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Investigating the Role of the Process of Word Formation on the Quality of EFL Learners in Composition Writing at Secondary School

A case study of Almaali secondary schools for girls

تتقصي دور معالجة الكلمة في جودة كتابة التعبير لدي دارسي اللغة الانجليزية لغة اجنبية بالمرحلة الثانوية

(دراسة حالة: طالبات الصف الثالث – المعالي الثانوية بنات الخرطوم)

A Thesis Submitted In Partial Fulfillment Of The Requirement Of M.A degree in English language (Applied Linguistics)

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DEDICATION

To my parents, dear spouse,

dear daughter, all my teacher

my brothers and sisters

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My first grateful acknowledgement is extended to everyone who contributed to support me to carryon my higher education.

Secondly, I thank my supervisor Dr. Ayman for the great of his support guidance, and advice he provided during writing this research. Eventually, I am also thankful to the University of Sudan for this opportunity to precede my higher education.

ABSTRACT

This research aims to find out the fundamental difficulties that face third year student in secondary schools in using affixations, blending and acronyms in composition writing, the causes of these difficulties and the best ways preventing them. Also the study tries to pinpoint the roles of syllabus and teachers in preventing these difficulties in writing a composition. Descriptive method was the methodology of data collecting, 50 students at third year grade, secondary school level were given a test to diagnose the difficulties due to the students, the teacher, the syllabus and even the administration. Nevertheless the researcher has stated results and recommendations. Some of the important results are: majority of students lack constructing a complete paragraph with its structure, a lot of students misunderstand the meaning of grammatical forms, lots of students commit a lot of spelling errors. Some of the main recommendations which are studies in this study are: Spine series should be altered by a current English syllabus which has lots of exercise, drills and tasks and teachers, teacher's opinions and views ought to be taken into consideration when designing English syllabuses.

مستخلص البحث

تكشف هذه الدراسة لكشف وتشخيص الصعوبات الرئيسية التي تواجه طلاب الثانوية في معالجة الكلمة ودورها في جودة كتابة التعبير ، وأفضل التعابير التي تعالج ذلك . كذلك يسعى هذا البحث لتحديد أدوار كل من المنهج والمعلمين في معالجة تلك الصعوبات. استخدم الباحث في هذا الوصف الطريقة الوصفية لجمع البيانات ، حيث قام باختيار عدد خمسين طالبة في الصف الثالث الثانوي لتشخيص الصعوبات التي تواجه الطلاب. توصل البحث إلى أن للمنهج دوراً رئيسياً في تلك المشاكل ، ثم يأتي ضعف تدريب المعلمين ، بالإضافة إلى مستويات الطلاب . وبذا طرح البحث التوصيات المتمثلة في انتهاج منهد بديل لـ "Spine" يحتوي على تدريبات وتطبيقات كافية ، وأخذ تصورات المعلمين عند البدء فيه مع الاهتمام بتدريب المعلمين عليه.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background:

As we all know, there are four skills in any language. They are speaking, reading, listening and writing. Generally, English language has become the major language for international communication in various fields including technology, commerce, industry, politics as well as education.

One important factor to consider with writing competency is spelling, as a single missed spelled word can change a word and alter the whole meaning of the sentence. In addition to looking ill "poor spelling can have drastic effects on reading and as (Shane, T and Darrel, M 1999) put it "Orthography or spelling knowledge is the engine drives efficient reading as well as efficient writing.

However, this study mainly focuses on the processes of word formation and investigates the quality of EFL learners in composition writing.

Moreover, the study also presents the most problematic area of processes of word formation. The researcher prepares a test for the students to diagnose their answers and analyze them in order to find out the results and recommendations.

1.2 Statement of the problem:

Drawing on my own experience as an English teacher for over 14 years, I have observed that students are poor in dealing with the processes of word formation which affect their quality of composition writing. The result will basically address fundamental questions about that.

1.3 Significance of the study:

This paper is quite essential for both teachers and students in order to know accurately the difficulties of dealing with the processes of word

formation and their quality of composition writing in the secondary schools as well as the way of preventing these difficulties.

1.4 Objectives of the study:

The objectives of this study are:

- The researcher will try to find out the basic difficulties of dealing with affixation acronyms as well as blending and on the quality of EFL learners in composition writing in secondary schools.
- The causes of these difficulties and the best way of prevent them.
- The fundamental role of the syllabus and teachers in preventing these difficulties.

1.5 Research questions:

This research attempts to answer the following questions:

1. To What extent the secondary school students are able to deal with affixation, acronyms and blending in composition writing.
2. To what extent, EFI students face problems in identifying the word classes.

1.6 Hypotheses of the study:

1- The majority of the students at secondary schools are unable to deal with Affixation, acronyms and blending.
2- The students face problems in identifying parts of speech such as verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs.

1-7 Methodology of the study:

To collect data, the researcher designed a test for the students at Almaali school for girls in Khartoum state (3rd Grade). The sample of size (100) as well as a test for the English teachers (36 teachers).

1-8 Scope of the study:

This study is limited to the EFL students at Almaali Secondary School for girls focusing on the students of the (3rd Grade) during the academic year 2016-2017.

Chapter Two

Literature Review and Previous studies

Chapter Two
Literature Review and Previous studies

2-1 Introduction:

Representing word structure:

In order to represent the internal structure of the words, it is necessary not only to identify each of the components but also to classify these elements in terms of their contribution to the meaning and function of the larger word.

2-2 Roots and affixes:

Complex words typically consist of a root and one or more affixes. Morpheme affixes carries the major components of the word's meaning and belongs to a lexical category – noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), or preposition (P). These categories will be discussed in more detail in Chapter (5), section 1.1. For now it suffices to note that nouns typically refer to concrete and abstract 'things' (tree, treatment) while verbs (treat , teach) tend to denote actions, adjectives usually name properties (kind , red), and prepositions (in , near) encode spatial relations. In general, nouns can occur with the (the car), verbs with will (will go), and adjectives with very (very kind). (From Contemporary linguistics, Ograduy .136.)

Unlike roots, Affixes do not belong to a lexical category and always bound morphemes. A straight forward illustration of this
contrast is found in the word teacher, which consists of the root teach. A verb, and affix-er abound morpheme that combines with the root and gives a noun with the meaning 'one who teaches'. The internal structure of this word can be represented in diagram form, as shown in figure 4.1 (the symbol 'AF' stands for affix.)
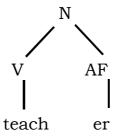
```
           N
          / \
         /   \
        V    AF
        |     |
      teach   er
```

Figure 4.1 The internal structure of the word teacher (David 2014)

The internal stricter of some other complex words is depicted in figure 4.2.

(a)

```
        A
       / \
      /   \
    AF     A
    |      |
    un    kind
```

(b)

```
        N
       / \
      /   \
     N     AF
     |      |
    book    s
```

(c)

```
        V
       / \
      /   \
     A     AF
     |      |
   modern  ize
```

(d)

```
        N
       / \
      /   \
     V     AF
     |      |
  destroy   ed
```
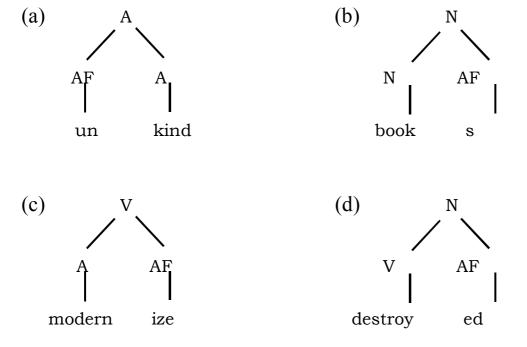
Figure 4.2: Some other words with an internal structure consisting of root and affix (Darrel 2001)

These diagrams, which are often called tree structures, represent the details of words internal organization. Where these details are irrelevant to the point being considered, it is traditional to use a much simpler system of representation that indicates only the location of morpheme boundaries: *Un-kind* , *modern–ize* , and so on.

