaning or patterns of meaning. For example: in the following sentence, it is unclear whether the woman is great or the man.

"A woman without her man is nothing." The writer could make the meaning clear by us is the following punctuation mark to mean differently:

"A woman, without her man, is nothing."

"A woman: without her, man is nothing."

b) Cohesion

The term cohesion refers to the formal links that mark various types of interclauses and inter-sentence relationship within the text of discourse. It also refers to grammatical and lexical relationship with the different elements of a text. For example:

A: Does John play the guitar?

B: Yes, he does.

There is a link between 'John' and 'he' and also between 'play' and 'does'.

"London is a well-developed city. I have stayed there for three years." Here is the link between 'London' and 'there'.

Harmer (2006, p. 22) has attempted to categorize cohesion as lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion. Under lexical cohesion he has mentioned:

- Repetition of words
- Lexical set 'chains'

And under grammatical cohesion he has considered:

- Pronoun and possessive reference
- Article reference
- Tense agreement
- Linkers
- Substitution and ellipsis

Four linguistic mechanisms that Halliday and Hassan (1976) point to in order for texts to have cohesion or structure at the level of discourse are the following:

i) Reference

There are four types of references:

- Exophora (situational)
- Endophora (textual)
- Anaphora (to preceding text)
- Cataphora (to following text)

There are also times when the meaning is not explicit from the text itself, but is obvious to those in a particular situation. This is called exophoric reference.

For he's a jolly good fellow

And so say all of us.

As readers outside of this environment, we are unfamiliar with who the *he* is that is being referred to, but, most likely, the people involved are aware of the *he*, and therefore, can find texture in the sentences.

ii) Substitution

Substitution is somewhat different from reference in that another word takes the place of the thing that is being discussed. Where reference is a relation between meanings, substitution is a grammatical relationship. There are three general ways to substitute in a sentence: nominal, verbal, and clausal. The pronoun *one* is often used in nominal references, as it is in the following example:

Let's go and see the bears. The polar ones are over on that rock.

In this sentence, ones is taking the place of bears in the previous sentence.

Verbal and clausal substitution functions in the same way, replacing the verb and the clause respectively in the preceding sentence.

iii) Ellipsis

If substitution is replacing one word with another, ellipsis is the absence of that word, "something left unsaid". While many sentences presuppose some prior

knowledge by its audience, ellipsis requires retrieving specific information from preceding information that can be found in the text.

Joan brought some carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas.

There is only one possible interpretation: Catherine bought some sweet peas.

iv) Conjunction

The last of the three relationships, conjunction, functions somewhat differently than the other three because it is not strictly semantic or anaphoric, rather, it is related to the entire environment of a text. The conjunctive elements presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse. Instead of giving cohesion to a text, it actually coheres two sentences together. And is the simplest example:

'While you're refreshing yourself,' said the Queen, 'I'll just take the measurements.' And she took a ribbon out of her pocket, marked in inches:

Although there is a distinct shift from one sentence to the other, the sentences are still very much a part of a coherent text.

Lexical cohesion (here through synonym) can be shown as

He was grateful for the money he had been given. He slipped the coins into his
pocket and hurried down the street. (Coins refer back to money.)

c) Coherence

'Coherence' refers to the logical connectivity of ideas and thoughts so as to make a comprehensible whole. It is a discourse where all the components fit tightly together. In order to be a coherent piece of language, there should be one controlling/central idea, a topic sentence as well as well-knit organization of the thought (systematic sequence of thoughts).

Coherence, in discourse analysis, refers to the principles of organization, postulated to account for underlying functional connectedness of a piece of spoken/written language. It encompasses the study of the factors like user's knowledge of the world, the inference one makes and the assumptions one holds close to one's heart and mind Crystal (1992,p.81).

The term 'coherence' also defines the relationship, which links the meanings of utterances in a 'discourse' or of the sentence in a text. These links may be based on the speaker's shared knowledge. For example,

A: Shall we go to the cinema tomorrow?

B: There is Band Programme.

There is not grammatical and lexical linkage between the two utterances, A's question and B's reply, but the exchange has the coherence because both 'A' and 'B' know about the *band* programme.

There should be coherence in a paragraph. Here, coherence refers to a series of sentences that develops the main idea i.e. with a topic sentence and supporting sentences, which relate to it. The concept of cohesion is a semantic relation, which refers to the relations of meaning that exist within the text. Cohesion is a part of system of a language. The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources of reference, ellipsis and so on that are built into language itself. Harmer (2006, p. 24) suggests that for a text to have coherence, it needs to have some kind of internal logic which the reader can follow with or without the use of prominent cohesive devices. When a text is coherent, the reader can understand at least two things:

- The writer's purpose the reader should be able to understand what the writer's purpose is. Is it to give information, suggest a course of action, make a judgment on a book or play, or express an opinion about world events, for example? A coherent text will not mask the writer's purpose.
- The writer's line of thought the reader should be able to follow the writer's line of reasoning if the text is a discursive piece. If, on the other hand, it is a narrative, the reader should be able to follow the story and not get confused by time jumps, or too many characters,

etc. In a descriptive piece the reader should know what is being described and what it looks, sounds, smells, or tastes like.

d) Organization

Organization plays a vital role in a piece of writing. The ideas expressed by the writer on any topic must be well organized. Though a writer has written very effective and constructive ideas but are not organized in a proper way, his writing becomes worthless. Organization has equal role in any composition that may be free composition or guided composition. Therefore, when someone has to write any composition he/she should define or introduce the topics or subject matter clearly. Then he/she can elaborate his/her view on the text developing the main phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraph and divided them on the basis of different ideas or stages of the subject matter. Then he/she has to justify statements using examples and illustrations. Finally, she/he has to conclude all the ideas of the written text in a single paragraph.

1.1.3.3. Writing as Process Versus Writing as Product

This issue has been presented as follows:

There is a perennial tension in most aspects of language learning and teaching between writing as process and writing as product.

Traditionally, in curriculum practice, a distinction has been drawn between the activities of the syllabus designers, which have been focused on products, and the activities of the methodologists, which have been focused on processes. However, in recent years, this over simplistic division has become difficult to sustain. Broadly speaking, a product-oriented approach, as the title indicates, focuses on the end result of the learning process—what it is that the learner is expected to be able to do as a fluent and competent user of the language. Process approach, on the other hand, focuses more on the various classroom

activities which are believed to promote the development of skilled language use.

Product-oriented approaches to the development of writing favour classroom activities in which the learner is engaged in imitating, copying and transforming models of correct language. This usually occurs at the level of the sentences. There is the belief that before students can be expected to write coherent paragraphs, they should have mastered the language at the level of the sentence. Writing classes should, therefore, be devoted in the first instance to sentence formation and grammar exercises.

Process-oriented view of writing, on the other hand, believes that competent writers do not produce final texts at the first attempt, but that writing is a long and often painful process, in which the final texts emerges through successive drafts. In this approach, the focus in the first instance is on quantity rather than quality and beginning writers are encouraged to get their ideas on paper on any shape or form without worrying too much about formal correctness. The approach also encourages collaborative group work between learners as a way of enhancing motivation and developing positive attitudes towards writing. In addition, and more controversially, attention to grammar is played down. A number of classroom techniques, including 'conferences', emerged from the process approach to writing. The aim of conferencing is to encourage young writers to talk about their initial drafts with the teacher or with their fellow students. The technique draws on principles of discovery learning, as well as the notion of linking reading with writing (Sharma and Phyak 2007).

1.1.3.4 Process of Writing

I have already mentioned the discussion among writing as product and writing as a process. According to Harmer (2007, p.4) writing process has four main elements:

a) Planning

The writers have to plan what they are going to write. Before starting to write or type, they try and decide what it is they are going to say. For some writers this may involve making detailed notes. For others a few jotted words may be enough. Still others may not actually write down any preliminary notes at all since they may do all their planning in their heads. But they will have planned, nevertheless, just as the shopping list writer has thought – at some level of consciousness – about what food is needed before writing it on the piece of paper.

When planning, writers have to think about three main issues. In the first place they have to consider the purpose of their writing since this will influence (amongst other things) not only the type of text they wish to produce, but also the language they use, and the information they choose to include. Secondly, experienced writers think of the audience they are writing for, since this will influence not only the shape of the writing (how it is laid out, how the paragraphs are structured, etc.), but also the choice of language – whether, for example, it is formal or informal in tone. Thirdly, writers have to consider the content structure of the piece – that is, how best to sequence the facts, ideas, or arguments which they have decided to include.

b) Drafting

We can refer to the first version of a piece of writing as a draft. This first 'go' at a text is often done on the assumption that it will be amended later. As the writing process proceeds into editing, a number of drafts may be produced on the way to the final version.

c) Editing

Once writers have produced a draft they then, usually, read through what they have written to see where it works and where it does not. Perhaps the order of

the information is not clear. Perhaps the way something is written is ambiguous or confusing. They may then move paragraphs around or write a new introduction. They may use a different form of words for a particular sentence. More skilled writers tend to look at issues of general meaning and overall structure before concentrating on detailed features such as individual words and grammatical accuracy. The latter two are, of course, important and are often dealt with later in the process. Reflecting and revising are often helped by other readers (or editors) who comment and make suggestions. Another reader's reaction to a piece of writing will help the author to make appropriate revisions.

d) Final version

Once writers have edited their draft, making the changes they consider to be necessary, they produce their final version. This may look considerably different from both the original plan and the first draft, because things have changed in the editing process. But the writer is now ready to send the written text to its intended audience.

We might decide to represent these stages in the following way:

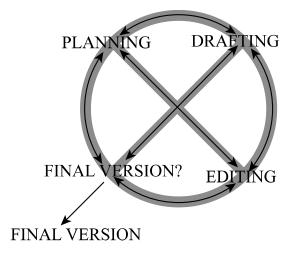
Planning \rightarrow drafting \rightarrow editing \rightarrow final draft

However, there are two reasons why this diagram is not entirely satisfactory. In the first place, it tells us a little about how much weight is given to each stage, but, more importantly, by suggesting that the process of writing is linear it misrepresents the way in which the majority of writers produce written text. The process of writing is not linear, as indicated above, but rather recursive. This means that writers plan, draft, and edit but then often re-plan, re-draft, and re-edit. Even when they get to what they think is their final draft they may find themselves changing their mind and re-planning, drafting, or editing. They may even start – as some novelists do – without too much of a plan, and so their points of entry into the process is that first draft, a kind of 'stream of consciousness', that only later through a series of re-plannings, editings, and draftings gradually coalesces into a final version of the text.

We need to represent these aspects of the writing process in a different way, therefore; the process wheel below clearly shows the many directions that writers can take, either travelling backwards and forwards around the rim or going up and down the wheel's spokes. Only when the final version really is the final version has the process reached its culmination.

Source: Harmer (2007, p.4)

Figure No. 1.1
The writing process wheel



1.1.3.5 Importance of Writing

Writing is superior to other language skills because of its quality of being permanent. In Nepal, English has been taught and learned as a foreign language. It is being taught as a compulsory subject from grade one to Bachelor level. All the answers specially in exams are required to be given in the written form. The English language curriculum of the secondary level (SL) in Nepal focuses on the cultivation of communicative ability and proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing. The secondary level curriculum gives 25% weighting to listening and speaking and 75% to reading and writing. This weighting shows that writing is one of the most important skills of language.

High school students extensively use the written form of language. They make use of written language in their day to day learning activities. They occassionally write personal or official letters and participate in many writing

contests such as essay writing, story writing or poetry writing. Besides, they appear in their unit or monthly tests, or final examination, and they are required to answer more than 80% of the asked questions in writing. In the S.L.C. examination, answers are required to be in written form. Students must develop their writing skills to get through S.L.C examination.

