

Chapter 1

1.0 General Introduction to Grammar and Error

Teaching and learning English is associated with grammar. This is because it is the core element of language and it must be definitely attained by second language learners. Grammar may be regarded as “the science of language”. In its narrowest sense it can also be defined as the set of rules that govern phrases and sentences. When the latter definition is adopted morphology and syntax emerge as the two components of grammar. In this case, morphology can be understood as the study of structure and formation of words, while syntax as the study of rules to combine words into phrases and phrases into sentences. Syntax and morphology are of great significance in L₂ acquisition because how students' performances are monitored and evaluated, especially at lower levels, is based on their morphological and syntactic productions. To evaluate these productions, teachers generally tend to look into their pieces of writing. However, it is known that students commit many errors while forming sentences due to violation of the rules of syntax and morphology.

It has been noticed that the learners' knowledge in the L₁ influences in different ways their written production in L₂. During the interactions with the students they declared that when they wrote in English they thought in Telugu first and constructed later their utterances in the L₂. Learners started a complex cognitive process trying to transfer and predict structures into the target language, which in different cases was accurate and produced error. Language learners do not get to understand these rules directly in English,

but they focus most of their attention on single words, to transfer their messages literally from L₁ into L₂.

Learning and teaching English as a foreign language, especially in a context such as a college, as well as in programs concerning training in English teaching, demand reflection on issues that affect an optimal development of language competence as those regarding problems with interference of the mother tongue (L₁) with the acquisition of a second language (L₂), and which obstruct the development of literacy skills such as reading and writing. Thus, the present study emerged from concerns related to the interference of syntactic structures from L₁ into L₂ and the general mechanical errors made by the students of Telugu.

These types of errors may include such errors as omission of plurals on nouns, lack of subject-verb agreement, the adjective-noun agreement, verb tense or form, article or other incorrect, omitted, or unnecessary. On the other hand, syntactic errors are those which disobey the phrase structure rules and, by this way, violate the formation of correct sentences. These errors can be exemplified as word order, ungrammatical sentence constructions resulting from faulty use of verbs, prepositions and articles in sentences. It is found that similar types of morphological and syntactic errors stem from similar sources such as mother tongue interference and inconsistency in the appreciation of rules in the second language.

1.1 Second Language Acquisition

A second language is the one that is learned after one already knows his/her first language or the mother tongue. Many times, second language is learnt with the aid of first language. In a multilingual country like India, children are often exposed to more than one language. When one is exposed to more than one language it is very difficult to say which language is the first and which the second. If the child learns languages one after the other then the first learned can be considered as the first or the mother tongue. In India, English is taught as a second language in schools and as first language in colleges.

All normally endowed children learn to speak the language of their environment. This process is inseparable from their general cognitive development and their gradual socialization. Depending on the environment in which they live, children will differ from one another in their early experience, and this will be reflected in their language, especially in the words they know. Children who learn the language normally become native speakers of their first language. Unlike the acquisition of speech, learning to read and write is a conscious and intentional process. For most children it is part of schooling, and as such it is subject to all the factors that determine success or failure in education generally.

1.1.1 General Views of Acquiring a Second Language

There are many differences between second and first language acquisition and second language learning:

- unless it begins in early childhood, second language acquisition is not part of the learners' primary cognitive development.
- in most cases learners have much less time for second language acquisition than

they had for first language acquisition.

- the later second language acquisition begins, the more it is a necessarily conscious and intentional process.
- the later second language acquisition begins, the more it is influenced by conscious motivational factors.
- all learners of second languages subconsciously transfer grammatical properties of their first language to the second language.
- like first language acquisition, second language acquisition proceeds by stages and is characterized by developmental orders.
- the learner's knowledge of the second language develops systematically, which means that errors are not random.
- learners have variable intuitions about the second language and their production of it is variable at different stages of development.
- compared with native speakers, second language learners' internalized grammatical knowledge is incomplete.

