

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Etymologically the word “language” was derived from the Latin word ‘Lingua’ which means ‘tongue’. We use language for communication. In communicating ideas, feelings, likes and dislikes, wishes, desires, matter of displacement, etc. the use of language is necessary. According to Finnocchiaro (1964,p.8), “Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact.” Language is fundamental means of human communication. It is the most widely used means of communication through which human beings express their ideas and feelings. It is an inherent property of human beings. Every human being acquires his/her first language without being conscious. There are innumerable language communities in the world and every language community has its own language. We cannot think of any academic, social and artistic activities without language. Language is extremely complex and highly versatile code used for human communication. It is the voluntary vocal system of human communication. It is the distinctive property of mankind because of which human beings seem extra-ordinary and superior to all the species on the earth. Without language human civilization, as we know, would have remained impossible. Language is not only personal phenomenon but also social phenomenon because person, social ethnicity and geographical boundary affect it.

According to Wardhaugh (1972, p.3), “language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication”. In the same way, Sapir (1978,p.8), defines language as “a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, feelings and desires by means of a structured system of voluntarily produced symbols.”

Thus, language has been defined variously by various linguists. No single definition of language is perfect in itself. But it is widely accepted that language is a complex human phenomenon and its main function is to communicate. From the above definitions, we can conclude that language is a social phenomenon which we use in the whole community to express our ideas and feelings by means of communication through which we establish the relation in the society.

There are varieties of languages which are used in the world. Among them English is the most widely used language in the world because it has gained the status of international language. The English language is often called link language because it is used to communicate with the people who are of different linguistic backgrounds. So the sound knowledge of the English language is a basic need in these days. It is universally accepted that the English language is the most dominant language in the world since it is an international lingua-franca. It is used and taught widely in the world. English is one of the six official languages of the U.N.O. Nearly half of the world's books have been written in English. English has become the language of science, commerce, trade and international negotiations. Hence, we must benefit ourselves by this language. Almost 70% of the world's advanced research is done in English and the rest is quickly translated into English. So, it has become necessary for everyone to know English otherwise he/she will cut himself/herself off from the world knowledge. English is learned and taught as a second or foreign language in many countries. It has also been occupying a significant role in the academic field of Nepal. It has been taught as a compulsory subject from primary to university levels. English, an international language, has inevitably been important in Nepal. So, the teaching of this language is essential. Teaching English has a long history in Nepal but it is not yet claimed to be satisfactory. There are many causes behind it. One of them is the problem of choosing appropriate method for teaching it.

1.1.1 Importance of Grammar

Grammar is one of the most important aspects of any language. It is regarded as a backbone of language. Language is a type of rule governed behavior.

Grammar is a sub-set of those rules which govern the configurations of the morphology and syntax of a language. Grammar is a system of general principles for speaking and writing. In the words of Swan (1980, p. XIX), grammar is “the rules that say how words change to show different meanings, and how they are combined into sentences”. According to Richards et al. (1985, p. 125), “Grammar is a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentence in the language”. According to Hornby (1996, p.559), “Grammar is the (study or science of) rules in a language for changing the form of words and joining them into sentences.” Ur (1996, p. 75) defines grammar as “the way words are put together to make correct sentences”. Thus, grammar is the description, analysis and formalization of language patterns. It is the description of the structure of a language that allows us to form completely different sentences. If grammar means the underlying principles, then no one can handle the language without the knowledge of grammar. So, the knowledge of grammar, the most important aspect of language, is essential to be competent in the use of language.

Grammar of the English language consists of different word classes, traditionally called parts of speech. Among them adjectives and adverbs occupy an important place in grammar belonging to major word class. These two word classes are to be used correctly in the sentences to get their meaning appropriately. The knowledge of adjectives and adverbs is essential for the users of language. The same word can be used both as an adjective and an adverb depending on the sentence structure. For example, the word ‘hard’ in the sentence ‘Ann is a hard worker’ is an adjective, whereas it works as an

adverb in the sentence ‘Ann works hard’. There are some other cases like this: ‘seriously’ is an adverb but ‘friendly’ is an adjective. Whereas ‘daily’ can be both adjective and adverb (e.g. ‘A *daily* paper is published *daily*), and ‘late’ and ‘lately’ are both adverbs (but ‘late’ can also be an adjective as in ‘a late dinner’). This shows that some adjectives and adverbs have the same form and some adverbs have two forms with a different meaning. So one should be able to use such words appropriately and correctly.

1.1.2 Methods of Teaching Grammar

Various methods have been developed in language teaching, among them deductive and inductive methods have been widely applied in the classrooms. These two methods differ from one another. In deductive method, learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language. They then apply these rules when they use the language whereas in inductive method learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to induce rules from their experience of using the language. In inductive method, students are taught by providing plenty of examples and they are left to induce the underlying rules themselves. On the contrary, in deductive method students are taught by prescribing the rules directly. To quote Richards et al. (1985, p. 73),

Language teaching methods which emphasize the study of grammatical rules of a language (for example the grammar translation method) make use of the principle of deductive learning.

Language teaching methods which emphasize the use of language rather than presentation of information about the language (for example direct methods, communicative approach counseling learning) make use of the principle of inductive learning.

In short, the deductive method moves from abstract rules to concrete examples whereas the inductive method moves from concrete examples to abstract rules. Two major approaches to teaching grammar have been briefly discussed below:

1.1.2.1 Deductive Method

Deductive method starts with the presentation of grammatical rules and then is followed by examples and explanation of the rules. It can be defined as a rule-driven method. To quote Richards et al. (1985, p. 73) “language teaching methods which emphasize the study of grammatical rules of a language (for example the grammar translation method) make use of the principle of deductive learning”. Brown (1993, p. 92) says “deductive reasoning is a movement from generalization to specific instances”. Specific subsumed facts are inferred or deduced from a general principle. Similarly, Thornbury (1999, p.29) says “a deductive approach starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied”.

In deductive method, the teaching moves from abstract rules to concrete examples and proceeds from general to specific. It gets straight to the point, and can therefore be time saving. It respects the intelligence and maturity of many adult students and acknowledges the role of cognitive process in language acquisition. It allows the teacher to deal with language points as they come up, rather than anticipate them and prepare for them in advance.

Starting the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off putting for some students, especially younger ones. They may not have sufficient metalanguage. Students feel bored being lectured and stop paying attention to teaching. Explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation such as demonstration. It encourages the belief that language learning is a case of knowing the rules.

1.1.2.2 Inductive Method

This method is rule-discovery method. In this method without having met the rule, the learner studies examples and from these examples derives an understanding of the rule. The inductive method would seem to be the way one’s first language is acquired: simply through exposure to a massive amount

of input the regularities and patterns of the language become evident, independent of conscious study and explicit rule formulation. To quote Richards, et al. (1985, p. 73) “Language teaching method which emphasize the use of language rather than presentation of information about the language (for example direct method, communicative approach) make use of the principle of inductive learning.” Similarly, Brown (1993, p. 92) mentions that “in the case of inductive reasoning, one stores a number of specific instances and induces a general law of rule of conclusion that governs or subsumes the specific instances”. Thornbury (1999, p.49) says “an inductive approach starts with some examples from which a rule is inferred”.

In inductive method, the teaching moves from concrete examples to abstract rules and proceeds from specific to general. It advocates that statements or rules become meaningful to the learners when they are made by observation working with the language. The mental effort involved ensures a greater degree of cognitive depth, which ensures greater memorability. It includes problem-solving activities, which can be collaboratively solved. It makes development of extra linguistic activity. It develops student self-reliance and autonomy.