In consclusion, we can say that the students who learn the English language cannot be perfect without knowledge of writing skill. Their English language competence is better if they can write well.

1.1.3.6 Overview of Writing Skills Prescribed by CDC

Since language consists of its components namely listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar. The English textbook of grade nine prescribed by curriculum development center also has focused on those skills and aspects of language. The authors have devised the coherent writing exercise to the whole unit. The English text book of grade nine has twenty units and each unit has some controlled writing exercises and a specified writing exercise which is related to that text and grammar i.e. focused in that particular unit. The book contains varieties of writings, namely controlled writing, guided writing, and free compositions.

a. Controlled Writing

Raimes (1983, p. 95) says that his definitin of controlled writing is all the writing our students do for which a great deal of the content and/or a form is supplied. She further mentions that controlled writing is opposite of free writing. Controlled writing is a useful tool at all levels of composition teaching and not just in the early stage before students have gained enough fluency to handle free writing.

Controlled writing task gives students focused practice in getting words down on paper and in concentrating on one or two problems at a time; they are thus spared from tackling the full range of complexity that free writing entails. For the teacher, controlled writing is easier to mark and much less time consuming, so more can be assigned. In the English textbook of grade nine, we can find the controlled exercises as:

- Gap Filling
- Broken Dialogue

i) Gap Filling

The teacher distributes a sheet of paper with word missing and explains the plot of the sentences and conversation and students fill in the blanks. Then teacher distributes the answer sheet (Byrne, 1993).

For example:

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

Complete the following sentences using words and phrases from the box.

	to	in order to	for	meant for	so that
Tek went to market buy some fruit.					
I am helping her she can pass the exam.					
be a doctor, Priya took a medicine course.					
A frying is		. cooking foo	d.		

ii) Broken Dialogue

This is taking photos.

A dialogue is a devised converastion to be uttered by the participants. The participants pretent to assume the different roles and exchange their ideas in short converstion form. A dialogue is mainly of two kinds: broken dialogue and free converstional dialogue, the first refers to gapping something when students consruct dialogues. The second refers to free form of dialogue when students write anything according to pourpose. This can be written with/without clues.

For example:

Two friends are talking on the phone. Fill in the blank spaces in their conversation with your own words.

Amrita: Hello!	
Amit:	It's me,

Amrita: Hi Amit.	
Amit: I am fine. Are you free today? I am having a party today and	
Amrita: I'd love to but	
Amit:? What's wrong?	
Amrita: Suffering from a nasty cold: watery eyes and nose, violent sneezes,	
you know.	
Amit: Take care.	
Amrita: Bye. Thanks for calling.	

b. Guided Writing

Guided writing is an extension of controlled writing. It is less controlled than the above examples of controlled compositions in that it gives students some but not all of the content and form of the sentences they will use. Their finished products will thus be similar but not exactly alike. Students are given a first sentence, a last sentence, an outline to fill out, a series of questions to respond to, or information to include in their piece of writing. As with any free writing task, with guided composition, too, students should be able to discuss, make notes, share findings, and plan strategies together before the begin to write.

Guided writing includes the following varieties of writing exercises:

- Skeleton for writing stories
- Parallel writing
- A set of questions
- The beginning and end of a story
- Describing pictures
- A set of instructions
- Giving direction

i) Skeleton for Writing Story

Skeleton story writing is a branch of substitution exercise. Such story may be given with greater freedom of choice. More than one word may suit here freely

and this leads to free writing. The skeleton of a story is used to practise interesting texts. It helps students write a complete paragraph.

For example: Develop a readable story from the outline given below.

A crow --- becomes thirsty--- roams around a city --- finds nothing to drink--- keeps trying--- finds a pitcher --- water at the bottom of pitcher --- hits an idea --- picks up some pebbles --- drops them into the pitcher ---water comes up --- quenches its thirst ---.

ii) Parallel Writing

The students may describe something in written form. They depend on the style already used but not on the content. The different content is expressed in the previous style. For example:

The students of grade nine can be asked to do the following exercise on the basis of the given newspaper article about Nelson Mandela's release.

The exercise can be given as:

There were several freedom fighters in Nepal describe about them to your partner then write a similar newspaper story about them. Use the clues in the box.

Name of the freedom fighter

Number of years of imprisonment or exile

Their feelings/expression after they were released/returned from exile

Other people's response

Your comment as the reporter

iii) Set of Questions

The teacher can give students many questions revelevent to their everyday experience. The answers should be varied and simple at the same time.

iv) Beginning and Ending of a Story

In such exercises the teacher first tells the students to listen to the theme of a story. Then the teacher writes the beginning and ending of the story on the blackboard and lets the students develop the middle part of the story so as to make the story readable.

v) Describing Pictures

Students are provided with the series of pictures which are coherent and they are asked to develop the story in written form using the past tense. (This can also be practised as a spoken exercise as has been practised in the schools).

vi) A set of Instruction

The students can be provided with a series of pictures and they can be asked to write the instructions on the basis of the activities shown in the pictures. Before writing the instructions the students must be sure about the appropriate sequence of the event mentioned in the picture. The imperative forms are well evaluated here. For example; on the basis of the pictures and instructions given, we can ask a question like:

Write a complete set of instructions for repairing the bicycle tyre puncture, in a paragraph form. Use linking words or phrases like, first, then, after that......

Start the paragraph with,

Fisrt of all remove the inner tube from the tyre......

vii) Giving Directions

The students are provided with the location map and the teacher asks them to give direction from one place to another. They can also be asked to write the direction on going to the school from their house. As has been asked in the textbook of grade nine, students can be asked to write a letter to a friend who is coming to visit their school giving him direction for how to reach their school from the nearest bus park or airport.

c. Free composition

Free writing is an extended composition. It is not guided or controlled; students are asked to write a paragraph or paragraphs or an essay or telegrams or office's notices, tender notices of report writing or summary writing or diary writing. They are required to express their own opinions. This repuires a careful planning.

In free composition, students are allowed first to think on a topic. There are no restrictions on the student's use of words or structures or on the length of the piece. The teacher can help them in selecting and planning topics in getting rid of the errors. Students should remember construction of a good paragraph. It should have controlling and persuasive thought. Students also consider unity of ideas and coherence; unity of thoughts should be combined with coherence in a good paragraph.

We can list out some procedures of free writing as follows:

- Students should have controlled persusive thought on given topic.
- Students should think supporting important facts according to the topic.
- Unity of thought should be combined with cooherence.
- Students should construct forceful thought and convincing expression.
- Students should write some subject matters according to their creative and imaginative.
- Students should write purpose of the topic. The purpose of the topic should be given. Students follow some indications.

Some examples of free writing mentioned in the English textbook of grade nine are:

Writing news stories using relative clauses on the following headlines:

10 Killed in Bus Accident

Sunsari 11 Beat Saptari

Writing paragraphs on the basis of some key points:

For example;

Some animals may become extinct in Nepal (for example, tigers, rhinos, crocodiles and musk deer). Write a couple of paragraphs about any one of these animals. Use the clues in the box.

The animal and its physical features	its natural habitat
Reasons why it may become extinct	measures being taken to save it

These are only some of the exercise given in the English textbook of grade nine. Among them, only twelve exercises representing the above mentioned three types of writing have been dealt with in course of my research work. The scoring of the students' contribution is analytic and holistic according to the nature of the written exercises.

1.1.3.7 Correcting Written Works

Correction of students' written script is one of the best work of helping students' writing skill. If the teacher does not correct their notebooks, he is worsening their language, encouraging and strengthening mistakes. Rivers, (1968,p.225) says that "Systematic training in writing requires systematic correction of individual scripts if it is to be effective."

It is a very hardwork for a teacher to correct all exercise books. It is a serious problem in teaching writing skill although different methodologies have given different correction techniques. Some acceptable suggestion have been given as follows:

- Teacher asks students to write a story/essay/some lines. Answer sheets should be collected and corrected.
- ii) The another device is that the teacher should put the actual symbols for correction. They are 's' for spelling 'g' for grammar, 'w' for word order, 'n' for number and 'p' for punctuation.
- iii) The teacher moves around the class and crosses the line that ocntains a mistake and students try to correct them.
- iv) Only answer should be written on the blackboard.

- v) Correction by the students themselves.
- vi) Exchanging exercise books: It is not possible at lower classes. In this technique, the students exchange their exercise books among themselves and find out their friends' mistakes.
- vii) Use of Computer: It is also impossible for lower class students. In this technique, the students set their written scripts on the computer's screen and find out their mistakes (grammar, spelling, punctuation).

 After that they should correct themselves with the help of computer.

1.1.3.8 Scoring Written Works

The scoring of students' written contribution is really a tough job to accomplish perfectly. (Hughes, 1995, p. 86) Opines the two processes of scoring that can be either holistic or analytic.

a) Holistic Scoring

Holistic scoring (often referred to as 'impressionistic' scoring) involve the assignment of a gingle score to a piece of writing on the basis of an overall impression of it. This kind of scoring has the advantage of being very rapid. Experienced scores can judge a one-page piece of writing in just a couple of minutes or even less (scorers of the new TOEFL Test of Written English will apparently have just one and a half minutes for each scoring of a composition). This means that it is possible for each piece of work to be scored more than once, which is fortunate, since it is also necessary! Harris (1968) refers to research in which, when each student wrote one 20-minute composition, scored only once, the reliability coefficient was only 0.25. If well conceived and well organised, holistic scoring in which each student's work is scored by four different trained scorers can result in high scorer reliability. There is nothing magical about the number 'four'; it is simply that research has quite consistently shown acceptably high scorer reliability when writing is scored four times.

A reservation was expressed above about the need for such scoring to be well conceived. Not every scoring system will give equally reliable results. The system has to be appropriate to the level of the candidates and the purpose of the test. Look at the following scoring system used in the English-medium university already referred to in this chapter.

- NS Native speaker standard
- NS- Close tonative speaker standard
- MA Clearly more than adequate
- MA-Possibly more than adequate
- A ADEQUATE FOR STUDY AT THIS UNIVERSITY
- D Doubtful
- NA Clearly not adequate
- FBA Far below adequicy

The Birtish Council's ELTS test is also an example of holistic scoring.

b) Analytic Scoring

virtually impossible.

