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**Influence of Vocabulary Selection and Sentence
Structure on the Quality of Composition Writing
in English Language**

**تأثير اختيار المفردات وبنية الجملة على جودة كتابة الإنشاء
في اللغة الانجليزية**

**A research Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirement for a Degree of M.A in Applied Linguistics**

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Dedication

The researcher dedicates this study to his family.

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Abstract

This study aims at investigating the influence of vocabulary choice and sentence structure on the quality of composition writing. The sample of study contains thirteen participants who are selected randomly from second year students at Sudan University of Science and Technology . The results of the study show that most of participants are concentrating on sentence structure more than amount of vocabulary choice to write a well composition. The researcher recommends that English language students should be aware of the rule of grammar structure and reduce the errors.

المستخلص

هدفت هذه الدراسة الى تقصي اثر اختيار المفردات وبنية الجمل على جودة كتابة الانشاء باللغة الانجليزية ، اشتملت عينة الدراسة على ثلاثة عشر طالباً والذين اختيروا عشوائياً من بين طلاب السنة الثانية بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا .

اثبتت نتائج الدراسة ان معظم الطلاب يركزون على بنية الجمل اكثر من حصيلة المفردات من اجل كتابة موضوع انشاء جيد ، اوصي الباحث طلاب اللغة بضرورة الالمام بقواعد البني النحوية للجمل وتجنب الازطاء .

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Chapter One

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

1-1: Background

This study investigates two essential requirements of composition writing intended for university students

The first requirement is, obviously, the material of written composition: vocabulary and grammar. The second requirement takes, compound sentence, complex sentences and multiple sentences.

It is generally believed that nothing should be written unless it has already been read, so to speak, background information about the topic to be written should be considered as a primary prerequisite of composition writing.

The sum total of these factors should be incorporated, integrated and graded.

1-2 Statement of the problem:

Written composition has always been a practice almost not given due attention and serious consideration at university level for lack of inappropriate planning and manipulation of composition topics, as far as proper sentences construction and suitable vocabulary are concerned.

Students are unable to choose suitable vocabulary which expresses the ideas or feelings. Also they cannot build up proper sentence construction which makes vocabulary stick together in order to bring out the meaning correctly.

1-3 Objectives of the research:

This study aims to realize the following objectives:

1. To detect the source of setbacks characterizing university students composition writing.
2. To suggest technique of vocabulary and grammatical awareness.
3. To provide a graded framework of sentences construction.
4. To provide a practical use of connectives restructuring compound, complex and multiple sentences.

1-4 Questions of the Research:

This study is intended to answer the following questions:

1. What are the problems that face (SUST) university students in :
 - a. Selection of suitable vocabulary .
 - b. Constructing well-formed sentences when they write expository writing.
2. To what extent is background information about composition topics is helpful in expository writing?

1-5 Hypotheses of the Research:

1. University students face problems in:
 - a. Selection of suitable vocabulary.
 - b. Constructing well formed sentences.
2. Background information about composition Topics is helpful in expository writing.

1-6 Methodology of the Research:

The method adopted in this study is descriptive. The test is used as a tool for data collection.

The data collected will be analyzed in order to answer the questions of the research and to verify the hypotheses.

1-7 Significance of the Research:

To draw a critical view on the present practices of composition writing skill at university level and to suggest an alternative solution of the whole practice based on a new strategy of proper sentence construction and suitable vocabulary

1-8 limits of the research:

The target sample which the study comprises includes learners at Sudan University of science and Technology College of languages who are majoring in English Language mainly second year students.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2-1 Introduction:

This chapter includes two parts the first part will provide some literature which are written on the topic related to the topic of the research. While the second part presents the previous studies which handle areas closely related to the topic investigated. Which include local and international ones.

2-2 Word lists and learning words some foundation

Throughout this study the researcher claims that vocabulary study has been neglected by linguists, applied linguistics and language teachers. We believe that we are justified in claiming this. Although interest has grown quite rapidly during the 1980s there is certainly not much evidence of interest in vocabulary in the last twenty-five years taken as a whole, and relative to investigation at other linguistic levels. This opening chapter (quoted form in this study) gives us an opportunity for qualifying this claim, or, at least, placing it in some kind of historical perspective. Used for the last sixty years, the picture is rather different, because the 1930s witnessed the beginning of what has come to be called the 'vocabulary control movement'. There are a number of stands and offshoots to this movement both in great Britain and in the United States, but linguists shall focus here on two particular developments: the work on basic English of C.K Ogden and I. A Richard; and the work on definition vocabulary which led to the production by Michael West of A general service list. A number of issues raised in this study, and a number of

articles in chapter 4, can be examined in relation to the aims and goals of these earlier pedagogically-inspired efforts at vocabulary control.

About vocabulary and language study. The list is not exhaustive and answers will, in case, not be forthcoming to all the questions, either in this chapter or after reading this study. But we hope to try and lay some foundation from which answers might be found:

- 1- How many words provide a working vocabulary in a foreign language?
- 2- What are the best words to learn first?
- 3- In the early stages of learning a second or foreign language, are some words more useful to the learner than others?
- 4- Are some words more difficult to learn than others? Can words be graded for ease of learning?
- 5- What are the best means of retaining new words ?
- 6- Is the most practical to learn words as single items in a list, in Paris (for example, as translation equivalents) or in context?
- 7- What about words which have different meanings? Should they be avoided? If not, should some meaning be isolated for learning first?
- 8- Are some words more likely to be encountered in spoken rather than written discourse? If so, do we know what they are?

2-3 Basic English: how basic is basic

The proposal for Basic English was first put forward in the early 1930s. Essentially, it was a project designed to provide a basic minimum vocabulary for the learning of English. The originators of the proposal were C. k. Ogden and I. A. Richards Ogden 1930, 1968, though the latter author was responsible for numerous revisions, refinements and extensions to the scheme. Throughout the project had two main aims; 'the

prevision of minimum secondary world language and the designing language and the designing of an improved introductory course for foreign learners, leading into general English' Richards 1943, p. 6. Its design has been outlined succinctly as following by Richards (who, in fact, uses Basic English for the outline):

Basic English is English made simple by limiting the number of words to 850 and by cutting down the rules for using them to the smallest number necessary for the clear statement of ideas. And this is done without change in the normal order and behavior of these words in everyday English. It is limited in its rules but it keeps to the regular forms of English. And though it is designed to give the learner as little trouble as possible, it is no more strange to the eyes of my readers than these lines which are, in fact, in Basic English. Richards (1943, p.20)

In other words for Ogden and Richards it is a basic principle that, although their scheme will not embrace full English, it will at least not be un-English. In figure 1(pp. 4-5) is the list of words selected by Ogden and Richards as their basis. And the fact that they can be conveniently listed on a single side of paper is seen as one of the advantage of the proposal.