Abase:

It is the form to which an affix is added. In many cases, the base is also the root. In books, for example, the element to which the affix-s is added corresponds to the word's root. In other cases, however, an affix can be added to a unit larger than a root. This happens in words such as blackened, in which the past tense affix-ed is added to the verbal base blacken a unit consisting of the root morpheme black and suffix-en.

In figure 4.3 black is not only the root for the entire word but also the base for –en.

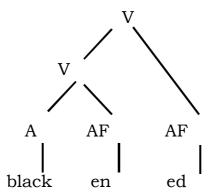The unit blacken, on the other hand, is simple the base for-ed.

Figure 4.3: A word illustrating the difference between a root and a base (Shane 1999)

The vast majority of complex word in English is built from roots that are free morphemes in that they can be used in other contexts as independent words. In the words *re-do* and *treat-ment* , for example, the root (do and treat , respect respectively) is a V that can appear elsewhere in the language without an affix. Because most complex words are formed from a root that can itself be a word, English morphology is said to be word-based.

This notwithstanding, English contains a significant number of words in which the root is not free. For example, *unkempt* seems to consist of the prefix un- (with the meaning 'not') and the root kempt (meaning 'groomed'), even though kempt cannot be used as an independent word. Other common words of this type include *horr-ify, venge-ance, in-ept,* and *salv-ation,* to a name but a few. We will assign morphemes such as kempt, *horr, venge, ept* and *salv* to the special category 'bound root' (B in figure overleaf), which we will reserve for root morphemes that cannot be used as words and therefore do not belong to a conventional lexical category such as noun or verb.

The origin of most bound roots in words such as these is the result of specific events in the history of English. For example, there was once a word kempt in English (with meaning *'combed'*), and it was to this base

that the affix un-was originally attached. At a later point, however, kempt disappeared from the language, leaving behind the word *unkempt* in which an affix is appears with about root. The form inept (from the Latin ineptus 'unsuited'),
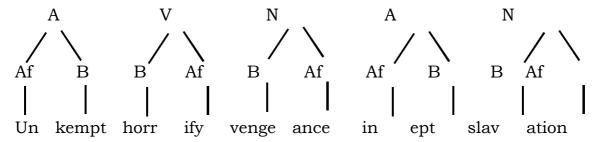
```
       A              V              N              A              N
      / \            / \            / \            / \            / \
     /   \          /   \          /   \          /   \          /   \
    Af    B        B    Af        B    Af        Af    B        B   Af
    |     |        |     |        |     |        |     |        |    |
    Un  kempt    horr   ify     venge ance      in    ept     slav ation
```

Figure 4.4: The internal structure of words built around abound root (Darrel 2001)

On the other hand, was borrowed into English as a whole word. The relationship of its root, -ept, to the word apt (from the same source) may have been evident at one time, but the word is now seen by most speakers to involve a bound root.

Even harder to break into recognizable morphemes are words such as receive, deceive, and perceive or remit, permit, submit and commit. These items were borrowed as whole words into English (many of them from Latin through French). Even at the time of borrowing, the re- of *receive* did not have the sense of '*again*' that it does in redo ('do again') and the de- of *deceive* did not express the meaning 'reverse the process' associated with the de- in demystify or decertify. Because the components of words like *receive* and *deceive* carry no identifiable meaning for the average speaker of English (who has no knowledge of Latin), we will not treat them as separate morphemes in this book). Thus, we take the word receive to consist of a single morpheme.

Some common morphological phenomena : Human language makes use of a variety of operations or processes that can modify the structure of a word, either by adding some element to it or by making an internal

change in order to express a new meaning or to mark a grammatical contrast (such as past versus non-past, N versus V, and so on).

Affixation:

The addition of an affix, a process known as affixation, is an extremely common morphological process in language. Normally, linguists distinguish among three types of affixes. An affix that is attached to the front of its base is called prefix while an affix that is attached to the end of its base is termed a suffix. Both types of affix occur in English, as 4.3 shows:

Table 4.3: Some English prefixes and suffixes

Prefixes	Suffixes
<u>de</u> – activate	vivid – <u>ly</u>
<u>re</u> – play	govern-<u>ment</u>
<u>inter</u>-marry	hunt-<u>er</u>
<u>in</u>-accurate	kind-<u>ness</u>

We will consider the nature and properties of English affixes in more detail in section 2.1 and 5.

Far less common than prefixes and suffixes are infixes, a type of affix that occurs within a base. Table 4.4 shows:

Infixes:

base	infixed form
run	ran
drive	drove

Civilization:

Some words are unable to stand alone as independent forms for phonological reason. Such elements, called clitics, must be attached to another word in the sentence. A good example of this can be found in

English, where certain verb forms have reduced variants ('m for am 's for is , and for 're for are) that cannot stand alone since they no longer constitute a syllable – a word must minimally contain at least one syllable. Cliticization occurs, attaching these elements to the preceding word:

[1] a- I'm leaving now.

    b- Mary 's going to succeed.

    c- They 're here now.

In fact, there is another type of clitic which is not a contracted form of any self-standing lexical category, but which nevertheless is incapable of occurring in isolation. The genitive 's in English is regarded in many current grammers of English as a good example of such a clitic. Although it is a bound morpheme, the genitive –'s is not a suffix. The crucial difference is this : whereas a suffix gets fully integrated phonologically, semantically, and syntactically with the base to which it is attached, and cannot be torn away from it and attached to another constituent of the sentence, a clitic has a much looser association with its host. Thus, the phonological host may be different from the syntactic and semantic host of a clitic. This can be seen in the contrasting placement of genitive 's in the following:

[2] a- The president 's eloquence.

    b- The president of India 's eloquence.

Whereas in (2-a) the genitive 's is appended to the noun president to indicate the fact that the president has the property of being eloquent, in (2-b) the genitive 's is appended to India although it is still the president, and not India, that is eloquence.

Unlike clitics, suffixes must always be attached phonologically to the word to which they belong in terms of grammar and meaning. So, below in (3) since it just the noun presidents that is plural in meaning. Only the first of the two sentences is well-formed.

[3] a- Several presidents of India have been members of the Congress Party.

    b- Several president of Indias have been members of the Congress Party.

The plural suffix cannot be attached to any noun other than the noun that is plural. Hence the ungrammaticality of 3b).

Internal change:

It is a process that substitutes one non-morphemic segment for another , as illustrated in the pair of words in table 4.5.

Table 4.5 : Internal change in English:

sing (present)	sang (past)
sink (present)	sank (past)
drive (present)	drove (past)
foot (singular)	feet (plural)
goose (singular)	geese (geese)

Verbs such as sing, Sink, and drive form their past by changing the vowels (e.g from i to a in the first two examples). The term ***ablaut*** is often used for vowel alternations that mark grammatical contrasts in this way. Ablaut can be distinguished from ***umlaut***, which involves the fronting of vowel under the influence of a front vowel in the following syllable. Historically, this is what is responsible for the use of feet and geese as the plural form of foot and goose, respectively: the back vowel in the root (originally 10 : 1) was fronted in anticipation of the front vowel in the old plural suffix /iz/, which was subsequently dropped.

The internal changes just considered are not examples of infixes for two reasons. First, there is no reason to think that English has root morphemes such as *ft* (meaning 'lower extremity of the leg') or *sng* (meaning 'produce words in a musical tune'). Second, there is no independent reason to that, there is morpheme *oo* in English that means

'singular', or morpheme *ee* that means 'plural' in the *foot*/*feet* example any more than there is a morpheme i meaning 'present' or a morpheme I meaning 'past' in the *sing*/*sang* case. Since infixes are by definition morphemes, we can conclude that these examples involved internal change (the substitution of non-morphemic segments) rather than infixing.