Methods of scoring which require a separate score for each of a number of aspects of a task are said to be analytic. The following scale, devised by John Anderson, is based on an oral ability scale found in Harris (1968).

i)	Grammar
6.	Few (if any) noticable errors of grammar or word order.
5.	Some errors of grammar or word order which do not, however,
interfer	re with comprehension.
4.	Errors of grammar or word order fairly frequent; occasional re-reading
necessa	ary for full comprehsnsions.
3.	Errors of grammar or word order frequent; efforts of interpretation
sometii	mes required on reader's part.
2.	Errors of grammar or word order very frequent; reader often has to rely
on own	interpretation.
1.	Errors of grammar or word order so severe as to make compreheension

11)	vocabulary
6.	Use of vocubalary and idiom rarely (if at all) distinguishable from that
of educ	eated native writer.
5.	Occasionally uses inappropriate terms or relies on circumlocutions;
express	sion of ideas hardly impaired.
4.	Uses wrong or inappropriate words fairly frequently; expression of
ideas m	nay be limited because of inadequate vocabulary.
3.	Limited vocabulary and frequent errors clearly hinder expression of
ideas.	
2.	Vocabulary so limited and so frequently misused that reader must often
rely on	own interpretation.
1.	Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make comprehension virtually
imposs	ible.
iii)	Mechanics
6.	Few (if any) noticeable lapses in punctuation or spelling.
5.	Ocassional lapses in punctuation or spelling which do not, however,
interfer	re with comprehension.
4.	Errors in punctuation or spelling fairly frequent; occational re-reading
necessa	ary for full comprehension.
3.	Frequent errors in spelling or punctuation; lead sometimes to obscurity.
2.	Errors in spelling or punctuation so frequent that reader must often rely
on own	interpretation.
1.	Errors in spelling or punctuation so severe as to make comprehension
virtuall	y impossible.
iv)	Fluency (style and ease of communication)
6.	Choice of structures and vocabulary consistently appropriate; like that
of educ	eated native writer

5.	Occasional lack of consistency in choice of structures and vocabulary
which o	loes not, however, impair overall ease of communication.
4.	'Patchy', with some structures of vocabulary items noticeably
inappro	priate to general style.
3.	Structures or vocabulary items sometimes not only inappropriate but
also mi	sused; little sense of ease of communication.
2.	Communication often impaired by completely inappropriate or
misused	d structures or vocabulary items.
1.	A 'hotch-potch' of half-learned misused structures and vocabulary
items re	endering communication almost impossible.
v)	Form (organisation)
6.	Highly organised; clear progression of ideas well linked; like educated
native v	writer.
5.	Material well organised; links could occasionally be clearer but
commu	nication not impaired.
4.	Some lack of organisation; re-reading required for clarification of
ideas.	
3.	Little or no attempt at connectivity, though reader can deduce some
organis	ation.
2.	Individual ideas may be clear, but very difficult to deduce connection
between	n them.
1.	Lack of organisation so severe that communicationis seriously
impaire	ed.
	Score: Gramm: + Voc: + Mech: + Form: =
The cho	pice between holistic and analytic scoring depends in part on the
purpose	e of the testing. If diagnostic information is required, then analytic
scoring	is essential. The choice also depends on the circumstances of scoring. If
it is bei	ng carried out by a small, well-knit group at a single site, then holistic
scoring	, which is likely to be more economical of time, may be the most
appropi	riate. But if scoring is being conducted by a heterogeneous, possibly less

well trained group, or in a number of different places (the British Council ELTS test, for instance, is scored at a large number of test enetres), analytic scoring is probably called for. Whichever is used, if high accuracy is sought, multiple scoring is desirable.

It should go without saying that the rating systems presented in this chapter are meant to serve only as examples. Testers will almost certainly need to adapt them for use in their own situation.

In my research work I used both kinds of scoring systems according to the nature of the written works by students.

1.1.3.9 The Origin of Action Research

The concept of action research is historically credited to the movement in Educational Sciences and a variety of other social reform initiatives in as early as the late nineteenth century. It also grew out of the other ventures of progressive educators, such as John Dewey, in the early part of the twentieth century to dispute the orthodoxy of the scientific research methods current in the field of education (Burns, 1999,p.26). His main drive to attempt suggesting a new viewpoint was to elucidate the approaches to research and to include in research processes those directly involved in the practices of education.

Dewey's notions in research were innovative to confront common educational problems by inviting researchers, practitioners and others working in the educational community to address their efforts toward educational enquiry collectively. Dewey's propositions for educational research are captured in the following statement:

The answer is that (1) educational practices provide the data, the subject matter, which form the problems of enquiry... These educational practices are also (2) the final text of value and test the worth of scientific result. They may be scientific in some other field, but not in education until they serve educational purposes and whether

they really serve educational purposes can be found out only in practice (Dewey 1929, cited in Hodgkinson 1957,p.138).

Dewey's ideas on progressive education were extremely influential in educational research. In the 1940's, an important contribution to Dewey's ideas on action research came from Kurt Lewin, who was not an educator, but a social psychologist. Lewin proposed a model of inquiry that comprised action cycles including analysis, fact-finding, conceptualization, planning, implementation and evaluation. He suggested that the urge to carry out an inquiry should stem from and reside in the problems of a specific social group, and investigation should be done by the participants of this group only. Lewin's own research revealed that in order to achieve this type of inquiry, there is the need for support and training of participants in the development of new skills:

We should consider action, research and training as a triangle that should be kept together for the sake of any of its corners (Lewin, 1946,p. 42).

Lewin's ideas, which were originally on studying 'minority problems', were extended to industrial training by a former student of Lewin's, Ronald Lippitt. In the early 1950's, Lewin's and Lippitt's ideas were adopted and applied to the educational arena by Stephen Core, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University. He encouraged teachers, principals, and supervisors to use action research to improve their own practices (McLean, 1995,p.4). Besides this, Corey's writings were on justifying action research as a methodology and he mainly focused on the technical procedures of it. Other accounts of action research by advocates such as Taba and Noel (1957) followed a rationalized six-step procedure, which are: identifying problems, analysis of problems, formulating ideas or hypotheses, gathering and interpreting data, implementation-action, and evaluating the results of action (p.12).

The popularity of action research led to the scrutiny of its scientific establishment and it was criticized as a less rigorous, small-scale version of experimental research, rather than as an alternative for practitioners. In the face of this criticism, its popularity declined in the late 1950's and early 1960's. However, as McTaggart (1991) points out, ironically, an understanding of the need for action research in other countries emerged from its decline in the United States. Therefore, in the 1970's, through the work of Lawrence Stenhouse and his successors, John Elliott and Clem Adelman, interest in action research manifested itself distinctively in the British educational context. In Stenhouse's influential work, *An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development* (1975), he reflected the action research undertaken by teachers as a key component in the testability of curriculum concepts as he expressed as follows:

The crucial point is that the proposal is not to be regarded as an unqualified recommendation but rather as a provisional specification claiming no more than to be worth putting to the test in practice. Such proposals claim to be intelligent rather than correct (p.142).

Today, the prevailing idea is that action research should be employed for various purposes: for school-based curriculum development, as a professional development strategy, in pre-service and graduate courses in education, and in planning systems and policy development. Many scholars (i.e., Holly, 1990; Lieberman, 1988; Oja and Smulyan, 1989; McLean, 1995) advocate an action research approach for school restructuring. Therefore, the expansion of action research as a domain is increasing day by day with the applications in different areas and their easily witnessed and experienced contributions to teaching in particular.

1.1.3.10 Defining Action Research

Action Research is a transformative means of responding to the changing profiles of the classes and developing new teaching strategies and approaches

to meet the students' heterogeneous needs. Burns(1999) defines action research as "the approach is only action research when it is collaborative, though it is important to realize that the action research of the group is achieved through the critically examined action of individual group member" (cited in Gwahiwar, 2009, p.31). This research has been defined in a number of ways:

The three defining characteristics of action research are that it is carried out by practitioners (for our purpose, classroom teachers) rather than outside researchers; secondly this is collaborative; and thirdly, that it is aimed at changing things. A distinctive feature of action research is that those affected by planned changes have the primary responsibility for deciding on courses of critically informed action which seem likely to lead to improvement, and for evaluating the results of strategies tried out in practice. (Kemmis and McTaggart(1982) say, "Action research is a group activity" (cited in Nunan, 1993, p.17). A piece of descriptive research carried out by teacher in his/her classroom, without the involvement of others, which is aimed at increasing our understanding rather than changing the phenomenon of the investigation would not be considered by these commentators to be action research for Kemmis and McTaggart, the essence of impetus for carrying out action research is to change the system.

Cohen and Manion(1985) offer a similar set of characteristics. They argue that action research is first and foremost situational, being concerned with the identification and solution of problems in specific contexts (cited in Nunan, 1993, p. 18). They also identify collaboration as an important feature of this type of research, and state that the aim of action research is to improve the current state of affairs within the educational context in which the research is being carried out. Putting different opinion, Nunan (ibid) does not seem to believe that the high desire of collaboration by previous writers should be seen as defining characteristics of action research.

Many teachers who are interested in exploring processes of teaching and learning in their own context are either unable, for practical reasons, or unwilling, for personal reasons, to do collaborative research. The word that such people carry out should not necessarily be excluded as action research. He also disputes the claim that action research must necessarily be concerned with change. A descriptive case study of particular classroom, group of learners, or even a single learner counts as action research if it is initiated by a question, is supported by data and interpretation, and is carried out by a practitioner investigating aspects of his/her own contexts and situations. That said, he knows of few such studies which have not resulted in change of some sort (Nunan, 1993, p. 18).

Thus, action research is a process in which the participants critically examine their own activities, find facts in relation to success and failure, reflect on the identified problems, plan to resolve them, take action again, evaluate the action and deduce the conclusion on the whole process.

The basic features of action research can be put as follows:

- i) Action research is led by inductive approach
- ii) It is a research in action
- iii) It focuses on small group professional practices but not on producing general statements in which reflection cycle is facilitated.
- iv) It embodies informational reflection through structure reflection
- v) It is critical and collaborative
- vi) Reflective practitioners are accountable in making the results of their inquiry.
- vii) Self evaluation in their practice
- viii) Participation, problem solving and continuing.

1.1.3.11 Tools Used in Action Research

To conduct the action research, the teacher-researcher can use any of the following tools:

- a) Time-on-task: After condiction of an action, the teacher-researcher can provide the students with test items related to the action, and the scores on the test is then analyzed, for example, in case of my research, I administered the time-on-task for each lesson until the first progressive test. Having seen no significant progress in students I based my conclusion only on pre test, progressive test and post test.
- b) Checklist: It is prepared by the teacher to record the observed events.
- c) Individual file: the individual file for each student's progress can be kept on which reflection and analysis occur.

1.1.3.12 Process of Action Research

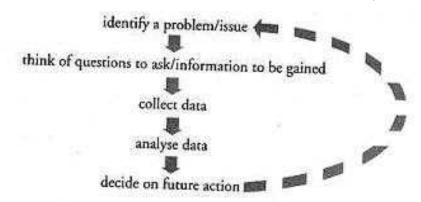
The process of action research has been recommended in a number of ways. One of them includes reflection, exploring, finding problems, plan the interventions, research, analysis, act, and review. Apart from these steps, other scholars have suggested an experienced following sets of steps to be used in action research:

a) The figure 2 shows that the action research can be carried out following five steps. These steps are more common ones to be used in action research.

Figure No. 2

The Flow Chart Displaying the Process of an Action Research

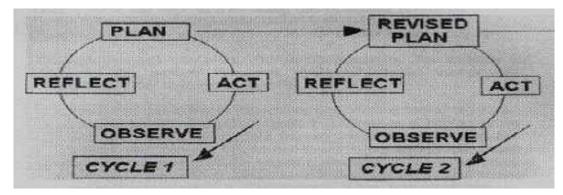
(Harmer, 2001, p. 26)



b) According to Riding et al.(1995), the action research begins with observation and continues upto the completion of various cycles until and unless the conclusion is driven. Each cycle in action research has the step called 'plan' which determines the transition of action from one cycle to another, as indicated in the following figure

Figure No. 3
The Process of Action Research

(cited in Gwahiwar, 2009, p. 34)



- c) Similarly, Nunan (1993, p.19) speaks of the process of action research in terms of seven steps, which are additionally termed as steps in the action research cycle. They are as follows:
 - Step 1. Initiation: The researcher comes with a problem.
 - Step 2. Preliminary investigation: The researcher collects baseline data through tests and observation.
 - Step 3. Hypothesis: After reviewing the initial data, the researcher forms the hypothesis.
 - Step 4. Intervention: The researcher devises a number of strategies for encountering the problem appeared.
 - Step 5. Evaluation: After several weeks, the researcher records the progress in students intended behavior.
 - Step 6. Dessimination: The teacher-researcher runs a workshop for colleagues and presents a paper at a language conference.
 - Step 7. Follow-up: The teacher investigates aliternative methods to solve the problem in question.

After having a short survey on the definition, processes and tools of action research, we can say that action research is a teacher research that is conducted to resolve the problems in teaching learning process introducing new or existing techniques, teaching aids and methods, and so on in a particular situation. The selection of tools depends on who participated in the research. If a single person has to do two fold of task that is an analyst and as an observer, then time-on-task analysis is important and useful tool to collect data.

