

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

Writing is defined as knowledge as well as skill which we need in order to facilitate the conveying textual meaning for performing academic and profession tasks. Many writers believe that English writing skill is very essential for second English learners, while others believe that English writing skill is dying out. This study is aiming at highlighting the reasons go beyond the importance of English writing skill for second language learners. Firstly, teaching English writing skill for Sudanese school students. Secondly the importance of English writing skill as foundation for student's future careers to write various professional forms such as business documents including business reports, letters and emails. Moreover, in academic field, English writing skill is regarded as the most influential skills. In this study, the researcher discovers variety teaching English writing skill techniques that are important for second language learner. The researcher used a scientific approach to help the student's good command achieve English language writing skill. The researcher also showed the key elements of writing skill. Such as punctuation, spelling and the correct grammar are essential.

1.1 Statement of the Study

This study is going to investigate the problems that encountered by Sudanese secondary school students in developing writing skills,

It is noticed that in academic field, English writing skill is a very complicated subject and it is seen as one of the most difficult skills in learning and practicing English language.

Writing is considered the most important skill that should be mastered by secondary school students.

Actually, many secondary school students in Sudan are considered poor in the skill of writing; they even neglect its influence on the other skills. However, the study investigates the problems encountered by students during studying any written text.

According to researcher's experience during teaching English at secondary schools for many years, the researcher discovered that, most of the Sudanese students at secondary level had not been able to master the basic writing skills in particular the third class at secondary levels, because the students are taught much about writing skills and its elements. Thus, it is supposed to be the actual problem needed to be resolved due to their weak basis. Then, after along thinking about the problem and hardly trying to find out a solution, the idea came out in writing a research because the students need careful attention towards this skill, however, the general commanded of students' language is reported to be poor, namely in writing skill.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The study aims at:

- 1- Drawing attention of the students as well as teachers to use English writing skill effectively.
- 2- Developing students' ability to write and use different methods that help them to avoid errors.
- 3- Identifying errors made by students by specifying their different types of writing skills.

1.3 Research Questions

1. To what extent can teachers improve English writing skill for second language learners?
2. To what extent can teachers play an effective role to develop students' writing skills through classroom interaction?
3. To what extent can the mother tongue interference be considered as the major cause for students' English writing errors?

1.4 Hypotheses of the study

1. Teachers can improve English writing skill for second language learners.
2. Teachers can play an effective role to develop students' writing skills through classroom interaction.
3. Mother tongue interference can be considered as the major cause for students' English writing errors.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will be of great significance in terms of improving the students to communicate and interact positively with English skill.

The research is important to those who are concerned with English language syllabus, in particular, teachers, students, researchers, directors and curriculum designers.

It is regarded as a part of contribution to the field of English language teaching, since writing is considered as an important and essential task, so mastering this skill will promote their standard to carry on their further studies at higher studies and career.

This study will help the students to use different writing styles which are important for their academic as well as professional life. The study will help to reduce the number of errors committed by students.

1.6 Limits of the Study

This study is limited to investigate the problems encountered by Sudanese students in developing writing skill

A. Locality Limitation

This study will be limited to the students at secondary school level (Third class) in Omdurman locality. These schools include both female governmental schools, male governmental schools and female and male nongovernmental schools (private schools).

B. Time Limitation

It is hoped that this study will tentatively cover the academic year (2014-2015).

1.7 Methodology of the study

The researcher has adopted the descriptive analytical as well as quantitative and qualitative methods. Questionnaire and test are used as primary tools for data collection. A questionnaire was distributed to teachers of English language in checking their point of views in terms of this issue. The test aims to reveal the problems that encountered Sudanese students in developing writing skills. It was conducted at secondary school level (Third class) in Omdurman locality.

1.8 Summary of the chapter

This introductory chapter was concerned with presentation of statement of the problem, objectives of the study, questions of the study, hypotheses of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, methodology of the study, definition of terms and outline of the research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0 Introduction

This introductory paragraph displays the relevant literature review for this study. This chapter is called chapter two which is divided into two parts; the first part is called theoretical background and the second part is called previous studies.

Part One: Theoretical Background

2.1 definitions of writing

- Traditionally, writing is considered to be one of the most unfavorite fields of the study for many students if not all. Generally it has been noticed not only L2 learners feel hatred towards writing, but also on many occasions, even L1 professional writers too. (Cimcoz. 1999. P: 3).
- When we write we use graphic symbols: these letters or combination of letters which relate to the sound we make when we speak. On one level, writing can be said to be the act of forming these symbols, making marks on flat surface of some kind. These symbols have to be arranged according to certain conventions to form words, and words have to be arranged to form sentences (Byrne 1995: P: 100)
- Writing is an activity of creating pieces of written work like stories, poems or articles. Also writing means the skill or

activity of producing words on a surface. According to online Cambridge Dictionaries.

2.2 Writing Skills

Writing in a foreign language represents the greatest challenge to the students at all stages, particularly essay writing because in this activity, writing is usually extended and therefore, it becomes more demanding than in the case of writing short a paragraph.

Richards & Renadya (2002-2003) claim “There is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master” The difficulties appear not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into notions into legible text”. Yet, it is very necessary to look into the dynamics of writing and its teaching, as writing is a skill that not only is tested in every valid language examination, but also a skill that learners should possess and demonstrate in academic contexts.

In academic field, English writing skill is regarded as the most influential skills. Writing includes numerous considerations and choices to be made regarding “higher level skills” such as content, structure and organization, and “lower level skills”, such as punctuation, choice of appropriate vocabulary themes and grammatical structure.

Writing skill must be practiced and learned through experience. By putting together concepts and solving problems, the writer engages in “a two-way interactions between continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text.” Bereiter & Scardanalia,(1987: 12).

Indeed, academic writing demands continuous effort and practice in composing, developing and analyzing ideas. Compared to students writing in their native language [L1], however, students writing in their [L2] have to also acquire proficiency in the use of the language as well as writing strategies, techniques

and skills, the students want to write close to error-free texts and they enroll in English skills courses in order to develop their skills which includes writing.

The ability to write is not naturally acquired skill. It is learned or transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skill must be practiced and learned through experiences. Omaggio Hadly, 1993 argues that “Writing also includes composing which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or to transform information into new text as in expository or argumentative writing.” The writer thought that writing is the act of composing thought, which can create problems for the students, especially for those writing in a second language [L2], in academic contexts.

According to the writer mentioned above formulating, new ideas can be difficult because it involves transforming information. Writing constitutes the graphical, representation of language; it is the symbolic presentation of the sounds produced in a language (S.S.Danigraphi-133).

The writer argues that there is a close link between each letter and the sound associated with it in a particular language. Lynn Holaday (in Stephen T Chudi, 1997-35) points out “the way to become a better writer is to write” Most of the students are still not able to write a correct paragraph using the basic structures of English language, they have learnt. However, why do students still find difficulties in writing when their teachers exert more efforts to assist their students to achieve good results? The answer to this question is not easy but it includes the possibility of difficulty assigned with learning writing for non-native speakers around the globe not just Sudanese students, Also the problem of acquiring writing skill for Sudanese.

2.3 The Writing Skill Process

Writing is a difficult process even in the first language. It is even more complicated to write in a foreign language. Many studies indicate for the beginning English Foreign Language (EFL) students, there tends to be interference from their first language in the process of writing in English (Benson, 2002; Cedar, 2004; Chen & Huang, 2003; Collins, 2002; Jarvis, 2000; Jiang, 1995; Lado, 1957; Liu, 1998; Mori, 1998; Yu, 1996). Writing in a foreign language often presents the greatest challenge to the students at all stages, particularly essay writing because in this activity, writing is usually extended and therefore it becomes more demanding than in the case of writing a short paragraph.

Writing in general and essays in particular form problems to secondary students in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Teachers of composition or writing classes in the UAE secondary state schools are generally faced with students who have memorized a good amount of English vocabulary and grammar rules, but have seldom put that knowledge to practical use (Wachs, 1993). In many cases, the majority of these students are still translating words, phrases, and sentences from Arabic to English with often very strange results. The challenge for the composition teacher is to find methods to activate in a meaningful way the passive knowledge the students possess in terms of the writing skill, as well as to help the students become more proficient while working to eliminate some of their common errors. A better understanding of the L1 influence in the process of EFL writing will help teachers know students' difficulties in learning English. It will also aid in the adoption of appropriate teaching strategies to help beginning EFL students learn English writing skills better. As Richards & Renandya (2002:303) claim:

“There is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master. The difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these notions into legible text”.