Suppletion:

Internal change must also be distinguished from suppletion, a morphological process whereby a root morpheme is replaces by a phonologically unrelated form in order to indicate a grammatical contrast. A simple example of this phenomenon in English is the use of *went* as the past tense form the verb *go* or *was* and *were* as the past tense of forms *be*.

In some case it is hard to distinguish between suppletion and internal change. For example, are the past tenses of *think* (*thought*) and *seek* (*thought*) the result of suppletion or internal change? Because the initial phoneme of these verbs remains unchanged, we will consider this alternation to involve an extreme form of internal change rather than true suppletion. (However, the term partial suppletion is used by some linguists for these cases).

Stress and tone placement:

Sometimes, a base can undergo a change in the placement of stress or tone to reflect a change in its category. In English, for example there are pairs of words such as those in Table 4.7 in which the verb has stress on final syllable while the corresponding noun is stressed on the first syllable. (Stress is represented here by ˊ)

Table 4.7 : Stress Placement English

Verb	Noun
implánt	iˊ mplant
impórt	iˊ mport
presént	présent
subjéct	súbject
contést	cóntest

Compounding:

Still another common morphological process in human Language involves **compounding**, the combination of categories (nouns , adjectives, verbs or prepositions) to create a larger word. There are countless compounds in English, some of which are shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 : Some examples of English compounds

Noun + Noun	Adjectives + Noun	Verb + noun	Preposition + noun
Street light	bluebird	Swearword	Overlord
Campsite	Happyhour	Washcloth	Outhouse
Bookcase	Highchair	Scrublady	In-group

As these examples show, the elements making up a compound can all typically occur as independent words elsewhere in the language. In this, compounds differ from words created by either affixation or cliticization.

Cranberry morphemes (advanced):

If a word contains elements whose morphological status is ambiguous, as in the case of cranberry and huckleberry determined its internal structure can be a tricky business. Although berry is clearly a morpheme, one is not sure what to make of cran-and huckle. Comparable words like elderberry and wax-myrtle can be analysed uncontroversial as Noun + Noun compounds elder denotes the elder tree which produces waxberries. However, similar treatment of cranberry and huckleberry is untenable because there is no *cran or *hunckle tree or shrub that produces canberry fruits. The form cran- and huckle – never occur elsewhere in the language as independent words, or even as bound morphemes.

Notwithstanding this complication, because of the obvious parallelism between the problematic cases like cranberry on the one hand, and the unproblematic cases like elderberry and waxberry on the other, cran-and huckle – are treated as bound (noun) root morphemes whose distribution is restricted to just one (compound) word. Such marginal

morphemes are normally referred to, after their most famous exemplar, as cranberry morpheme. Let us hasten to add that cranberry morphemes are relatively rare. Normally, the morphological status of elements and the internal structure of words can be established in a straightforward manner.

Derivation:

It forms a word with a meaning and/or category distinct from that of its base through the addition of an affix. Table 4.12 contains words formed by adding the suffix-er to a verb to form a noun with the meaning 'One who does x' (Do not confuse this suffix with the –er that applies to an N in cases such as Londoner and islander or the – er that combines with adjective in cases such as taller and smarter.)

Table 4.12 : The -er- affix

Verb	Resulting noun
sell	sell – er
write	write – er
teach	teach – er
sing	sing – er
discover	discover - er

Once formed derived words become independent lexical items that receive their own entry in speaker's mental dictionary. As time goes by, they often take on special tense that is not entirely predictable from the component morphemes: Writer usually refers to someone who writes for a living : Comparable (with stress on the first syllable) means 'similar' rather than able to be compare; profession usually denotes a career rather than the act of profession, and so on.

English derivational affixes:

Table 4.13 lists some examples of English derivational affixes, along with information about the category of their base (ignoring about roots) and of the resulting new word. The first entry states that the affix-able

applies to a verb base and converts it into adjective. Thus, if we add the affix-able to the verb fix, we get an adjective (With the meaning 'able to be fixed').

Table 4.13 Some English derivational affixes:

Suffixes		
Affixes	**Change**	**Examples**
- able	V → A	Fix-able , do-able , understand-able
- (at) ion	V → N	realiz-ation , assert-ion , protect-ion
- er	V → N	teach-er , work-er
- ing$_1$	V → N	the shoot-ing , the danc-ing
- ing$_2$	V → A	the sleep-ing giant, ablaze-ing fire
- ive	V →	assert-ive , impress-ive , restrict-ive
- al	V → N	refusal , disposal
- ment	V → N	Adjourn-ment , treat-ment , amaze-ment
- ful	N → A	Faith-ful , hope-ful , dread-ful
- (i) al	N → A	Presedent-ial , nation-al , medic-al
- (i) an$_1$	N → A	Arab-ian , Singapore-an , Mali-an
- (i) an$_2$	N → N	Einstein-ian , Newton-ian , Chomsky-ian
- ic	N → A	cub-ic , optimist-ic , moron-ic
- (i) ize$_1$	N → V	hospital-ize , crystal-ize
- less	N → A	Penni-less , brain-less
- ous	N → A	Poison-ous , lecher-ous
- ate	N → V	Activ-ate , captiv-ate
- en	A → V	Dead-en , black-en , hard-en
- ity	A → N	Stupid-ity , prior-ity
- (i) ize$_2$	A → V	modern-ize , familiar-ize
- ly	A → Adv	Quite-ly , slow-ly , careful-ly
- ness	A → N	Happi-ness , sad-ness

Prefixes		
ant-	N → N	Anti-abortion , anti-pollution
de-	V → V	De-activate , de-mystify
dis-	V → V	Dis-continue , dis-obey
ex-	N → N	Ex-president , ex-wife , ex-friend
in-	A → A	In-competent , in-complete
mis-	V → V	Mis-identify , mis-place
Un_1-	A → A	Un-happy , un-fair , un-intelligent
Un_2-	V → V	Un-tie , un-lock , un-do
re-	V → V	Re-think , re-do , re-state
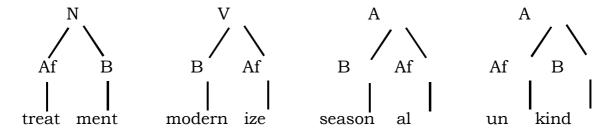
Sometimes beginning students have trouble determining the category of the base to which an affix is added. In the case of worker, for instance, the base (work) is sometimes used as a verb (as in *they work hard*) and sometimes as a noun (as in *the work is time-consuming*). This may then make it difficult to know which category occurs with the suffix-er (in the sense of 'one who x's) with bases whose category can be unequivocally determined. In the words *teacher* and *writer*, for instance, we see this affix used with bases (teach and write) that are clearly verbs. Moreover, we know that-er can combine with the verb *sell* (*seller*) but not the noun *sale* (**saler*). These facts allow us to conclude that the base with which it combines in the word *worker* must be a verb rather than a noun.

Derivation at work:

The information contained in Table 4.13 allows us to build word structures such as those shown in Figure 4.5.

In each of these structure, an affix combines with a base of a particular type of give a new word, in accordance with properties listed in Table 4.13. In the case of treatment, for instance, the affix-ment combines with the V treat to give the N treatment.

These examples, illustrate an important property of English complex words: the rightmost morpheme is generally the one that determines the category of the entire word. Thus, the word unkind is an adjective because kind (the rightmost morpheme) is an adjective. In contrast, the word treatment is a noun since the rightmost element is the affix-ment, which combines with a V to give an N (see Table 4.13)

```
      N              V              A              A
    /   \          /   \          /   \          /   \
  Af      B       B      Af      B      Af      Af      B
  |       |       |      |       |      |       |       |
treat   ment    modern  ize    season  al      un     kind
```

Complex derivations:

Since derivation can apply more than once, it is possible to create multiple levels of word structure as shown in Figure 4.1 (over leaf) .