In case of my present study, I myself performed both the tasks during entire experiments in accessing 'Achievement in Writing by Nepali and Tharu Native Speakers'. In my current study, I used the process recommended by Burns (1999). Burns(ibid) speaks of five steps in action research; exploring, identifying, planning, collecting data (analyzing, hypothesizing, intervention), observing (reflect back to collect data), and reporting to team (writing, presentation). Out of these steps, my study did not use the fifth step as it was, rather in a modified way. My fifth stage was writing and submitting to the guide and concerned department. Regarding tools, I mainly used pre-test, post-test, time-on-task, and progressive test for collecting data.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

In this study, I have tried to find out the ability to learn writing skill of the monolingual students (native Nepali speakers) and bilingual students(the Tharu, nonnative Nepali speakers).

A number of researches have been carried out on proficiency on different skills and aspects of language by the students in terms of language and their possession of one or more than one languages under the Department of English Education, T.U. In this study I have tried to review the researches carried out in the area related to my study.

Bhattarai(2002) conducted a research on 'A Comparative Study of Writing Proficiency of the Bachelor's Level Students.' He compared the writing proficiency of the students of Indo-Aryan and Tibeto-Burman native speakers. He found that the students whose mother tongue belonged to Indo-Aryan family were better than Tibeto-Burman language family. He compared the students' writing proficiency in terms of students' mother tongue mentioned above but he has not mentioned whether the students were monolinguals or bilinguals.

Ghimire(2003) tried to find 'The Pronunciation Proficiency of the Students of Lower Secondary Level.' He compared the students' pronunciation in terms of Indo-Aryan versus Tibeto-Burman native speakers. He concluded that Tibeto-Burman native speakers (41.28%) were better than Indo-Aryan native speakers (38.37%). He has not mentioned whether the students were monolinguals or bilinguals.

Lamsal(2003) made a study on 'Proficiency in Recognizing and Using Pronouns' of Bachelor's Level Students. He compared the students' level of proficiency in terms of Nepali native speakers versus non-Nepali native speakers. He found that non-Nepali native speakers were better(66.93%) than Nepali native speakers(63.65%).

Adhikari(2004), conducted a research on 'English Language Proficiency of Bilingual Students: a Comparative Study'. She compared the English language proficiency of students having the mother tongue as Nepali, Newari, Tamang, Magar and Gurung through the test administered to them. She found that monolingual students(Native Nepali speakers) have excelled their bilingual counterparts, except Newari speaking students. Newari speaking students are found to be most proficient and Magar the least among the four bilingual groups. Theree is not any significant difference due to being monolingual or bilingual in the achievement of English language proficiency.

Pokharel(2008) has conducted a research on 'Writing Proficiency of Students from Different Ethnic Groups'. His research was based on the five ethnic groups namely, Hill-Brahmin, Chhetri, Newar, Gurung and Tamang of class eight. In his study, it was found that the Hill-Brahmin students were more proficient in writing proficiency items than the other groups, whereas the students from Tamang ethnicity were found to be the least proficient. The Chhetri, Newar, Gurung and Tamang; according to the proficiency of writing were the second, third, fourth and fifth respectively.

The proposed study is different from those in the sense that it is a research carried out by a practitioner to find out the actual variations in writing abilities among the monolingual and bilingual students in the achievement of written English. This is done only on Nepali speaking students and the Tharu speaking students of class nine.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This research had the following objectives:

- a. To find out the achievement in writing skill by monolingual and bilingual students of grade nine (especially in mechanics, cohesin, coherence and grammar).
- b. To point out some pedagogical implications of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The research work can be a very useful insight for the researchers on monolingualism and bilingualism. The teachers who are exercising in teaching field will be acquinted with the effect of heterogenity of students in terms of language. This research work can also try to find out some causes of diverse performance of students. I, as a researcher, have tried to find out the solution to cope with the problems encountered. Finally, this present study has added

something new in the field of studying the English writing achievement by the

monolingual and bilingual students.

1.5 **Definition of the Specific Terms**

Monolingual: This refers to those who can not readily speak and use more than

one language(here Nepali speaking students).

Bilingual: This refers to those who have the ability to use more than one

language, specifically two languages(here Tharu speaking students).

Mother tongue: It is the language acqoired by the children in their childhood

from their parents and used in their household since they start speaking.

Holostic: Introspective, taken as a whole.

Analytic: A view of evaluating something segmenting into parts.

SLA: Second Language Acquisition.

Time-on task: A task assigned to students to evaluate the every lesson

achievement after teaching them a particular language item/skill.

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CHAPTER-TWO

METHODOLOGY

I adopted the following methodology to carry out this research.

2.1 Sources of Data

In order to carry out this research, I used both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The primary data were elicited from the ninth grade students of Madi Secondary school by administering the pre-test, time-on-task, progressive test and post-test. So those students were the primary source.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

While making the theoretical backup of the study to facilitate the resolution of the research, I consulted Gass and Selinker(2009), Harmer(2006), Mitchell and Myles(2004), Nunan(2003), Wardhaugh (2000), Raimes(1983), and other related works to my study. I also used the teacher's guide and textbook of English for grade nine.

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of my study were the sudents of grade nine of a government aided school of Chitwan.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

Madi Secondary School was selected using purposive sampling procedure and all the students were selected from grade nine of the same school. The sampling procedure was purposive because of the availability of the number of both monolingual and bilingual students and also because the equal number of students in both groups eases the calculation.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The tools that I used to collect the data included pre-test, time-on-task test, progressive test and post-test. The pre-test and post-test consisted of same items, whereas progressive test consisted of the test items in relation to how the lessons went on. The items representing the three categories of writing were taught and administered. I based my conclusion on the performance of the students scoring them both analytically and holistically.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

Since this is the school I have been teaching, it was easier for me to collect data. I collected the data from primary sources conducting the following steps:

- a. First of all, I let my headteacher know about my research and askd for his permission to conduct it.
- b. I met my students and told them the purpose of my reaearch and the benefit they may get from my work.
- c. I fixed the time to run an extra class and asked the students to be present at school on time.
- d. I assigned them to write a short paragraph about themselves for initial observation.
- e. I then gave them a pre-test and kept the record of the monolingual and bilingual students differently.
- f. After analyzing the scores of the students in the pre-test, I started teaching the writing items, inductively following the prepared lesson plans, that are prescribed by CDC in the English text book of grade nine.
- g. Along with the time-on-task anlysis, I administered the progressive test in the interval of 3 to 4 days.
- h. After teaching them for 25 days, I administered a post-test.
- i. Finally, I analyzed the individual score on the time-on-task,
 progressive test and post test and also the scores on the individual test
 items.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations:

- a. The study was limited to a government aided school of Chitwan district namely, Madi Secondary school.
- b. Only grade nine students of this school were included in the study.
- c. Primary data for this study were collected only by administering pretest, time-on-task test, progressive test, and post-test.
- d. Only three categories of writing skills namely, controlled writing, guided writing, and free composition were taught and their respective written tests were administered in the study.
- e. Only the writing items representing the three kinds of writing were delt with in course of this research.
- f. This study was limited to only the classroom situation of Madi Secondary School, situated in Baghauda-3, Chitwan.
- g. Only the product of (not the process)students' writing were taken into consideration while evaluating their writing achievement. But in course of teaching writing skills the process were also considered.

CHAPTER - THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This section involves the analysis and interpretation of data collected from the primary sources. The main objective of the study is to assess the achievement in writing skill (the exercises mentioned in grade 9, English textbook) by the Tharu bilingual students and Nepali monolingual native speaker students of grade 9 of a government aided school of Chitwan. For this purpose, I tabulated and analyzed the data in the following order:

- a) Analysis and interpretation of classroom teaching of writing texts.
- b) Analysis of individual test scores obtained from five progressive tests, pre test and post test.

3.1 Analysis and Interpretation of Classroom Teaching

In this section, I will present analysis and interpretation of how I taught the students writing for 25 days. The exercises for developing writing skills are selected from the ones given in the grade 9 English textbook.

3.1.1 Punctuation

This topic was completed in a single lesson.

(i) Presentation

This was my first class to my sample students. I entered the class with the question cum answer sheets. I wrote two sentences on the black board to warm the students up.

Let him, not kill him.

Let him not, kill him.

I asked the student to tell the meaning of the sentences. Some of the students replied that the two sentences gave entirely opposite meaning. I talked a little about the role and place of punctuation marks to express the intended meaning

of written piece of work clearly. Then I introduced some basic punctuation marks such as, ;, ?, ,!, " ", etc. along with capital letters and their functions. I asked them to notice the punctuation marks from the text 'That Little China Chip'. The students individually went through the first paragraph and generalized the contexts to use the punctuation marks and capital letters properly. After getting the students to generalize some basic contexts I wrote some simple sentences to use the given punctuation marks describing how to use them in that context.

Then I provided the students with the task which contained five sentences containing 10 places to use punctuation marks properly and each correct answer weighted 1 mark. In this way, the whole set of test items weighted ten marks as full marks. During this period, my role was just as a monitor to see whether someone has any problem. After 10 minutes I collected the task sheets. Here are the scores obtained by the students on time-on-task.

Table No. 1
Individual Scores on the 'Time-on-Task'-Punctuation

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage
9	7	26.88%	-	-
8	2	7.69%	4	15.36%
7	3	11.52%	4	15.36%
6	-	-	3	11.52%
5	1	3.84%	2	7.69%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
	F	Average score: 7	7	1

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

Seven Nepali speaking students scored 9 out of 10 but none of the Tharu speaking students did get so. Two Nepali speaking students (i.e. 7.69%) scored 8 out of 10 whereas 4 Tharu speaking students did so. The number of students

who scored more than average score is altogether 20 (76.8%), 12 of them were Nepali native speakers whereas only 8 of them were Tharu. The least score, which was scored by two Tharu and 1 non-Tharu students, was 5. Twenty three point two percent of total students have obtained below average score.

Though this was an objective test none scored 10 out of 10. Most of the students were confused about the use of hyphen (-) and parentheses (). These were demanded to put by students in the task sheet. I did not consider that as a great problem because these punctuation marks are not as basic as others asked in questions. The students who scored less than 7% i.e. 23.2% on time-on-task were slow pace learners but not so far behind from others. I suggested those students to concentrate on punctuation marks while going through the written texts in book.

3.1.2 Spelling

A single lesson was devised to teach this lesson.

(i) Presentation

As I entered the classroom I started the class with a game. For that I divided the class into two groups without being much concerned with their native language. That was a word snake game. One of the two groups had a Nepali speaking leader on the other hand the next group had a Tharu speaking group leader. It was done so in order to encourage both language speaking groups. One group had to spell word and the other had to spell a new word that began with the last letter of the previous word. And repetition of words was not accepted in the game. I stopped the students after five minutes. The game was continued because students used the words that they were confirmed with their spelling. After that I talked about and exemplified some common trends in spelling that the students are not being able to generalize. For examples, consonant doubling

final 'y' changing into 'i'
the order of 'ie' and the exceptions
some special letter sound correspondence, for eg. tion—/ n/
some special words that change spelling while pluralizing them, etc.