The danger with the use of this approach is that the time and energy spent in working out rules may mislead students into believing that rules are the objective of language learning, rather than a means. The time taken to work out a rule may be at the expense of time spent in putting the rule to some sort of productive practice and students may hypothesize the wrong rule.

1.1.3 Adjectives

An adjective can be defined as a word that describes or qualifies a noun or a pronoun. For example, ‘green’ in ‘a green colour’ and ‘rich’ in ‘he is rich’ are adjectives. So, adjective are words like green, rich, poor, old, happy, etc. which are used to describe people, things, events, etc. Most adjectives express quality, they tell us what something is like. An adjective always has the same form, except for comparison (short, shorter, shortest) and ‘this’, ‘that’ (plural ‘these’, ‘those’). It means an adjective does not change its form whether the noun it

qualifies is singular or plural. For example, an intelligent girl/boy, intelligent girls/boys.

Richards, et al. (1985, p.5) define an adjective as “a word that describes the things, quality, state, or action which a noun refers to. An adjective is “a word that indicates a quality of the person or thing referred to by a noun” (Hornby, 1989, p.15). Similarly, in the words of Ur (1996, p. 80), “Adjectives normally describe the things referred to by nouns or pronouns (black, serious), they may function as complement or be attached to a noun”. According to Wren and Martin (1999, p.19), “A word used with a noun to describe or point out the person, animal, place or things which the noun names, or tells the number or quantity, is called an adjective”. From these definitions, we know that adjectives are those words which are used in connection with nouns or pronouns to modify, describe or limit their meanings. For example, ‘old’, ‘rotten’, ‘hungry’ in ‘an **old** house’, ‘**rotten** apples’ and ‘he’s **hungry**’ are adjectives.

1.1.3.1 Characteristics of Adjectives

We cannot tell whether a word is an adjective or not by looking at it in isolation. Most of the commonest adjectives have no particular form or ending i.e. there is nothing which makes them look like an adjective, e.g.:- good, hot, little, young, fat, etc. But we can find some common characteristics of adjectives.

Leech and Svartvik (1979, pp. 192-193) list the following characteristics of adjectives

- i. Most adjectives can be both attributive (acting as premodifier of nouns) and predicative (acting as complement of verbs)

She is a pretty girl. Attributive

All the girls here are pretty. Predicative

- ii. Most adjectives can be modified by degree adverbs like very, quite, rather, etc. For example, she looks quite young for her age.

iii. Most adjectives can take comparative and superlative forms. Regular comparison may be expressed by adding the endings -er and -est to the adjective (e.g. younger, coldest) or by placing more and most before the adjective (e.g. more expensive, most doubtful).

Aarts and Aarts (1986, p. 28)) state that many adjectives are identifiable on the basis of typical derivational suffixes. Many adjectives are also characterized by the fact that they inflect for the comparative and the superlative forms. They give the following derivational suffixes of adjectives:

- able (-ible) : preferable, visible
- ful : beautiful, harmful
- ic (-ical) : economic(al), historic (al)
- ish : Danish, greenish
- ive : abortive, massive
- less : useless, endless
- like : ladylike, manlike, warlike

1.1.3.2 Types of Adjectives

Adjectives can be classified as follows:

1. **Adjectives of quality** show the kind or quality of a person or thing. They tell us about the quality of a noun or pronoun. They answer the question of what kind? For example:

This is a *large* city.

He is an *honest* man.

They are *Indian*.

She is *beautiful*.

2. **Adjectives of quantity** show the quantity, amount or number. They answer the question:-how much/many? For example:

He has *some* bread.

Every man has *five* fingers.

She eats *little* rice.

I've *few* friends.

3. **Demonstrative adjectives** point out which person or thing is meant.

They answer the question: which? For example:

This book is interesting.

That boy is hard working.

These apples are sweet.

Those fruits are not ripe.

4. **Distributive adjectives** refer to each one of a number of persons. For example:

Each man is responsible to develop the country.

Every man knows what to do.

Neither boy knew the answer.

5. **Interrogative adjectives** are used with nouns to ask questions. For example:

What fruit is that?

Which book do you mean?

Whose copy is this?

6. **Possessive adjectives** show the possession. For example:

This is *her* house.

Her garden is so lovely.

[The above classification of adjectives is based on Thomson and Martinet (1986) and Wren and Martin (1999).]

1.1.3.3 Position of adjectives

In terms of position, we can distinguish between the attributive and the predicative use of adjectives. Most adjectives can be used in different positions as follows:

1. Adjectives can be used attributively, i.e. they come before the noun. For example:

She is a *beautiful* girl

She is a *pretty* girl.

2. They can be used predicatively, i.e. they come after linking verbs: *be*, *seem*, *look*, *feel* as subject complement or after some verbs like *consider*, *believe*, *find*, *make* as object complement. For example:

Sita is *rich*.

He made his sister *happy*.

3. They can sometimes be postpositive, i.e. they come after the noun. For example:

heir apparent

the persons responsible

time immemorial

something larger

the president elect

body politic

court martial

the people involved

somebody important

4. Most adjectives can be either in attributive position (nice weather) or in predicative position (the weather is nice). But some are restricted in one position only.

a) Attributive only

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, pp. 382-383) call 'reference adjectives' which occur exclusively in attributive position. They list the following eight categories of such adjectives

- i. Those adjectives that show the reference of the head noun has already been determined:

{ very particular }

The precise
 same man I was seeking
 self-same
 identical
 exact

ii. Those adjectives that show the importance or rank of the head noun:

Their { main
 prime
 principal } faults
 Chief

iii. Those adjectives that show the head noun is recognized by law or custom:

The { lawful
 rightful
 legal } heir
 true

iv. Those adjectives which identify the reference of the noun itself (i.e. adjectives derived from nouns).

A medical doctor *a regular* policeman

A reserve officer *criminal* law

v. Those adjectives that qualify the time reference of the noun:

The *future* king the *present* monarch

The *late* president the *former* chairperson

vi. Those adjectives that qualify the geographical reference of the noun:

a southern gentleman *a rural* mail carrier

the *urban* crisis

vii. Those adjectives that intensify or emphasize the head noun:

A total stranger *a mere* child

Sheer fraud *utter* nonsense

viii. Those adjectives that show the uniqueness of the head noun:

the *sole* survivor

the *only* nominee

b) Predicative only

Some adjectives are used predicatively only. They are as follows [based on Leech and Svartvik (1979), Eastwood (1994), and Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999)]

i. Adjectives beginning with the prefix ‘a’:

asleep

ashamed

awake

alike

alive

alert

afraid

adrift

ii. Adjectives showing states of health (i.e. health adjectives):

well, fine, ill, unwell, faint, etc.

iii. Adjectives expressing feelings :

pleased, glad, upset

iv. The class of predicative adjectives also includes the following (i.e. adjective followed by prepositional phrases or infinitives) :

loath (to)

dependent (on)

tantamount (to)

intent (on)

flush (with)

prepared (to)

subject (to)

fond (of)

bound (for)

inclined (to)

5) Some adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively in one meaning but are restricted to attributive use in another meaning (Aarts and Aarts, 1982, p.30):

Attributive

Predicative

An old book

That book is old.

A true story

That story is true.

A perfect solution

That solution is perfect.

Attributive only

An old friend

*That friend is old.

A true hero

*That hero is true.

A perfect food

*That food is perfect.

In other cases, there is a difference in meaning between the attributive and predicative use. For example, 'a small farmer' means a man having a small farm, but 'the farmer is small' means that he is a small man physically. Let us compare other examples:

The present king

-The king is present.