The word activation is built in several layers, each of which reflects the attachment of an affix to a base of the appropriate type. In the first layer, the affix-ive combines with the V base act to give an A. (As noted in Table 4.13- ive is the type of affix that converts a V into an A). In the next layer, the affix-ate combines with this A and converts a V (activate). At this point the affix-ion is added converted the V into N and giving the word activation (Mute e is deleted in the spelling).)

```
                        V
                      /    \
                   V         \
                 /   \        \
               A       \       \
             /   \      \       \
           V      Af    Af      Af
           |      |     |       |
          act    ive   ate     ion
```
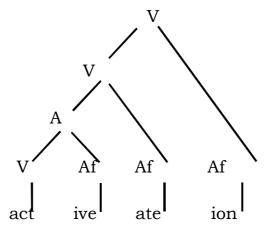
Figure 4.7: A word with multi-layered internal (Darrel 2001)

In some cases, the internal structure of a complex word is not obvious. The word unhappiness, for instance, could apparently be analysed in either of the ways indicated in Figure 4.8.
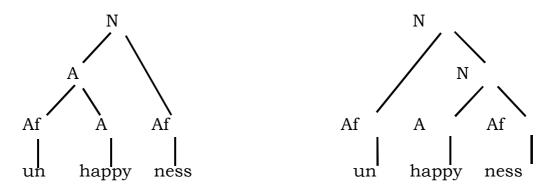
Figure 4.8: Two possible structures for the word unhappiness.

By considering the properties of the affixes un-and-ness, however, it is possible to find an argument that favours Figure 4.8 a over 4.8 b. The key observation here is that the prefix un-combines quite freely with adjectives, but not with nouns (Table 4.14). (Uncola in the old slogans advertising 7-up is an interesting exception to this rule and therefore attracts the attention of the reader or listener).

Table 4.14 : The prefix un-

Un + Adj	Un + N
Unable	* Unknowledge
Unkind	* Unhealthy
Unhurt	* Uninjury

This suggests that un- must combine with the adjective happy before it is converted into a noun by the suffix-ness, exactly as depicted in figure 4.8a:

By contrast, in a word such as unhealthy (Figure 4.9), the prefix un-can be attached only after the suffix-y has been added to the root. Otherwise, there would be no adjective category to which it could attach.

The important point to remember here is the case of quite complex words, derivation involves the same steps found in similar words. In all cases, a derivational affix combines with the appropriate type of base (which may itself have been formed by derivation) and yields a new word of a particular type.

Constraints on derivation:

Derivation often does not apply freely to the members of a given category. For instance, the suffix -ant (see table 4.13) can combine only with <u>Latinate</u> bases (i.e bases borrowed from latin of Romance language which are trace back to Latin) – as in defendant, assailant, contestant, servant and so forth. This is why it cannot occur with bases with such bases such as fight and teach (*fightant. *teachant), which are of native English origin.

Sometimes, adjectives affix is able to attach only to bases with particular phonological properties. A good example of this involves the English suffix –en (see Table 4.13), which combines with adjectives to create verbs with a causative meaning ('cause to become x'). As Table 4.15 illustrate, however, there are many adjectives with which –en cannot combine.

Table 4.15 Restrictions on the use of –en

Acceptable	Unacceptable
whiten	* abstracten
soften	* bluen
madden	* angryen
quicken	* slowed
liven	* greenen

The suffix –en is subject to this phonological constant; it can only combine with a monosyllabic base that ends is an obstruent. Hence, it can

be added to white, which is both monosyllabic and ends in obstruent, but not to abstract, which has two syllables, or to blue, which does not end in an obstruent.

Two classes derivational affixes (advanced):

In English, it is common to distinguish between two sets of derivational affixes which we will call class 1 and class 2 (See Table 4.16 and 4.17). **<u>Class 1</u>** affixes – most of which Latinate normally trigger changes in the consonant or vowel segment of the base with which they occur. In addition, they usually also affect the assignment of stress. (As the final two examples help to show. Class 1 affixes often combine with bound roots.)

Table 4.16 Typical effects of Class 1 affixes

Affix	Sample word	Changes trigged by affix
- ity	San-ity	Vowel in the base changes from /ei/ to /æ/ (cf. s<u>a</u>ne)
- ity	public-ity	Final constant of the base changes from /k/ to /s/, stress shift to the second syllable. (vs publí<u>c</u>ity)
- y	Democrac-y	Final constant of the base changes from /t/ to /s/, stress shift to the second syllable. (cf. démocra<u>t</u> vs demócra<u>c</u>y)
- ive	product-ive	stress shift to the second syllable. (cf. product)
- (i) al	Part-ial	Final constant of the base changes from /t/ to /ʃ/ (cf. par<u>t</u>)
- ize	Public-ize	Final constant of the base changes from /k/ to /s/ (cf. publi<u>c</u>)
- ious	Audac-ious	Final constant of the base changes from /s/ to / ʃ / (cf. auda<u>c</u>-ity)
- ion	Nat-ion	Final constant of the base changes from /t/ to / ʃ / (cf. na<u>t</u>ive)

Table 4.17: Some typical Class 2 affixes

Affix	Sample word	Changes trigged by affix
- ness	Prompt-ness	None
- less	Hair-less	None
- ful	Hope-ful	None
- ly	Quite-ly	None
- er	Defend-er	None
- ish	Self-ish	None
- able	Commend-able	None

In contrast, **class 2** affixes (which are mostlynative) tend to be phonologically neutral, having no effect on segmental makeup of the base or on stress assignment.

When class 1 and class 2 affixes appear in some word, the former type of morpheme normally occurs closer to the root than latter. Thus, while a class 1 affix can follow another class 1 affix while a class 2 affix can follow a class 1 or another class 2 affix, a class 2 affix does not normally come before a class 1 affix. The various possibilities are illustrated below in 4).

[4]

domestic-ic-ity   spac-ious-ness   fear-less-ness   *humour-less-ity

  root   1 1   **root 1 2**   **root 2 2**   **root   2 1**

Notice that in the form that is ruled out (*humourlessity) a class 1 affix follow a class 2 affix.

However, the requirement that class 1 affixes be closer to the root than class 2 affixes is not an inviolable, cast iorn rule. There a few case where class 2 affixes are paradoxically found next to the root, and class 1 affixes on periphery of the word, as the examples in 16) show. (we have

already establish in Table 4.16 and 4.17 that *ity* is a class a affix and –able is a class 2 affix- the latter may be realized as *abil* when followed by another suffix).
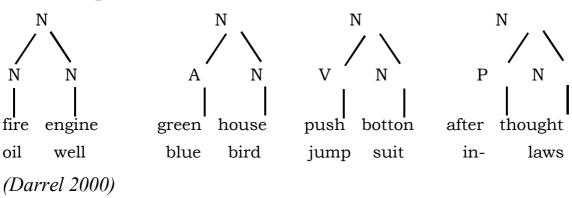
[5]

like-abil-ity	read-abil-ity	accept-ity-able
root 2 1	**root 2 1**	**root 2 1**

*like-ity-able	*read-ity-able	*accept-ity-able
root 1 2	**root 1 2**	**root 1 2**

Compounding:
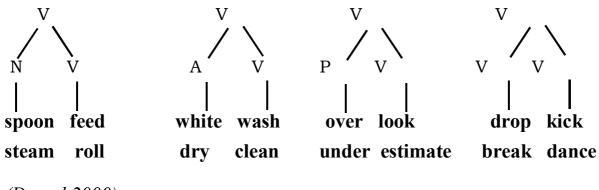
Another common way to build words in English involve compounding, the combination of lexical categories (nouns, adjectives, verbs or prepositions.) With very few exceptions, the resulting compound word is a noun, a verb, or an adjective (Figure 4.10, over leaf). (possible examples of compound prepositions include the words into and onto).