Some of the students were very much interested about these commonness whereas some were feeling bored with some idiosyncrasies on letter-sound correspondence. Having described some common trends in English spelling I ran a dictation exercise. I had already prepared a short text that could represent the above mentioned rules. The students wrote what they listened to from me. Their performance was examined and answered later. It all took me 40 minutes to end my lesson. After that I distributed them task sheets that contained a coherent paragraph which had 10 miss spelt words and each correction weighted 1 mark. The students had to rewrite the paragraphs replacing words with their correct spellings. The students scored the following marks:

Table No. 2
Individual Scores on the 'Time-on-Task'-Spelling

M.O.	No. of Nepali	Percentage	No. of Tharu	Percentage
(Out of 10)	students		students	
9	1	3.84%	-	-
8	3	11.52%	-	-
7	3	11.52%	4	15.36%
6	3	11.52%	-	-
5	2	7.69%	5	19.2%
4	1	3.84%	4	15.36%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
Average score: 6.5				

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

Spelling seemed really a great challenge for students. No student scored 10 out of 10. Only one student scored 9 as the highest mark and that is by Nepali

speaking student. Even 8 was scored just by three Nepali students. In this case the Tharu speaking students lagged far behind. Four Tharu students scored 7 marks. Only 42.24% students scored above the average score where the Tharu students shared just 15.36% and the rest was constituted by Nepali speaking students. And 57.76% students scored below the average score, out of which the Tharu students occupied the larger portion i.e. 34.56% whereas 23.2% was portion of Nepali speaking students.

The students seemed quite oversensitive about spellings since it was being focused on the test and they wrongly spelt even the words that they normally used to spell correctly. It is because of the lack of the confidence. I suggested them to read long texts extensively as suggested by Harmer (2006) to overcome this problem and make several lists of words containing similar characteristics such as:

put + ing - putting
 jot + ing - jotting

but come + ing - coming
 fly + es - flies
 study + es studies

but monkey + s - monkeys
 science, society, but receive

3.1.3 Sentence Formation

This exercise was dealt with in just a single lesson.

(i) Presentation

I entered the classroom with two boxes filled with word cards. The students seemed curious to know what and why I had taken them there. I divided the class into 4 groups without considering their language as a criterion for group division. I gave 1 box to two groups and the other to the rest 2. Before they handled the box, I told them that they had to choose and pick up the word cards

in such a way that they could make sensible sentences joining the words. The box contained the word cards representing some NPs, VPs, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, etc. And each group was supposed to make 2 sentences each. In this class task all groups could make the sensible sentences. It is because of their collective effort and the slow learners got help from other talented students. Moreover I also helped a group so as not to make them feel discouraged in the very beginning.

I wrote some examples on the blackboard that represented the assertive sentences, interrogative, imperative, passive of assertive and interrogative, compound sentences. I described the structure of each type of sentence analyzing them into their component parts. And I asked them to make 2 parallel sentences for each of them. The students were found to have difficulties in passive and compound sentences. I wrote further the examples to elaborate the previous two types. Then was the time for time-on-task. I had already prepared the task sheets. I distributed them to all 26 students to work out individually. I monitored the test. Having collected the worksheets after 10 minutes, I examined them and their score is presented as follows:

Table No. 3
Individual Scores on the 'Time-on-Task'-Sentence Formation

M.O.	No. of Nepali	Percentage	No. of Tharu	Percentage
(Out of 10)	students		students	
10	3	11.52%	-	-
9	4	15.36%	2	7.69%
8	2	7.69%	4	15.36%
7	1	3.84%	2	7.69%
6	1	3.84%	3	11.52%
5	1	3.84%	1	3.84%
4	1	3.84%	1	3.84%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
	A	verage score: 7	1	<u> </u>

(iii) Analysis and Reflection

In this test 3 students i.e. 11.52% scored 10 out of 10 as full marks. And that was done by only Nepali students. Both Tharu and Nepali students scored 9 out of 10 where 2 of them were Tharu and 3 were the Nepali students. The performance of the students varied to the range of 4 to 10. The least score was 4 and that was scored by 2(1 Nepali and 1 Tharu) students. Nearly one third of the students (30.72%) scored below the average score 7, where 11.52% were Nepali speaking students and the rest were the Tharu ones. On the other hand, 69.12% students scored above the average score where 38.4% being Nepali and the Tharu being the rest.

This shows that though everybody performed well in group work, their individual performance varied to a considerable extent. And especially the Tharu students were not able to score the highest marks in the tests given to them so far. Having analyzed their scores I decided to suggest the students who scored below the average score that:

- The English sentences have a great variation in their structures so that the best way to internalize them is to read long English texts as a result the students could sub-consciously do it.
- Developing writing as a habit has also a great role in sentence structure internalization. The students can better understand the grammatical function and the grammatical categories that are realized in that grammatical function.

3.1.4 Cohesion

This topic also took a single lesson to be completed.

(i) Presentation

This day I entered the classroom and wrote a sentence on the black board. *Everyone likes Rohan because he is a good boy*. And I asked the students what the 'he' stands for. "The 'he' stands for Rohan", they replied easily for they have the sense that nouns are substituted by pronouns provided that the same noun is repeated in the same context. And I again asked a question as to why 'because' was used to join the two clauses. They thought for a moment and only some of them replied that 'because' is a reason connective and there Rohan's being good boy is the reason to be liked. Then I kept on writing some other examples that represented the use of 'substitution' and 'conjunction' and asking them the questions what the pronouns were referring to and why the connectives were used. Having got the various responses from the students, I described the relations of the nouns with pronouns in terms of the gender, number and case. Later on I wrote some examples like,

The headmaster is very punctual. It is the key of his success.

Here the 'it' is substituting the first sentence as a whole. I explained them that the interconnection between sentences can be established through the use of pronouns, articles, linkers and the 'do' verbs. To support this idea I wrote some other sentences like,

I <u>like</u> eating mangoes and so <u>does</u> John.

Here 'do' verb 'does' has substituted the main verb 'like' but the 'do' verb has to agree in the number of the subject used with it and in the tense of the previous sentence. After that I wrote another sentence on the black board that is

Rupa bought a jacket, and Rita a pair of shoes.

Here I asked the students what the main verb of the latter clauses was. The students guessed and answered that it was 'bought', though they were not conscious about the relation between the two clauses. Having explained all the relations between the clauses and phrases used in the examples I distributed them the work sheets that I had taken with me. The scores obtained by the students have been tabulated as follows:

Table No. 4
Individual Scores on the 'Time-on-Task'-Cohesion

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage
9	2	7.69%	-	-
8	3	11.52%	2	7.69
7	3	11.52%	7	26.88%
6	3	11.52%	2	7.69%
5	2	7.69%	2	7.69%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
	Av	erage score: 7	7	1

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

This time the highest mark was 9 out of 10. Only 2 Nepali speaking students (7.69%) scored it. Eight of them (30.72%) scored above the average score 7 whereas 9 Tharu students did it out of 17 (65.28%) students. Seven out of 10 was the mark scored by most of the students i.e. being 38.4%, out of which 26.88% were the Tharu students. The least score was 5 out of 10 that was scored by 4 students which was shared equally by both groups. The data yet analyzed show that there is a great variation in the number of Nepali and Tharu speaker in terms of scoring the highest mark and even in scoring above the average score, but not so much in scoring below the average score. The trend shows that only 2/3 Nepali students are more forward that all the rest.

This time the uses of 'his' to substitute the possessive noun and the whole noun phrase seemed confusing to the students. And most of the students made mistakes in the proper use of 'too' and 'either', because of their positive and negative connotations respectively. I made a little survey of the answers of the students in the presence of the students and made them clear about the two problems mentioned above right there in this way,

she her hers
you your yours
I my mine
but he his his

- My book is new but yours is old.
- Shanti admired <u>Ram's</u> jacket. She bought her jacket long ago so it was torn but his was new.
- A: I like Hari's bag. What about you?
 - B: Oh! I like it too. (Positive connotation)
- A: I can't play guitar, can you?
 - B: I can't do it either. (Negative connotation)

3.1.5 Completing Dialogue (coherence)

(i) Presentation

(a) The First Day

As soon as I entered the classroom I started telling a joke so as to warm the students up. A man was ploughing a piece of land by a narrow path. A stranger came near to him and asked, "Is this the way to Shantinagar?" But the ploughman replied, "No, I won't sell my oxen." The stranger was surprised with the answer he got and realized that the ploughman was deaf.

I asked the students whether the question of the stranger and the answer he got from the ploughman had logical connection and whether they could continue their conversation ahead. The students replied 'No'. Then I said it was so because of the lack of logical connection between the utterance spoken by the ploughman and the question of the stranger thus being not a coherent conversation.

Similarly, I pretended that my friend from somewhere far called me and I received my mobile phone and talked to my friend. My students just heard me

talking but they did not listen to what my friend was telling me, yet they could guess what my friend was asking me and what the matter of our conversation was. Then I asked the students to be in pair irrespective of their native language. And I let them ask and answer in pair about any topic they liked. I talked about the broken dialogue that is asked in the SLC examination. The students were instrumentally motivated then. I displayed a model of dialogue and the option sentences filled which are in dialogue. And asked the students to see the whole context the dialogue and guess the matter of the dialogue. And then, the students were divided into four groups again in the previous way to work out to complete the dialogue. I made a quick survey over the writings of students and stopped the class. I decided not to run a daily time-on-task this time onwards since it was not found as significant as I expected it to be. And the analysis and reflection will be descriptive on the basis of the experience I got during the class.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

This time the students enjoyed the joke and the one sided conversation of mine. They actively participated in the 'pair work' and made short coherent conversation. Their group performance in completing dialogue satisfied me and proved that they had good concept of coherence. I thought it was better to let the students show their individual performance in the next class.

(b) The Second Day

(i) Presentation

The students were invited with a practice book for SLC examination since the book contains lots of exercises on dialogue. The exercises in the book allow the students to choose and fill in the incomplete part of a dialogue so that the dialogue sounds/reads comprehensible. Though the students get a little room for their creativity in this sort of dialogues, this is asked in the SLC exam in the same way. But for my purpose I have taught of creating such a dialogue that it does not need the readymade options rather the students themselves infer the

options through the context. I made the students practise filling in the gaps given in the exercise of the book. I helped the students who were in trouble in understanding the meaning of some words thus become unable to proceed coherently. After making the students practice three broken dialogues for each, I stopped the class.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

Since the students just had to choose and fill in the blanks they could easily do the exercises assigned to them. But not only Tharu but also Nepali speaking students who have poor access to vocabularies felt difficulties in establishing logical connections among the sentences, and it created problems. I told them the meaning of the words used in the dialogue and requested them to consult the dictionary and build up more vocabulary power. The statistical presentation of broken dialogue will be reflected in the first progressive test in section 3.2 later.

3.1.6 Narrating Past Events

It was a-single-day lesson.

(i) Presentation

I entered the classroom with two charts and a flannel board. I hung the first chart by the blackboard. The chart contained a small paragraph about Pooja.

Last month Pooja went to Pokhara. She stayed there in her Mamaghar. She climbed up the Sarangkot hill and she flew in parachute from there. She went boating in Phewa Lake. She went to the Mahendra Cave and saw many bats. She bought some photographs of the Himalayas and falls as momento of Pokhara. She enjoyed visiting there and with great reluctance she returned home after 10 days of tour.

I asked the students to locate the verbs used in the paragraph. Within 4 minutes the students found out the verbs. I asked them, "When did Pooja do all these things?" Then they replied, "Last month". I explained the structure of simple past tense with the help of the time and the sentences used in the paragraph. Then, retaining the paragraph where it was, I put the second chart by the paragraph. The chart contained the following.

Write a similar paragraph on the basis of the following clues:

Name	Raju
Place	Sauraha
Stay	Hotel Paradise
Activities	Elephant riding/visit to Chitwan National Park/Elephant
Things	breeding camp
seen	Elephant/baby elephants/Rhinos
Momento	A wooden statue of an elephant
Return	After 7 days

The students wrote a similar passage about Raju individually. I was monitoring the activities of the students. I found some students with the problem of spellings and I helped them in the spelling. Having completed this class task, I asked the students to write two things that they had done the day before. They wrote the sentences like:

I was tied my clothes yesterday.

I did my homework yesterday. etc.