His late wife

- His wife is late.

1.1.3.4 Participles Used as Adjectives

There are many adjectives that have the same form as -ing or -ed participles. It means that both present participles (-ing) and past participles (-ed) can be used as adjectives. Present participle adjectives: amusing, boring, tiring, interesting, etc. are active and mean 'having his effect'. Past participle adjectives: amused, bored, tired, interested, etc. are passive and mean 'affected in this way'.

According to Eastwood (1994, p.258), Adjectives in -ing express what something is like, the effect it has on us. For example, a show can be amusing, interesting, or boring. Adjectives in -ed express how we feel about something. For example, the audience can feel amused, interested or bored.

Examples:

Ann is bored because her job is boring.

The news was shocking.

We were very shocked when we heard the news.

John thinks politics is very interesting.

He is very interested in politics.

1.1.3.5 Comparative Forms of Adjectives

Adjectives change in form (tall, taller, tallest) to show comparison. There are three degrees of comparison: positive (tall), comparative (taller) and superlative (tallest). For an equal comparison, we use as...as instead of “more than” is called positive degree. Comparative form is used to compare between two things, whereas superlative form is used to compare more than two things. The comparative and the superlative forms are formed in the following ways:

- I. Monosyllabic adjectives (i.e. having one syllable) form their comparative and superlative by adding -er and -est to the positive form.

dark	darker	darkest
small	smaller	smallest

Only -r and -st are added with adjectives ending in ‘e’;

brave	braver	bravest
fine	finer	finest

- II. Disyllabic adjectives(i.e. having two syllables) ending in y also take -er and -est (y - i);

easy	easier	easiest
lucky	luckier	luckiest
happy	happier	happiest

- III. Some disyllabic adjectives take -er or more and -est or most;

quiet	quieter/more quiet	quietest/most quiet
clever	cleverer/more clever	cleverest/most clever.

Other such adjectives are narrow, simple, shallow, mature, polite.

IV. Adjectives of more than two syllables and some disyllabic adjectives take more and most:

expensive	more expensive	most expensive
doubtful	more doubtful	most doubtful

Other such adjectives are obscure, intelligent, mysterious, useful, serious, boring, amused, hopeless, peculiar, etc.

V. The following adjectives have irregular comparisons:

Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Many/much	more	most
Late	later	latest (of time)
Latter	last (of position)	
Far	farther	farthest (of distance only)
Farther	farthest (used more widely)	
Old	elder	eldest (of people only)
Old	oldest (of people and things)	

1.1.4 Adverbs

An adverb, which occupies an important place in grammar, belongs to major word class. The knowledge of adverb is essential for the use of language. An adverb is defined as a word, which modifies the meaning of verb, an adjective or another adverb. For example:

She runs *slowly*.

This is *very* sweet orange.

Rina reads *quite* clearly.

In the first sentence, 'slowly' modifies the verb 'runs'. In the second sentence, 'very' modifies the adjective 'sweet' and in the third sentence, 'quite' modifies

the adverb clearly. An adverb is “a word that adds more information about place, time, manner, cause or degree to adverb, an adjective, a phrase or another adverb” (OALD, 1989, p.18). According to Ur (1996, p. 80), “Adverbs describe the concepts defined by verbs (quickly, alone), adjectives or other adverbs (extremely, quite) or an entire sentence or situation (unfortunately, perhaps).” Richards et al. (1999, p. 9) define an adverb as “a word that describes or adds the meaning of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence and which answers such question of how? Where? or when?” From these definitions, we can conclude that adverbs are those words which are used to modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, phrases or the whole sentences. They are used to say when, where or how something happens.

1.1.4.1 Kinds of Adverbs

Adverbs occupy an important place in grammar, belonging to a major word class. The knowledge of an adverb is essential for the use of language.

Generally, we can say that an adverb is a word which modifies all parts of speech except noun and pronoun. On the basis of the use of adverbs, we can divide them into three groups.

1. Simple Adverb
2. Relative Adverb
3. Interrogative Adverb

There is sub-division of simple adverbs:

- a. adverb of time
- b. adverb of place
- c. adverb of manner
- d. adverbs of frequency
- e. adverbs of quantity/degree
- f. adverbs of reason
- g. adverbs of affirmation and negation

i. Simple Adverb

Simple adverb denotes time, place, manner, frequency, degree, reason and affirmation and negation. They are discussed here separately.

a. Adverb of Time

Adverbs of time show when something happens. Before, lately, already, daily, since, never, yesterday, soon, ago, etc. come under adverbs of time. For example:

She *never* reads English grammar.

I'll *soon* be there.

b. Adverb of Place

Adverbs of place show where something happens. Everywhere, up, out, away, here, in, backward, etc. come under adverbs of place. For example:

My friend is studying *abroad*.

Stand *here*.

c. Adverb of Manner

Adverbs of manner show how or in what manner something happens. This class includes all those adverbs, which are derived from adjectives and end in -ly. For example:

He speaks English *fluently*.

Children are playing *happily* in the garden.

Other examples: clearly, bravely, slowly, quickly, well, hard, fast, seriously, etc.

d. Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of frequency show how often something happens. Often, once, seldom, again, frequently, always, etc. come under adverbs of frequency. For example:

She *usually* puts on glasses.

Rita has told you *twice*.

e. Adverb of Quantity/Degree

Adverb of degree or quantity show how much, or in what degree or to what extent something happens, ‘almost, fully, very, enough, so, although, quite’, etc. come under adverbs of degree or quantity. For example:

You are *absolutely* right.

She is *quite* tall.

f. Adverb of Affirmation or Negation

Adverbs of affirmation state formally or confidently that something is true or correct whereas adverbs of negation show its absence, surely, not, no, nor, yes, definitely, etc. come under adverbs of affirmation or negation. For example:

He certainly went.

There is no water in the pond.

g. Adverbs of Reason

Adverbs of reason show the cause of something or somebody doing something, hence, so, etc. come under adverbs of reason. For example:

He wants to go to Korea, so he’s learning Korean.

She couldn’t pass the exam. *Therefore*, she is very upset.

ii. Relative Adverbs

Relative clauses which tell us where, when or why a thing happened are introduced by the relative adverbs. When, where and why come under relative adverbs. For example:

Tell me the year *when* you were born.

This is the house *where* I live.

iii. Interrogative Adverbs

Interrogative adverbs are used in asking questions. When?, where?, why?, how?, come under interrogative adverbs. For example:

When do you get up?

Why are you writing a letter?

1.1.4.2 Position of Adverbs

- I. Adverbs of manner (e.g. quickly, well, fast) generally come after the verb or after the object when there is one. For example:

He runs *quickly*.

She speaks English *well*.

- II. Adverbs of place (e.g. now, today, then) are usually placed after the verb or after the object when there is one. For example:

He lives *abroad*.

They hang the picture *there*.

Write *now*.

I met him *yesterday*.

But adverbs of time can be placed at the beginning of the sentence. For example:

Then he went home. He went home *then*.

- III. When adverbs of manner, place and time occur in the same sentence, the normal order is: Manner + place + Time (i.e. MPT). For example:

She was sitting *quietly* in her armchair. (M+P)

He spoke English *fluently* yesterday. (M+T)

Hari goes to work *every* morning. (P+T)

Sita spoke *slowly* at the meeting last night. (M+P+T)

IV. Adverbs of frequency (e.g. always, often, never, usually, rarely, etc.) and certain other adverbs like just, already, even, almost, hardly, nearly, quite, also, probably, etc. go with the verbs in the middle of a sentence.

a) These adverbs are usually placed before the verb if the verb is one word (main verb only). For example:

Rajesh *always* goes to work by car.