In these and most other compounds, the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word. Thus, green house is an **N** because its rightmost component is a **N**. Spoon-feed is a **V** because feed also belong to this category, and nationwide is an A just as wide is. The morpheme that determines the category of the entire word is called **head** .

Noun compounds:

N		N		N		N	
N	N	A	N	V	N	P	N
fire	engine	green	house	push	botton	after	thought
oil	well	blue	bird	jump	suit	in-	laws

(Darrel 2000)

Verb compounds:

```
        V               V               V               V
       / \             / \             / \             / \
      N   V           A   V           P   V           V   V
      |   |           |   |           |   |           |   |
    spoon feed      white wash      over look       drop kick
    steam roll       dry  clean    under estimate   break dance
```

(Darrel 2000)

Adjective compounds:

```
        A                   A                   A
       / \                 / \                 / \
      N   A               A   A               P   A
      |   |               |   |               |   |
    nation wide          red  hot           over ripe
     sky   blue          deep blue           in  grown
```
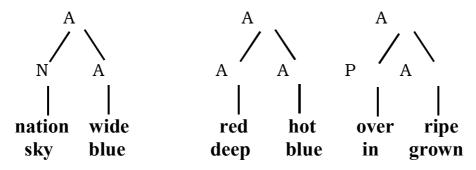
Figure 4.10: Some English Compounds.(Darrel 2000)

Once formed, compounds can be combined with other lexical categories to create still larger compounds, as in Figure 4.11:
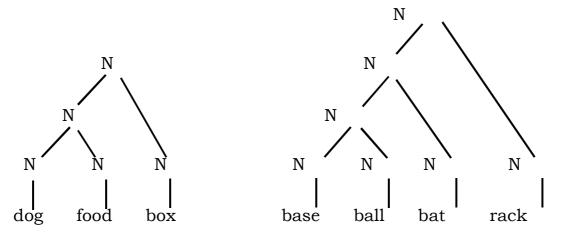
```
                N                                    N
               / \                                  / \
              N   \                                N   \
             / \   \                              / \   \
            N   N   N                            N   \   \
            |   |   |                           / \   \   \
                                               N   N   N   N
          dog food box                         |   |   |   |
                                             base ball bat rack
```

Figure 4.11: compounds formed from small compounds.(Darrel 2000)

In addition, the word formation processes responsible for derivation and compounding can interact with each other. In figure 4.12, for instance, a compound is formed by combining a simple word (debate) with the derived word abortion.
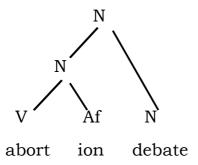
```
            N
           / \
          /   \
         N     \
        / \     \
       /   \     \
      V    Af     N
    abort  ion  debate
```

Figure 4.12: The interaction of derivation with compounding. (Darrel 2000)

Properties of compounds:

English orthography is not constant in representing compounds since they are sometimes written as single words, sometimes with an intervene hyphen, and sometimes as separate words. In terms of pronunciation, however, there is an important generalization to be made. In particular, most A – N compounds are characterized by more prominent stress on their first component. In the non-compound, the second element is generally stressed, as shown in Table 4.18:

Table 4.18 : Compounds versus non-compounds

Compound word	Expression	Non-compound word	expression
Green house	'an indoor garden'	Green house	'a house painted green'
Blackboard	'a chalk board'	Blackboard	A board which is black
Wet suit	'a driver's costume'	Wet suit	'a suit that is wet'

A second distinguishing feature of compounds in English and other languages is that tense and plural markers can typically not be attached to the first element, although they can be added to the compound as a whole.

[6] Tenses in first element in a compound:

* The player [dropped kick] the ball through the goalposts.

Tense on the entire compound.

* The [foxes hunter] didn't have a licence.

* The [roads map] are expensive.

(There a few exceptions such as passers-by parks supervisor and mother-in-law.)

Plural on the entire compound is the norm:

The [fox hunter]s didn't have licence.

The [road map]s are expensive.

The preceding criteria are specially helpful for identifying compounds whose initial component is a verb or a noun. An A-N compound (green house, wet suit) can be identified with the help of a difference test. As illustrated in the following example, the A in a compound cannot be a word such as very.

[7] Compound with very :

* We live next to a very [green house] of course, when it is not part of a compound, an adjective can be typically be accompanied by this type of word.

[8]

Very with an adjective is not part of compound:

We live next to a very green fence.

2-16 Types of Compounds:

Compounds are used to express a wide range of semantic relationships in English. Table 4.19 contains examples of just some of the semantic patterns found in N-N compounds.

In some cases the rightmost component of the compound identifies the general class to which the meaning of the entire word belongs. Thus *dogfood* is a type of food, *a caveman* is a type of man, and so on. Such compounds, which include all the examples in Table 4.19 called endocentric.

In a smaller number of cases, however, the meaning of the compound does not follow from the meaning of its parts in this way. Thus, *a greenbottle* is not a type of bottle; rather, it is a fly of the genus lucilia. Similarly, a redneck is not a type of neck but ultra conservative, White working – class person; and a sugar-daddy is not a type of sugar-coated father, but a women's lover- who is deemed to be both overgenerous and much too old for her. Such compounds are said to be exocentric.

Table 4.19 L Some N-N compounds

Example	Meaning
steamboat	'a boat powered by steam'
Airplane	' a conveyance that travels through the air'
air horse	'a horse that carries air'
airfield	' a field where airplanes land'
fire truck	'a vehicle used to put out fire'
Fire drill	' a practice in the event of a fire'
Bath tub	'a place in which to bathe'
Bath towel	' a towel used after bathing'

A very striking difference between endocentric and exocentric compounds shows up in English in those rare cases where the head of the compound has an irregular plural. Consider in this regard the examples in Table 4.20

Table 4.20 : Pluralization in English compounds

In endocentric compounds	In exocentric compounds
oak leaves	Maple leaves (Toronto's NHL hockey team)
wisdom teeth	Sabre tooths (extinct species of tiger)
club feet	Big foots (members of an extinct tiger)
policemen	Walkmans (a type of portable audio cassette player)

Notice that the exocentric permit the plural suffix-s for words such as leaf, tooth, foot, and man, even though these forms require an irregular plural when used elsewhere in the language.

Blending: (According to (httb://the winter corner. Word press 12009) :

In linguistics a blend word or blend word or blend is a word formed from part, of two or more other words these parts are sometimes, but not always morphemes.

Blends a bridge then combine lexemes to form a new word. Defining a true blend is complicated, by the difficulty of determining which parts of the new word are "recovable"

Blends can be divided into three groups:

a) Phonemic overlap : a syllable, or part of syllable is shared between two words.
b) Clipping : Two words are shortened then compounded.
c) Phonemic overlap and clipping: two words are shortened to a shared then compounded.

Formation:

Most blends are formed by one of the following methods:

1- The beginning of one word is added to the end of the other, for example, bunch is a blend of breakfast and lunch.
   - Simultaneous + exception   simulacast
   - Smoke + fog   smog
   - Spoon + fork   spork
2) The beginnings of two words are combined, for example, cyborg is a blend of cybernetic and organism.
3) Two words are blended around a common sequence of sounds. For example, the word californication is a blend of California and fornication and word motel is a blend of motor and hotel.

4) Multiple sounds from two component words are blended, while mostly preserving the sound order. Poet Lewis Caroll was well-known for these kinds of blends. An example of this is the word *slithy*, a blend of *lithe* and *slimy*.

Acronyms:

Acronyms are one of the words formed by taking the initial letters of some or all of the words on a phrase or title and reading them as a word. This type of word formation is especially common in names of organizations and scientific terminology. Some examples of a cronyms include <u>UNICEF</u> for United Nation International Children's Emergency Fund, <u>NATO</u> for North Atlantic Treaty Organization, <u>ACAS</u> for Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (in the UK), <u>AIDS</u> for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. But there are also examples, such as <u>NIMBY</u>, for Not In My Back Yard, that are found in everyday language.