Then I stopped the class of that day.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

The students easily performed the task assigned to them. Most of the students were found to have performed well. Only three students (one Nepali, two Tharu) called me for help in spelling. I felt simple past tense is very easy to teach with the help of parallel writing. I thought it was wise to let the students

write sentences in simple past tense a little more independently in the lesson ahead.

3.1.7 Developing Sentences through the Clues

I presented this lesson in a single period.

Presentation

I started the class with a plan to prepare the student to develop the comprehensible stories through the skeleton. For that purpose, I divided the class into four groups and distributed a bundle of strips for each group. The strips contained the following clues and complete sentences developed out of the clues:

A fox goes for hunting gets nothing

gets disappointed once upon a time, there used to live a fox in a village

He got nothing to eat He went for hunting in a jungle

He got very disappointed because he didn't get anything to eat

The strips had four copies and were given to the four groups. The students were supposed to match the clues with the sentences developed out of them. The students successfully completed the task within 5 minutes. Then the next exercise let the students develop the complete sentences out of the rest clues to complete the story. Here they were provided with the following strips of clues and they exercised in the same group.

returns home finds an orchard enters into the orchard bunch of grapes very high to catch jumps time and again can't get it says grapes are sour they make me it if I eat their up

The students were actively participating in groups. I kept on monitoring them. One of the groups called me and asked how to develop the verbless phrase like, 'bunch of grapes' and 'very high to catch'. I told them to write any suitable verb like, the fox <u>reached</u> and <u>stood</u> just below the bunch of grapes or he <u>saw</u> a

bunch of grapes, etc. Finally, I had a quick survey over the performance of the groups and asked them to change the group leader for the next group work. I told them to read the skeleton story section of their practice book for the next class and stopped the class.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

Letting the students develop the sentences through striped clues seemed a really effective technique. All four groups performed very well. In my survey over their copies I found praise-worthy performances. Some students seemed confused to develop the verbless phrases. I encouraged them to be creative here and suggested them that they could use any verb that suited the context. One thing I found unsatisfactory that the mere sentences did not make the story perfect. The lack of the use of proper connectives made the writing formulaic and mechanized. So, I thought of introducing the use of connectives in writing stories in the class ahead.

3.1.8 Exercising on Story Developing

It took me a single period to complete this lesson.

(i) Presentation

Before directly going to the practice on completing skeleton stories, I wrote some sentences on the black board.

The fox entered into the orchard.

He saw a bunch of grapes hung high.

The fox entered into the orchard and saw a bunch of grapes hung high.

The fox jumped and jumped to catch the bunch of grapes.

He could not get it.

The fox jumped and jumped to catch the bunch of grapes <u>but</u> could not get it.

The fox gave up in despair.

He could not get the grapes despite the several trials.

The fox gave up in despite <u>because</u> he could not get the grapes despair the several trials.

I asked the students to tell me the role of underlined words. The students easily replied that the words joined the two sentences. Then I explained the relation of the joined two sentences and their correspondents with the connectives. I encouraged the students to use the connectives wherever necessary in the story so as to make the story read natural and smooth.

In the next phase, I asked the students to look at the skeleton of a story individually. The story was about a wolf and a crow, where the crow has a piece of cheese in his beak and wolf admires that the crow has a sweet voice and requests him to sing a song. Trying to sing a song the crow drops his cheese and wolf runs away having the cheese with him. This time I tried to complete the story step by step as suggested by Harmer (2006). First I made the students develop the sentences out of the skeleton given to them. After this first draft, I asked them to use the connectives wherever possible. Then again write the final version of the story and give a suitable title and a moral at last. Then I stopped the class.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

The performance of the students (except two Tharu students) was good. The two students were found to be less creative in course of finding new verbs where there was a verbless phrase in a clue. And since, they did not understand the meaning of the sentences they obviously did not know the relation among these thus became unable to use the proper connective. That was the problem encountered. Writing as a process was exercised in this lesson. Writing as a process is possible in writing in classroom and that brought good results too. But as far as the exam is concerned, the students have no time to draft, edit and

write the final version. So, I told the students to practise writing as a process but for the exam, they should be ready to write the final version at once. I planned to suggest those Tharu students to consult the connective part in grammar book and increase the vocabularies through reading and consulting dictionaries.

3.1.9 Subject-Verb Agreement in the Simple Present Tense

A-single-day lesson was devised for this topic.

(i) Presentation

I entered the class with a chart that contained some information about the two comedy actors namely, Madan Krishna Shrestha and Hari Bansa Acharya. Students were asked to read the chart and locate the subjects and the verbs that immediately follow the subjects focusing on the number of the subjects. I let them copy the sentences from the chart. Some of the sentences were about both of them, some about only Madan Krishna whereas some about Hari Bansa Acharya. They copied six sentences out of them two were about Madan Krishna; two about Hari Bansa and the rest 2 about both of them. I told them to take notice of the verbs used after the subject. I, then, explained that the root form of any verb agrees with the plural subject in simple present tense whereas if the suffixes like -s or -es is added after the root form of verb then that agrees with the third person singular subject in the tense. I then told about be verbs as copula and their agreement with the subjects. I explained this fact to the students with the help of the following examples:

- Madan Krishna and Hari Bnsa are good comedy actors.
- They make tele-serials to satire against the social disorder.
- <u>Hari Bansa is</u> a very versatile actor.
- He sings songs as well.
- <u>Madan Krishna praises</u> Hari Bansa for his versatility in acting.
- He is a singer too.
- I like both of them.

- <u>I</u> am their great fan.

Then I drew two tables on the black board. They had to fill in the table according to the following rubric. Fill in these two tables with the subjects and verbs used in the above examples.

Singular Subject	Singular Verb	Plural Subject	Plural Verb

The students easily filled in the table.

Then I asked the students to write the sentences using the simple present tense on the basis of the following subjects:

A tiger
My parents
Stars
A cow

I checked the individual performance of the students. All of them were found to have used the proper verbs after the subjects like, lives, eats, is, love, are, shine, are, gives, eats, etc.

I asked them to read and take notice of the subject-verb agreement from lesson about 'panda' in the textbook of grade 9. And I stopped the class.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

The students were not asked to write a long paragraph. Actually, they were not asked to perform much. The lesson was just to build up their competence. Nevertheless, two short exercises were given to the students to do as class tasks. The students irrespective of their native language supplied the correct answers for all the exercises. Teaching grammar in context is really a fruitful activity. Moreover, the passages about the film stars, actors, singers and other celebrities attract the students' attention. Here in my activity was also accompanied with a passage about the most famous comedy actors of Nepal.

That really motivated the students to learn. I believe they will remember each sentence of the passage whenever they are focused on subject-verb agreement in the simple present tense.

3.1.10 Simple Present Passive

This lesson also took a single period to complete.

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(i) Presentation

This time I entered the class with the textbook of grade 8. I distributed the thirteen books to the 26 students and asked them to share a book in a pair. I asked them to look at page 136 of that book. I asked them to look at the picture and discuss that. That was a picture of a machine which makes the postage stamps. Then I told the students that the passage contained the information on how postage stamps are made. I let them read the passage focusing on the 'be' verb and main verb being used there. After five minutes I asked them to fill up the flow chart about the processes to make postage stamps given below the passage. The chart goes like this:

A theme is chosen and desires are

The pictures are on to film.
The films are on to 4 metal plates.
The plates are with ink.
The plates are in a press.
The plates are on to sheets of paper.
Holes are round each stamp.
The sheets are and are to post offices.

I told them that all the sentences they read on the text were passive sentences. The doer of the action shown in the verb is not focused rather what is done and how it is done is focused. I wrote the following example and made the students clear about the structural differences between active and passive sentences.

Artists paint the designs.

Agent action undergoer of action

The designs
Undergoer of action

are painted
be+past participle
by artists.
by + agent

Having explained the structural difference between active and passive sentences and the use of passive structure, I gave them a text about Sally Brows, a successful journalist.

Her newspaper pays her a huge salary, and it publishes everything she writes. They send her all over the world and ask her to write about all major events. "I don't like describing big demonstrations", she says, "Sometimes the police mistake me for a demonstrator and arrest me."

I told them that instead of saying "Her newspaper pays" We could say "She is paid". The students were, then, given to complete the description about Sally Brown given below:

Sally Brown is a successful journalist. She is a huge salary and everything she writes is by her newspaper. She is all over the world, and she is to write about all major events. "I don't like describing big demonstrations", she says, "I am sometimes for a demonstrator and by the police.

I assisted the students during their task. I told them to find the verbs from the previous passage and change them into past participle form. Students seemed to have had no problem at all.

I, finally, gave them an exercise on how books are made. The students had to change the verbs given in the brackets into their passive forms.

To make a book the words (set) by a computer. Then each page (photograph) to make printing plates. Then, the pages (print), (fold) and (stitch). Finally the book (bind) with an interesting cover. This (do) automatically by a machine.

I, at that time, went on observing the individual performances of the students. I found 3 of them made mistake changing the forms of verbs like set, bind, etc.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

The exercises were cited from English textbook of grade 8. The exercise proved to be very much useful and effective to teach present perfect passive for the secondary level students. In course of doing exercises, students were very much active and motivated.

Teaching grammar in context seemed very much effective. In the final exercise assigned to them, three students (2 Tharu, 1 Nepali) made mistakes on using passive forms of the verbs. I planned to suggest them to consult the verb list with their 3 forms attached at the back of the textbook of class 8.

3.1.11 Describing Things Using Simple Present Tense

It was a-single-day lesson.

(i) Presentation

Holding a rolled chart paper in hand, I entered the classroom. I displayed a picture of a Koala beer and wrote the following questions on the black board.

- What is the animal shown in the picture?
- Where does it live?
- What does it eat?
- What are the special features of this animal?
- How high is a koala? etc.

The students were supposed to read a paragraph about koala and answer the questions. I, then, displayed a chart that contained information about koalas.

Koalas live only in eucalyptus tree and eat the leaves. We have eucalyptus trees in Nepal. Koalas are marsupials, which means they carry their babies in a pouch or pocket. When the baby is bigger it rides on its mother's back. A koala is about 1 m. high.

Having displayed the chart, the students read it and discussed the answers of the questions in group. The group leaders this time were different. The students readily answered all five questions.

After getting answers from the students, I wrote the following questions on the black board and asked them to make a comprehensible paragraph relying on the facts that the questions intend to bring out.

- Where do the gharial crocodiles live?
- How long can the gharials be?
- What do they eat?
- What's a hatchery?
- What is done with them when they are big?
- Do you have knowledge about interesting facts about them?

This time the students wrote a single paragraph about gharials. They easily performed this task.

I asked them to look at the text about panda in the English textbook of class 9. The students were asked to focus on how the paragraphs are sequenced as well as the tense used in describing panda. I asked them to be mentally ready for writing descriptions on any animal I might assign them to write for the third progressive test.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

I tried to make an experiment on the effectiveness of parallel writing here in this lesson. Parallel writing with guidelines proved to be very easy means to motivate the students in writing. All 26 students felt the exercise very easy to do. No one was found to have used wrong tense and subject-verb agreement. As far as the content is concerned, they could simply trace it out depending

upon the questions. I am expecting the progress to be reveled in the third progressive test.

3.1.12 Using Simple Past Tense in News Story

(a) The First Day

(i) Presentation

After warming up the students I hung a chart that contained a short news story. I asked the students to locate the verbs in the news. The news was-

Robbery in President's Village

Janakpur, Feb 21.

A group of dacoits looted three houses in Sapahi VDC of Dhanusha district in Wednesday night. Locals said around 15 people surrounded the village and went on looting one after other houses. They looted millions of worth cash and gold jewelers from the houses of Lakhem Yadav, Sriram Yadav and Jiwan Yadav. Police said a manhunt is undergoing to nab the robbers. Sapahi, which is also the country home of President Dr. Rambaran Yadav, witnessed such robberies many times in the past.