At the basis of Ogden and Richard's basic English is the notion of a communicative adequacy whereby even if periphrastically, an adult's fundamental linguistic need can be communicated. Even though more complex ideas may have to be paraphrased, it is claimed that the words supplied will both serve to express complex idea and be in themselves easy and fast to learn. The learning burden on these words is likewise kept to a minimum because, instead of introducing a wide range of verbs which, in English, necessitates the additional learning of numerous and often irregular inflection, Ogden and Richards confine their list to no

more than eighteen main verbs of 'operations' as they prefer to term them. The verbs are *send, say, do, come, get, give, go, keep, let, make, put, seem, take, see*, plus the modal verbs *may* and *will* and auxiliary words *be* and *have* . the only. Inflections to be learned (on verbs and nouns) are –er, –ing and –ed, and basic English does not even permit the bound morpheme inflection *s* for verbs, so that *he make(s)* becomes 'ungrammatical'. An example of the kind of periphrasis made possible or, depending on your point of view, unnaturally enforced by the system in the omission of the verbs *ask* and *want* from the list of operators for the simple reason that they can be paraphrased. That is :

Ask ——— put a question ;

Want ——— have desire for.

The idea that many nations can be re-expressed using more Basic English project. Other examples might be:

Smoke ——— have a smoke

Walk ——— have a walk

Closer scrutiny of the word list reveals further difficulties in the way of answers to some of the questions posed at the beginning of this chapter. Firstly, learning 850 words from is not the same thing as learning single senses. One calculation is that the 850 words of Basic English have 12.425 meanings Nation (1983, p.11). Which meaning should be learned first ? Are there core meanings which should be learned first?. Are there core meaning which are more easily retained or which are more important? Ogden and Richards seem to suggest that there are. For example, they have category of 200 'pictured' words which, presumably, have defined physical or concrete properties. But even these items can be

polysemous. Which 'picture' of the following items is the right one, and should it be learned first: pipe, head, stamp, line? Secondly, it is interesting to note just how many of the 850 words have more than one sense. This applies to both lexical and grammatical words as well as to words such as round or right or past, which can have either primarily lexical or grammatical function.

This raises an interesting psycholinguistic question of whether the sense of single word forms (however polysemous) are easier to retain than the same number of monosemous words with deferent word forms. Ogden and Richards offer no guidance here (and do not seem particularly aware of the question), although, to be fair to them, this is still a problem today which requires more extensive exploration. Thirdly, there is little guidance given as to how Basic English might be extended, and thus how this list and any additions to it might be graded. For relative difficulty or usefulness, or indeed, how much further, if at all, a learner would need to go to have a 'working vocabulary'. Fourthly, the system is not designed to enhance social interaction through language. The object is one which bears not only on more specific features such as the fact that items such as goodbye or thank you or Mr. and Mrs. do not appear in Basic English, or that communication would be inevitably? Rather neutral or slightly formal stylistically (for example, have a desire fur, lake a walk), hut also on the fact that the extent of periphrasis required can make communication a relatively clumsy affair. Additionally, there is the problem already noted that in the process of transfer to Standard English, a relatively large number of constructions which will have been created in the course of learning Basic English will have to be unlearned .

This is not to say that Basic English is not eminently 'usable' as an auxiliary language for general purposes of simplified international communication, and as a practical introduction to a more standardized form of English than can be found in many international contexts of English usage. It is also, as Ogden and Richards themselves have amply demonstrated a useful system for producing clear and comprehensible written texts, particularly where high degrees of communicative expressivity are not required, such as in expository texts or material with

high levels of information content. Although Basic English is not widely used or referred to today, the underlying impulse to provide systematically graded introductions to language, to specify lexical syllabuses and to construct core or nuclear English's for Language learning purposes is still an active one. (See, for example. Stein 1979; Quirk 1982; Stubbs 1986h; Carter 1982b, 1985, 1987 and b).

2-4 Michael West and 'A general service list'

Published in 1953, A general service list (hereafter GSL) is the outcome of almost three decades of major work in English lexicometrics. The main figures associated with this work are Michael West himself, whose work in English as a foreign language was concentrated in Bengal in India. And Harold Palmer – one of the founding fathers of English language teaching – who was director of the institute of English language Teaching in Tokyo from 1923 – 1936. The history of their association and academic collaboration on the development of vocabulary and other teaching materials has been lucidly charted by Howatt (1983 , chapter 17). West is also known for his new method readers and his new method dictionaries, which make use of controlled vocabulary for, respectively, graded reading in a second language and for lexicographic definition vocabulary (see Nottle1937).

West general service list grew organically from major studies in the 1930s on vocabulary selection for teaching purpose. These studies culminated in the Interim Report on vocabulary Selection (1935) (known as the 'Carnegie Report') which in turn issued the first general service list which was published in 1936. The revised GSL (1953) made particular use of words counts such as that of Thorndike and Lorge (1944)developed in the USA. It should also be noted that the GSL

developed at the same time as and along not dissimilar lines to C.K Ogden's Basic English, and that the two schemes ran in parallel and in competition for many years. West's GSL has had by far the most lasting influence, and the 1953 word list is widely used today forming the basis of the principles underlying the Longman structural readers. West's (1978)., (see Chapter3 , pp.52-4).

The main criteria of West, Palmer and others for the selection of vocabulary for learning in the early stages of acquisition are that;

- a) The frequency of each word in written English should be indicated;
- b) Information should be provided about relative prominences of the various meaning and uses of a word form.

Both these criteria, which were more extensively developed in the 1953 edition than in previous versions. Provide particularly useful guidance for teachers deciding which words and which meaning should be thought first. The list consist of 2,000 words with semantic and frequency information drawn from a corpus of two to five million words. It is claimed that knowing these words gives access to about 80 per cent of words in any written text, and thus stimulates motivation, since the words acquired can be seen by learners to have a demonstrably quick return. Other criteria adopted in selection of words include their universality (words useful in all countries), their utility (enabling discussion on as wide a subject range as possible), and their usefulness in terms of definition value. The list can be seen to result from a mixture of subjective and objective selectional criteria.

A representative example of any entry for the general service list, is that of word act (GSL, p.5) in the case of this word, 2184 here indicates the number of occurrences in five million words.

ACT n. 2184 (1) (thing done)

A noble act

The act of madman 14%

(2) (legal act)

The bill became an act 22%

(part of a play)

The third act of hamlet 31%

Act, v. (1) (behave) 11%

Men are judged not by what they say but how they act

Act for the headmaster; acting headmaster 7%

My advice is not always act upon 2%

* (this includes 'acting strangely.' Etc = behaving-, U.S.A).