1.2 Krashen's Model of Second Language Learning

1.2.1 The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

This is the most essential among all the hypotheses established by Krashen and it is the most widely acknowledged among the linguists and language practitioners. According to Krashen „the acquired system“ and „the learned system“ are the two independent systems of second language performance. The acquired system which relates to language

acquisition is the product of a subconscious process just as where children acquire their first language. Here, a learner of the mother tongue concentrates on communicating the idea. This process of learning is interactive and the focus is not on the form of the utterances. On the other hand, there is another way where the learners of a language learn it through formal instruction where the student learns the languages consciously. This kind of learning a language happens in most of the places in India. In most of the states in India children are exposed to English when they come up at certain age. The learning that happens through the conscious effort of the learner is called „The Learned system“. In this kind of learning the focus is on grammar of the language and the learner gives much importance to the rules of grammar. This way „learning“ is differentiated from „acquisition“.

1.2.2 The Monitor Hypothesis: The monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and it shows how the learned system influences the acquisition system. According to Krashen we produce sentences using the acquisition system. But the learned system plays the role of the „monitor“ or the „editor“. It means that when one uses the language this monitor acts in planning, editing and correcting the speech before we actually utter. This happens when the second language learner has sufficient time to think of the rules of grammar and to choose the right construction.

1.2.3 The Natural Order Hypothesis: The natural order hypothesis shows how the L2 learners acquire the language. It shows that L2 learners acquire their L2 in „natural order“. They often find it easy to learn the similar structures in L and L2.

1.2.4 The Input Hypothesis: The Input hypothesis is concerned with acquisition. Here Krashen attempts to explain how the learner acquires a second language. According to this

hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the „natural order“ when He/she receives second language „input“ that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage „I“, then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to „Comprehensible Input“ that belongs to level „i+1“. As all the learners cannot be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that natural communicative Input is useful in designing a syllabus for the learners of second language.

1.2.5 Affective Filter Hypothesis: Krashen finally says that there are some other factors that affect the language acquisition. These affecting factors are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety etc. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, high self –confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition where as low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety may obstruct the „input“ by forming a „mental block“. So this forms the affective filter and this filter impedes language acquisition.

1.3 Contrastive Analysis:

Contrastive analysis was first developed by Fries (1945). With the publication of Lado’s book *Linguistics Across Cultures* in 1957, it emerged as a theory of pedagogical significance in the field of second language teaching.

Contrastive analysis is useful in finding the areas of difficulty where a second language learner faces difficulties and commit errors. Committing errors is indispensable while learning a second language. To analyze these errors there are two ways a)

Contrastive analysis and b) Error analysis. Contrastive analysis compares the systems of the first language and the second language. Contrastive analysis facilitates the language learning and teaching. While learning a second language an individual finds certain structures of second languages easy to follow as those structures are similar to his/her mother tongue. Sometimes it is difficult to learn because of the structural differences between the first and second languages. The assumption is that the similarities will facilitate learning while the differences will cause difficulties in learning L2 (Lado, 1957). In this context contrastive analysis is useful in predicting the areas of difficulty for a second language learner.

1.3.1 Views of Contrastive Analysis:

- 1) Errors committed by the second language learners are because of the interference. This interference is caused where the two languages are structurally different.
- 2) It is possible to find the areas of difficulty by contrasting the two languages.
- 3) As these differences cause problems to the learners of second language, the learners are to be taught the differences between the two languages.

1.3.2 Drawbacks of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis primarily concentrates on the structures of mother tongue (L_1) and target language (L_2). It considers that it facilitates the learning process if there are similarities between both the languages. At the same time it believes that the dissimilarities between the two languages make the L2 learning difficult. But according to Gass and Selinker (2001) CA cannot predict all types of difficulties faced by a second language

learner. They believe that we cannot treat language learning as “linguistic hiccups” from native to target language.

Gradman (1973) opines that CA can predict only some of the errors produced by the learners but not all. Because the errors arise from different factor other than just interference. Errors can be produced by poor teaching, false analogy and poor materials etc.