Yet, it is very necessary to look into the dynamics of writing and its teaching, as writing is a skill that not only is tested in every valid language examination, but also a skill that learners should possess and demonstrate in academic contexts. Writing includes numerous considerations and choices to be made regarding “higher level skills”, such as content, structure and organization, and “lower level skills”, such as punctuation and choice of appropriate vocabulary items and grammatical structures, which are the terms used by Richards & Renandya (2002). Moreover, writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience. By putting together concepts and solving problems, the writer engages in "a two-way interaction between continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text" (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987: 12). Indeed, academic writing demands conscious effort and practice in composing, developing, and analyzing ideas. Compared to students writing in their native language (L1), however, students writing in their L2 have to also acquire proficiency in the use of the language as well as writing strategies, techniques and skills, they want to write close to error-free texts and they enter language courses with the expectations of becoming more proficient writers in the L2.

However, most secondary school Arab students find it difficult to write essays free of errors of various types. Therefore, teachers of essay writing need to anticipate certain common types of errors. They may also find other types of errors, which can be revealed by analyzing the written products or essays of students. These are the conventions, which are usually followed by the teachers of writing when analyzing students' errors. As mentioned above writing is a complex task; it is the “most difficult of the language abilities and skills to acquire (Allen & Corder, 1974, p. 177). Its level of difficulty varies between native speakers (NS) who think in the language used, in this case it will be English, and non-native speakers (NNS) who think in their own native language, in this case, it will be Arabic. While writing, non-native speakers

have to think of all those rules they need to apply or use, rules that native speakers are expected to have automatically.

Harold Rosen points out the difficult situation in which a writer can find him/herself:

"The writer is a lonely figure cut off from the stimulus and corrective of listeners. He must be a predictor of reactions and act on his predictions. He writes with one hand tied behind his back, being robbed of gesture. He is robbed too of the tone of his voice and the aid of clues the environment provides. He is condemned to monologue; there is no one to help, to fill the silences put words in his mouth, or make encouraging noises".

(Rosen: 1969: 5)

Tricia Hedge(1998:5) elaborates on the requirements of effective writing:

"Effective writing requires a number of things: a high degree of development in the organization of ideas and information; a high degree of accuracy so there is no ambiguity of meaning; the use of complex grammatical devices for focus and emphasis; and careful choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and sentence structures to create a style which is appropriate to the subject matter and the eventual readers".

The writing skill involves many other sub-skills like the general knowledge about the subject in question and the ability to translate ideas into grammatical sentences. Rivers (1968:243) argues any academic writer must meet four major conditions:

The student must learn: 1- the graphic systems of the foreign language; 2- he must learn to spell according to the conventions of the language; 3- he must learn to control the structure of the language so that what he writes is comprehensible to his reader; and 4- he must learn to select from among possible combinations of words and phrases those which will convey the nuances he has in mind in the register which is most appropriate.

It's true that non-native speakers are more prone to committing errors. Teachers of English in the UAE are currently facing the challenge of adopting and developing a wide range of methods to accomplish effective teaching of English writing. This, of course, is not an easy task. A large number of students in the UAE continue to fail to master the basics of the English writing even after long years of formal education. Teachers of English feel satisfied to have a student who speaks and writes correct English. This has been the ambition of all EFL teachers. Students in government schools in the UAE start learning English from the first primary, and by the end of the secondary stage of education, the pupils have spent more than twelve years of learning EFL. At the end of this period, they are expected to understand advanced English, to communicate with an English speaking person within certain reasonable areas, to read simple English with ease, fluency and understanding, and to write a paragraph in English using basic structures of the language. However, during my long experience as a teacher of English at government schools in the UAE, I have found out that the majority of students at the end of their secondary cycle have great difficulties in reading with comprehension and that very few of them are able to write meaningful and error-free English sentences. In spite of the fact that they have studied English for more than twelve years and that their vocabulary repertoire is expected to be massive and their knowledge of grammar rules and the mechanics of writing is satisfying, most of the students are still not able to write a correct paragraph using adequately the basic structures of the English language they have learnt. However, why do students still find difficulties in writing in English when their teachers do their best to help them to achieve good results? The answer to this question might be that learning English or any other foreign language is difficult, not only for the Arab students mentioned in this study, but for all non-native speakers. The main problem is that, even in their very first lesson, the learners of a foreign language do not start learning this new language from zero or a neutral point (Hwang,

1970: pp 26-29). Instead, they interpret the new phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic patterns through those of their native language.

What finally matters, I believe, is that we encourage our students to write. Lynn Holaday (in Stephen Tchudi, 1997: 35) points out, "the way to become a better writer is to write". She remarks "students who feel incompetent at writing avoid writing. They do not practice. They do not get better."

On the light of this introduction the main aim of this study is to explore and analyze the common grammatical error patterns in Secondary male students' English essay writing in UAE state schools in the Eastern Coast. The study will first provide information on types of grammatical errors male students make; second, describe the methodology used in collecting the data; third, display the results; fourth, discuss and interpret the results.

2.4 Writing Connect With Other Skills

Harold Rosen points out the difficult situation in which a writer can find him or herself. "The writer is a lonely figure cut off from the stimulus and corrective of listeners. He must be a predicator of reactions and act on his predictions. He writes with one hand tied behind his back, being robbed of gesture. He is robbed too of the tone of his voice and the aid of clues the environment provides." Writing is the most essential as one can be able to express in written form and there by more novel ideas from his mind.

It is noticed that in academic field, English writing skill plays influential role compared to other skills, so attention should be paid to study for Sudanese secondary school English language learners have great tendency to be good listeners, readers, speakers and writers in English foreign language. These students need careful attention towards these skills, however, the general command of students' language is reported to be poor, namely in writing skill.

2.5 Writing helps our students to learn. How?

Firstly, writing reinforces the grammatical structure, idioms, and vocabulary that had been teaching our students.

Secondly, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risk.

Thirdly, when they write, they necessary become very involved with the new language, the effort to express idea and the constant use of eye, hand and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning.

As writers struggle with what to put down next or how to put it down in paper, they often discover something new to write or new ways of expressing their ideas. They a real need for finding the right word and the right sentence.

The closet relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.

- The experienced teachers should use their knowledge to show what should be done to develop the writing skill.
- Researcher hopes that the same study should be carried out in the other states.
- Teachers' views and ideas should be taken into consideration when designing the school syllabus.
- Setting up realistic tasks which are relevant to students' life.
- Exploiting literature to teach and improve students' ability in writing.

2.6 Types of Writing

Mrs. Ellis – a better writer) states that “there are actually five different types guidelines to fit the purpose of their writing and it will make learners writing better and a master writer.

2.6.1 Descriptive

This kind of writing depends on senses to describe the people, places and what do you see, hear, smell, taste and feel. So create a picture for readers through description so they step into the story. This type of writing is frequently used and may be found in books as well as magazines and newspaper articles.

2.6.2 Compare and Contrast

This type of writing allows the writer to point out similarities and differences about topics, subjects or objects. Compare means to identify how topics are alike or similar. On the other hand, contrast means to identify what is different. Here the readers can grasp the big picture.

2.6.3 Expository

This kind of writing is a fancy way to explain or inform readers something like how to make a peanut butter and jelly sandwich. In social studies the writer informs readers of how a war began or about how pyramids ever came to be.

2.6.4 Narrative

This kind of writing is to tell a story, use literacy elements like character, a setting, a plot and a theme. From novels to screen plays to plays, they are all narratives because they tell a story.

2.6.5 Persuasive

This kind of writing is where the writer tries to change your mind or point of view. Using facts and opinions, the writer tries to get learners to see things, Politics over flows with writing and speeches by people trying to persuade others to their way of thinking, sometimes, in newspapers and magazines. Learners can see persuasive writing in articles called editorials according to school world, 2015 – privacy statement – school web site.

2.7 The Objectives of Teaching English at Lower Level

There are many objectives of teaching English at the lower level as on the following:

- a. The students should be able to form simple sentences in English.
- b. The students should express clearly their ideas from semantic wise.
- c. The students should speak with good pronunciation.
- d. The students should use the pronunciation.
- e. The students should use vocabulary which are relevant to context

2.8. The Objectives of Teaching English at Higher Level

There are many objectives of teaching English at the higher level as on the following:

- a. The students should write English legibly and correctly.
- b. The students should be able to express fluently in English.
- c. The students should be able to develop mastery in English.
- d. The students should compose different articles in English.
- e. The students should be able to comprehend the spoken by other.

2.9. Teaching Writing Skill

Writing is the most important activity in learning a language. S.S. Danigrahi-p-28 points out "Writing depends on other skills, unless a person acquainted with the letters of a particular language and its pronunciation, he cannot be able to write clearly and in accurate manner. As mentioned above writing skill linked with listening and speaking skills when the English learner master the two communicative skills, he will indeed master writing. In teaching writing skill some techniques are to be followed and these techniques should be imported to the learners of EFL. The students should know using capital and small letters while writing as well as legibility and clarity in writing

2.10. Approach of Teaching Writing Skill

Approach is "Self-evident in nature. It tells what is to be taught in the class. Hence, it is higher than the method. It is at first priority on the part of the teacher and then he can proceed towards applying the method. (S.S. Danigrahi - 53).