(2) Have an effect

The brake doesn't act

This acid acts on Zink 6%

(3) Theatre

A well-acted play

Act the part of 4%

The advantages for teachers of this kind of detailed breakdown are considerable. But there are some disadvantages, too. One is that the list is to some extent outdated. It contains words from counts made in the 1930s and even earlier. A number of common 1980s words do not appear; for example, there are no entries for pilot, helicopter, television, and astronaut. Another is that the corpus on which the lists are based is a written corpus. As a result not only do a number of the words appear distinctly 'literary', but data about spoken usage are not available for contrastive purposes. This does reflect one of West's main aims, which was to provide a list for pre-reading or simplified reading materials. However, this main impulse to provide a practical research tool for basic literacy development conditions the 'usefulness' or 'utility' principles which, since they are mainly subjective, are in any case difficult to retrieve Richards (1947, p. 71) has questioned in inclusion on this basis of certain items such as mannerism, vessel, armament mere, stock, motion urge, which to him seem of limited utility, and has pointed to anomalies of exclusion from certain semantic fields. For example, doctor, engineer, teacher, nurse, are included in favour of footman. Also, trader, merchant and dealer are all included when under the principles of definition value any one could effectively replace the others.

More serious, though understandable given available concerning producers at the time, is the absence of information on collocations and collocation frequencies. Also the notion of defining words which have 'coverage' because they are common or central enough in the lexicon to stand in for others words in insufficiently developed. The notion is more

rigorously and extensively applied by West in his new method dictionary (1935) and minimum adequate vocabulary (1960), which defines the meaning of 24,000 entries within a vocabulary of 1,490 words, is not particularly clear. Finally West can be criticized for not giving adequate consideration to the notion of the ‘availability’ and familiarity’ of words, though no current research was available to him at the time. (see section 3 below.) The GSL is not without its advantages, but it was a considerable advance on any previous word lists, and remains one of the most innovative examples of foreign language pedagogy and lexicometrics research this century.

2-5 Recent developments: problems and prospect

Although Michael West’s A general service list continues to be in active service, the issues raised by the production of pedagogic word lists continue to lead to further theoretical and practical outcomes. One of the most wide-ranging discussions of relevant issues is to be found in an article published in 1974 by J.C Richards and entitled ‘Word lists: problems and prospect in the article, Richards makes the following main points:

1. ‘Objective’ word counts, such as statistically-based frequency lists, do not necessarily produce lexical inventories which are of pedagogic relevance or utility. Richards draws on observations made by Bongers (1947) and Engels (1968) that frequent words are to information content. ‘The relationship of frequency to information is an important factor in evaluating the role of word frequency in vocabulary selection’ (p. 72). Even in early stages of second language learning, learners often need to be exposed to

discourse with high information content. Also, high frequency words are not automatically those which the learner needs.

2. Frequency counts differ considerably. Obviously, much depends on the nature of the corpora used. There are differences, too, between written and spoken context.
3. Coverage is important. The coverage of a word embraces the range of contexts in which a word is encountered. This can often be more significant than raw frequency. Here we are also referring to the capacity of some words to replace less useful ones. See particularly Mackey and Savard (1967). (Michael West's term for this is 'definition value', but his criteria for such words are never made explicit.)

2-6 Vocabulary acquisitions: some more

Basic questions

The main orientation of this book is towards vocabulary teaching and towards descriptions of the lexicon which seem to us best to facilitate successful vocabulary development, mainly with regard to second and foreign-language learners. Psycholinguistic accounts of the lexicon are not as fully represented as some would wish. This reflects the bias of our own interests towards lexis in discourse, and towards teaching methodologies which take account of the lexicological analysis of text and discourse. It should not be taken to mean that psycholinguistic accounts of the lexicon do not have much to offer.

It would be irresponsible, of course, to devote a book to vocabulary and language study and teaching without at least pointing to the inevitable connection with research into vocabulary learning. If low words are taught has to take into account what we know about how words are learned. The

aim in the final section of this chapter is to review some of the main questions raised by the examination of vocabulary acquisition and learning. The terms acquisition and learning are, however, used interchangeably, and issues of the sort raised by Krashen (1981) are not engaged delicately enough here for a distinction to be useful. Once again, the perspective sought will be a historical one, although, in contrast with research into vocabulary control, the main densities of activity here have been in the late 1960s and in the 1970s and 1980s.

2-6-1 Memorization

In the early stages of language learning, words are conventional) learned in lists of paired words or 'paired associates'. The lists contain a word from the target language, either a synonym in that target language, or a translation in the mother tongue, and these can be accompanied by a picture or some means of graphic or other mnemonic representation. Relevant research (e.g. Kellogg and Howe 1971; Crothers and Suppes 1967; see also Nation 1983, Chapter 9 has made claims for the efficacy of such learning procedures and has shown that large quantities of initial vocabulary can be learned efficiently and quickly by' such means. In this connection, too, Atkinson and Raugh (1975, p. 126) have argued for the usefulness of the 'keyword' technique which involves an 'association' of the target second/foreign-language word with a native word. The association can be aural or imagistic and, preferably, incorporates both dimensions. For a more explicit account see Nation (1983, p. 101. 1980 1982). The technique is not without its problems (see Meara 1980. pp. 224—6) but, linking as it does form, meaning and structure. And facilitating a combination of both productive and receptive word-attack? Skills, the techniques would appear to have advantages over an exclusive focus on straight translation or rote-learning. The principle of vocabulary

learning which emerges is that the more words are analyzed or are enriched by imagistic and other associations? the more likely it is that they will be retained.

2-7 Word difficulty: what is a difficult word?

Learning vocabulary effectively is closely bound up with a teacher's understanding, and a learner's perception of, the difficulties of words. The difficulty of a word may result, *inter alia*, from the relations it can be seen to contract with other words, either in the native or target language, whether it is learned productively or receptively: as well as from its polysemy, the associations it creates, its pronounce ability, whether it lends itself to key-word teaching techniques and, in the case of advanced learners, from the nature of the contexts in which it is encountered. The kinds of interplay between these and other complex factors cannot be adequately explored here. Instead, there will be an emphasis on early learning and on the kinds of 'language- internal' difficulties resulting from the forms of words and how these might be best presented. The emphasis on word-form is given because much research has highlighted this as a significant factor in learnability.