1.4 Error Analysis

Error Analysis replaced Contrastive Analysis (CA), which was the most favored paradigm for studying the errors in foreign language and second language. It became a recognized part of Applied Linguistics with the publication of Pit Corder’s article “*The Significance of Learners’ Errors*” (1967). Error Analysis describes the performance of the learner. Error Analysis is the systematic study of errors. It is a method for understanding of Second Language Acquisition and identifying how a second language learner deviates from the target language norms. Through Error Analysis, errors can be classified into different categories so that it is possible to hypothesize sources of these errors. This kind of analysis was initially done by language teachers for the purpose of identification and remediation of errors.

Errors Analysis describes the errors committed by learners of second language. It identifies the common difficulties faced by the learner in learning and using a language. According to Richards (1985:96) “*Error analysis is the study of errors made by the second or foreign language learners*”. Error Analysis is useful in knowing the various stages of a

learning process. It acts as diagnostic tool in identifying the areas of difficulty for a particular learner.

1.4.1 The Meaning of Error

Errors can be perceived as deviant form from normal speech or writing. Errors can direct the teaching. Errors are the tools through which one can find out the different states of the learners and find the right way to teach the target language. We can say that studying the errors at a given point can help the learning process and it can also guide the teachers in designing the teaching program. Thus, this kind of investigation of errors will definitely benefit the teachers and the learners as well.

We can divide errors in different ways.

According to Burt and Kiparsky (1975) there are two types of errors:

- A) Global Error
- B) Local Error

1.4.2 Global Error

If an error deviates from the complete structure of a sentence it is called the Global error.

1.4.2.1 Wrong Word Order

- 1) *Everyday apples I eat.

1.4.2.2 Missing and Misplaced Sentence

- 2) *My mother will busy when I TV watch.

1.4.3 Local Error

Local errors are the ones that don't spoil the total sentence and the total sentence can be communicated without much damage to the meaning. These errors affect single elements in a sentence". According to Burt (1975) local errors are the errors in noun, verbs inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers.

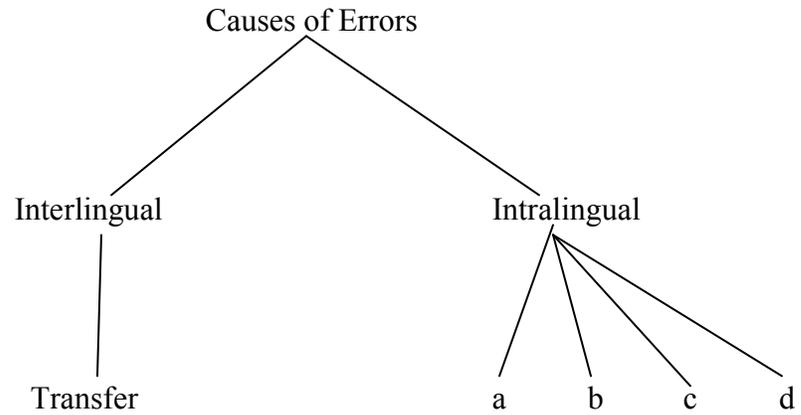
3) *She like cricket.

These two types of errors are important to study. If one wants to use the language like a native speaker he/she has to focus on the local errors as this kind of emphasis makes the learner of a language realize the subtle mistakes in the use of language. Global errors are the ones that impair the communication significantly, so one has to focus on these global errors when communicating some message. Therefore we can say that these two types of errors should be given importance when teaching a second language.

1.4.4 Classification of Errors

We have identified the two types of errors in grammar and written composition based on the questionnaire: Interlingual errors and Intralingual errors.

4)



No	Causes of Errors
1.	Interlingual a. Transfer
2.	Intralingual a. Ignorance of rule restrictions b. Overgeneralization c. Incomplete application of rules d. False concepts hypothesized

1.4.5 Sources of Errors

It is possible that errors can arise from different possible sources. Certain factors like interference from the mother tongue and major structural differences between the target language and mother tongue can influence second language learner's use of language.