The writer points out method and approach work together to fulfill the aim of education still than we can differentiate them. Method is a procedure applied in the process of education.

The writer points out three important aspects which need in teaching namely "What, why and how of the subject matter or content, what aspect deals with the proper approach and how aspect with the method of teaching and why aspect is

fulfilled by the various instructional objectives given on the text or content. The objectives which are deliberately made before will hence answer the question of “why” in teaching a particular content or subject matter.

However most secondary school students find it difficult to write essays free of errors of various types. Therefore, teaching of essay writing need to anticipate certain common types of errors. They may also find other types of errors which can be revealed by analyzing the written products or essays of the students. These are the conventions which are usually followed by the teachers of writing when analyzing students’ errors.

2.10.1. Focus on Accuracy

Accuracy refers to ability of the learners to produce grammatically correct sentences. The learners should not only know correct grammatical rules of the language also able to speak and write accurately. (According to Dr. Shilpi Rishi Srivastava – Dept of humanities -55- www.newmanpublication.com.)

2.10.2 Focus on Fluency

Fluency refers to a level of proficiency in communication. It is the ability to produce written and spoken sentences with ease, efficiency, without pause or a breakdown of communication. (Shilpi Rishi Srivastava. Dept of Humanities – 55- www.newmanpublication.com).

2.10.3 Focus on Text

The writer thought at some specific features of academic text including, text types, rhetorical purpose, register and linguistic accuracy, while many of these features may seem obvious, often the students especially those just entering tertiary education , find it far from straight forward to know exactly what is expected.

For ease of reference in discussing text types, we continue to use these labels, but we emphasize that you cannot assume that knowledge of what to expect in a certain text type is shared by students.

The essay for example, may contain different elements depending on whether it is framed as a critical review, a discussion, a personal response or and exposition.

Our implicit knowledge of what to expect from text types in response to certain prompts, such as discuss, critically evaluate, compare and contrast informs the judgments. The text types vary in response to the function that the text performs, which is not always reflected in the descriptive term applied to it.

In Sudanese secondary school the researcher thought probably the most commonly labeled text type is the essay as most students will have been taught a basic essay outline, introduction, body and conclusion at school. This linear structure represents a particular preference of Anglo-American academic writing. (Reid, 1984) that students from other cultures may need to be made aware of the writer points out the alternative title of argument essay, highlights one of the reasons for the pre-eminence of this text type in academic writing. It has evolved as a vehicle for synthesis, opinion, and theory, all of which imply argument of different sorts and which help to account for disparate nature of what is known as an essay.

2.10.4 Focus on Purpose

The researcher found out a variety of reasons that they can aid to critical thinking, understanding and memory, to extend students' learning beyond lectures and other formal meetings to improve students' communication skills, and to train students as future professionals in particular disciplines. This range of reasons for writing may not be so apparent to students who may see writing as mainly an assessment.

In order to apply way of focus on purpose students should follow the activity below:

Ask students to brainstorm individually all the types of writing, they have done in the last few weeks (e.g. Shopping lists, text messages, notes on lectures, experimental results, birthday cards, poetry). In small groups have students put

the different types of writing into some form of classification. You might want to suggest functional classification such as memory aids, social communication, learning about, for assessment, some forms of writing will fall into more than one category.

In a whole class discussion, narrow the focus to academic writing activities such as notes made on reading or in lectures, essay drafts and laboratory reports. Discuss the purposes of the different types of academic writing students have done. Ask students to consider the different audiences, the specific purpose of this form of writing, the kind of language, information and evidence, they need to draw upon. Extend the discussion to include other types of writing students will do in the future.

2.10.5 Focus on Process

The process approaches focus primarily on what writers do as they write rather than on textual features, but depending on the writers' immediate task. These approaches may also consider text features. The process approach includes different stages, which can be combined with other aspect of teaching writing.

Not all writers move through the stages included in process approaches. Some stages may be helpful and others superfluous to any given writing task. Stages of writing process can happen in various orders at different points. Lectures can help clarify students' misconceptions about writing by explicitly teaching the stages of the writing processes.

2.11 Types of Vocabulary

A distinction is usually made between active and passive vocabulary. (Doff – 1988-19) says words which we want student to understand (eg – when reading a text) but which they will not need to use themselves, call them “passive vocabulary). Words which students will need to understand and also use themselves call them “active vocabulary” Fromkin (2011-p-11) states that in English nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs make the largest part of

vocabulary. They are “open classes” because we can add new words to these classes. The other categories are for the most part “closed set” as the personal pronouns (I, me, mine, he, she, and it).

Finegan (1994-p-84) stated that morphemes that can stand alone as words are called (free morphemes. Such as boy, lend, motion etc..). Morphemes, which cannot stand alone, are called “Bound morphemes “such as tele, and er etc...

Nation (1990-p-4) classifies vocabulary into three groups, high frequency words, low frequency words and specialized vocabulary. The most important here is that learners should know the criteria of how to choose, and understand words.

2.12 Role of the Teacher

English writing skill teachers should know the difficulties which may face their students in the process of teaching in order to assist them to achieve their goals.

It is true that non-native speakers are more likely to commit errors. English teachers are indeed facing the challenge of adopting and developing a wide range of methods to accomplish effective teaching of English writing.

This of course, is not an easy task. A lot of students in Sudan continue to fail to master the basis of the English writing even after long years of formal educations.

Teachers of English language feel satisfied to have students who speak and write English correctly. This has been the ambition of all EFL teachers.

Students in governmental or non-governmental schools in Sudan start learning English from primary schools and by the end of secondary schools, the students have spent more than eight years and that their vocabulary repertoire is expected to be massive, their knowledge of grammar rules and the mechanics of writing is satisfying, most of the students are still not able to write a correct paragraph using the basic structures of English language which they have learnt. However, why do students still find difficulties in English when their teachers do their best to help them to achieve good results?

Teachers of writing skill in Sudanese secondary schools difficulties in encouraging their students where they developed their English vocabulary to use it correctly in conveying various textual meaning. Translation is regarded as a serious problem that is facing teachers of writing skill in Sudanese school as most of the students translate the text ideas to their mother tongue.

Sudanese teachers are to find methods to activate in a meaningful way the passive knowledge the students possess in terms of writing skill. As well as to help the students become more proficient while working to eliminate some of their common errors. A better understanding of the [L1] influence in the process of EFL. Rivers (1968-p- 243) argues that any academic writers must meet four major conditions:

- A. The conventions of the language.
- B. He must learn to control the structure of the language so that what he writes is comprehensible to his reader.
- C. He must learn the graphic systems of foreign language.
- D. He must learn to select from among possible combinations of words and phrases those which will convey the nuances, he has in mind in the register which is most appropriates.

2.13 Qualities of Good Writing

Since writing is a matter of translating the sound of words into common graphic symbols, its subjects to the requirements of good qualities which include the following:-

- Accuracy
- Clarity
- Naturalness

Accuracy of writing means the use of correct style of symbols structure namely in terms of words formulation or morphological structure and syntax. If so, the written context or message will transmit the exact sound and meaning intended by the writer.

While clarity of writing means the use of the most clear ways of writing to convey the intended and exact meanings and ideas expressed by the speakers or writers as simple as possible to enable the ordinary recipient or reader to get those intended meanings and hence understand them.

Whereas, naturalness of writing context mainly cohesiveness and coherence of the written text, and it must follow the natural form of the target language in order to enable the reader to get ideas from what he reads.

In addition to the above three qualities also there are many varied skills necessary for writing good prose these skills are:

- Language use: the ability to write correct and appropriate sentence.
- Mechanical skills: the ability to use correctly these conventions in written language, e.g. punctuation marks, spelling, etc.
- Treatment of content: the ability to think creatively, develop thoughts and excluding all relevant information.
- Stylistic skills: the ability to manipulate sentences, paragraph, and use language effectively.
- Judgment skills: the ability to write in an appropriate manner for a particular purpose with a particular audience in mind, together with an ability to select, organize, and order relevant information

(J.B Heaton .1989:p.134 – 135)

Successful candidates will have passed an examination designed to test ability to produce a selection of the following types of writing:

- Basic level: letters, postcards, diary entry and forms.
- Intermediate level: as basic level, plus guide and set of instructions.
- Advanced level: as intermediate level plus newspapers, report, and notes.

Also the candidates' performance will have met the following minimum criteria:

- Basic level: no confusing errors of grammar, vocabulary, a piece of writing legible and reading intelligible and able to produce simple unsophisticated sentences.
- Intermediate level: accurate grammar, vocabulary and spelling though possibly with some mistake which don't destroy communication, handwriting generally legible, clear expressions, appropriate usage, a fair range of language, able to link them and points coherently.