Consideration of form here follows appropriately from the preceding section because one important element in learning new words is the degree of effective formal linking learners can establish between a word in the target language and a cognate word in the mother tongue (and because issues of memorization and word difficulty are closely connected). According to research by Craik and Lockhart (1972), oral repetition is not necessarily an effective way of assimilating new words; recalling the form of a word is found to be more productive. As we saw in the previous section, the more opportunities that can be found for formal

transfer between foreign and mother-tongue words, the better the chances of retention. But, concentration here on specifically linguistic form should not preclude the possibility or even necessity for other links and transfers to be made available to assist memorization.

4.3 inter language : words between languages

Questions posed under this heading are numerous . they cannot also be disconnected from questions posed in the previous sections on memorization and word difficulty .Basic questions here include : How can we best understand the processes involved in integrating new L2 words into a learners mental lexicon , and are there differences between monolingual and second – language learners in the way lexical knowledge is stored ? Are an L1 and an L2 vocabulary stored separately , or is it appropriate to see them as an undifferentiated whole ? why is it that some words can be (transferred) from one language to another with no apparent difficulty (even when there are no interlingual formal similarities)? What can be learned from the study of interlingual errors ?

It is only possible to examine some of these questions cursorily here More detailed treatments can be found in Carter (1982a,1987a chapter 7); Davies, Criper and Howatt (eds.) (1984); in reviews by Meara and Nation already cited ,Meara (1980 ,1983); Nation (1982); and in the paper in this volume by Channell .

2-8 Lexis and structure:

2-8-1 Introduction:

One of the first questions which needs to be asked in considering.

Ways and means of organizing vocabulary for teaching and in attempting an understanding of how vocabulary is learnt is: are the

vocabularies of languages structured or organized internally or are they random, unordered lists of words? The answer to this question is not at all clear-cut and straightforward; there seem to be some principles of organization that can be applied to some areas of the vocabulary of a language like English, but it is by no means certain that these principles can be extended to the whole of the vast word store. To begin with, though, not least of the problems is the very notion of words.

2-8-2 Words and things:

For our applied purposes, several assumptions will be made. We shall assume that a language like English has things called words, that words are composed of meaningful ‘bits’ of language (the word mean/ing/ful is itself composed of at least three such bits), and that words are freestanding: in the freestanding word laughing, we can see another potential word, laugh, but not a word ing. Much of how we recognize words is on this intuitive basis and we shall assume that this sort of intuition is a reliable basis for knowing what we mean when we talk of words. We should not, of course, deceive ourselves that recognizing words is always easy and foolproof. A typical group of native informants will be unable to agree on whether the post that supports Street lights is a lamppost, , a lamp-post or a lamp post, and consequently whether it is one ‘word’ or two. Nor is the evidence for word boundaries always clear in spoken data. But words seem to have a strong psychological reality for all language users and learners everywhere, and so a degree of cautious assumption must be permitted in an applied linguistic consideration of words and meaning. We shall finally assume that, when we talk of words, we are not excluding the fact that some multi-word units, such as compounds and idioms, behave largely like single words for the purposes of examining meaning-relations in the lexicon. The word word will

therefore be used as a convenient shorthand for lexical items of varying kinds.

2-8-3 Does meaning organize the vocabulary?

If we can answer yes to the above question then it would suggest that teaching vocabulary through meaning and meaning relations in the ways discussed below should be the best way to give organized access to the lexicon. Chapter 3 will refer to several applied linguists who have suggested that this is so.

The massive word store of a language like English can be conceived of as composed around a number of meaning areas, some large, such as ‘philosophy’ or ‘emotions’) others smaller and more sharply delineated, such as ‘kinship’ or ‘colour’ or ‘carpentry’. Viewing the totality of meaning in this compartmentalized way is the basis of **field theory**. The German linguist Trier, in the 1930s, wrote of meaning fields as ‘living realities intermediate between individual words and the totality of the vocabulary’ (in Lyons 1977, p.253).

2-8-4 How are words in fields related to one another?

If we accept intuitively that fields exist and are realized in language through related sets of lexical items, then the next question is: how do items organize themselves within sets, and what are the types of relationships that can exist between items? Major work in semantics has been devoted to these areas, again by Lehrer (1974) but principally by Leech (1974) and Lyons (1977). (See also Nida 1975, and most recently Cruse 1986.)

Both Leech and Lyons suggest that there are basic or ‘primitive’ semantic relations between words, Leech starting with synonymy and antonymy, and Lyons concentrating principally on antonymy and hyponymy. Leech argues that the terms synonymy and antonymy are inadequate: to the question ‘What is the antonym of woman?’ the answer might be girl or man. Instead of antonym’, says Leech, we should think of woman as incompatible with man, boy and girl within its lexical field (1974, p. 92). When Lyons uses the term incompatibility, however, he uses it to refer to the relationship between items in many-membered sets such as the names of the days of the week, or names of flowers (1977, p. 288). This differing use of terms complicates matters somewhat, but Leech and Lyons are essentially interested in the same kinds of relationships: the internal organizing principles that create lexical sets. Both are concerned to point up the different kinds of oppositeness that exist between words. Leech distinguishes between binary taxonomies, such as alive/dead, and multiple taxonomies, such as iron/gold/copper/mercury. One is either alive or dead; gold cannot be copper or iron at the same time (1974, p. 99). Lyons calls alive/dead, male/female, etc. ungradable antonyms, which are different from gradable

antonyms, such as hot/cold or big/small, where there are terms in between the two extremes and even outside the two basic terms (warm/cool, enormous/tiny) (1977, p. 291). leech in turn calls these gradable antonyms polar oppositions. Gradable or polar antonyms are relative in meaning and always imply comparison with a socially determined norm. To say ‘our house is big’ is to say ‘big as houses go’ (Lyons 1977, p. 274). The norm may be role-related: a ‘good boss’ is one who is good at that role as the norm dictates (Leech 1974, p. 102). Grading may be implicit, as in ‘it’s warm today’, semi-explicit, as in ‘it’s warmer today’, or fully explicit, as in ‘it’s warmer today than yesterday’ (Lyons 1977, p. 274). The relativity of grading explains why the instructions on a food package which say ‘keep warm in a cool oven’ make perfect sense (‘warm as food goes; cool as ovens go’), even if on the surface they may appear nonsensical.

2-9 Marked and unmarked terms: some words work harder than others

Another feature of the distribution of words within fields is how some words can cover ‘gaps’ in the language (see Lehrer 1974, pp. 95ff.); for instance the word dog is broadly useful in that it can cover any dog, bitch or puppy. Similarly, especially for city dwellers, cows is often used for all sorts of cattle, just as ducks does service for all duck-like creatures, including drakes. For most inexpert speakers, one term, often the male (but not always) will cover as an unmarked term for male, female and young in the animal kingdom; fox, lion, tiger, pig and goose all work this way. While it may look as if a comparable homonymic relationship exists for dog and sheep in (7): hyponymic

(7) dog sheep
Dog-hitch ram- ewe

The difference can be illustrated by the acceptability of (8) but not of (9):

(8) Is that a dog or a bitch?