1.4.5.1 Interlingual Errors

Interlingual errors are the errors that are caused by the interference of mother tongue. This type of errors calls for a contrastive study of the mother tongue and the second language and to find out the similarities and dissimilarities of the two languages, so that, one can easily point out the areas where a second language learner deviates from the standard use of language.

1.4.5.2 Intralingual Errors

When a learner learns a second language he/she may try to construct sentences out of his/her learning and there is a possibility of committing mistakes based on different factors. According to Richards (1974) these types of errors are a direct result of the learner's attempt to create a language system out of what he is hearing.

a. Overgeneralization

These kinds of errors arise when the learner creates a structure depending on the other structure. It is possible to deviate from the standard rule to create a correct sentence when

the learner depends on one type of structure to create a sentence which is structurally different. For example,

5) She can drinks coffee.

We know that

6) She can drinks coffee

is not grammatical and

7) She can drink coffee

is only possible.

Some more examples of this kind of error are given below:

8) He is eats food.

9) They are work in the factory.

10) She will comes tomorrow.

11) Mother can cooks food in the morning.

b. Ignorance of Rule Restrictions: These types of errors arise where the learner applies some of the rules where they don't apply. We can say that this is a type of overgeneralization as the learner creates a deviant structure based on the other structures. For example, „She made the baby to sleep“. This happens because of the already learned structures such as

12) She asked me to buy the book.

13) They wanted me to go.

c. **Incomplete Application of Rules:** When learning a language the learner may not completely develop the rules of the structures. This is often found in the use of questions where the learner tends to use the declarative structures instead of interrogative. This is generally found in the speech of Telugu speakers. For example, „What she is studying?“ Here the learners of English don't apply the rule of auxiliary inversion.

14) *What you want.

15) *I going to market.

16) *She help her mother.

17) *We have staying Hyderabad.

d. **False Concept Hypothesized:** These kinds of errors occur mainly because of not understanding the concept in the target language properly. Best examples are *is* and *was* forms of *be*. The learner may understand these forms as the markers of present and past tenses and include them in the general structure of present and past tense to show the everyday activities and completed activities.

18) *She is goes to college everyday

19) *He was died last year.

20) *They are played the game.

21) *I was went to Bangalore tomorrow.

1.4.6 Drawbacks of Error Analysis

Though the theory of error analysis has provided many useful observations into the errors of L2 learners it also has some limitations. There are several reasons for the criticism

of error analysis. Researchers like Johnson, Schachter and Celce-Mercia criticized error analysis for its incomplete explanation of errors of L2 learners.

According to Dulay and Burt (1974) there are some kinds of errors which reflect the structures of mother tongue influencing target language. In that case it would be difficult as to confirm if the errors arise from mother tongue influence or the incomplete application of the target language rules. For example, a sentence which is produced by a Spanish speaking child can be interpreted both as an error produced by mother tongue influence as the Spanish negative markers come in front of the verbs or as a developmental error which is produced by English speaking children.

1.5 The Concept of Transfer and Interference

The mother tongue plays a significant role when learning a second language. Many forms of mother tongue interfere in one's use of second language. This happens because the learner of a second language already has a set of habits of his/her mother tongue. So these habits start to influence the use of the second language. The learners tend to apply the rules and structures of L₁ into L₂. This causes the interference and makes the reader deviate from the standard norms of the L₂.

1.6. The Interlanguage Hypothesis

During 1960s and 1970s there were researchers like Corder, 1967; Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1972 who carried out studies on the language of second language learners and considered that the learner's errors are systematic. They thought those errors are not just random mistakes. From this developed the conception of "interlanguage," the proposal that L₂ learners have internalized a mental grammar, a natural language system that can be described in terms of linguistic rules and principles.

Interlanguage can be seen as the existence of a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of an L₂ form. With this definition we can understand that there is a need to study the language of the learners as a separate system independently of the mother tongue. Interlanguage hypothesis is an observation of the language of the adult learners of a second language. Many times a learner of second language produces a speech which is different from the speech of native speakers of the target language. But this type of speech is not because of the language transfer from the mother tongue of the learners. Therefore this type of interlanguage can be seen as a separate linguistic system in its own way. In the process of learning a second language, the learner establishes a separate set of grammatical system at a certain time. Corder calls this kind of ability of the learners as "Transitional competence".