- Advanced level: extremely with high standard of grammar, vocabulary, spelling, easily legible handwriting, no obvious limitations on range of language able to use accurately, ability to produce organized coherent writing and displaying considerable sophistication (Ibid. p. 137- 139)

2.14 Learners' Problems of Writing in English

Constructing grammatically acceptable sentence in a language for one who has not acquired or mastered writing skills often been a problem. Sudanese students are exempted from this (Yule 1998. P.2). (Quotes Michael Montaigne) in these words "the greater part of this world's problems are due to questions of grammar" this is not far from the truth since English is being learned as a foreign language for specific needs such as business, diplomacy and academic purposes ... etc and that must be used with such accuracy and effectiveness that it can be easily understood by the native speakers. That is to say learners must have a certain standard approximating the native speaker's. in other words when learners fall far below this standard, they are said to be making errors.

2.15 When Students Make Errors?

- They make errors when they have problems with the chain of language (syntax).
- Errors contain certain valuable information on the strategies that people use to acquire a language.
- Avoidance of excessive errors in the best policy in any teaching program.

The problem with the chain of language or syntax are connected with what Chomsky (1965) calls competence has been explained as that knowledge which enables the native speaker of language understand and produce the grammatical sentences of the language, and to accept or reject sentences produced by other as grammatical or ungrammatical using the internalized rules, and the term has been explained as the native speaker's actual production of grammatical sentences, for this reason the role of performance should be considered a long side that knowledge in the teaching process since competence is knowing what is grammatically correct and performance is what is actually occurs in practice. This concept illustrated in (Hubbard et al 2000. P. 143) as spoken and written texts.

2.16 Errors

According to Brown, “errors concern a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the inter language competence of the learner” (1994 p- 205). The important idea need to be stated here, errors refer to structures only. Both Corder (1967, 1971) and James (1998) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so. A mistake can be self-corrected, but errors cannot. Errors are “systematic” ie. Likely to happen regularly and not recognized by learners. Hence, only teachers or researchers would locate them, the learners would not (Gass&Selinker – 1994). Norrish (1983) made a clear distinction between errors and mistakes. The writer stated errors are “systematic deviation when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong”. Also the writer added that when a learner of English as a second or a foreign language makes an error systematically. It is because the learner has not learnt the correct form. Norrish defined mistakes as “inconsistently deviation when a learner has been taught a certain correct form and the writer uses one from sometimes and another at the other times quite inconsistently, the inconsistent deviation is called mistake and it is in this light that the researcher has chosen to focus on students’ errors not mistakes. An error however is considered more serious. In contrastive analysis, the theoretical base of which was behaviorism, errors were seen as “bad habits” that had been formed. The response way based on stimulus. It was assumed that interference of the mother tongue [L1] was responsible for the errors made during the transition period of learning the target language. The researcher found out many errors committed by Arabic speaking students in essay writing.

The study will first provide information on errors in the writing of EFL secondary school students. Second describe the method of the study used in collecting the data third the results and discussions, Fourth conclusions and recommendation.

2.17 Types of Errors

In this study the researcher concentrates on certain types of errors. These errors are spelling errors, Morphological errors, syntactic errors, semantic errors and miscellaneous errors.

2.17.1 Spelling Errors

There are many types of errors such as:

Substitution eg S for C, Y for I (absense, arbitraryness)

Omission, eg single consonants for double, omission of vowel, consonants , consonants delays or anticipation of consonants e.g. (Receive, prescriptive, recognize) Homophones, ie using words that sound the same but are spelt differently eg (your, /you're, their/they're, hear/here, illicit/elicit, principle/principal, practice/practise, two/too/to). Other eg likely typographical errors or slip, Archaism. (Based on Wary, 1996-99, 100) The apostrophe ('s): spelling and grammar errors combine in the case of the apostrophe in English. Much confusion is caused because the usage of ('s) in every day contexts such as (shop signs) is changing students may not be familiar with rules governing the use of specific elements for example where the ('s) , (s) or (s') should be used.

2.17.2 Syntactic Errors

Syntax is the combination of words into sentences. Syntax, of course depends on lexical categories (parts of speech). There are eight main parts of speech in grammar school. Linguistics takes a different approach to these categories and break down words into morphological and syntactic groups.

2.17.3 Semantic Errors

Richard D. Moors (2011) argues that "Semantics relates to the meaning of words, sentences or programs" In common English we might usually say this sentences has a few grammatical errors, but the semantics are clear. E.g. "I getted the milk out of the fridge and putted them into me coffee." On the other

hand, these sentences are grammatically fine but semantically ambiguous. Eg “Children make nutritious snacks”, “Police shoot man with crossbow”.

2.17.4 Miscellaneous Errors

These errors can be paralleling, clearness, neatness ... etc “Final drafts”. Writers need to check particular words, and to understand their meaning.

2.17.5 Morphological Errors

The surface forms of words are into morphological components during lexical access and that morphologically complex words are generated from more basic stems and inflections during production has been derived from psycholinguistic experimentation with normal subjects (e.g. Taft , 1979, 1981, 1984 Strainers, Nosier, Hernon and dHall, 1979, Buranietal 1984). From research with brain-damaged subjects.(EgCoramazz, Miceli, Silvert and Lavdama, 1985). It copies from (Sudanese Centre for Scientific Research- Sr. Omer – ElsheikhHago).

2.18 Errors Correction

According to TE editor (2003), when it comes to errors correction, we are dealing with one individual's reaction to a student's piece of writing or difference. The aim of this article is to highlight some key areas. It is in two parts. In the first part, we look at;

2.19. Attitudes to Error Correction

The fact that English is their second language and great emphasis was placed on correctness at their teacher training college. In 1960s a teacher using audio lingualism would have adopted a behaviorist approach to error. More recently teachers follow the natural approach and other methodologies.

2.20. Categorizing Errors

We can categorize an error by the reason for its production by its linguistic type.

- A. What's the reason for the error Pre-systematic. (It is the result of random guess)

Systematic- (It was produced while testing out hypothesis. Post-systematic. (It is a slip of the tongue, a lapse, a mistake caused by carelessness, fatigue and Etc) Check which types of errors the students produced. We need to know where the students inter language is (the language used by a student in the process of learning a second language)

B. What type is it?

We can classify errors simply as productive (spoken or written) receptive (faulty understanding).

Alternatively we can use the following:

A. Lexical errors (vocabulary)

B. Phonological errors (pronunciation).

C. Syntactic errors (grammar).

D. Interpretive errors (misunderstanding of a speaker's intention and meaning).

E. Pragmatic errors (failure to apply the rules of conversation).

2.21 Errors Analysis

Systematically analyzing errors made by language learners make it possible to determine areas that need reinforcement in teaching (Corder, 1974). It consists a comparison between the errors made in the target language (TL) and that TL itself. "Pit Corder is the father of error analysis. (The E A the new look). It was with his article entitled "The Significance of Learner Errors, 1967" that EA took a new turn. Errors used to be "flaws" that need to be eradicated; Corder presented a completely different point of view. He contended that those errors are "important in and of themselves" for learners themselves, errors are indispensable, since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn.

2.22 Sources of Errors

In 1972, Selinker in Richards, 1974, p 37) reported five sources of errors:

- a. Language transfer.
- b. Transfer of training
- c. Strategies of second language learning.
- d. Strategies of second language communication and over generalization of (TL) linguistic materials.

In 1974 Corder, (in Allen & Corder, p 130) identified three sources of errors; Language transfer, overgeneralization an analogy of methods or (materials used in teaching)

2.23 Errors and Mistakes

It is essential here to make a distinction between mistakes and errors. According to Brown mistakes refer to "a failure to utilize a known system correctly" whereas errors concern "a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner" (1994a: 205). Two things need to be stated here: Firstly, mistakes do not require special treatment assuming they are recognized. Secondly, error here refers to structures only. Both Corder (1967, 1971) and James (1998) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so: A mistake can be self-corrected, but an error cannot. Errors are "systematic," i.e. likely to happen regularly and not recognized by the learner. Hence, only the teacher or researcher would locate them, the learner would not (Gass&Selinker, 1994).

Norrish (1983) made a clear distinction between errors and mistakes. He stated errors are" systematic deviation when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong." He added that when a learner of English as a second or a foreign language makes an error systematically, it is because he has not learnt the correct form. Norrish defined mistakes as "inconsistent deviation." When a learner has been taught a certain correct form, and he uses one form

sometimes and another at other times quite inconsistently, the inconsistent deviation is called a mistake. And it is in this light that the researcher has chosen to focus on students' errors not mistakes. An error, however, is considered more serious. In Contrastive Analysis, the theoretical base of which was behaviourism, errors were seen as “bad habits” that had been formed. The response was based on the stimulus. It was assumed that interference of the mother tongue (L1) was responsible for the errors made during the transition period of learning the target language. As an English teacher, I am well aware of the fact that my Arabic speaking students in grade 12, science section, commit many errors in essay writing (See appendix 6). These students have been studying English almost their whole lives and still, their errors are numerous.