In some cases, speakers may not know that a word in their vocabulary was originally formed as an acronym. Three commonly used words of this type are *radar* (from radio detecting and ringing), *scub* a (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus), and laser (light implications by simulated emission of radiation), The name of the computer language BASIC is an acronym for Beginner's All purpose symbolic Instruction Code. (from introduction to phonology, Odden, 275.)

Morphology:

In linguistic morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of a given language's morphemes and other linguistic units, such as root, words, affixes, part of speech, intonations and stresses, or implied context.

Writing:

It is a medium of human communication that represents language and emotion through the inscription of recording of signs and symbols. In

most languages, writing is a complement to speech or spoken language. Writing is not language but a form of technology that developed as tool developed with human society, within a language system, writing relies on many of the same structure as speech, such as vocabulary, grammar and semantic, with the added dependency of a system of signs or symbols. The result of writing is generally called text, and the recipient of text is called a reader.

The written language has to seek means to compensate for what it lacks. This is the reason why the written language is more carefully organized, more explanatory; The word choice is more deliberate. The spoken language is spontaneous momentary. It vanishes after having fulfilled its purpose, which is to communicate the thought, no matter how trivial or important. The idea remains, the language disappears. The written language is able to live forever with the idea it expresses.

The spoken language cannot be detached and objectively look at. The writer as an opportunity to correct and improve what had been put on paper. The written language bears a greater volume of responsibility than its spoken counterpart. The spoken language differs from the written language phonetically, morphologically, lexically and syntactically. The most striking difference between the spoken and the written language is in the vocabulary used. There are words and phrases typically colloquial, on, the one hand, and typically bookish, on the other hand. If colloquial words and phrases find their way into the written language they immediately produce a marked stylistic effect. And can be used for speech characterization, for example the spoken language widely uses intensifying words. These are interjections and words with strong emotive meaning such as oaths, swear words and adjectives which have lost their primary meaning. The spoken language is characterized by the insertion into a utterances of words without any meaning which are called 'fill-up'.

The essential difference between the two varieties of language is evidently reflected in the syntactical structure.

What is process writing:

The process approach treats all writing as a creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well, in processing writing, the teacher moves away from being someone who sets students a writing topic and receives the finished product for connection without any intervention in the writing process itself.

* Why should teachers be interested in a process approach to writing?

White and Arnted say that focusing on language errors ' improves neither grammatical accuracy nor writing fluency' and they suggest instead that paying attention to what the students say will show an improvement in writing.

Research also shows that feedback is more useful between drafts, not when it is done at the end of the task after the students hand in their composition to be marked-corrections on compositions returned to the student after the process has finished seems to do little to improve student writing.

Aproach to student writing:

Process writing: Involves generating ideas, structing, or organizing those ideas drafting, reviewing (checking context and content, focusing connections, assessing impact, etc), evaluating, It is a cycle that helps students write and improve their written productions. While many teachers focus only on the process of writing. This means that the teacher discusses purpose and audience with the students as well as the processes of writing. The teacher helps the students get started, using brainstorming or clustering and the students write various draft. After each draft, the teacher and/or other students give feedback about the content of the writing, so the students can write again to improve the clarity of his or her message. In

early drafts, teachers do not make comments about grammatical correctness. Only in the final drafts does this become an issue.

- Step one: Generating ideas
  - Brain storming
  - Clustering
  - Free writing
- Step two : Organizing ideas
  - Outlining.
  - Clustering.
- Step three: Drafting
  - Putting ideas into sentences
- Step four: Reviewing
  -checking context and content, focusing, connection, assessing, impact.
- Step five: Rewriting
- Step six: Editing

Checking minor details like spelling, punctuation and grammatical correctness:

The minor disadvantages to process writing is the time needed. There are many benefits, such as intergrading writing with other skills/activities, more writing practice, better final product, etc.

Ways to assess the writing skills of the students:

Stephen Isaacson (1984) says that student writing can be evaluated on five product factors : fluency , content , conventions , syntax and vocabulary. writing samples also should be assessed a cross a variety of purposes for writing to give a complete picture of students writing performance across different text structures and genres . These simple classroom help in identifying strengths and weaknesses, planning

instructional activities, giving feedback, monitoring performance and reporting process.

Airasian (1996) identified three types of classroom assessment. The first he called "sizing up" assessments, usually done during the first week of school to provide the teacher with quick information about the students when beginning their instruction. The second type, instructional assessments, are used for the daily tasks of planning instruction, giving feedback, and monitoring student's progress. The third, he referred to as official assessments, which are the periodic formal functions of assessment for grouping, grading, and reporting. In other words, teachers use assessment for identifying strengths and weakness, planning instruction to fit diagnosed needs, evaluating instructional activities, giving feedback, monitoring performance, and reporting progress. Simple curriculum-based methods for assessing written expression can meet all these purposes.

(Isaacson, 1984) five product variables seem to emerge: fluency, content, conversations, syntax and vocabulary.

Fluency:

The first writing skills a teacher might access with beginning writer is fluency: being able to translate one's thought into written words. as a concept of print and fine motor skills develop, the student should become more proficient at writing down words and sentences into composition of gradually increasing length.

Clay (19799, 19993) recommends a simple rating scale for emerging writing skills that focuses on language level (from only letters to sentences and paragraph), message quality, and directional principles.

Content:

It is the second factor to consider in the writing product. Content features include the composition's organization, cohesion, accuracy (in expository writing) and originality (in creative writing). General questions

the classroom teacher can ask regarding a composition's organization include:

- Is there a good beginning sentence?
- Is there a clear ending?
- Is there a logical sequence of subtopics or events?

Cohesion questions include:

- Does the writer stick to the topic?
- Is it clear what words like it, that, and they refer to?
- Does the writer use key words that cue reader to the direction of the discourse (First …….., Then …….., Therefore …….., on the other hand ……..)?

Conventions:

Charney (1984) says in order to fulfill the communicative function of writing, the product must be readable. Writers are expected to follow the standard conversations of written English: Correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization, grammar and legible handwriting. Consequently even if the message is communicated, readers tend to be negatively predisposed to compositions that are not presentable in their form or appearance. Teachers traditionally have been strongly influenced by length of paper, spelling, word usage, and appearance than by appropriateness of content or organization.

Videen (1982) clarifies that capitalization and punctuation also can be considered within the sequence. He says counting correct words sequence is one quantitative method of measuring and monitoring student's use of conversations. Correct word sequence (CWS) are two adjacent, correctly spelled words that are grammatically acceptable within the context of the phrase.

Syntax:

Clay (1993) explains that beginners writer often produce sentences that follow a repeated subject-verb (s-v) or subject-verb-object pattern. Wilgus (1983) examined three types of parameters of syntactic maturity : (a) variation in use of sentence patterns. (b) first expansions (six basic sentence patterned formed by the addition of adverbial phrases, infinitive and object complements, and the formation of simple compound sentences), and (c) transformations that result in relative and subordinate clauses.

Vocabulary:

The words used in a student's composition can be evaluated according to the uniqueness or maturity of the words used in the composition. Morris (1992) shows quantitative methods include calcuting the use of unrepeated words in relation to the total number of words, such as Morris and Crump's (1982) corrected type-token ratio. A simpler classroom-based method of looking at vocabulary is to simply make note of words used repetitiously (over – used words) as well as new and mature words the students uses.

Relevant Previous Studies:

2.8 . Relevant Previous Studies:

Adil Alneel Ahmed (2013) conducted a study on problems of Negative Derivational Morphemes. This research paper investigated the problems of negative derivational morphemes; the case study is first year students of English language at Al-Neelain University, Faculty of Arts.

The researcher assumes that first year students face problems when using negative derivational morphemes. Students encounter problems choosing correct negative derivational morphemes to negate words in English. Besides that they do not know which words can accept a certain negative morpheme so as to give an appropriate meaning. It is difficult for the students to deal with certain affixes within certain words;

Therefore the researcher decides to investigate this area of language since there are not many studies that have conducted this field.