Selinker assumes that there is such a psychological structure and that it is latent in the brain, activated when one attempts to learn a second language. Thus the learners' deviant forms of sentences can be regarded as mistakes. But it is just because of the grammar constructed by the learner.

1.7. Interlanguage- Selinker 1972

Interlanguage is a type of language or linguistic system used by second and foreign language learners who are in continuation of learning a second language. This theory was proposed by Larry Selinker, an American professor of applied linguistics. It became popular after its appearance in the journal *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*.

This theory proposes that interlanguage mirrors the learner's progressing system of rules which results from different kind of processes, language transfer which is the influence of mother tongue, contrastive interference from the target language and the overgeneralization of newly encountered rules.

According to Selinker (1972) the process of learning a second language (L₂) is characteristically non-linear and fragmentary, marked by a mixed landscape of rapid progression in certain areas but slow movement, incubation or even permanent stagnation in others. Such a process results in a linguistic system known as „interlanguage.

Interlanguage is metaphorically termed as a halfway house between the first language and the target language. In other words it is an intermediate status between the native and the target language. In the process of learning a second language or a foreign language the first language is the source language and it provides the building materials to be gradually blended with the new forms that are taken from the target language. The process of this influences the learner to create new forms that are neither in the first language nor in the target language. This kind of creation of new forms is generally regarded as “fossilization” (Selinker, (1972)

Selinker, 1972 hypothesizes that there are five psycholinguistic processes that shape the process of learning a second language. They are a) native language transfer b) overgeneralization of target language rules c) transfer of training d) strategies of communication and e) strategies of learning.

a) **Native Language Transfer:** Learners of a second language tend to use the structures of mother tongue while learning a new language. One's mother tongue always interferes with the learning process. For example, Telugu learners of English tend to form the questions without the auxiliary inversion where in English it is obligatory to do the subject-auxiliary inversion.

22) *Where you are going?

In Telugu it is possible to use the object at the beginning of a sentence. With this influence Telugu learners of English tend to use the same in English where an English sentence starts with the subject.

23) *Exam I am writing

b) **Overgeneralization of target language:** Here, the second language learner tries to overgeneralize the rules of the target language. Firstly the learner masters one rule and then he/she applies it to the others. This kind of process is often found in child language acquisition also. For example many of the Telugu speakers are found to use the past tense marker *-ed* for all the verbs, regular and irregular alike: **locked*,

**parked* and **swimmed*, **buyed* and **caught*. This example of overgeneralization of past tense shows that the evidence of learner's progress. It also shows that the learner has yet to learn.

24) *What did he intended to say?

(Selinker, 1974: 38)

c) **Transfer of Training:** Sometimes errors result from transfer of training also. Instruction and text books influence the learning process. For example, sometimes when language teachers teach past perfect tense they describe it as „Past Past“ and this can lead to the wrong use of the tense as the students use it for all the events that happened long ago without relating it to any aforementioned event. It is clear that these errors are because of the training and text books.

1) What did you told?

d) **Strategies of Communication:** A second language learner uses strategies to resolve communication problems. Learners try to use simpler structures to convey the meaning instead of using the complex structures. For example, instead of saying:

25) She said “ I am reading”

learners say

26) She said she is reading

e) **Strategies of Learning:** Learners of a second language follow some strategies to master the language. These strategies include memorizing the verb declensions, remembering vocabulary and textbook dialogues. These kind of strategies help the learner to master a language but sometimes result in producing errors as these memorized lists can get confused with one another.

For example,

27) I am feeling thirsty

Here, the learner thinks that using the *ing* form to the verb show the present continuous aspect.