In the cognitive approach, errors are seen as a clue to what is happening in the mind. They are seen as a natural phenomenon that must occur as learning a first or second language takes place before correct grammar rules are completely internalized. I think teachers are relieved to find a more realistic attitude towards errors. Errors are no longer a reflection on their teaching methods, but are, rather, indicators that learning is taking place. So errors are no longer “bad” but “good” or natural just as natural as errors that occur in learning a first language. The insight that errors are a natural and important part of the learning process itself, and do not all come from mother tongue interference, is very important. There is variation in learners' performance depending on the task. Learners may have more control over linguistic forms for certain tasks, while for others they may be more prone to error.

2.24 Significance of Errors

Many educators and theorists in the field of error analysis have focused on the importance of second language learners' errors. Corder (1967) indicates that errors are significant in three different ways. First to the teachers, in that they tell them how far towards the goal the learners have advanced and consequently, what remains for them to learn. Second, they provide to the researchers evidence of how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learners are employing in their discovery of the language. Thirdly, they are indispensable to the learners themselves, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learners use in order to learn. Research has provided empirical evidence pointing to emphasis on learners' errors as an effective means of improving grammatical accuracy (White et al, 1991; Carroll and Swain, 1993). Indeed, as Carter (1997:35) notes, 'Knowing more about how grammar works is to understand more about how grammar is used and misused'. There is a need for students to recognize the significance of errors which occur in their writing, to fully grasp and understand the nature of the errors made. This requires English language teachers to be better equipped, more sensitive and aware of the difficulties students face with regard to grammar. In other words, it is a way the learners have for testing their hypotheses about the nature of the language they are learning. Taking these ideas into consideration, this study attempts to identify the grammatical errors which students make in writing English essays in order to help teachers of English tackle the problem and to indicate the points of weakness in English writing.

To better understand the Emirati secondary male student's grammatical errors in writing English essays, it is helpful to examine the literature in the following areas: the causes and sources of errors, error analysis and patterns of errors.

2.25 Causes and Sources of Errors

A lot of causes and sources of errors have been introduced by some theorists. In the following section the primary causes of errors will be reviewed: Interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors are those which are related to the native language (NL). That's to say there are interlingual errors when the learners' NL habits (patterns, systems or rules) interfere or prevent them, to some degree, from acquiring the patterns and rules of the second language (SL) (Corder, 1971). Interference (negative transfer) is the negative influence of the mother tongue language (MTL) on the performance of the target language (TL) learner (Lado, 1964).

Intralingual errors are those due to the language being learned, independent of the native language. According to Richards (1971) they are items produced by the learner which reflect not the structure of the mother tongue, but generalizations based on partial exposure to the target language. The learner, in this case, tries to “derive the rules behind the data to which he/she has been exposed, and may develop hypotheses that correspond neither to the mother tongue nor to the target language” (Richards, 1974, p. 6). In other words, they produce deviant or ill- formed sentences by erroneously applying their knowledge of TL rules and structures to new situations. In 1974, Selinker (in Richards, 1974, p. 37) reported five sources of errors:

- a. Language transfer.
- b. Transfer of training.
- c. Strategies of second language learning.
- d. Strategies of second language communication.
- e. Overgeneralization of TL linguistic material.

In 1974 Corder (in Allen & Corder, p. 130) identified three sources of errors: Language Transfer, Overgeneralization or analogy, & Methods or Materials used in the Teaching (teaching-induced error). In the paper titled “The Study of

Learner English” that Richards and Simpson wrote in 1974, they displayed seven sources of errors:

1. Language transfer, to which one third of the deviant sentences from second language learners could be attributed (George, 1971).
2. Intralingual interference: In 1970, Richards exposed four types and causes for intralingual errors:

Overgeneralization (p. 174): it is associated with redundancy reduction. It covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure based on his experience of other structures in the target language. It may be the result of the learner reducing his linguistic burden.

a. Ignorance of rule restrictions: i.e. applying rules to contexts to which they do not apply.

b. Incomplete application of rules.

C. Semantic errors such as building false concepts/systems: i.e. faulty comprehension of distinctions in the Target language (TL).

3. Sociolinguistic situation: motivation (instrumental or integrative) and settings for language learning (compound or co-ordinate bilingualism) may affect second language learning.
4. Modality: modality of exposure to the TL and modality of production.
5. Age: learning capacities vary with age.
6. Successions of approximative systems: since the cases of language learning varies from a person to another and so does the acquisition of new lexical, phonological, and syntactic items.
7. Universal hierarchy of difficulty: This factor has received little interest in the literature of 2nd language acquisition. It is related to the inherent difficulty for man of certain phonological, syntactic, or semantic items or structures. Some forms may be inherently difficult to learn no matter what the background of the learner is. Krashen (1982) suggested that the

acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early while others late. This order seemed to be independent of the learners' age, L1 background, and conditions of exposure.

James (1998, p. 178) exposed three main diagnosis-based categories of error:

1. Interlingual: interference happens when “an item or structure in the second language manifests some degree of difference from and some degree of similarity with the equivalent item or structure in the learner’s first language”

(Jackson, 1981 101).

2.26 Intralingual

a) Learning strategy-based errors:

- i. False analogy
- ii. Misanalysis
- iii. Incomplete rule application
- iv. Exploiting redundancy
- v. Overlooking co-occurrence restrictions
- vi. Hypercorrection (monitor overuse)
- vii. Overgeneralization or system simplification

b) Communication strategy-based errors:

- i. Holistic strategies: e.g. approximation and language switch
- ii. Analytic strategies: circumlocution (expressing the concept indirectly, by allusion rather than by direct reference).

3. Induced errors: they “result more from the classroom situation than from either the student’s incomplete competence in English grammar (intralingual errors) or first language interference (interlingual errors)

- a. Material induced errors
- b. Teacher-talk induced errors
- c. Exercise-based induced errors
- d. Errors induced by pedagogical priorities
- e. Look-up errors

Language transfer is another important cognitive factor related to writing error. Transfer is defined as the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired (Odlin, 1989). The study of transfer involves the study of errors (negative transfer), facilitation (positive transfer), avoidance of target language forms, and their over-use (Ellis, 1994). Behaviorist accounts claim that transfer is the cause of errors, whereas from a cognitive perspective, transfer is seen as a resource that the learner actively draws upon in interlanguage development (Selinker, 1972).

Despite the fact that L1 transfer is no longer viewed as the only predictor or cause of error at the structural level, a writer's first language plays a complex and significant role in L2 acquisition. For example, when learners write under pressure, they may call upon systematic resources from their native language for the achievement and synthesis of meaning (Widdowson, 1990). Research has also shown that language learners sometimes use their native language when generating ideas and attending to details (Friedlander, 1990). In addition, contrastive studies, which have focused on characteristics of L1 languages and cultures, have helped us predict rhetorical error in writing. These studies have been valuable in our understanding of L2 writing development. However, many feel that these studies have also led to reductive, essentializing generalizations about ways of writing and cultural stereotypes about students from certain linguistic backgrounds (Fox, 1994; Leki, 1997; Spack, 1997). As a result, erroneous predictions about students' learning based on their L1 language and

culture have occurred regardless of social factors, such as "the contexts, and purpose of their learning to write, or their age, race, class, gender, education, and prior experience" (Raimes, 1998, p. 143).

J. Kerr (1970) based his study on the common errors in written English made by a group of Greek learners of English as a foreign language. It was found that the causes of mistakes were: 1. Ignorance of the words or constructions to express an idea; 2. Carelessness; 3. The influence of the mother – tongue; 4. Mistakes arising from making false analogies with other elements of the foreign language.

On the other hand, Ntumngia (1974) conducted research on error analysis of Francophone Cameroonian secondary school students. The purpose of this study was to identify and analyze the errors of these students with the hope that this identification and analysis would result in implications for instructional strategies used by teachers of English. The result of the study showed that the sources of errors committed by the students were due to both interlingual and intralingual factors. For instance, the writing problems experienced by Spanish speakers living in the United States may be due to a multiplicity of factors, including the effects of transfer and interference from the Spanish language, and cultural norms (Plata, 1995). First of all, learners may translate from L1, or they may try out what they assume is a legitimate structure of the target language, although hindered by insufficient knowledge of correct usage. In the learning process, they often experience native language interference from developmental stages of interlanguage or from nonstandard elements in spoken dialects (a common occurrence in students writing in their native language as well). They also tend to over-generalize the rules for stylistic features when acquiring new discourse structures. In addition, learners are often not certain of what they want to express, which would cause them to make errors in any language.