The finding of the study state that, First Year Students' face problems of negation morphemes, they do not know where to use a certain negator to negate the words. It also stated that, the morphological problems of First Year Students are due to lack of proper practice. This practice may make students have no serious problems of using morphemes; the more students practice the better knowledge they gain. Thirdly, First Year Students do not know how to use specific morphemes to negate certain words and this affects the way they use English language. Another reason for such problems is that First Year Students are not knowledgeable about the strategy of studying morphology; therefore they fail to choose the correct prefix to make words negate.

Ahmed, N paragraph Writing Comparison between First year and Forth year Students at AlNeelain University.

The finding of her study reveal that first year students face problems of coherence when they write paragraph compared to fourth year students. She claims that the problems of first year students in writing paragraph is due to lack of proper practice. This practice makes fourth year students having no serious problems of writing paragraph. She also says another reason for such problem is that, first year students are not knowledgeable about cohesion; therefore their writing failed to be cohesive.

The instruments employed to collect the data are two tests for first and fourth level to make a comparison between writing. The study provides two topics – write a paragraph about (How did you spend your last holiday) for first level and (The difference between life in city and rural areas) for fourth level. The first year students' topics are very easy compared to fourth year students' one.

Mustafa, A (2011) The problem of writing paragraph with regard to first year students at Omdurman Islamic University.

The results of the study show that most of first year students of English language face problems when they want to write a paragraph. He claims that the problems originally refer to poor system of teaching in Sudan, 83% of his samples fail to write a cohesive paragraph, while 67% fail to make it coherent.

The instrument of collecting data is a test. The test is to write a paragraph about "What do you do in your leisure time?" Most of students fail to write the paragraph perfectly, compared to the current study, it can be seen that the problem of writing well paragraph is very common in Sudan.

Abbakar, M (2003) Why do students fail to write well-structured paragraph at Alzaeim Al-Azhari University.

The objective of this study is to figure out only Sudanese students fail to write a well-formed paragraph.

The result of the study shows most of third year students at Alzaeim Al-Azhari University, Faculty of Education, Department of English language, face serious problems when they want to write a paragraph in English. He claims that problems originally refer to lack of proper practice of writing, mother tongue interface and lack of knowledge. Most of his samples fail to write cohesive paragraph. Nevertheless they fail to make it coherent.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Chapter Three
Methodology

3-1 Introduction:

This chapter provides a description of the tools and instructions used in collecting and analyzed the data, describes the participants of the study displays the instruments, states reliability and validity of the tools employed in the study and presents the techniques followed in analyzing the data.

3-2 The population:

The population of the study is the students of Al Maali Secondary School for Girls- 3rd grade.

The researcher collects the data throughout a test that is distributed to the samples of the population (Al Maali Secondary School for girls 3rd grade).

3-3 The Sample:

The sample of this study is EFL students at Al Maali Secondary School for Girls, 3rd grade. Students are taken randomly due to the nature of the research questions and hypotheses which address student lack of ability in using affixation, blending, acronyms as well as identifying the roots of words.

The focus of the study includes 50 participants. They are all EFL students at Al Maali Secondary School for Girls, 3rd grade.

3-4 Tools and instruments:

The data of this research are collected through a test. The test is divided into two questions and each question is subdivided into ten points.

The test was designed for the students of Al Maali Secondary School for Girls, 3rd grade; the students were required to use the words by using appropriate affixes, blending as well as acronyms. The produces through which the research data have been obtained are as follows:

The researcher distributed the test of the students for Al Maali Secondary School for Girls to test their knowledge in dealing with Affixes, blending as well as acronyms besides identifying the roots of word in composition writing. The test was distributed to 50 students from different levels.

3-5 The test:

The first question asks the students to use the words in writing a guided composition. The task was done in a regular classroom at the school. The aim behind this decision was to make them feel relaxed as they were doing a regular activity away from their mates. The participants were given 30 minutes to accomplish the task.

To accomplish the process of data through the test, the participants were informed to come to the assigned classroom and were asked to do the following.

The test was designed to access students' knowledge of word formation and identifying the root of words in composition writing. So, the data are collecting from the test are used to find out if the students are able to deal with word formation and identifying the root of words in composition writing.

3-6 Validity and reliability:

The researcher discussed the questions of the test with experts of English : Dr. Abdallah Mohamed And Dr. Hashim Osman.
It was agreed that the questions of the test are responsible and they covered the hypotheses of the study.

3-7 Summary:

This chapter presented the methodology of the research. Specifically, a description of the instruments employed for data collection.

The chapter also described the subject of the study, stated the reliability and validity of the tools in the study and presented the techniques followed in discussing and analyzing the research data.

Chapter Four

Data analysis and Discussion of Results

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Chapter Four

Data analysis and Discussion of Results

In this chapter, the researcher reviews what has been accomplished with regard to the data collection and analysis.

To discuss the result, a statistical description for each variable of the study will be provided in terms of percentages of each variable.

Data analysis and interpretation:

Table (4-1) summary of the first question result

Question	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
1		5	45	10%	90%
2		25	25	50%	50%
3		25	25	50%	5%
4		5	45	10%	9%
5	50	15	35	30%	70%
6		Zero	50%	0%	100%
7		15	35	30%	70%
8		45	45	10%	90%
9		5	45	10%	
10		5	43	10%	
total	50 answers	105	395	21	79%

4.1.1 Interpretation of Table (a)

Table 4.2

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
1	50	5	45	10%	90%

The above table demonstrates the marks that the students have gotten in the first question from the test that has been conducted by the researcher. The question is divided into ten points; each one is examining different word formation. The students have to put them into meaning sentences.

In the first point, students got 5 correct answers and 45 wrong answers with percentage 10% and 90% respectively. It is obvious that, the students have clear problems in dealing with affixation, blending and acronyms in composition writing.

Table 4.3

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
2	50	25	25	50%	50%
3		25	25	50%	50%

In the second and third point students' answers split into equal halves of correct (25) and wrong (25) answers with 50% for each. Students' result proves that identifying the root of words needs to have more attention from EFL students'.

Table 4.4

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
4	50	5	45	10%	90%

In the fourth point students' correct and wrong answers are 5 and 45 respectively shows another 10% success in using word formation.

Through the question is a little bit different from its predecessor; students still lack the ability to recognize such word formation. From different things in English language including adjectives, nouns, etc, here the problem tends to be a vocabulary problem which demands students to work hard to recover it.

Table 4.5

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
5	50	15	35	30%	70%

Point five is a little bit different; since no success have been obtained as the students fail to answer the question. Such results are rare, but possible when students lack the simplest fact about using such word formation.

Table 4.6

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
6	50	zero	50	0%	100%

In point six the students got 15 correct answers and 35 wrong answers. The last three points of "question one" show a serious problem facing students as they got only 10% for each.

Table (4.7) summary of the Second question result

Question	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
1		25	25	50%	50%
2		20	30	40%	60%
3		15	35	30%	70%
4		25	25	50%	50%
5	50	20	30	40%	60%
6		35	15	70%	30%
7		15	35	30%	70%
8		Zero	50	0%	100%
9		30	20	60%	40%
10		25	25	50%	50%
total	50 answers	210	290	42%	58%

4-8 Interpretation of Table (b)

Table 4.8

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
1	50	25	25	50%	50%

In the second question the researcher changing allowing students to identifying the roots of words. A group of words are provided to the students to have their roots identified.

In the first point, students got 25 correct answers and 25 wrong answers with percentage 50% and 50% respectively.

The students fail to indentify the roots of word to form correct sentences. The possible solution for such problem is to focus on word formation usage with much creative way.