I *quite* agree with you.

They *usually* have breakfast at seven.

b) But these adverbs go after *is/am/was/were*. For example:

We were *also* hungry.

She is *never* on time.

They are *probably* at home.

c) These adverbs are placed after the first word if there are two or more words in the verb. For example:

He has *just* arrived from London.

I can *never* remember her name.

Ann doesn't *usually* smoke.

But 'probably' goes before the negative. For example:

I *probably* won't see you. Or I will *probably* not see you.

d) These adverbs are normally placed before the verb when they are stressed or in short responses. For example:

'When will you write the essay? 'But I *already* have written it'.

I have never done it and I *never* will.

- V. When an adverb modifies an adjective or another adverb, the adverb usually comes before it. For example:

She speaks *so* quickly. He is *so* stupid.

She is *quite* beautiful but *rather* lazy.

The food was *too* hot to eat.

But the adverb ‘enough’ goes after the word it modifies. For example:

She shouldn’t get married yet. She is not old *enough*.

You won’t pass the exam if you don’t work hard *enough*.

1.1.4.3 Comparison of Adverbs

- i. If the adverb is of one syllable, we form its comparative form by adding -er and the superlative by adding -est, to the positive, as

Fast	faster	fastest
Long	longer	longest
Soon	sooner	soonest

- ii. Adverbs ending in -ly form the comparative by adding “more” and the superlative by adding most, as

skillfully	more skillfully	most skillfully
quickly	more quickly	most quickly

- iii. Some of the commonest adverbs form their comparative and superlative degree irregularly. i.e.

Badly	worse	worst
Well	better	best
Much	more	most
Little	less	least

1.1.5 Difference Between Adjectives and Adverbs

1. Adjectives are words like *old, hungry, small, tired* etc. which are used to describe people, things, events, etc. They tell us something about a noun or a pronoun. They can be used in two ways:

i. Attributive position, i.e. before nouns. For example:

a *beautiful* girl

a *careful* driver

ii. Predicative position, i.e. after some verbs like *be, seem, look, feel, sound, appear, smell*, etc.

For example: She is *beautiful*.

He looks *tired*.

2. Adverbs are words like *carefully, soon, tomorrow, always*, etc. which are used to say when and where something happened about a verb. They tell us how somebody does something or how something happens. For example: She dances *beautifully*.

He drives *carefully*. I'm coming soon.

Adverbs can be used in other ways:

i. to modify adjectives:

You are *extremely* handsome.

ii. to modify other adverbs:

She walks *very slowly*.

iii. to modify a whole sentence:

Frankly, I do not like her at all.

Briefly, that's all she has said.

iv. to modify a prepositional phrase:

You are *completely* out of your mind.

I) Adverbs are also used before a past participle (injured, organized, written, etc.):

The driver of the car was *seriously* injured.

The party was very *badly* organized.

1.1.5.1 Adjectives and Adverbs: Confusing Cases

1. Many adverbs are made from adjectives by adding *-ly*. For example:

Adjective	Adverb
quick	quickly
serious	seriously
careful	carefully
quiet	quietly

But some words ending in *-ly* are adjectives, not adverbs. For example:
friendly, lively, likely, lovely, lonely, silly, elderly, ugly, deadly, costly

Other words ending in *-ly* can be both adjectives and adverbs. For example:
daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, hourly, early.

A *daily* paper is published *daily*. (Adj., Adv.)

We got up *early* to catch an *early* bus. (Adj., Adv.)

2. Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form, i.e. the same word can be used sometimes as an adjective sometimes as an adverb. For example:

Adjectives	Adverbs
a <i>fast</i> train	The train goes <i>fast</i> .
an <i>early</i> bus	The bus arrived <i>early</i> .
a <i>long</i> wait	You don't have to wait <i>long</i> .
the <i>back</i> door	Come <i>back</i> soon.
a <i>hard</i> work	He works <i>hard</i> .
the <i>right</i> answer	Turn <i>right</i> there.

a *straight* line

He went *straight* to the door.

the *wrong* way

she led us *wrong*.

3. **Good** is an adjective and **well** is its adverb (e.g. a good singer sings *well*.) But *well* is also an adjective meaning ‘in good health’ (the opposite of ‘*ill*’). In this sense, *well* is only used after the verb:

I am *well*.

‘How are you?’ – ‘very *well*’ / ‘Fine, thank you’.

4. Some adverbs have two forms (e.g. *late and lately*), one like the adjective and the other with –ly. But they have different meanings. The most important adverbs in this group are: *late/lately*, *hard/hardly*, *direct/directly*, *short/shortly*, *near/nearly*, *high/highly*, *deep/deeply*, *free/freely*, *most/mostly*, *pretty/prettily*, *right/rightly*, *just/justly*, *wrong/wrongly etc.*

They work hard. I could hardly recognize her. (=scarcely)

I often stay up late. I have been unwell lately. (=recently)

She is pretty (=very) tall. She was prettily dressed (=attractively)

Adjectives and adverbs are two major word classes in English grammar. So they play a vital role in English grammar and they are also difficult to use properly. The difficulty will be in terms of their position in sentences since every adjective and every adverb cannot be placed in every place in sentences. There can be attributive and predicative use of adjectives. Some adjectives are used only attributively (e.g. *main, chief, mere, etc.*) or only predicatively (e.g. *asleep, awake, well, etc.*) and some change their meaning when moved from one position to the other (e.g. compare: ‘the present king’ and ‘The king is present’). Similarly, adverbs in sentences have certain positions (e.g. ‘He is quite handsome’, not *He is handsome quite; ‘I am going to London on Sunday’, not *I am going on Sunday to London). So, the knowledge in the use of adjectives and adverb is vital. One should be proficient enough in using them

properly. They are used frequently and are introduced to the students from the very beginning to very advanced level.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Many research works have been carried out so far particularly at comparing different methods of teaching grammar in terms of their effectiveness in the context of Nepal. Some of them related to this study are summarized below:

Sitaula (1999) conducted a study to find out which method (inductive or deductive) is more effective to teach passivization. In that case inductive method was found relatively more effective than the deductive one in general. Rijal (2006) carried out a comparative study to measure relative effectiveness of two methods i.e. inductive and deductive in teaching simple present tense in English. She found that the inductive method was more effective than the deductive one in teaching simple present tense in English. Here, Rijal suggested us to apply the inductive method in language teaching. Gotame (2007) studied practically to measure the relative effectiveness of the two methods in teaching conditionals in English. She found that the deductive method was more effective than the inductive one to teach conditionals in English. Pokhrel (2007) conducted a research to find out the relative effectiveness of two methods in teaching communicative functions. He found that inductive method was more effective than the deductive one.

Neupane (2004) studied the proficiency of the B.B.S. and B.Ed. first year students in the use of adjectives and adverbs. He compared the status of proficiency in terms of campus and sex. His findings showed that the overall proficiency of the students was satisfactory since they secured above 50% marks. Soud (2004) studied the proficiency of B.Ed. second year students in the use of adjectives and adverbs. His findings showed that the overall proficiency of B.Ed. second year students in the use of adjectives and adverbs was satisfactory. Gautam (2008) carried out a research on the proficiency of grade twelve students in the use of adjectives. His findings showed that the overall proficiency of the students in the use of adjectives was satisfactory. Shah

(2008) conducted a research to find out the proficiency of the grade eight students of Parsa district in the use of adverbs and compared their proficiency in terms of schools, area and sex. He found that the overall proficiency of the students in the use of adverbs was satisfactory since they crossed 50% marks. Even though, several studies have been done on different aspects of grammar, no studies have been carried out to determine the effectiveness of inductive method in teaching English adjectives and adverbs. Therefore, this research attempts to assess the effectiveness of inductive method in teaching English adjectives and adverbs.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were as follows.