After getting the students to locate the verbs from the news story, I asked them about the tense used in the news and why it was so. The students easily replied that it was because of the past event. Supporting their views, I explained the structure of simple past tense and its use in writing news on past event.

For the day, I simply let them read some other short news on events in the newspapers that I had taken with me. I distributed them the collection of newspapers of different dates but I did not let them write news on the very day because I had still so much to teach them about writing news in the coming lessons.

(b) The Second Day

I displayed a chart of clues to write a full news story. Then I asked them to tell me the gist of the news. The clues were-

- MMC Bags Sahara Gold Cup
- Manang Marsyangdi Club (MMC)
- Final Match between MMC and NPC
- NPC defeated RCT in Semis
- Santosh Saukhala (from MMC) scored and goal in 19th minute
- Bikash Malla from MMC scored the second goal in 78th minute
- Match held in Western Regional Stadium Pokhara

After the students made up their mind about the gist I hung another chart that contained this news-

MMC Bags Sahara Gold Cup

Pokhara, Jan 27.

The evergreen Manang Marsyangdi Club (MMC) has bagged this year's Sahara Gold Cup. It beat all time arch rival Nepal Police Club (NPC) 2-0 in the final match which was held in Western Regional Stadium, Pokhara on Wednesday, NPC entered the finals after defeating Army Club which is the defending champion of the Cup. NPC had defeated RCT in the semis. Santosh Saukhala's 19' goal gave lead to the MMC and Bikash Malla's 78' goal gave the visible domination of MMC over NPC, being the league champion of the year.

Taking a short time, I explained a little about relative clause with the following examples.

A man died yesterday. The man lived next door.

The man, who lived next door, died yesterday.

John bought a car. The car is very expensive.

John bought a car which is very expensive.

I got the job. I was hoping for the job.

I got the job that I was hoping for.

I asked the students to locate the use of relative clauses in the given news. I told them that relative pronouns like who, what, which, where, whom that are used to define or add an extra information to the NP or PP that precede those relative pronouns. Then I encouraged them to use relative clauses wherever necessary in the news story. Then I told them about some special tactics on writing news- writing headline, using dateline and mentioning all the information clearly about the event.

(c) The Third Day

On this day, I started the class with the exercise in writing news. I had prepared two exercises and taken them with me. When I wrote the following clues on the board and asked the students to put the detailed information imagining.

Man eating Tiger shot Dead

- TIger's attack to villagers of Ratanpur, Chitwan
- Villagers call for help from Army troops
- THe troop reached the village
- Tiger entered village at about 9:15 pm
- Army shot the tiger

The students were, then, asked to prepare a news story individually. I went on facilitating them while they were writing on.

After having a quick survey over their activity while they were writing, I suggested them to use past perfect tense also when it was necessary. For eg. 'The tiger had already killed three people of Ratanpur'. I told them that while talking about a past action which had taken place before another past event, we use the past perfect tense.

Since, this was an exercise lesson I gave them another list of clues to develop another news story. The clues were as follows:

School Children Abducted

- Roshan Malla, 9 and Radha Malla, 11
- Children of a millionaire Rakesh Malla
- Returning home from school
- Forcefully kept in a van at about 4:30 pm
- Call at night for ransom from kidnappers
- Rakesh informed police
- Case still under investigation by police

Students started doing the task accordingly. This time I encouraged students to use relative clauses where possible. Having observed their performances, I stopped the class thanking all of them.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

After the three day's continuous effort on teaching writing news stories, I found a satisfactory result in total. The three Nepali native speakers (11.52%) could do really well in writing news. One Tharu student (3.84%) was progressing admirably. The others were progressing in a slow pace. And since news writing itself is a technical job most of the students could not show the desired performance. I consoled them not to worry because the use of grammar was perfect and only the content was lacking. So I planned to suggest them to make the habit of reading newspapers daily.

3.1.13 Developing Paragraphs

It also was a-single-day lesson.

(i) Presentation

I entered the classroom with a plan to let the students develop paragraph on certain topics. I brought out my mobile set and asked the students to think of the advantages of using it. Then students in pair discussed the advantages of mobile phone. Having done the brainstorming activity in pair for five minutes,

I formed groups with each member of the group coming from a different pair so as to share the ideas and possibilities among the greatest number of students (as suggested by Harmer, 2006). The four groups were then asked to make notes with the shared ideas. Then the students were asked to develop a paragraph out of the notes individually. Each student got a chance to write that they thought of and the ideas of their partners. I acted as a facilitator while the students were busy writing. The points included in the paragraph were almost same nevertheless the sequence of notes varied from students to students.

Now the turn was to make notes on the disadvantages of mobile phone. The students were made to discuss and make notes in the same manner as I had done earlier. The students came up with the following disadvantages of mobile phone:

- it kills time
- youngsters misuse mobile phones
- students are disturbed
- it makes human being lazy
- harmful for health, etc.

Then they made a paragraph elaborating the points they had noted down.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

The students became used to writing through the daily practices. They brought out the thoughts about the given topic creatively. And they easily developed the paragraphs out of the notes. The performance of the Tharu and non-Tharu students did not vary to a great extent. But, the pace they had been maintaining seems still the same. The gap they initially had among them has been smaller yet not too closer.

Brainstorming really seemed a very effective activity to make the notes and build up ideas to develop paragraph. The mixture of the pair member from different pairs to form a group made easy for the students to circulate their ideas to the greatest number of the students.

3.1.14 Developing Argumentation in Writing

(a) The First Day

(i) Presentation

After warming up the students, I wrote an issue for discussion on the blackboard- "Parents should invest to educate their daughters rather than providing them with plenty of dowries in marriage."

I divided the class in to two groups. I asked one group to discuss the importance of education for women to live independent life after marriage and the other to discuss on why dowry cannot make women's life easier after marriage. Both of the groups argued for the topic but from two points of views. After the discussion in groups, students were asked to be in pair, choosing the member from different group so that a pair could share ideas from the both points of views. Then each pair made two lists, one for importance of education and the next for insufficiency of dowries for independent life for women. I assisted the students to word their thoughts in English because some students really brought some revolutionary thoughts but were unable to provoke them to emerge the thoughts. After listing out the thoughts I asked them to consult their book on population to know about access of women to education and stopped the lesson for that day.

(b) The Second Day

The lesson for that day was a continuation of developing argumentation in writing. Additionally, the students were taught to organize the paragraphs to make the whole article I wrote the titles of each paragraph and asked them to discuss on the additional topics written on the black board. The sequence of titles is as follows-

Dowry system: Culture, Compulsion or competition?

Educating daughters as a better solution

Parents efforts to educate their daughters

Government steps to check women violence in the name of dowries

After a-fifteen-minute long brainstorming I asked them to write the article in the assigned issue organizing the paragraphs in the given sequence. I helped the students in course of writing the article providing some words and their spellings.

(ii) Analysis and Reflection

While the students were writing, 3 Nepali native speakers (11.52%) and one Tharu native speaker (3.84%) did not take my help and rest of the students called me frequently for providing them with the words that could help the express their thoughts. The pairs were made mixing up the Nepali and Tharu native speakers. Three pairs i.e. six students (23.04%) were found to have less creativity. They did not show much interest in making arguments.

Brainstorming, group discussion, making notes were the techniques applied to develop argumentative writing. The six students who seemed not much interested were encouraged to think and broaden their mind by reading newspapers, books and building confidence to take part in any competition of writing. I decided to make those students the partners of some bright students so as to facilitate them in the next lesson.

3.2 Analysis and Interpretation of the Data Obtained Through Test Results

This section comprises the analysis of the scores of the students on the progressive test, pre-test and post-test.

3.2.1 Pre-Test

Before starting the experimental teaching, I administered a written test (i.e. pretest) to determine the students' initial proficiency in writing. The pre-test consisted of a guided writing, assuming that both controlled writing and free composition do not fit to test the initial proficiency, former being too narrow to measure their actual writing ability while the latter being too advanced to do so.

The scoring was holistic. The scores of the students on the pre-test were recorded in the following table:

Table No. 5
Individual Scores on Pre-Test

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage
8	1	3.84%	-	-
7	2	7.69%	1	3.84%
6	5	19.23%	1	3.84%
5	1	3.84%	1	3.84%
4	3	11.52%	3	11.52%
3	1	3.84%	7	26.88%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
		Average score:	5.5	

This table shows that the students came up with scores at varying range. Only one student who is monolingual Nepali native speaker scored 8 out of 10, whereas all the others from both groups scored less than 8. Three is the least score scored by the students which occupies 30.72% of the whole students out of which 26.88% has solely been occupied by Tharu students. The number of Nepali students scoring above average score (i.e. 5.5) is higher than that of Tharu students- the former scoring 30.76% whereas the latter scoring 7.68%. In this way, the score distribution here makes it obvious that 30.72% students scored below pass mark and no one scored 9 or 10 out of 10.

3.2.2 First Progressive Test

An incomplete dialogue was presented to the students as the first progressive test. There were 7 gaps to fill in thus 7 being the full marks. The scores obtained by the students are as follows:

Table No. 6
Individual Scores on First Progressive Test

M.O. (Out of 7)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage
7	10	38.4%	4	15.36%
6	2	7.69%	3	11.52%
5	1	3.84%	5	19.23%
4	-	-	1	3.84%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
		Average score: :	5.5	

As the table shows, 53.76% of the students obtained 7 marks out of 7 where the Tharu students shared 15.36% and the rest was done by Nepali students. This is the highest marks above the average score 5.5. The least score was 4 out of seven which was obtained by only one Tharu student (i.e. 3.84%) of the students. Twelve Nepali students (i.e. 46.08%) and 7 Tharu students (26.88%) scored above the average score. The students seem to have easily answered the problem assigned to them. And even the Tharu students have improved a lot in this test.

In the pre-test, the highest score of Nepali students was 8 and only one student had scored it whereas 7 was the highest mark scored by only one Tharu student out of 5.5 as average score. But in the first progressive test 14 students (53.76) out of 26. Tharu students seem to have progressed a lot in case of dialogue exercise.

3.2.3 Second Progressive Test

After a-three-day continuous effort on teaching developing skeleton stories, I conducted the second progressive test. The scores that the students obtained are as follows:

Table No. 7
Individual Scores on the Second Progressive Test

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage			
9	3	11.52%	2	7.69%			
8	3	11.52%	2	7.69%			
7	4	15.36%	2	7.69%			
6	3	11.52%	2	7.69%			
5	-	-	4	15.36%			
4	-	-	1	3.84%			
Total	13	50%	13	50%			
	Average score: 6.5						

Five students (i.e. 19.2%) scored the highest marks 9 out of 10 as full marks, out of which 3 students (11.52%) were Nepali and the rest were Tharu students. The least mark was 4 which only one Tharu student (3.84%) scored. The least mark for Nepali students was 6. Ten Nepali speaking students (38.4%) and 6 Tharu students (23.04%), altogether 16 students (61.44%) scored above the average score.

Since the first progressive test was close to an objective test, students scored full marks i.e. 7. And 72.96% students had scored above average score 5.5. But this test was a subjective test. Despite being a subjective test, students scored good marks. The use of strip-story technique really helped to teach story developing. But still, in comparison to Nepali students, the Tharu ones are not scoring as much as the Nepali students but the rate of progress from the part of the Tharu students is increasing.