(9) *Is that a sheep or a ewe?

(Lyons 1977, p. 308)

Lyons also reminds us, however, that while many of these animal words often have an unmarked or neutral term, even where sex- marked terms for both sexes exist, the opposite also occurs, and words which are morphologically (and even semantically) unmarked become ‘culturally’ marked for sex:

(10) My cousin’s a nurse
(expectation that my cousin is a woman)
My cousin’s a male nurse
(explicitly countering the expectation)

2-10 Definition of an outline:

Define an outline: Basically, an outline is an organization of related ideas. It is a method of grouping together things that are similar in some selected way, then presenting them in a simplified manner that clearly illustrates the relationship within each group and among all of the groups. Preparing an outline is essentially a problem of classifying and organizing. It is necessary to understand in what ways objects, facts, or ideas are related to each other.

An outline is useful in both reading and writing. Because writing is language that is intended to be read, reading and writing are different ends of the same communication process. If writers have used an outline to help them organize their writing clearly, their readers should be able to analyze that organization of writing

Topic outlines are listing of topics, arranged according to some useful and logical organization. It is usual to begin each topic with a capital letter. Because they are topics rather than sentences, it is not necessary to use a period at the end of each topic. Each topic of the same grammatical form. Each topic of the same rank should be indented the same distance from the margin, and it also should follow the same system of numbers or letters

2-11-1 The sentence outline:

The form of a sentence outline is the same as that of a topic outline. The same system of indenting, numbering, and lettering is used. The only difference is that each idea is expressed and punctuated as a complete sentence. A sentence outline is usually more detailed, and it indicates more clearly the structure and organization. For this purpose, the sentences should be short and to the point.

Second, notice how each heading is indicated. Headings of equal rank are indented an equal distance from the margin. Third, notice. I. b above. If a heading runs from one line to the next, it is indented so that you can see it quickly. If a heading runs from one into one line to the next, it is indented so that it starts directly below the first word of the preceding line. The purpose of indentation is to make each heading stand out clearly so that you can see it quickly and see how it is related to the topics in a topic outline. Punctuation in a sentence outline follows regular sentence practice.

Finally, notice that periods are used after numbers and letters for fifth and lower ranks, parentheses are used instead of a period .

2-12 The Mechanics Of Writing

The term mechanics, applied to writing, refers to the rules regarding capitalization, underlining, abbreviation, hyphenation, word division, and the presentation of numbers. These rules are conventional: that is, they have been agreed upon over time and are so taken for granted that writers exercise virtually no judgment in applying them. Because of the wide agreement regarding, for instance, the conditions under which a noun should be capitalized, failure to adhere to the rules of capitalization — or any other rule of mechanics — will distract your reader and thus interfere with the process of communication.

2-12-1 Capitalization:

The rules that follow summarize the uses of capitalization in most general writing and correspondence. When in doubt as to whether a word should be capitalized, consult a recent unabridged dictionary

2-12-2 Hyphenation:

*Use a hyphen to join compound adjectives, two or more words functioning as a single adjective.

a good-luck charm

an emerald-green suit

Exceptions :

If the same words forming the compound are placed after a noun, a hyphen should not be used:

She kept the charm for good luck.

The suit was emerald green.

Do not place a hyphen after an adverb ending in-ly:

Extraordinarily good luck

a happily ended affair

*Use hyphen in series of compound adjectives when the noun being modified appears only once:

Did you get a first-, second-, or third-place prize?

Word division:

In business correspondence and in academic writing, avoid dividing words (especially proper names) at the end of line; but when a word division is unavoidable, follow these conventions:

*Divide words at syllable breaks, indicated in most dictionaries by a dot(.):

may .on .naise

re .as .sure

*Do not divide a word so that one letter is left at the end of line or two letters at the beginning of

a line : Not Many people are disturbed by the theory that man evolved from the apes.

2-12-3 Paragraphs

A Paragraph is a grouping of information in the form of sentences arranged in a logical order, beginning with a key sentence and supported by minor sentences to add details to the key sentence. A Paragraph deals with a central topic with consistency and coherence.

2-12-4 Unity:

Unity is achieved when every sentence of a paragraph refers directly to the topic sentence. A unified paragraph is one that contains no extraneous information. Pictorially, such a paragraph can be represented as follows:

2-12-5 Coherence:

A paragraph is coherent if the relationship among its sentences is clear. A writer should examine every sentence in relation to the others, asking of each: How does this sentence follow logically from the preceding sentence and lead logically to the next? Unless you can justify the location of every sentence within the paragraph, you risk incoherence.

Pictorially, a coherent paragraph can be represented as follows. The arrows leading from one sentence to the next indicate that the relationship among sentences is clear and direct.

Conceivably, a paragraph could be unified—every sentence could refer to a topic sentence—but still be incoherent;

2-12-6 Examining paragraph coherence:

Examine the relationship among sentences in the following paragraph:

Mechanical devices are not responsible for the safety or accident on any job; the human who operates machines, of a simple or a complex nature, is responsible for the operation of the machine.

2He is safe with the machine if he is safety conscious, if he is careful, and if he understands the right way to do his job.

3The most effective safety program then must be based upon the attitude of the workman.

4If the workman recognizes that safety and carefulness are his job, then his job will be a safe one.

5If the workman will not recognize the importance of safety, if his attitude is one of risk rather than safety, then no amount of rules will make his job anything but a risky one.

6What has been said in the jest about automobile safety is applicable to all kinds of safety: "the most important part of an automobile is the nut at the wheel".

2-12-7 Arrangement:

A Paragraph is composed of a topic sentences (either stated or implied) and sentences that expand upon that topic. As a general principle, the sentences of a paragraph should be arranged according to an easily recognizable pattern. Among the most common are the spatial, chronological, and topic patterns.

2-12-8 Development:

Thus far we have reviewed four important components, of the effective paragraph: the topic sentences, unity, coherence, and arrangement. The fifth, and final, component discussed in this chapter is development. It is important for you as a writer to develop the ideas and information expressed in your paragraphs carefully and thoroughly. In this section you will learn six techniques for doing so.