Finally, writers in L2 might lack familiarity with new rhetorical structures and the organization of ideas (Carson, 2001; Connor & Kaplan, 1987; Kutz, Groden, & Zamel, 1993; Raimes, 1987). L2 writing relates closely to native-language literacy and particular instructional contexts. Students may not be acquainted with English rhetoric, which can lead to writing that appears off topic or incoherent to many learners of English as a foreign language. The studies relating to the process of language transfer and overgeneralization received considerable attention in the literature. Swan and Smith (1995, p. ix) gave a detailed account of errors made by

Speakers of nineteen different L1 backgrounds in relation to their native languages.

Diab (1996) also conducted a study in order to show through error analysis the interference of the mother-tongue, Arabic, in the English writings of EFL students at the American University of Beirut. Okuma (1999) studied the L1 transfer in the EFL writings of Japanese students. Work on over-generalization errors, on the other hand, is reported by Richards (1974, pp. 172-188), Jain (in Richards, 1974, pp. 208-214) and Taylor (1975). Furthermore, Farooq (1998) identified and analyzed two error patterns in written texts of upper-basic Japanese learners,

In an EFL context, he focused on both transfer and overgeneralization errors. Habbash (1982) studied common errors in the use of English prepositions in the written work of students at the end of the preparatory cycle in the Jerusalem area and found out that more errors were attributable to interference from Arabic than to other learning problems. She indicated that students always resort to literal translation before they form English patterns. In other words, they translate the English into Arabic and then the Arabic back into English, word for word (not phrase by phrase. Finally it is clear from this brief

discussion that the learner brings with him one source of error: his mother tongue. Even more importantly, the learning process itself is the source of other errors.

2.27 Error Analysis

Error analysis is an essential source of information to teachers. It provides information on students' errors which in turn helps teachers to correct students' errors and also improves the effectiveness of their teaching. The study of errors by themselves would have been misleading, but in contrast to the number of correct responses gives a good picture of which items are being mastered and which are not. This study hopes to enlighten teachers on the grammatical errors that require remedial work so that time is not wasted on teaching grammar items or any other linguistic features which pose little or no problems to the majority of the students in relation to writing compositions.

The definition of error analysis by Corder (1974) is very close to the Malaysian context: "What has come to be known as error analysis has to do with the investigation of the language of second language learners." In line with the emphasis on examinations in the Malaysian education system, Lim (1976), stated: "One of the main aims of error analysis is to help teachers assess more accurately what remedial work would be necessary for English as a Second Language (ESL) students preparing for an English Language test, so as to help these students avoid the most common errors."

Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the Target Language (TL) and that TL itself. Pit Corder is the "Father" of Error Analysis (the EA with the "new look"). It was with his article entitled "The significance of Learner Errors" (1967) that EA took a new turn. Errors used to be "flaws" that needed to be eradicated. Corder presented a completely different point of

view. He contended that those errors are “important in and of themselves.” For learners themselves, errors are 'indispensable,' since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn.

Hence, I have decided to conduct an error analysis, the best tool for describing and explaining errors made by speakers of other languages (Johanson, 1975) in order to know the sources of these errors and the reasons behind their continuous occurrence year after year with different groups of learners.

We find studies such as Richards's "A non-contrastive approach to error analysis" (1971), where he identifies sources of competence errors; L1 transfer results in interference errors; incorrect (incomplete or over-generalized) application of language rules results in intralingual errors; construction of faulty hypotheses in L2 results in developmental errors. Not all researchers have agreed with the above distinction, such as Dulay and Burt (1974) who proposed the following three categories of errors: developmental, interference and unique. Stenson (1974) proposed another category, that of induced errors, which result from incorrect instruction of the language. In addition to studies focusing on error categorization and analysis, various studies concentrated on these three different areas. In other words, research was conducted not only in order to understand errors per se, but also in order to use what is learned from error analysis and apply it to improve language competence. Such studies include Kroll and Schafer's "Error-Analysis and the Teaching of Composition", where the authors demonstrate how error analysis can be used to improve writing skills. They analyze possible sources of error in non-native-English writers, and attempt to provide a process approach to writing where the error analysis can help achieve better writing skills.

2.2.1. Models for Error Analysis

Corder (1967 & 1974) identified a model for error analysis which included three stages:

- a. Data collection: Recognition of idiosyncrasy.
- b. Description: Accounting for idiosyncratic dialect.
- c. Explanation (the ultimate object of error analysis).

Brown (1994, pp. 207-211) and Ellis (1995, pp. 51-52) elaborated on this model. Ellis (1997, pp. 15-20) and Hubbard et al. (1996, pp. 135-141) gave practical advice and provided clear examples of how to identify and analyze learners' errors. The initial step requires the selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors. The errors are then classified. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, demands an explanation of different types of errors. Moreover, Gass&Selinker (1994: 67) identified 6 steps followed in conducting an error analysis: Collecting data, Identifying errors, Classifying errors, Quantifying errors, Analyzing source of error, and Remediating for errors.

Systematically analyzing errors made by language learners makes it possible to determine areas that need reinforcement in teaching (Corder, 1974).

While Sridhar, (1980:222) considered the following steps for error analysis:

- a. Collection of data (either from a 'free' composition by students on a given theme or from examination answers).
- b. Identification of errors (labelling with varying degree of precision depending on the linguistic sophistication brought to bear upon the task, with respect to the exact nature of the deviation, e.g. dangling preposition, anomalous sequence of tenses, etc.).
- c. Classification into error types (e.g. errors of agreement, articles, verb forms, etc.);
- d. Statement of relative frequency of error types.
- e. Identification of the areas of difficulty in the target language.
- f. Therapy (remedial drills, lessons, etc.).

In fact, there has been little research on errors in written English compared with the studies that have concentrated on reading and phonology even within the limited field of error analysis. Ultimately, the use of error analysis and appropriate corrective techniques can aid effective teaching and learning of the English language. It is very essential in this connection to go through some literature conducted in the field of analysis of students' errors in writing.

In reviewing many studies written on this field it has been found out that most students commit many different types of errors in writing English compositions. Bataineh (2005) conducted a research on errors on using indefinite articles made by third secondary students. She found out that secondary students committed nine types of errors, and their frequency computed and then compared across the three levels. The analysis revealed that all errors, except one, are independent of the learners' native language.

In another study done on 80 students at a Jordanian University with an average of 11 years' instruction behind them, in two different studies, Mukkatesh (1981) explored the errors in the production of wh-questions by Arab-speaking students. He found that approximately 25% of students' errors involved a failure to invert the subject and verb or auxiliary. The author notes that while this could be a sign of LI influence, it has also been reported to be characteristic of first language learners and second language learners from other linguistic backgrounds. Students also frequently omitted do in questions formed from sentences in which there was not an auxiliary. Again, this result could be attributed to L1 influence or interlanguage. Students were found to use do or be incorrectly instead of other auxiliaries, which can only be attributed to interlanguage. The author concludes that error analysis is a method which cannot differentiate in many cases between possible sources of error. On the other hand, Habash (1982), studied common errors in the use of English prepositions in the written work of preparatory students in the Jerusalem area

and found out that more errors were attributable to interference from Arabic than to other learning problems.

Khuwaileh and Al Shoumali (2000) conducted a similar study to investigate the Jordanian students' writing errors and they found that tense errors are the most frequent ones committed by Arab learners. This thing might happen because Arabic has three tenses only. Lin (2002) examined 26 essays from Taiwanese EFL students at the college level. The results of this study indicated that the four highest error frequencies were sentence structures (30.43 %), wrong verb forms (21.01%), sentence fragments (15.94%), and wrong use of words (15.94%), respectively. Also, to discover learning deficiencies in writing English, Kao (1999) scrutinized 169 compositions from 53 Taiwanese college students who were English major students. Twenty-two of them came from Soochow University and 31 were from Fu Hsing Kang College. A total of 928 errors were found, among which grammatical errors occurred with the greatest frequency, 66%, Semantic errors occurred 18% of the time, and Lexical errors occurred with the least frequency, 16%. Ying (1987) examined 120 Taiwanese EFL learners' compositions and sorted errors on the basis of three criteria: overgeneralization, simplification, and language transfer. A total of 1,250 errors were detected in the 120 compositions, among which 78.9% of the errors were a result of language transfer, 13.6% were overgeneralization of the target language, and 7.5% were forms of simplification.

The results in Tadros, (1983) study indicated that some errors made by Sudanese students are caused by the interference from the learners' L1. Chuo (2001) agreed that the use of L1 requires language teachers to explain abstract and complicated grammar structures. To help beginning EFL learners better understand English grammar, contrastive analysis that compares the Mandarin and English languages was used in this study to facilitate grammatical explanation as well as to clarify the linguistic differences between Mandarin

and English. The steps for contrastive analysis involve selection and comparability (Sridhar, 1975). Instead of overall comparison between Mandarin and English, the researcher contrasted these two languages on the core elements of speech, including verbs, nouns and articles. On the other hand, James Handrickson (1979) made an experiment in error analysis and error correction at Ohio State University on adult intermediate ESL learners. It was found that most communicative errors resulted from inadequate lexical knowledge, misuse of prepositions and pronouns or seriously misspelled lexical items. Most linguistic errors were caused by inappropriate lexical choice, lack of subject-verb agreement, misuse and omission of prepositions, faulty word order or misspelled words.