- i. To find out effectiveness of inductive method in teaching English Adjectives and Adverbs.
- ii. To suggest pedagogical implications of the findings of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study attempted to find out the effectiveness of inductive method in teaching English adjectives and adverbs. So, the findings of the study will be significant in the field of language teaching. It will be significant to language students, teachers, textbook writers, and curriculum and syllabus designers, methodologists and to those who are involved directly and indirectly in the field of English language teaching.

CHAPTER – TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher followed the following methodology to obtain the above objectives:

2.1 Sources of Data Collection

Both primary and secondary sources of data were used to collect the information.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The primary data for the study was collected by administering a pre-test and a post test to the students of grade six in a private boarding school of Gulmi district named Chakreshwor English Boarding school. The pre-test was given before starting actual teaching and the post-test was given after teaching English adjectives and adverbs. The questions were the same for both the tests.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

Secondary sources of data signify the written documents. Different books related to this study were consulted for constructing test and teaching materials. Some of them are Aarts and Aarts (1986), Leech and Svartvik (1986), Richards et al. (1985), Sapir (1978), Thornbury (1999), Brown (1993), Kumar (1999),etc.

2.2 Sampling Procedures

The researcher purposively selected Chakreshwor Secondary English Boarding School, Shantipur, Gulmi as a research area of the study. The researcher used random sampling procedure to select the students of grade six and 40 students were taken for the study. These students were divided into two groups: experimental group and controlled group using systematic sampling procedure on the basis of the personal score of the pre-test .The researcher tried to maintain equal proficiency level of both the groups.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

A set of test items was the main tools for the collection of primary data. It consisted of six different test items which carried altogether 100 marks. The following types of test items were used for the collection of primary data.

- a) Finding out the types of adverb used in the sentences.
- b) Changing the form of adjectives given in the brackets into adverbs.
- c) Writing comparative and superlative forms of the given adjectives and adverbs.
- d) Using the given adjectives in sentences.
- e) Using the given adverbs in sentences.
- f) Rewriting the sentences with the adjective used separately after a verb.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

For data collection, I followed the following procedures:

- i. I visited the concerned schools and requested the concerned authority for the permission to carryout the research.
- ii. When the permission was granted, I established the rapport with subject teacher as well as students and explained the purpose and process of the research.
- iii. A written pretest was administered to determine the proficiency level of the students upon the given topic, 'Adjectives and Adverbs.'
- iv. The total students were divided into two groups i.e. 'A' and 'B' on the basis of odd and even rank in the merit list prepared on the basis of the score obtained in the pre-test. The ranking procedures and group division were made in the following ways:

Pre-test rank	Group 'A'	Group 'B'
1-10	Odd	Even
11-20	Even	Odd
21-30	Odd	Even
31-40	Even	Odd

- v. Teaching items were the same for both groups but methods were different. Group 'A' was taught by using inductive method and group 'B' was taught by using deductive method.
- vi. Each group was taught 24 lessons, after teaching 24 lessons, the post-test was administered. The questions of the post-test were the same as the pre-test. Later, the results of two tests were compared and conclusion was drawn to determine the effectiveness of inductive method for teaching English adjectives and adverbs.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

- i. The study was limited to Chakreshwor English boarding school, Shantipur, Gulmi.
- ii. Only the forty students of grade six of the same school were included as the sample of this study.
- iii. The teaching period was limited to only up to four weeks.
- iv. The primary data was collected only from the written test.
- v. The effectiveness of inductive method was tested by teaching English adjectives and adverbs.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter mainly consists of analysis and interpretation of the data. The main concern of the researcher in this study was to find out the effectiveness of inductive method in teaching English adjectives and adverbs. For this purpose, the researcher initially administered the pre-test to find out the actual level of performance and divided the students into the experimental and the control group. Finally, after teaching the selected items, the researcher administered the post-test. The difference of the scores between the pre-test and the post-test of each item was changed into percentage and compared to each other to find out the effective performance of the students in each and every item and in the whole test. In every research, it is assumed that the higher the percentage better the result and vice-versa. The data were analyzed and compared on the basis of the following headings:

- i. Holistic comparison
- ii. Item wise comparison

3.1 Holistic Comparison

This section mainly consists of holistic comparison of the scores obtained by the experimental and control group in the pre-test and the post-test. The scores obtained by the experimental and control group are presented below:

Table No. 1

Overall Performance of Groups in the Pre-test and Post-test

Group	F.M.	Av. Score in pre-test	Av. score in post-T.	D	D %
Exp.	100	55.25	82.50	27.25	27.25
Cont.	100	52.70	73.70	21.00	21.00

The test consisted of 50 items. Each item carried two marks. The above table shows that the average scores obtained by the experimental group were 55.25 in the pre-test and 82.50 in the post-test. This group increased its average score

by 27.25 percent. It means that the difference of the score between the pre-test and post-test was 27.25 percent. Similarly, the average scores obtained by the control group in the pre-test and post test were 52.70 and 73.70 respectively. The control group increased the average score by 21.00 or 21.00 percent in the post test. It indicates that the experimental group has learned English adjectives and adverbs relatively better than the control group on the whole. This shows that inductive method was better than the deductive method for teaching adjectives and adverbs.

3.2 Item-wise Comparison

This category consisted of different test items namely finding out types of adverbs, fill in the blanks, writing comparative and superlative form, rewriting the sentences with adjective, sentence formation of adjective and adverb. The scores obtained by each group in these test items are as follows.

Identification of Types of Adverb

This category consisted of 10 items with the weightage of 2 marks for each group. In this category, the students were required to identify the types of adverb used in the sentences. The marks obtained by the both groups in this type of test items are presented below:

Table No. 2

Identification of Types of Adverb

Group	F.M.	Av. score in pre-test	Av. score in post-T.	D	D %
Exp.	20	11.3	16.85	5.55	27.75
Cont.	20	12.1	15.70	3.6	18.00

The above table reflects that the average scores obtained by the experimental group were 11.33 in the pre-test and 16.85 in the post test. The difference of their mark was by 5.55 or 27.75 percent. This means that experimental group increased its average score by 5.55 or 27.75 percent. Similarly, the average

scores obtained by the control group were 12.1 in the pre-test and 15.70 in the post-test. The difference of their mark was by 3.6 or 18.0 percent.

It proves that experimental group performed comparatively better than the control group in the post-test. But the difference in the score of both groups does not seem to be significant.

Fill in the Blanks

This category consisted of 10 items and each item carried 2 marks. In this category, the students were required to change the adjectives given in the brackets into adverbs and fill in the blanks. The marks obtained by the both groups in this type of test items are presented below.

Table No.3

Fill in the Blanks

Group	F.M.	Av. score in pre-test	Av. score in post-T.	D	D %
Exp.	20	10.50	17.65	7.15	35.75
Cont.	20	10.05	16.80	6.75	33.75

The above table shows that the average score of experimental group was 10.50 in the pre-test and 17.65 in the post test. This group increased its mark by 7.15 or 35.75 percent. Similarly, the average score of controlled group was 10.05 in the pre-test and 16.80 in the post test. This group increased its mark by 6.75 or 33.75 percent. The difference in the score of both groups does not seem to be significant.