1.8 Chomsky's Concept of Competence and Performance

Chomsky says that grammar of a language is a model of the grammatical knowledge (competence) which is internalized in the brain of a native speaker. The grammatical knowledge of how to form or integrate expressions in one's native language is tacit but not explicit. Chomsky calls this tacit knowledge competence. It means that we know how to form and interpret words, phrases and sentences in our own language. He calls speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language as competence and the actual usage of language as performance. This performance can be an imperfect reflection of competence, misproductions and misinterpretation are performance errors.

Universal grammar (UG) is the theory of internalized linguistic system. Universality is the central aspect of UG which means that there should be one grammar which will capture the principles relevant to all natural languages.

UG proposes that:

The explanation of language should be maximally constrained. There should be linguistic principles and the violation of these principles leads to ungrammaticality.

Grammars should be as simple as possible.

Linguistic theory must meet the learnability condition. The simpler the grammars are the simpler it is to be acquired.

Before the advent of Chomsky language learning was perceived as mastery over its inter-related subsystems through a process of habit formation and can be achieved through extensive practice. This theory is generally called behavioristic theory. But with Chomsky's Generative Grammar the notion of language learning is changed. Chomsky proposed that there is a language learning capacity in every individual. The theory says that children are born with an innate capacity for acquiring language.

1.9 Principles and Parameters

There is a set of innately endowed grammatical principles. Since these principles are wired into human language faculty, children don't have to learn the rules of grammar. These principles guide the child in acquisition of the core grammar. These universal principles determine the broad outlines of grammar of natural languages.

Though there are some universal principles of grammar all the natural grammars don't have the same grammar. As we don't have the same grammar there is the need for some grammatical learning (variations among languages). These particular dimensions and aspects of a given language are taken care of by a set of finite parameters.

1.9.1 Null Subject Parameter

A finite verb in Telugu can take an overt subject or a null pro subject but in English a finite verb cannot take a null pro subject.

Telugu: Null subject language

English: non-null subject language.

So there is a parametric variation between these two languages whether or not to allow a finite verb to have null subjects.

1.9.2 Word Order

The basic word order of English is **Subject Verb Object**. But in Telugu the word order of a sentence is Subject Object Verb and since Telugu is morphologically a rich language the subject is understood on the verbal inflection. So the use of subject is optional and can be omitted sometimes. This word order difference is a reflex of a parameter: head final or head initial.

In English questions the WH-expression is moved to the front of the sentence but in Telugu it remains in situ. This determines whether WH-expressions are fronted or not. So if one language allows fronting of WH-expressions it will allow all WH-expressions as:

28) Where did you go?

29) What did you do?

If a given language doesn't allow this kind of fronting it will not allow any WH-expression to be fronted. So there is a rule that is binary „a language that does or doesn't allow the WH- expressions to be systematically fronted“.

1.9.3 Head Final Position

In English all heads like nouns, verbs and prepositions immediately precede their complements. But in Telugu all heads immediately follow their complements. So English is a Head-first language and Telugu is a head final-language. This is also called the word order parameter. So a given language must be either a head-first language or a head-last language.

1.10 Introduction to Telugu Language

English and Telugu are languages that come from different geographic areas, and development of both languages and making them different from each other in several aspects. English is a West Germanic language brought to Britain by Germanic invaders and evolved in several dialects spoken in the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England. On the other side, there are four major Dravidian languages in India. Telugu is one of them; the other major Dravidian languages are: Tamil, Kannada and Malayalam. Telugu belongs to the south-central which is a sub-branch of Proto-Dravidian language family. Telugu is spoken mainly in the states of Andhra Pradesh and Telangana located in southeast India, as well as in the neighboring states of Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Orissa.

1.10.1 General Characteristics of Telugu and English Languages

1.10.1.1 Word Order

Head complement parameter refers to the order of the main constituents of a sentence in a language, such as S(ubject), O(object) and the V(erb). Languages can differ

in the order of these elements. English has SVO order, in Telugu, the unmarked word order is SOV although the subject and object NPs can be permuted; but the verb generally sticks to its sentence –final position. The embedded clauses and all complements of the verb occur in the pre-verbal position. In Telugu, the verb exhibits rich agreement morphology but is not present consistently in all clause types. Full agreement is present only in 3rd, singular nouns and there is no gender feature on plural nouns. As for tense, we can assume past and non-past tenses, as the non-past forms are used to denote both present and future times.