Table 4.9

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
2	50	20	30	40%	60%

In the second point students got 20 correct answers and 30 wrong answers, with percentage 40% and 60% respectively. The question requires from the student to form a sentence through dealing with the right word formation in composition writing. It is suppose to be an easy task for them. As less than half form correct sentences, more experiences are required to eliminate such difficulties.

Table 4.10

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
3	50	15	35	30%	70%

Point three shows students' correct answers 15 and wrong answers 35, the percentage 30% for correct answers shows that less than half of the students got the correct answers. Just like the case of the previous point, students need to do more practice in dealing with word formation.

Table 4.11

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
4	50	25	25	50%	50%

In the fourth point, students' answers split into equal levels of correct (25) and wrong (25) answers with 50% for each. The likeliness of dealing with word formation is so obvious in this point, so half of the students at the first glace - recognize the words formation.

Table 4.12

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
6	50	35	15	70%	30%

Point six was a little bit different; since 70 successes have been obtained as the students got 35 correct answers of the total 50 answers of the question. This result is because of the ease of the word itself and its familiarity. Students often use such word frequently in their daily speech so they find it easy for them to do so.

Table 4.13

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
7	50	15	35	30%	70%

In point seven the students got 15 correct answers and 35 wrong answers with percentage 30% and 70% respectively. Like in most of the previous questions in this test fail to answer particular types of question respectively the new words for them.

Table 4.14

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
8	50	zero	50	0%	100%

In the eight point of the question none of the students succeeded to answers the question correctly as they got 0% of the total 100% possible correct answers.

Table 4.15

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
9	50	30	20	60%	40%

In point nine students score their second high rate answer as in sub-question six. The understood result here is, some students or most of them can easily put the suitable word formation; this might be due to some experience they gained regard to that type of word formation.

Table 4.16

Question No.	No. of the students	Students correct answers	Students wrong answers	Percentage of correct answers	Percentage of wrong answers
10	50	25	25	50%	50%

In the last point of question two half of the students have answered the question and the other half failed to do that, the percentage was 50% for each.

4.2 Hypotheses Analysis:

Hypothesis one:

Students' problem with affixation, blending and acronyms:

Hypothesis '1' (Students face problems in dealing with affixation, blending and acronyms to express their thoughts and ideas) is valid.

The problems of using affixes, blends and acronyms seem to be deeply rooted from the very beginning stage of the students' study levels. The lack of the vocabulary appeared to be blamed, since the use of affixes, blends and acronyms needs more practicing and a lot of words to be saved. Another factor to be engaged and strongly affecting in affixes, blends and acronyms using, is the ignorance of some of the language rules of how to use specific affixes, blends and acronyms in sentence forming.

Chapter Five

Conclusions, Recommendations and suggestions for Further Studies

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Chapter Five

Conclusions, Recommendations and suggestions
for Further Studies

5-1 Introduction:

In this chapter, the researcher summarize the results of data, analysis, and then presents the finding and recommendations of the study – then, finally the researcher summarizes the whole chapter.

5-2 Findings:

The researcher find out that the students are very poor in dealing with affixation, blending as well as acronyms in composition writing due to the following reasons:

1- Word formation are complicated so that it is not easy for English learners as a second or for foreign language to use correctly.

2- The answers revealed that students truely have no background information about the situation in which some word formations are used. In other words it is so difficult for third year student to identify the root of word.

3- The method of teaching word formation needs a knowledgeable teacher who knows more about the use of affixation, blending and acronyms.

4- Students also face problems in identifying the root of words; they don't know the origin of words.

The researcher recommended the following:

1- Spine Series should include enough practice of word formations.

2- Students should be given more practices so as to master the usage of word formation to affect positively to the way they write a composition.

3- The researcher recommended that should student work hard to identify whether a word is verb, adjective, noun or adverb.

4- Teachers should be more trained so as to send message in a correct method.

5- Teachers should designed a chart of affixation, blending as well as acronyms rules and hang it on the wall to help the students to remember the rules when they look on the chart.

6- Students should be given more practices of using word formation on the quality of composition writing.

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Appendix

Composition writing
Essay writing

An essay is a piece of writing, usually short and in prose in any subject.

Narration:

The act of story telling is called narration. Thus narration answers the question, "What happened?" "The dog barked –The child cried – The dog jumped. The child screamed and ran" that is narrative. Narrative sentences may be connected in several ways. Most narratives are arranged in time sentence. First one thing happened, then the next, and so on. But chronology alone may not be enough to create unity. Often, the reader consciously or unconsciously with seek some closer connection between the actions than simple fact that they followed each other.

The logical arrangement of events in a story is called plot. The parts of the plot are:

1- inciting incident which gives rise to the conflict. Conflict is a struggle between opposing forces.
2- Development where events occur as a result of the central conflict.
3- Climax- the highest point of interest or suspense.
4- Resolution:
• Making stories lively, interesting and believable.

Minor details:

Carefully selected details, however minor they might seem, contribute to the effect of the whole.

Concrete verbs:

One of the best way to keep the reader's interest and to make the writing accurate and vivid is to use verbs effectively. More than any other part of speech, verbs convey actions they tell what happened.

Proper nouns:

A good way to make the writing more interesting and believable is to include proper nouns – names of specific persons, places and things – which will help readers feel they are experiencing the story as they read it.

Direct Quotation:

It refers to words that show are more concrete, specific, and more interesting than those that simply tell the reader what some one wants to say, and they are always more direct than language that only implies or suggests what someone means.

Making the writing Concrete language points to or identifies something that the reader can experience or has experienced with his senses. Giving the readers a straight forward, realistic account of how things look, smell, sound, taste, or feel is one of the most effective ways to make the writing concrete. The sights, sounds, smell and feel of thing that the reading of description calls up in minds are known as **images**.

Compare:

abstract	concrete
affection	kiss, embrace
violence	punch, shove, kick
anger	shout, yell, grunt
joy	laugh, giggle

Making the writing specific:

Writing that lacks specificity contains language that is general, which makes it difficult for the writer to communicate clearly and completely. One of the best ways to the language more specific is to use carefully chosen nouns.

Compare:

general	more specific	most specific
residence	house	three-bedroom cottage
tree	evergreen	young pine
T.V show	quiz	who wants to be amillionaire

Making the language vivid:

Besides using figurative language (metaphor, simile, epithet, … etc) writing can be vivid by choosing verbs, adjectives and adverbs carefully.

Compare:

(1) The pre-civil war Baptist church cried out for repairs to its tottering steeple, its crumbling stone foundation, and its cracked stained-glass windows.

(2) An old homeless person was in alley among some garbage. \

The baby of a homeless man, his face wrinkled and blistered, lay in a pile of oil-covered rags and filthy car board boxes piled in the corner of a long alley devoid of life and light.

Exposition:

It refers to writing chiefly addressed to the remembering and reasoning, mind rather than to the senses or feelings. To generalize. It deals with ideas rather than with actions and images. However it is almost never "pure" but usually includes elements of the other types of prose.

Exposition informs, explains, analyzed and reasons. It's typical raw material are facts, ideas, logical relationships. Essays and articles in magazines, most newspapers items, lectures, and college textbooks (expect literature anthologies) are expository.

Exposition writing is often harder to do than narration or description. In narration, the story unfolds in logical order as one moves from event to event. It is relatively easy to organize. But in exposition, one has to decide on his own organization. One must be prepared to lay out clearly the process or the idea which one wants to explain to audience.

Composition

Trees play an important role in our life. They provide us with the most necessities. Write a composition (120-180) words about them.

You can use the following ideas if you like:

- Types of trees: evergreen trees – Acacia trees – fruit trees.
- Advantages: supply us with timber – building houses – ships –stop desertification – erosion – protect the soil - provide fodder – bring income.

Economically : bring hard currency – create employment

Problems : being cut – randomly – use as firewood

Solutions : plant trees – pathways unused land – raise people's awareness

Importance of trees : use sufficient stoves – use butagas, … etc.