2-12-9 Definition:

In attempting to define an object, idea, or emotion, you seek to clarify the qualities that distinguish it from others of its kind. Depending on the complexity of your definition, you may need to write one line or several paragraphs. For lengthy definitions, isolate the components of that which is being defined and treat a few - or perhaps one - per paragraph: Whether you are writing a simple or a complex definition, make certain that you do the following:

1. Name the object, idea, or emotion, that you will be defining
2. Explain each aspect of your definition thoroughly and unambiguously

2-12-10 Description:

A description is a re-creation, in words, of some object, person, place, emotion, or sensation. This re-creation is accomplished when the writer divides a subject into its component parts and then offers a detailed account of these parts, presenting them to the reader in some clear and orderly fashion. As a sales representative, you would want to describe products in vivid and appealing details. As a reporter, your job might be to describe an event - when, where, and how it took place. As a scientist, you would observe the condition of an experiment and record them for review by others.

2-12-11 Paragraphs with multiple structures:

Paragraphs need not follow a single arrangement or a single method of development. As long as you control the organization of your sentences and are confident that readers will understand your meaning, then you

should feel justified in combining techniques. Consider the following paragraph:

Despite the name ‘sibling rivalry’ this miserable passion has only incidentally to do with a child’s actual brothers and sisters. The real source of it is the child’s feelings about his parents. When a child’s older brother or sister is more competent than he, this arouses only temporary feelings of jealousy. Another child being given special attention becomes an insult only if he child fears that, in contrast, he is thought little of by his parents, or feels rejected by them. It is because of such an anxiety that one or all of a child’s sisters or brothers may become a thorn in his flesh. Fearing that in comparison to them he cannot win his parents’ love and esteem is what inflames sibling rivalry. This is indicated in stories by the fact that it matters little whether the siblings actually possess greater competence. The biblical story of Joseph tells that it is jealousy of parental affection lavished on him which accounts for the destructive behavior of his brothers. Unlike Cinderella’s Joseph parent does not participate in degrading him, and, on the contrary, prefers him to his other children. But Joseph, like Cinderella, is turned into a slave, and, like her, he miraculously escapes and ends by surpassing his siblings. BRUNO BETTELHEIM

Bruno Bettelheim develops this Paragraph in three ways:

1. He offers definition of sibling rivalry by
2. Explaining the cause – and – effect relationship between a parent’s behavior toward one child and another child’s anxiety over this behavior.
3. Bettelheim then cites two examples of sibling rivalry – one from the Bible (the story of Joseph) and one from fairy – tale literature

(Cinderella). Notice how clearly the author announces his examples: "This is indicated in stories...."

2-12-12 Modes of writing

Exposition	Argument
Classifying	Defining
Assertion	Description
Analyzing	Persuasion
Ridiculing	Criticizing
Comparing	Contrasting
Narrating	

Previous studies:

2-13 Introduction:

The sentences , the clause and the phrase have not been up to now dealt with seriously and systematically within the frame work of teaching strategy intended for both secondary school and university level students.

The courses at these tow level failed to pay due attention to a convenient and sufficient teaching of sentence classification, types of clauses and kinds of phrases a long with the differences and similarities among them. The teacher and the students are both unable to overcome this difficulty as its solutions remains beyond their reach.

English is a uniquely and affixing language, it is consequently able to produce a large number of lexical items through derivational process depending upon prefixes, infixes and suffixes that roots, stems or words may receive including the four open ended categories; noun, adjective, verb, adverb.

In this way the ardent student can possess a content of vocabulary units however, the problem has not been settled yet as the student's is still in need to be aware enough of both word meaning and use.

2-13-1 Local:

The researcher in this study "EFL Vocabulary Learning : Investigating Third year Students' Vocabulary Learning Strategies at Some Sudanese Universities in the capital Khartoum. At Sudan University of Science and Technology college of Graduate studies English language Athesis submitted for the Requirements of M.A. in English language. On the academic year 2004.Submitted by: DhahawiSalih Ali Garri. The researcher findings state that:

The researcher's finding natural language learning environment could be affected wherever there is 'power and materialistic bonds' and that such a restricted sense maybe experienced at 'microsociolinguistical environment of lecture halls'. Also found that females preferred rote learning, work and practice. Involving strategies (social strategies) whereas males preferred sound-determining and meaning guessing (risk taken) strategies.

The researcher concentrated on the importance of vocabulary and its learning strategies which were similar with my study partially. Also, having a good command of all aspects of word knowledge such as pronunciation, spelling, affixations could provide good strategies for learning meaning. Words knowledge could be maintained by means of cognitive social, determinative. Either collectively or individually.

But there are some differences between these two studies such as the above in title thesis focused on vocabularies from their learning strategies perspective. while my study concentrated on vocabulary through

wordlist, word foundation, words problems and prospects, word memorization, words difficulty, lexicon and structure. The researcher also handle an area of sentence structure via the study of an outline with their types sentence outline and topic outline. Also he investigated the Mechanics of writing with their types included in the study.

2-13-2 International:

Before writing a composition to whoever, learners are, some rules should be born in mind. Such as types of sentences we used, suitable vocabulary, connection and other writing techniques.

The students' needs practice in writing sentences and joining them together to form paragraphs as far as books on structural grammar may provide practice in writing sentence. The students often find it immensely difficult to carry over the skills he has learnt from a grammar book to composition writing. The students or learners need to learn about simple, compounds complex and multiple sentences. When you learn simple sentences, you will be able to join these simple sentences together so as compound sentences, and complex sentences and multiple sentences and finally a paragraph.

Also to help sentences grasp the basic word order in an English sentences: subject, verb, object, qualify phrases.

Concerning vocabulary content, the students should have a passive vocabulary of about 850 words. After learning about simple sentences student attempt to write a composition. So they set a short descriptive or narrative piece of writing and hope for the best, the rest of content titles are fairly suitable, however, sections spelling and irregular verbs are not treated sufficiently.

Adequate knowledge of synonyms and antonyms would certainly be of great help to the students in their writing experience.

A perseverant student can guess the meaning of a word referring to the context.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Chapter Three

Methodology

3-1 Introduction

This chapter provides description of the tools and their procedures, the collected data will be satisfactorily analyzed and is to be discussed in chapter four. It gives a full description of research tool , which used to collect the data besides the subject , instrument validity and reliability finally the procedures followed to collect the data.

3-2 Tools: the tool which the researcher uses in this study is a quantitative test.

3-3 Sample:

The sample of the study consists of students of faculty of Arts. department of English language. At Sudan University of Science and Technology. They are students of English language in the academic year 2015-2016 mainly second year level

3-4 Instruments :

The instrument that the researcher uses is a test. It consists of items which focuses on the choice of vocabulary and sentence structure in developing writing skills in English language.

3-5 Validity:

To check the instrument validity , the researcher chooses random students from Sudan university, faculty of English language mainly second year.