3.2.4 Third Progressive Test

Having taught the lessons containing the simple present tense, its passive and the exercises on describing things, the test was conducted to document the results with a view to gauge the performance level of the students, who were continuously exercising on writing descriptions about animals. The students secured the following scores:

Table No. 8
Individual Scores on the Third Progressive Test

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage		
9	3	11.52%	1	3.84%		
8	5	19.2%	3	11.52%		
7	3	11.52%	3	11.52%		
6	2	7.69%	1	3.84%		
5	_	-	3	11.52%		
4	-	-	2	7.69%		
Total	13	50%	13	50%		
Average score: 6.5						

It is clear from the table that students' scores on this test varied ranging from 4 as the lowest scores, which was secured by only 7.69% students (all being the Tharu students) and the rest percent of the students scored up to 9 highest marks out of 10. The irregular score variation further gives a glimpse of the varying competence of the learners who differ in performance. The progress is going on significantly because 69.12% students scored above the average score i.e. 6.5 which was 61.44% in the second progressive test. As far as the progress of both of the groups is concerned, in comparison to the second progressive test, Nepali students seemed to have progressed but the Tharu ones could not.

3.2.5 Fourth Progressive Test

On completion of the fifteen lessons the fourth progressive test was conducted to keep in track with the learning speed and their evaluation as well as documentation. The test result thus showed that student obtaining the highest was able to obtain nine as the highest score which is very close to 10, the full

mark, though only three (two Nepali and one Tharu) students did have this score. The numbers of students with their scores have been shown in the table below:

Table No. 9
Individual Scores on the Fourth Progressive Test

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage No. of Tharu students		Percentage			
9	2	7.69%	1	3.84%			
7	2	7.69%	1	3.84%			
6	4	15.36%	3	11.52%			
5	5	19.2%	4	15.36%			
4	-	-	4	15.36%			
Total	13	50%	13	50%			
	Average score: 6.2						

It is obvious from the table that only three (two Nepali and one Tharu) students i.e. 11.52 percent of students could score 9 as the highest mark out of 10 full marks. No one secured 8 marks in this test. The number and proportion of Nepali and Tharu students who secured 7 marks is same as that of 9. The score secured by most of the students was 5, that was scored by 10 (i.e. 38.4%) students, where Tharu students were just four and the rest were Nepali students. The least score was four and it was obtained by four Tharu students.

This time, the number of students scoring above the average score considerably regressed in comparison to the previous tests. It was seen so because of some technical style of writing news. Students were suggested to be used to writing/reading English news.

3.2.6 Fifth Progressive Test

Having exercised for four days on argumentative writing, a test was administered on 'why children should go to school'. The question was an

original one from the poem 'The Donkey Boys' of the English textbook of grade nine. Majority of the students were found to have performed well. The score has been documented as follows:

Table No. 10
Individual Scores on the Fifth Progressive Test

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage
9	3	11.52%	2	7.69%
8	4	15.36%	3	11.52%
7	4	15.36%	2	7.69%
6	2	7.69%	3	11.52%
5	-	-	3	11.52%
Total	13	50%	13	50%
	<u></u>	Average score:	7	

The table shows variation in the scores and the numbers of students with scores. It is clear from the table that nearly 20% of students secured 9 out of 10 where nearly 8% was shared by Tharu students and the rest by Nepali students. Eight is the second highest marks that the majority of students i.e. 26.88% (Four Nepali and two Tharu students) scored. The number of the students who secured above the average score is more than two times higher than the number of students securing below the average score. Nearly nineteen percent students stopped at six marks and approximately twelve percent students were noticed with five marks as the lowest score of the test.

The process of writing, techniques, group works and ample opportunity for students to practise brought the better result this time than the previous ones. Two Tharu students secured the highest marks and the number of scoring second highest and mean score was also considerable. This shows the Tharu students have progressed in a rapid pace yet in totality their marks is not as high as the marks of Nepali native speakers.

3.2.7 Post-Test

After I finished the experimental teaching, I administered the post-test. The scores of the students were recorded as follows:

Table No. 11
Individual Scores on the Post-Test

M.O. (Out of 10)	No. of Nepali students	Percentage	No. of Tharu students	Percentage		
9	3	11.52%	2	7.62%		
8	6	23.04%	4	15.36%		
7	4	15.36%	4	15.36%		
6	-	-	3	11.52%		
Total	13	50%	13	50%		
Average score: 7.5						

Observation of the table shows that 9 out of 10 is the highest score obtained by nearly twenty percent students, 8 out of 10 obtained by 38.4% of them is the second highest score. Six out of ten is the lowest score distributed on 11.52% of students. In comparison to the pre-test scores, post-test scores show remarkable progress of students in writing. On the pre-test, the scores were distributed around the average score of 5.5 with 8 as the highest marks and 3 marks as the lowest score whereas the scores on the post-test are distributed around the average i.e. 7.5 which is much greater than that of pre-test.

As far as the progressing trend of Tharu and non-Tharu (Nepali) students is concerned, no Tharu student had secured the highest mark in the pre-test but two of them have scored it in the post-test and nearly 42% of the total students (i.e. 11 Tharu students) had obtained marks below the average score. Seven of them had scored the least mark i.e. three. In case of post-test, only three Tharu students obtained the least marks i.e. and being only 7 (i.e. 26.88%) of them to score below the average score.

CHAPTER-FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

After analyzing and interpreting the data I came up with the following findings:

4.1 Findings

In course of analyzing the performance of students in pre-test, time-on-task, progressive test and post-test, the monolingual Nepali students and bilingual Tharu students both progressed in writing, showing no significant in the rate of achievement. Nepali native speaker students have been maintaining their marks in totality higher than the Tharu speaking students all along nevertheless the rate of progress of both of the groups is similar. In order to carry out this study, I analyzed the data and received the reflections on three major points namely time-on-task's score analysis, analysis of progressive test scores (all together five progressive tests) and pre-test and post-tests scores analysis.

4.1.1 Findings from the Time-on-Task Result

Observing the scores of the students on the time-on-task during the teaching of four lessons, the average score mostly stayed 7 out of 10 as full marks. The number of the students scoring above the average score is more than two times higher than that of students scoring below the average score. In case of cohesion more than 90% students made mistakes in the use of 'his' to replace the Noun Phrase. Spelling also seemed as a proof of the students' overlooking habit in spelling. The Tharu students were scoring less than the Nepali students in the time-on-task.

4.1.2 Findings from the Progressive Test Scores

Some progressive tests showed better result on both of groups whereas in some of other progressive tests students could not do better than the previous tests instead even worse than the previous tests. It might be so because writing consists of various types of items and styles and some types are familiar to the

students whereas some can be difficult for them, moreover the success in one item does not necessarily predict the success in the next item too. Anyway, the success and failure in the assigned tests were success and failure for both the groups neither only for Tharu. Thus, this fact proves that the trend of progress is similar between both of the groups.

Nearly 38% Nepali students scored the highest marks in the first progressive test the percentage of Tharu students was 15.36%. But the performance in the second progressive test radically decreased i.e. only 11.52% Nepali students and 7.69% Tharu students scored the highest marks i.e. 9 out of 10.

4.1.3 Finding from the Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores

After I observed the scores of the students on pre-test and post-test, I found a considerable progress from both of the groups. The following table shows the comparison of the scores obtained by the Nepali and Tharu students in pre-test and post-test.

Table No. 12
Comparison of the Scores Obtained in the Pre-Test and Post-Test

M.O.	No. of Nep	pali Students	Percentage		No. of Tharu Students		Percentage	
of 10)	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test
9	-	3	-	11.52%	-	2	-	7.62%
8	1	6	3.84%	23.04%	-	4	-	15.36%
7	2	4	7.69%	15.36%	1	4	3.84%	15.36%
6	5	-	19.23%	-	1	3	3.84%	11.52%
5	1	-	3.84%	-	1	-	3.84%	-
4	3	-	11.52%	-	3	-	11.85%	-
3	1	-	3.84%	-	7	-	26.88%	-
	10		7 00/	7 00.	10	10	7 00/	7 00/
Total	13	13	50%	50%	13	13	50%	50%
	Average Score in Pre-Test: 5.5							
Average Score in Post-Test: 7.5								

This table reveals the vivid picture of the progress that the both groups of students made with respect to their initial proficiency. The following findings can be summed up through this table.

- a) No student secured 9 out of 10 in pre-test whereas in post-test, 3 Nepali and 2 Tharu students secured it.
- b) The average score in pre-test was 5.5 on the other hand, the score increased to 7.5 in the post-test.
- c) Only 10 (38.4%) students secured above the average score in pre-test where 8 of them were Nepali and only 2 were the Tharu students. But, in post-test, 15 (9 Nepali and 6 Tharu) students obtained above the average score i.e. 7.5.

Nepali native speaker students have been maintaining their marks in totality higher than the Tharu students all along nevertheless the rate of progress is similar.

Thus, as a researcher, I conclude that the difference between the marks they have obtained cannot be attributed to the native language they speak. Had there been two groups of students speaking same language, the result might have been similar or so.

4.2 Recommendations

The following pedagogical implications can be traced out from the findings of this study.

- (a) English is in equal access for the Nepali students and the Tharu ones. What determines the success and failure is the exposure and the environment they get, not the native language they speak. So they can be taught in a single group.
- (b) Time-on-task tests bring positive result in teaching writing. So it is better to assign the students some tasks after teaching.
- (c) Equal opportunity to all the students in writing activity can bring out the better result. The slow learners should be improved indirectly by pairing them with the cooperative fast learners.

- (d) Fun, games, strip-story and brainstorming activities can motivate the students in writing.
- (e) If we form pairs after a group discussion, it is better to form the pairs in such a way that the pair members are from the different groups so that the message can be shared to the greatest number of the students.
- (f) Reading comes prior to writing and it greatly facilitates writing in spelling, punctuation, grammar, organization, content and style. So, letting students to read long stories, texts and newspaper seems very much useful in developing writing activities.
- (g) Further researches can be carried out using the greater number of sample and in the process writing.

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APENDIX-1

Test-1

1. Rearrange the following words to make sensible sentences.	F.M10
a) Likes/mango/John/eating.	
b) a nurse/Pratibha/to/wants/beome	
c) know/you/do/swimming?	
d) meddle/was/the player/awarded/a.	
e) Ganga/a cup of/ me/ for/prepared/ tea	
2. Fill in the blanks with the words given in the brackets:	
a) I came from London last week. I will go	_ after a month
(Here, there, London)	
b) Oh! Your hair is so silky but is not. (her, my	, mine)
c) A dog died yesterday was really a nice do	og. (he, it, she)
d) Ram plays Guitar and so Hari. (do, does, is	s)
e) Suman does not know singing. I do not know it	(also, too,
either)	

APENDIX-1 Test 2

2. Write a readable story on the basis of guidelines given below:

A crow --- becomes thirsty--- roams around a city --- finds nothing to drink--- keeps trying--- finds a pitcher --- water at the bottom of pitcher --- hits an idea --- picks up some pebbles --- drops them into the pitcher ---water comes up --- quenches its thirst --- moral.

APENDIX-1

Test 3

1. Some animals may become extinct in Nepal (for example, tigers, rhinos, crocodiles and musk deer). Write a couple of paragraphs about any one of these animals. Use the clues in the box.

The animal and its physical featur	es	its natural habitat		
Reasons why it may become extin	nct	measures being ta		
it				

APENDIX-2

Lesson Plan -1

Class- 9 Time- 45 min

Subject- English Date-

Teaching Item- Sentence Structure

Objective

to make the students able to rearrange the jumbled words to meke sensible sentences.

Instructional Materials

Sentence cards of sentences with jumbled words and their well-formed counterparts.

Teaching Learning Activity

- Display of the sentences with jumbled words.
- Questions to the students whether the sentences are well-formed or not.
- Display of the well-formed counterparts of the jumbled ones.
- Writing the usual sentence patterns on the board and letting the write some sentences on the basis of given structure.

Evaluation

Giving the students some additional jumbled sentences and asking them to rearrange the words to make sensible sentences.