The head-complement parameter, on the other hand, mainly refers to the order of head and its complements in a language. This specifies the respective position of a head and its complements in a language. A verb phrase *wrote a letter with a pen* has a head verb *wrote* and *a letter* is its complement. Similarly, a prepositional phrase like *with a pen* has a head preposition *with* and *a pen* is its complement. This way the head precedes its complement in English, and in Telugu, Kannada, etc. the head follows its complements. So English is a head-initial language; and languages like Telugu are strictly head-final languages. In Telugu, the lexical or functional verbs occur on the right side of their complements. In a sentence, all other elements always occur before the finite verb except when some of elements are expressed as an afterthought.

WH-movement parameter refers to the covert or overt movement of the WH-phrase to the [Spec, CP] position. In languages like English and French, there is overt movement of the WH-phrase to the [Spec, CP] position, whereas in languages like Telugu, Kannada, etc., there is no overt movement of WH-phrase, but it moves to [Spec, CP] position covertly at LF.

Gender: Gender is not marked on the noun, but it is indicated on the 3rd person of the verb and on demonstrative pronouns. There are two genders which are not equivalent in the singular and in the plural. In the singular, the genders are human maleness and other than human maleness: the latter includes women and all non-humans. In the plural the gender distinction is between human (male and female) versus non-human (male and female).

Number; singular and plural. The latter is marked by the addition of the suffix *-lu*.

Case: nominative, genitive, accusative, dative, instrumental.

1.10.1.5 Sentence Types in Telugu

There are commonly four types of sentences in Telugu and we must know the structures of those sentences in order to get an idea of the similarities and dissimilarities between Telugu and English. So that we can find if there is any influence of mother tongue for committing errors in English.

a) Declarative Sentence (statement)

35) Vallu pa:du tunna:ru.

They-nom sing cont pres 3rd Pl

„They are singing.“

b) Interrogative Sentence (Questions)

36) Atanu emi chest unna;du?

He-nom what do cont pres 3rd Pl

„What is he doing?“

c) Interrogative sentence (Yes/no type questions)

37) Atanu vast unna:da?

He-nom come cont pres 3rd Pl

„Is he coming?“

d) Imperative Sentence (Commands)

38) (nuvvu) vellu (mi:ru) vellandi

(you) go 2nd Pl (you) go 2nd Pl

„You go“

„You go“

With the above clarification we can find how the different types of sentences are formed in English and how they are different from Telugu. This helps us to find if there is any influence of mother tongue on English sentence creation by the Telugu learners.

1.10.1.6 English Sentence Structures

English sentence structure, typically, is Subject+ Verb+ Object/ Complement For example:

S V O

39) She takes coffee

S V Complement

40) He goes to market

English sentences can be divided into four types; declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences.

Declarative sentences give information or statement and maintain the order, having the pattern subject and predicate. All declarative sentences start with the subject which is followed by the predicate.

41) She is taking coffee.

Interrogative sentences are used to ask questions. The following two kinds of interrogative sentences are commonly used.

The first kind of it is yes/no interrogatives. Here, it shows inversion of the Subject with an auxiliary verb. For example:

42) Is she reading now?

43) Do you read novels?

The second kind of interrogative sentence is WH-interrogatives. This kind of interrogative sentence starts the sentence with the WH-words such as “what”, and “where”. For example:

44) What do you want?

45) Where did she go?

3. Imperative sentences (directives) are, typically, used to make a request and an order.

This kind of sentence does not usually have a subject, but begin with a verb. For example:

46) Close the door.

47) Don't be late.

4. Exclamatory sentences typically, show exclamations. They begin with WH-word which is to modify a phrase followed by the determiner “a”. For example,

48) “What a book he bought!”

Having discussed the theories which have been used to analyze errors in English, we are going to see the methodology which is adopted to study the errors in English made by Telugu speaking students.