The researcher gave them a guide composition. To do it as a test. They positively write it and comments on it.

3-6 Reliability:

The reliability of analyzed test was found that most of participants are knowing the skill of reading more than the skill of writing to write a well composition.

3-7 Procedures:

The researcher distributes the test to the respondent of participants to examine the test. And gave them enough time to do it. Then the researcher collects the test to be ready for analysis and discussion.

The study will follow analytical method to clarify the results.

Chapter Four

Data Analyses and Discussion of the Results

Chapter Four

Data Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Introduction: 4.0:

This chapter deals with data analysis and discussion of the results and the researcher uses in it a test as the quantitative analysis to clarify the data through the participants who work it through experimental method. The sample of the study contains thirteen participants.

Q1: Vocabulary:-

Table (4.1)

Participants	Marks
P1	4
P2	5
P3	6
P4	5
P5	5
P6	2
P7	6
P8	7
P9	3
P10	5
P11	7
P12	2
P13	5

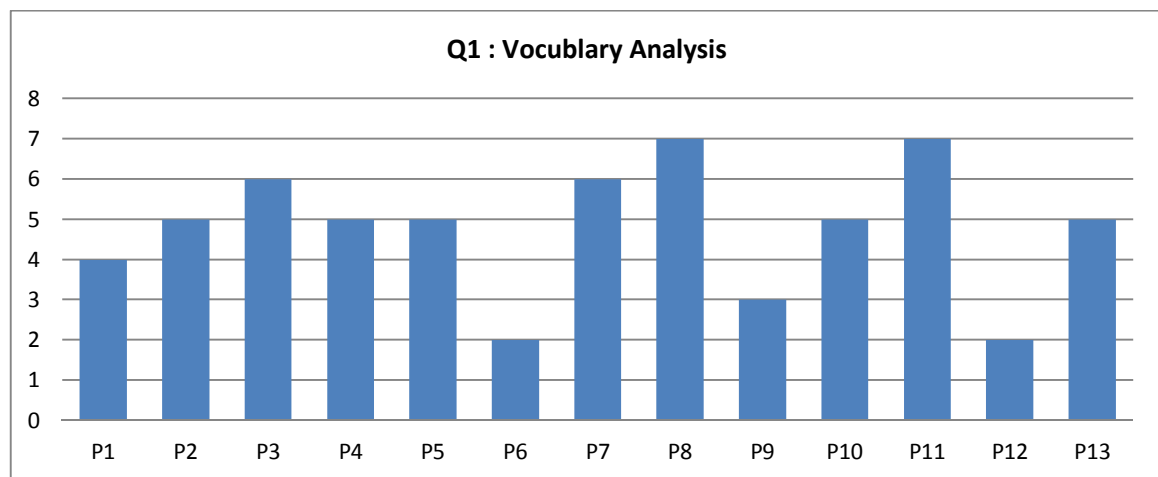


Figure (4.1):-

Figure 4.1: From the above table (4.1) and the figure (4.1) we notice that:

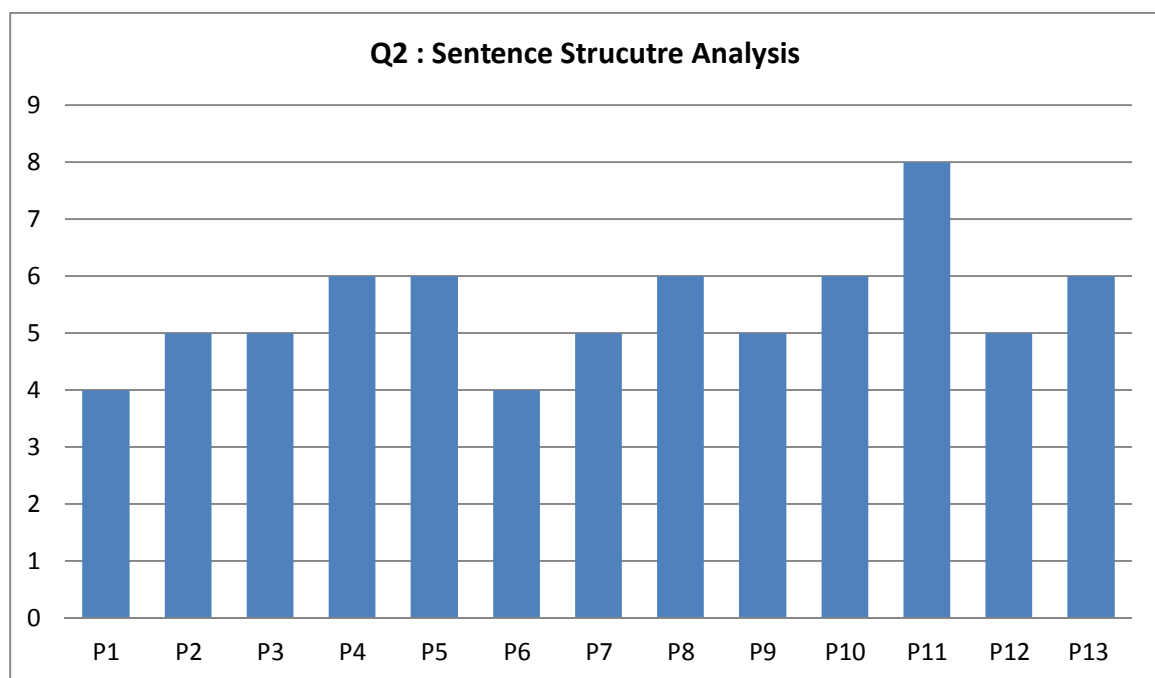
The total mark of question number one is ten marks and the total numbers of participants are thirteen. The participants who passed question number one were nine students and only four participants fail in this question. The first student attained seven marks out of ten and the lowest mark is five.

In addition to, four students attained four and in between two. This shows the results suggest that most of the participants who succeed in this question according to the awareness of the multiply vocabulary and have a full background about guided composition and used it well.