The Henning (1978) study is consistent with Handrickson when he analyzed developmental error patterns in adult Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. It was found that simple prepositions were incorrectly used very frequently. The conclusion reached was that mastery in the usage of English prepositions according to their meanings is one of the most sensitive indicators of the degree of English proficiency' (Henning, 1978: 396: 397).

Obeidat, H. A. (1986) study was similar to that of Mukattash, L. (1981) in investigating the syntactic and semantic errors in the written composition of Arab EFL learners. It was found that students in both studies made interlingual errors in determiners and preposition usage, retaining presumptive pronouns in relative clauses, word order, missing subjects and copula, and verb and preposition idioms. Students were also found to make interlingual errors in proverbs and idioms, prefabricated expressions, and forms of address. Evidence of lexical interference was also found. Intralingual errors were found in relative pronoun and wh-questions, subject-verb agreement, verb forms, copula, auxiliary, tense usage, and word choice. The author asserts that some error such

as copula and third person singular -s deletion are evidence of universal grammar.

Analyzing the errors made by Taiwanese EFL college students, Chen (1998) reported that most Taiwanese students have difficulties in the use of English tenses due to the absence of verb conjugation in Mandarin. Since Mandarin is not an inflected language, Fang (1999) highlighted the teaching of English verb tenses to prevent Taiwanese EFL students from misusing English tenses due to the linguistic difference. Another grammatical error that is frequently found in Taiwanese EFL students' compositions is the misuse of English articles. Chen (2000) considered that English articles could be one of the most difficult grammatical parts for Taiwanese EFL students as there is not an equivalent syntactical device to the English article system.

2.28 The Influence of L1 on L2

The influence of L1 on L2 was also examined by Lakkis and Malak (2000) who concentrated on the transfer of Arabic prepositional knowledge to English by Arab students. Both positive and negative transfer were examined in order to help teachers identify problematic areas for Arab students and help them understand where transfer should be encouraged or avoided. In particular, they concluded that "an instructor of English, whose native language is Arabic, can use the students' L1 for structures that use equivalent prepositions in both languages. On the other hand, whenever there are verbs or expressions in the L1 and L2 that have different structures, that take prepositions, or that have no equivalent in one of the languages, instructors should point out these differences to their students".

Generally, most studies conducted in the fields of causes and sources of errors and error analysis generated a conclusion that mother tongue interference is the main factor that is responsible for the cause of errors in students' writings. Furthermore, research done on error analysis among Arab and non-Arab

students revealed that approximately the most common types of errors are all similar, they are focused on grammatical errors such as the wrong use of prepositions, verb tense, articles and subject-verb agreement.

The capacity to write well academically at tertiary levels is a plausible expectation of university students. Academic writing is often developed in students through formal instructional settings, although the proficiency in academic writing may be influenced by cognitive development, educational experiences and overall proficiency in L2 (second language) for ESL (English as a second language) students. In the case of L1 (first language) students, there are research reports indicative of poor academic writing skills, despite of the fact that L1 students possess productive knowledge of vocabulary required at tertiary levels, and are grammatically more fluent (Hinkel, 2004). Writing involves composing, developing and analyzing ideas, implying the ability to rephrase information in the form of narratives, or transforming information into new texts as in argumentative writing (Myles, 2002). Writing in academic contexts requires students to advance their own Evidence of the growing importance of English L2 writing is becoming increasingly dominant in both educational programs and in professional writing in non-English dominant countries (Leki, 2001). Academic writing is a much desired skill in tertiary students. However, among ESL students, academic writing is often perceived as overwhelming mainly due to ESL learners' lack of grammatical and vocabulary competency. In an Asian context, most students have not engaged in academic discourse in their formal writing courses during secondary school education and are often introduced to academic writing at university. Ultimately, both context and inadequacies of English language proficiency compounds the academic writing difficulties experienced by ESL students at tertiary levels. Literature confirms the inadequacies experienced by university ESL students in their academic writing in English. Olivas and Li (2006) connected low second-language proficiency levels in English and poor academic performance of

international students studying at both university and college levels in the United States. Increasingly, criticism has been directed against students' inability to write at acceptable levels and standards particularly among ESL international students (Horner & Min-Zhan, 1999; Rose, 1989).

Although many ESL students at university have a general understanding of grammar rules, not many are able to write academically at levels expected. Most students in the foundation course are not cognizant of their lack of ability in academic writing. Therefore, monitoring the development through the assessing and grouping of academic skill levels of learners can be arduous and challenging for ESL instructors. In this project, the four essential criteria for developing good academic writing skills were investigated, such as attitudes towards academic writing tasks, planning, writing paragraphs and essays, and evaluating their own writing. Peet (1997) whose studies focused on L1 learners at tertiary levels recommended that in order to evaluate the standards of academic writing, instructors need to assess the four elements mentioned above. Simic (1994) suggested that advancements in writing proficiency can be accelerated, when with sufficient scaffolding, learners are encouraged to experiment concurrently with several aspects of the writing process, thereby, understanding interconnections. In ESL academic writing, instruction has mostly moved away from a traditionally "product" approach to a "process" approach where instructors work with students on their written drafts and provide feedback for continuous improvement. The process approach centers around on writing activities that engage learners in the process of writing, such as generation of ideas, drafting, revising, editing, etc., whereas in the product approach, the instructor evaluates grammatical and language structures and content in general, and grades the work without opportunities for feedback and revisions. Process approaches focus on cognitive strategies that can be applied to writing tasks before developing a piece of writing that is well developed.

Through this approach, the process allows the student to develop one's own voice and they become more self-directed (Matsuda, 2003). In the foundations programme, students are introduced to the argumentative or persuasive writing genre, and instructors use the process approach to assist students in developing academic writing skills. Feedback is provided on students' drafts to help them identify their areas of strengths and aspects for improvement. Feedback can be an effective technique in developing academic writing in ESL tertiary learners. Coffin, Curry, Goodman, Hewings, Lillis, & Swann, (2003) stated that providing feedback on learners' writing is a key pedagogical practice in higher education (see Figure 1). However, the quality of feedback provided to students plays a critical role in further advancing students' academic writing skills. Instructors' feedback assists students in monitoring their own progress and identifying specific language areas that need to be improved (Hedge, 2000). Feedback in process. Source: Coffin et al. (2003: 34). The constructivist or socio-cultural theories of learning can be applied to the case of L2 academic writing where the learner engages with instructors and peers in a social setting to develop academic thought and analysis. Academic writing is deemed to be cognitively complex. As per cognitive theory, communicating is an active process of skill development and gradual elimination of errors as the learner internalizes the language (Myles, 2002). The notion of "scaffolding" emerged from Vygotsky's concept of "zone of proximal development" which refers to the distance between achievements of learners by their own efforts and what they can achieve through assisted interactions. Formative assessments in writing within ESL classrooms require learners to work closely with their instructors and demonstrate organization, critical thinking and analytical skills in academic writing. Many researchers recommend that ESL learners must be taught to write effectively and not just correctly (Pratt-Johnson, 2008). L2 learners require adequate language tools, such as grammar and vocabulary in order to construct

academic texts and organize coherent written academic discourses (Hinkel, 2002).

Traditionally, a process-centered instructional methodology that focused on invention, creating ideas and discovering the purpose of writing was used in ESL instruction (Reid, 1993). Within the process-centered paradigm for teaching L2 writing, learners are mostly evaluated on their pre-writing, writing and revision.

However, academic writing evaluations at faculty and discipline levels continue to focus on the product of writing (Hinkel, 2004). Extensive, thorough and focused instruction in L2 academic vocabulary, grammar and discourse is essential for developing L2 written proficiency in disciplines (Hinkel, 2004).

2.29 Taxonomy Area of the study

The aim of this section is to give some information about the area of sentence construction, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation marks in which the researcher expects young learners at secondary school students commit serious errors.

2.29.1 Grammar

The concept of grammar is viewed differently by various schools of linguistics. According to the traditionalism; it is a collection of principles while structuralisms consider it as the study of how sentences are formed and arranged to give meaning. The transformationalists consider it has the rules that generate infinite sentences and follow speakers to understand utterances they never heard of. We can consider the following:

- Each worker pay small money which is taken from their salary. (Wrong).
- Each worker pays small amount of money which is taken from his salary (correct).

The final “s” is often forgotten to be used with the third person singular in present simple.

Money is an uncountable noun so the indefinite articles “a” can’t be used here, we can either write small amount of money or little money.