Writing Comparative and Superlative Forms of Adjectives

This category consisted of 10 items and each item carried 2 marks. In this category, the students were required to write comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. The marks obtained by the both groups in this type of test items are presented below.

Table No.4

Writing Comparative and Superlative Forms of Adjectives

Group	F.M.	Av score in pre-test	Av score in post T.	D	D %
Exp.	20	12.30	17.90	5.60	28.00
Cont.	20	11.95	17.30	5.35	26.75

The above table shows that the average score of experimental group was 12.30 in the pre-test and 17.90 in the post test. This group increased its mark by 5.60 or 28.00 percent. Similarly, the average score of controlled group was 11.95 in the pre-test and 17.30 in the post test. This group increased its mark by 5.35 or 26.75 percent. The difference in the score of both groups does not seem to be significant.

Rewriting the Sentences with the Adjectives

This category consisted of 10 items and each item carried 2 marks. In this category, the students were required to rewrite the sentences with adjectives used separately after a verb. The marks obtained by the both groups in this type of test items are presented below.

Table No.5

Rewriting the Sentences with the Adjective

Group	F.M.	Av score in pre-test	Av score in post test	D	D %
Exp.	10	6.40	8.55	2.15	21.5
Cont.	10	5.60	7.15	1.55	15.50

The above table shows that the average score of experimental group was 6.4 in the pre-test and 8.55 in the post-test. This group has increased its mark by 2.15 or 21.5 percent. Similarly, the average score of control group was 5.6 in the pre-test and 7.15 in the post- test. This group has increased its mark by 1.55 or 15.50 percent. The difference in the score of both groups does not seem to be significant.

Making Sentences by Using Adjectives

This category consisted of 10 items and each item carried 2 marks. In this type of category, the students were required to make sentences by using adjectives. The marks obtained by the both groups in this type of test items are presented below.

Table No. 6

Making Sentences by Using Adjectives

Group	F.M.	Av score in pre-test	Av score in post test	D	D %
Exp.	20	12.35	16.25	3.90	19.05
Cont.	20	9.85	12.6	2.75	13.75

The above table shows that the average score of experimental group was 12.35 in the pre-test and 16.25 in the post-test. This group has increased its mark by 3.90 or 19.05 percent. Similarly, the average score of controlled group was 9.85 in the pre-test and 12.6 in the post test. This group has increased its mark by 2.75 or 13.75 percent.

It indicates that experimental group is comparatively better than the control group in their performance in the post- test. In this case, the inductive method was found to be better than the deductive method.

Making Sentence by Using Adverbs

This category consisted of 5 items and each item carried 2 marks. In this type of category, the students were required to make sentences by using adverbs. The marks obtained by the both groups in this type of test items are presented below.

Table No.7

Making Sentence by Using Adverbs

Group	F.M.	Av score in pre-test	Av score in post test	D	D %
Exp.	10	2.65	5.25	2.60	26
Cont.	10	3.15	4.25	1.10	11

The above table shows that the average score of experimental group was 2.65 in the pre-test and 5.25 in the post- test. This group increased its mark by 2.6 or 26 percent. Similarly, the average score of controlled group was 3.15 in the pre-test and 4.25 in the post test. This group has increased its mark by 1.1 or 11 percent. It shows that experimental group was comparatively better than control group in their performance.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

The objective of this study was to find out the effectiveness of inductive method in teaching English adjectives and adverb. On the basis of this objective, the researcher collected the data by teaching the students for a month, dividing them into two groups. Both groups were taught two different language items i.e. adjectives and adverbs.

Fifty questions related to English adjectives and adverbs were prepared for the pre-test and post-test. Both groups were taught the same subject matter using the same materials. The only difference between experimental group and controlled group was that inductive method was used in group 'A' (experimental) and deductive method was used in group 'B' (control). The following findings are derived from the analysis of the data.

- i. The holistic result shows that the average increment percentage obtained by the experimental group was 27.25 and control group was 21.00. It indicates that experimental group made remarkable improvement than control group.
- ii. Comparing the results of the experimental and control group in 'identifying of types of adverb item', the inductive method was found to be more effective than the deductive method because experimental group has the average increment percentage of 27.75% whereas control group has the average increment percentage of 18.0% in the same category.
- iii. Observing the results of the students in 'fill in the blanks' and 'writing comparative and superlative form of adjective' items, it was found that the experimental group performed better than the control group.
- iv. The result drawn out from 'rewriting sentence' item showed that the experimental group performed better than the control group.

- v. The result drawn out from ‘making sentence of adverb’ item shows that the experimental group performed better than the control group.

The above result showed that teaching English adjectives and adverbs through inductive method (experimental group) was more effective than teaching through deductive method (control group).

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the above findings, the following recommendations for pedagogical implications have been derived.

- a. The experimental group performed comparatively better in the test items than the control group. Thus, it indicates that inductive method is more effective than deductive method for teaching English adjectives and adverbs. So that, inductive method should be used for teaching English adjectives and adverbs in grade six.
- b. Inductive method should be used to teach English adjectives and adverbs in general. In inductive method, the students should be left to do ample practice rather than recite the rules from the beginning. It helps them to make the underlying rules themselves. They become active in learning. While using the deductive method, students remain passive and they are not eager to learn. They only recite the rules passively. They only know the rules but not the meaning and use of sentences. So, inductive method plays vital role in teaching English adjectives and adverbs.
- c. The language teachers, syllabus designers and methodologists should emphasize for the application of inductive method in teaching English adjectives and adverbs.
- d. Inductive method assists to enhance students’ creativity and oral efficiency because they are more curious and active for finding out the rules by observing sentences. Even the shy and poor students get

facilitated. So that, it can be used to increase creativity in the students.

- e. This study was conducted in one of the private school of Gulmi district. It was limited to only 40 students. So, it cannot be claimed that the findings of this study are applicable to all the schools. Therefore, it is suggested that further research in different schools should be carried out involving a large number of students to make the findings more reliable and valid.

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APPENDIX-I

Test Items (Pre-test/Post-test)

Name of the student:	Full Marks: 100
Class:.....	Roll No.:
School's Name:	Time: 2hrs
	Obtained Marks:

Q.1. Find out the types of adverb used in the sentences. The adverb types have been given. Pick up the right letter to write in the box to indicate your choice. **20**

A) adverb of time B) adverb of place C) adverb of degree

- a. He ran downstairs. For example

B

- b. I went to a restaurant last week.
- c. That's really great!
- d. How about going to the movies tomorrow.
- e. Run away!
- f. They are extremely cautious.
- g. Are you still writing?
- h. I can't find my pen anywhere.
- i. My dog is sleeping under .
- j. Ram has already written his homework.
- k. She is quite tall.

Q.2. Change the adjectives given in the brackets into adverbs and fill in the blanks. **20**

- a. We must think ...reasonably... (reasonable) to decide. What is right and what is wrong.
- b. She speaks English (good).

- c. The aeroplane flew..... (high) in the sky.
- d. He is..... (bad) hurt in the flight.
- e. They are shouting..... (crazy) at me.
- f. His idea was (practical) useful to us.
- g. 'Muna Madan' is a (remarkable) great story.
- h. Your writing is terrible. I can..... (hard) read.
- i. He looked at me (angry) when I interrupted him.
- j. Hari drove..... (careful) along the narrow road.
- k. He writes (fast).

Q.3. Write comparative and superlative forms of the following adjectives. 20

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Ans. Bright	brighter	brightest
Hard
Early
Young
Expensive
Many/much
Deep
Far
Fast
Happy
Beautiful

Q.4. As in the examples, rewrite these sentences with the adjective used separately after a verb. 10

For example: She is a beautiful lady.