Q2: Sentence Structure:-

Table (4.2):-

Participants	Marks
P1	4
P2	5
P3	5
P4	6
P5	6
P6	4
P7	5
P8	6
P9	5
P10	6
P11	8
P12	5
P13	6



Participants	Vocabulary	Sentence Structure
P1	4	4
P2	5	5
P3	6	5
P4	5	6
P5	5	6
P6	2	4
P7	6	5
P8	7	6
P9	3	5
P10	5	6
P11	7	8
P12	2	5
P13	5	6

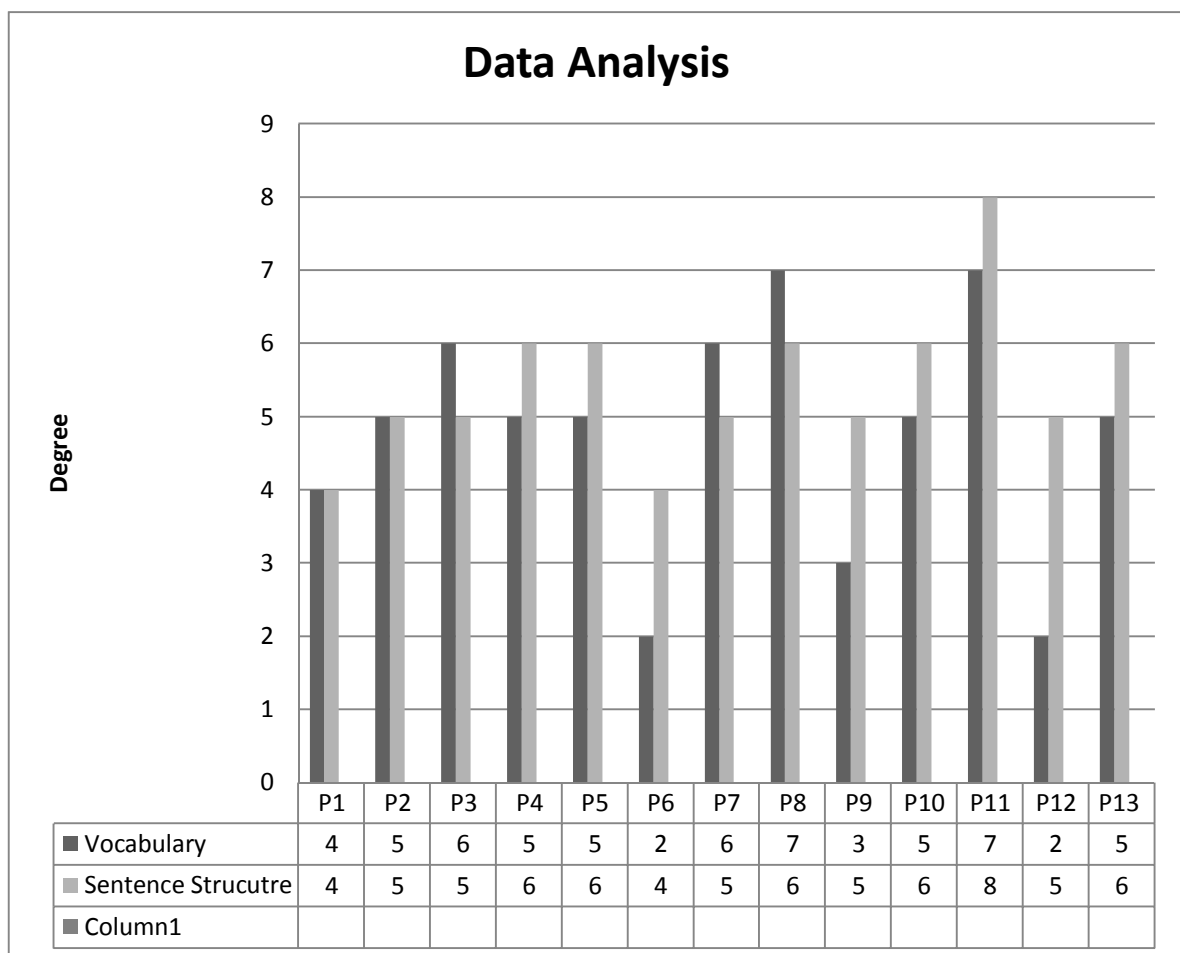


Figure (4.2)

Figure (4.2): from the above table (4.2) and the figure (4.2) we noticed that:

In this question the learner should focus on the basic structure of the building of sentences, the total mark of question two is ten the total number of participants are thirteen. Two participants who failed this question the lowest attained for both of students are four out of ten. While the rest of eleven participants who succeed in this question the highest mark is eight out of ten and the lowest mark is five. The results of this question affirm that the majority of students who succeed in question two have awareness of sentence structure.

Chapter Five

**Conclusion, Recommendation and Suggestion for
Further Studies**

Chapter Five

Conclusion, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

Introduction:

This chapter contains : conclusion , recommendations and suggestion for further studies .It includes a brief account about the problem of the study mainly the main topic of the thesis which is the influence of vocabulary choice and sentence structure on the quality of composition writing. The researcher focuses on the skills of the reading more than the skills of writing through the style of written composition.

Conclusion:

Apparently, most of the students of foreign or second language have a desire to be fluent writers mainly in composition. Through their knowledge of suitable vocabulary and sentences structure in both of them Moreover the participants are knowing sentence structure more than vocabulary choice . here students should be care on vocabulary .

The problem of the study which contains lack of in appropriate planning and manipulation of compositions, topics through the amount of vocabulary and simplified sentence structure.

Students are unable of selecting suitable composition topics via choices of reading more than writing.

The researcher uses the sample consist of thirteen students who are chosen randomly from Sudan university of science and technology and also the researcher uses in this study atest as experimental method the ability of most participants who are knowing the skills of reading and

writing to write a well composition. The researcher verifies that through this thesis shows writing composition via guided one is useful and easier than free ones .

Recommendations:

The researcher recommends that by the beginning of educational stages, the learner must be care reader books series. And also concentrates on the skills of writing and reading more than the amount of vocabulary.

The learner should modifies or develops the skills of reading more than writing through the amount of written composition in secondary education.

English language students are knowing the rule of grammar and vocabulary choice to write the perfect composition and the researcher affirm that through the experimental test.

Suggestions:

The researcher suggests that the learners of foreign languages are badly in need to develop their reading and writing skills through the techniques and methods of composition writing via amount of vocabulary choice and sentence structure. Most of participants must be a wore of the skill of reading such as readers books, Nile course and other helpful books.

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Appendix

No (1)

Test:

Describe your way from home to university:

What can you see on your way from your house to your university ?

Describe what you can usually see on your way from home to university

.

1.Distance from home to university.

2.Meansof transport

3.streets.

4.the means of transport you take

5.the driver

6.the ticket collector

7.the passengers

8.passers-by

9.peddlers

10.shope,sellers and buyers

While you are taking a bus from home to school or university how can you get these thing .

Where can students get money or deposit money , change money , withdraw it and receive financial information ?

You can read and borrow books at the library.

Where could you park your car (at the car park).

Mention where you can see a police man (traffic light – intersection) or a traffic warden . on your way from home to university show where you can see all places . on your way from home to university tell or say where you can send a letter .

Do you follow the same route from home to school and vice versa or do you make a change.