She is beautiful.

a) He is an intelligent teacher.

.....

b) My father is a tall man.

.....

c) Caves are dangerous places.

.....

d) The crow is a black bird.

.....

e) They were brave soldiers.

.....

Q.5. Use the following adjectives in your own sentences. 20

Intelligent.....

Large.....

Beautiful.....

Sad.....

Young.....

Honest.....

Happy.....

Good.....

Yellow.....

Interesting.....

Q.6. Use the following adverbs in your own sentences. 10

Slowly

clearly.....

Everyday.....

Soon.....

quite.....

Appendix – II

Rank of the Students according to the Pre-test result

R.N.	Name of students	Obtained Marks
1	Saroj subedi	85
2	Manoj subedi	71
3	Dhurba khatri	66
4	Kamal sharma	66
5	Bipin kharel	64
6	Deepak karki	64
7	Raju Thapa	64
8	Pooja Gaha	62
9	Rajan sharma	61
10	Usha thapa	60
11	Anil pun	59
12	Dhirendra Basnet	59
13	Roshan sharma	58
14	Shardha chhetri	58
15	Ganesh thapa	58
16	Jasmin pun	57
17	Ritu paudyal	56
18	Rojeena pun	54
19	Binod B.K.	53
20	Sulil Thapa	53
21	Asmita thapa	52
22	Gagan Thapa	52
23	Manisha sharma	50
24	Meena Khatri	50
25	Bishal Thapa	50
26	Sudha Thapa	50
27	Sandeep Thapa	50
28	Gaurav Shah	48
29	Niroj K.c.	48
30	Mohan B.K.	48
31	Kamal Basnet	48
32	Nisha Thapa	47
33	Pushpa Subedi	47
34	Tara Thapa	47
35	Prakash paudyal	46
36	Laxman Thapa	46
37	Ramu Kauchha	46
38	Subash khatri	44
39	Sajjan Khatri	44
40	Laxman Chhetri	18

Appendix -III

Group division on the basis of odd-even ranking process of the Pre-test

Experimental Group

R.N	Name of Students	Obtained Marks
1	Saroj Subedi	85
3	Dhurba Khatri	66
5	Bipin Kharel	64
7	Raju Thapa	64
9	Rajan Sharma	61
11	Anil Pun	59
13	Roshan Thapa	58
15	Ganesh Thapa	58
17	Ritu paudyal	56
19	Binod B.k.	53
21	Asmita Thapa	52
23	Manisha Sharma	50
25	Bishal Thapa	50
27	Sandeep Thapa	50
29	Niroj K.C.	48
31	Kamal Basnet	48
33	Pushpa Subedi	47
35	Prakash Paudyal	46
37	Ramu Kauchha	46
39	Sajjan Khatri	44

Control Group

R.N.	Name of Students	Obtained Marks
2	Manoj Subedi	71
4	Kamal Sharma	66
6	Deepak karki	64
8	Pooja Gaha	62
10	Usha Thapa	60
12	Dhirendra Basnet	59
14	Shardha Chhetri	58
16	Jasmin pun	57
18	Rojeena Pun	54
20	Susil Thapa	53
22	Gagan Thapa	52
24	Meena Khatri	50
26	Sudha Thapa	50
28	Gaurav Shah	48
30	Mohan B.K.	48
32	Nisha Thapa	47
34	Tara Thapa	47
36	Laxman Thapa	46
38	Subash Khatri	44
40	Laxman Chhetri	18

APPENDIX – IV

Lesson plan -1

Group ‘A’

Method: Inductive

Name of School:

Time: 45 min.

Unit:

Date:

Class: Six

Teaching items: Teaching interrogative and possessive adjectives

Step 1: The teacher writes the following three sets of sentences on the board.

1.a What fruit is that?

b. This is her house.

2.a. which book do you mean?

b. Her garden is so lovely.

3.a. Whose copy is this?

b. Ram is my uncle.

She asks the class first to identify the interrogative and possessive adjectives in each of the sets and establishes that each sentence ‘a’ is an example of interrogative adjectives whereas each sentence ‘b’ is an example of the possessive adjectives. If the students are in any doubt about this, she will quickly recap the structure of interrogative and possessive adjectives.

Step 2: Then she asks the learners to consider the differences in meaning in each case (1-3) and to see if they can come up with a general rule for the difference between the interrogative and possessive adjectives. She allows them to discuss this in pairs. In checking this task, she elicits the fact that the interrogative adjectives are used with nouns to ask questions whereas possessive adjectives show the possession.

Step 3: She divides the class into different groups on the basis of number of students and tells them to fill in the blanks.

1)fruit is that ?

a) what b) this c)those

2) This ishouse.

a) her b)this c)which

3).....copy is this?

a)whose b)what c)her

4).....garden is so lovely.

a)her b) which c)what

Step 4: The teacher tells the students to make some sentences by using interrogative and possessive adjectives.

Group - 'B'

Method: Deductive

(Objectives, Teaching item and Evaluation will be the same as in group 'A', only the methods and teaching activities will be different.)

Step 1: The teacher

) shows the sentence cards to the students.

) writes the structures on the board of interrogative and possessive adjectives.

) makes some sentences on the basis of that structure of interrogative and possessive adjectives.

) tells them to read loudly and identify the interrogative and possessive adjectives. If they feel difficult, she quickly recaps the structures of interrogative and possessive adjectives.

J defines about interrogative and possessive adjectives to clarify them.

Step 2: She divides the class into different groups on the basis of number of students and tells them to fill in the blanks by choosing correct adjective.

1)fruit is that ?

a) what b) this c) those

2) This is.....house.

a) her b) this c)which

3).....copy is this?

a)whose b)what c)her

4).....garden is so lovely.

a) her b) which c)what

Step 3: The teacher tells the students to make some sentences by using interrogative and possessive adjectives.

Lesson Plans-2

Group 'A'

Teaching items: Comparative forms of adjectives

Step 1: The teacher writes some sentences on the board. For example:

Ram is taller than Hari.

Sugar is more expensive than oil.

Mira is shorter than Rita.

Sita is more beautiful than Rita.

The teacher will read the sentences loudly and also she will tell the students to follow her. Then she asks the students to observe the sentences and identify the

comparative forms of adjectives. She allows them to discuss this in pairs. In checking this task, she elicits the fact that the comparative form of adjective can be used to compare only between two things or persons.

Step 2: She divides the class into different groups and tells them to find out the form of adjectives which are given below.

Bright	brighter	brightest
Happy	happier	happiest
Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
Short	shorter	shortest

Step 3: The teacher will tell them to make some sentences in comparative form.

Group ‘B’

Step 2 and 3 will be the same as in group ‘A’

Step 1: The teacher will

-) show the sentence cards to the students.
-) write the structure of comparative form of adjective.
-) make some sentences on the basis of that structure.
-) let the students to read loudly and then tell them to identify the comparative form of adjectives.
-) define that the comparative form of adjective is used to compare only between two things or persons

Lesson plan-3

Group 'A'

Teaching items: Adverb of time

Step 1: The teacher writes some sentences using the adverbs of time on the blackboard. For example:

She never reads English grammar.

I will soon be there.

He has already finished his homework.

He had gone to KTM. before two years ago.

She will read the sentences loudly and tells the students to follow her. Then, she asks the students to observe the sentences and find out the adverbs of time. If the students are in any doubt about this, she quickly recaps the rules of adverb of time and she elicits the fact that the adverb of time show when something happens. Before, lately, already, daily, etc. come under the adverb of time.

Step 2: The teacher will divide the students into different groups and tells them to find out the adverbs of time from the following sentences.

I went to a restaurant last week.

Are you still writing?

I can not find my pen anywhere.

He has already gone to school.

Step 3: The teacher will tell the students to write some sentences using the adverb of time.

Group 'B'

(Step 2 and 3 will be the same as in group 'A')

Step 1: The teacher will

show the flash cards, sentence cards of adverb of time to the students.

write the structures of adverb of time on the blackboard.

make some sentences by using adverb of time. For example:

She never reads English grammar.

I will soon be there.

He has already finished his homework.

Then she asks the students to identify the adverb of time. If they will not be able to identify, she will quickly recap the structure of adverb of time.

Appendix – III

Item-wise Individual Scores of Experimental Group in the Pre-test

R.N	Name	Find out items	Fill in the blanks	Writing C. and S. form	Rewriting sentence	Sentence formation of adj.	Sentence formation of adv.	Total
1	Saroj subedi	16	16	18	9	18	8	85
3	Dhurba khatri	16	12	18	6	10	4	66
5	Bipin kharel	14	14	14	8	14	0	64
7	Raju Thapa	12	12	18	4	14	4	64
9	Rajan Sharma	16	14	10	9	10	2	61
11	Anil Pun	14	8	10	8	16	3	59
13	Roshan Sharma	14	10	14	6	12	2	58
15	Ganesh Thapa	8	12	12	8	14	4	58
17	Ritu Paudyal	18	8	8	6	12	4	56
19	Binod B.K.	12	14	8	8	10	1	53
21	Asmita Thapa	12	10	10	4	14	2	52
23	Manisha Sharma	10	8	12	4	12	4	50
25	Bishal Thapa	6	8	14	8	10	4	50
27	Sandeep Thapa	4	12	10	6	16	2	50
29	Niroj K.C.	4	12	12	6	12	2	48
31	Kamal Basnet	12	0	12	6	16	2	48
33	Pushpa Subedi	12	6	12	8	8	1	47
35	Prakash Paudyal	10	10	8	4	10	4	46
37	Ramu Kauchha	6	16	14	4	6	0	46
39	Sajjan Khatri	10	8	10	6	10	0	44
Total Marks		226	210	244	128	244	53	1105
Average marks		11.30	10.50	12.20	6.40	12.20	2.65	55.25
Percentage		56.50	52.50	61.00	64.00	61.00	26.50	55.25

Item-wise Individual Scores of Experimental Group in the Post-test

R.N	Name	Finding out item	Fill in the blanks	Writing C. and S. form of adj.	Rewriting sentence	Sentence formation of adj.	Sentence formation of adv.	Total
1	Saroj Subedi	19	19	20	9	19	8	94
3	Dhurba Khatri	18	19	19	9	15	7	87
5	Bipin Kharel	18	18	16	9	17	6	84
7	Raju Thapa	16	18	20	9	18	8	89
9	Rajan Sharma	18	20	18	9	16	6	87
11	Anil Pun	16	16	18	8	17	4	79
13	Roshan Sharma	19	19	20	9	16	5	88
15	Ganesh Thapa	18	18	19	8	16	4	83
17	Ritu Paudyal	18	15	19	8	15	4	79
19	Binod B.K.	18	19	19	8	15	5	84
21	Asmita Thapa	18	17	16	9	17	5	82
23	Manisha Sharma	16	16	15	9	17	4	77
25	Bishal Thapa	16	13	16	9	16	6	76
27	Sandeep Thapa	19	17	18	8	17	5	84
29	Niroj K.C.	16	18	19	6	16	4	79
31	Kamal Basnet	16	18	20	8	17	5	84
33	Pushpa Subedi	16	19	19	9	16	3	82
35	Prakash Paudyal	14	18	19	9	15	6	81
37	Ramu Kauchha	16	18	18	9	15	8	84
39	Sajjan Khatri	12	17	10	9	15	4	67
Total Marks		337	352	358	171	325	107	1650
Average Marks		16.85	17.6	17.90	8.55	16.25	5.35	82.5
Percentage		84.25	88.00	89.5	85.5	81.25	53.5	82.5

Item-wise Individual Scores of Control Group in the Pre-test

R.N	Name	Finding out types of adv.	Fill in The blanks	Writing C. and S. form of adj.	Rewriting sentence	Sentence formation of adj.	Sentence formation of adv.	Total
2	Manoj Subedi	14	18	18	8	10	3	71
4	Kamal Sharma	18	10	14	4	16	4	66
6	Deepak Karki	18	16	16	4	10	0	64
8	Pooja Gaha	12	12	12	9	12	5	62
10	Usha Thapa	12	14	10	4	14	6	60
12	Dhirendra Basnet	16	10	12	6	8	7	59
14	Shardha Chhetri	18	8	16	0	12	4	58
16	Jasmin Pun	14	12	14	0	12	5	57
18	Rojeena Pun	10	14	9	6	12	3	54
20	Susil Thapa	12	10	10	9	8	4	53
22	Gagan Thapa	16	10	12	8	6	0	52
24	Meena Khatri	8	12	12	6	10	2	50
26	Sudha Thapa	12	6	8	8	12	4	50
28	Gaurav Shah	14	4	12	4	8	6	48
30	Mohan B.K.	8	7	14	5	10	4	48
32	Nisha Thapa	8	8	12	8	10	1	47
34	Tara Thapa	10	12	12	7	6	0	47
36	Laxman Thapa	4	8	12	4	14	4	46
38	Subash Khatri	14	6	8	8	7	1	44
40	Laxman Chhetri	4	4	6	4	0	0	18
Total Marks		242	201	239	112	197	63	1054
Average Marks		12.10	10.05	11.95	5.60	9.85	3.15	52.70
Percentage		60.50	50.25	59.75	56.00	49.25	31.50	52.70

Item-wise Individual Scores of Control Group in the Post-test

R.N.	Name	Finding out adv.	Fill in the blanks	Writing C. and S. form of adj	Rewriting sentence	Sentence formation of adj.	Sentence formation of adv.	Total
2	Manoj subedi	16	19	19	9	14	5	82
4	Kamal Sharma	18	18	18	6	16	6	82
6	Deepak Karki	19	19	18	9	10	2	77
8	Pooja Gaha	16	18	16	9	15	5	79
10	Usha Thapa	16	19	19	5	14	6	79
12	Dhirendra Basnet	18	14	18	10	12	7	79
14	Shardha Chhetri	18	19	19	0	16	4	76
16	Jasmin Pun	18	19	19	2	12	6	76
18	Rojeena Pun	12	17	16	9	17	3	74
20	Susil Thapa	14	16	18	9	10	4	71
22	Gagan Thapa	19	15	18	8	14	4	78
24	Meena Khatri	14	18	18	8	10	4	72
26	Sudha Thapa	10	14	16	8	12	4	64
28	Gaurav Shah	14	18	16	8	14	6	76
30	Mohan B.k.	8	15	18	5	13	4	63
32	Nisha thapa	18	18	18	8	10	0	72
34	Tara Thapa	16	10	16	7	6	2	57
36	Laxman Thapa	18	18	18	9	14	6	83
38	Subash Khatri	14	18	16	8	14	6	76
40	Laxman Chhetri	16	14	12	6	9	1	58
Total marks		312	336	346	143	252	85	1474
Average Marks		15.60	16.80	17.30	7.15	12.60	4.25	73.70
Percentage		78.00	84.00	86.50	71.5	63.00	42.50	73.70