Salary is related to the worker which is singular; therefore; the possessive adjective must be used in singular (his)

- The number of school grewed gradually till 1855 and the number rise suddenly. (wrong)
- The number of school grew gradually till 1885 and then the number rose suddenly. (Correct).

The verb (grow) has irregular form of past tense and past participle (grew) and (grown).

The verb (rise) has irregular form of past tense and past participle (rose) and (risen)

(Jordan. R.R. 1980. P: 14- 15)

Another area of errors is as follow:

- Iam came yesterday (wrong).
- I came yesterday. (Correct).

Subject	Verb	Indirect object	Direct object
I	Gave	John	A book
I	Gave	A book	To John

We use preposition to know whether an object is direct or indirect. I gave to John a book (wrong). The direct object never has a preposition when it comes before indirect object.

2.29.2 Adverbs

Adverbs of frequency often go between the subject and the verb, e.g. we always go to school on Monday.

- Rule: the adverb of frequency should always go between the main verb and its auxiliary verb or between two auxiliaries e.g. I have never been to London.
- Rule: adverb of frequency always comes after the verb “to be” (am, are. Is are, was and were). e.g. he is always late.

Typical Mistakes:

- I go always to the cinema (wrong).
- I always go to the cinema (correct).
- They usually at home. (Wrong).
- They are usually at home (correct).
- I never should have eaten so much. (Wrong).
- I should have never eaten so much. (Correct).

(Doug and Milne John 1994. P: 3).

2.29.3. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is a very large subject. It really requires a book to itself, in other words, a dictionary often a wrong word is used because wrong choice has been made between similar words or synonyms.

The choice of synonyms will often depend on usage or context as much as meaning. Some attention is given below to a few words that frequently cause difficulty to students.

- Make and Do

The basic meaning of make is constructing, produce from and create.

Do means perform, carry out and put into practice e.g.

- a) He found that he couldn't do the research.
- b) He made a number of attempts to finish the work.

- Say and Tell

The basic meaning of say is speak or produce words, while the basic meaning of tell is give information, make known, order or direct e.g.

- a) Say something to them.
- b) Tell them about the instructions.

- Lend and Borrow

The basic meaning of lend is give someone the use of something for a period of time, while the basic meaning of borrow is use someone property that is to be returned.

- Rise and Raise

Rise is used without a direct object; while raise is used with direct

Object e.g.

- a) The sun rises from the east.
- b) They raised the price of bread.

A rise' means come into existence or appears.

He doesn't take a direct object e.g.

- c) A new problem has arisen in the college.

However, there are large list of idiomatic expressions containing these verbs; also some of them can be used as nouns. They can be found in the different dictionaries.

(Jordan R.R. 1990. P: 15- 17)

2.29.4 Spelling

Most spelling problems are due to ignorance but a very large number of this are as a result of confusion. There are some variations, however in the spelling of each one of our vowels and consonant sound, so if you want to avoid make numerous mistakes, you must look at each new words closely and commit it to your visual memory, so that can tell and write it down immediately. One of the techniques of improving spelling skills is by writing the new words many times and spell them loudly and make sure that you understand their meanings and you can use them effectively in sentences. Above all, treat your dictionary as a friend and consult it when you are in doubt.

No attempt is made to give a complete list of rules for spelling, but the few that are set out below should prove helpful to students.

Carelessness resulted misspell words; on question paper confusion often arises when two words are similar in sound or appearance. The following words have the same sound, but differ in spelling and meaning:

Board	Bored
Plain	Plane
Course	coarse
Born	Borne

Students, who are weak in spelling, often confuse words of this kind doubling the consonants.

- 1- Words of one syllabus and having one vowel and ending in a single consonant, the consonant should be doubled when we add “ed” “ing” “er”

Begin	beginning	beginner
Refer	referring	referred
Drop	dropping	dropped

If we have a word of more than one syllabus ending in single consonant and stressed at last syllabus, we should double the final consonant when we add “er” “ing” or “ed”

- 2- A word ending in (y) following a consonant we should change “y” into “I” before adding suffix:

Carry	carried
Happy	happiness

- 3- No change is made when we add a suffix to a word ending in “y” following a vowel:

Obey	obeying	obeyed
Play	playing	played

- 4- The natural rule is that “I” comes before the “e” except after “c”

Piece	receives	direct
-------	----------	--------

- 5- Students always confuse this:

Courage	courageous
Replace	replaceable

This is done to avoid changes in pronunciation, because the “e” and “g” are generally pronounced soft before the “e” and “I” but hard before “a” “o” or “u”

- 6- If a word ends with “e” we usually drop the “e” when we add a suffix beginning with vowel :

Use	usable
Forgive	forgivable

(Robinson, C. Pauline 1999. P: 30 – 36)

2.29.5 Punctuation Marks

Punctuation marks serve to single structural, semantic and rhetorical meaning of the writer, they help students to overcome the linearity of sentences, and add flexibility and meaning to their sentences.

The main use of the punctuation marks:

- 1- The comma (,)
 - a) To separate a non – defining relative clause from the rest of the sentence.
 - b) When subordinate clause comes before the principle clause
 - c) To separate phrases.
- 2- The full stop
It is used to end sentence, the next sentence begins with capital letter.
- 3- The colon (:)
Basically it is an explanation of what precedes it, it is also used to introduce a list of items.
- 4- The semi – colon (;)
It joins two independent but related clauses or sentences. Also it used in lists to show sub – groupings.
- 5- The hyphen (-)
It separated in some cases the prefix from the second part of the word; cooperation, also it joins some compound word; self – control; twenty – one.
- 6- The apostrophe (‘)
It used in possessive cases e.g.
Ali’s book the boy’s school.
Also it used instead of a missing letter in a word e.g.
Don’t I’d isn’t
- 7- The question marks (?)
Used after direct question e.g.
Where are you from?
- 8- The dash (—)
It is used to indicate a break, often informally.
- 9- The inverted commas (“ ”)
Are used in direct speech, e.g.
Ahmed said: “I can go now”, “who are you?”

10- The exclamation marks (!) it always used after real exclamation and sometimes after short command:

Oh dear! Get out!

11- The brackets (parenthesis) () { }
Used to clarify or to avoid confusion.

12- Capitalization

The capital letters (A, B, C ... etc) are used:

- At the beginning of a sentence.
- With proper noun; Ahmed, London, Jane.
- With titles of people and names of things Mr. Jack
- With nations and adjectives of nationalities (Russian, Egyptian, Dutch)
- With names of days, months, festivals and historical events: (Monday, May, Charismas, the Middle ages.
- With abbreviations (U S A, U K, UN)
(Tupp, T.c and John. 1972: p: 41- 44)

Part Two

2.30 Previous Studies

According to Mick Randall (2008) handled An Analysis of the Common Grammatical Errors in the English Essay Writing made by 3rd Secondary Male Students in the Eastern Coast of the UAE Having students to produce an organized, neat and error-free piece of writing has always been the lifelong dream and the ambition of all EFL teachers.

The purpose of this study is to explore the common types of grammatical errors made by Emirati secondary male students in their English essay writing. The study was conducted in five leading schools on the Eastern Coast of the UAE. The most common and salient grammatical errors which were found in the students essays included: passivization, verb tense and form, subject-verb agreement, word order, prepositions, articles, plurality and auxiliaries. These errors were classified and tabulated according to their number of frequency in the students' essays. 105 students and 20 teachers participated in completing two separate questionnaires reflecting their attitudes and opinion towards the English writing skill. Follow up interviews with 5 supervisors were conducted to deepen understanding and interpretation of the results. The data revealed that the UAE students make different types of grammatical errors, and most of these errors were due to intralingual transfer. In this study, intralingual transfer errors were more frequent than interlingual ones. Furthermore, the findings and the results of this study also showed that the English writing skill of the secondary male students in the UAE state schools needs more reinforcement and development.

Based on the findings, recommendations and some implications which are of significance to educators and policymakers as well as to EFL teachers are provided. At last, it is hoped that the results of this study could be of much

benefit for developing the English writing skill among secondary students in the UAE schools.

Relatedly, Beena Giridharan (2012) tackled Identifying Gaps in Academic Writing of ESL Students. There is growing evidence that the lack of competence of university ESL (English as a second language) students in academic writing affects their overall academic performance. Olivas and Li (2006) connected low second-language proficiency levels in English to poor academic performance of international students studying at both university and college levels in the United States. Although, many ESL students at university have a general understanding of grammar rules, not many are able to write academically at levels expected of them. This is further exacerbated by a lack of awareness of students' own ability in academic writing. The paper reports on a case study conducted to identify critical gaps in academic writing standards among ESL students in a foundation studies programme. The study employed a pragmatic case study approach, drawing on qualitative methods as deemed appropriate. In this project, four essential criteria for developing good academic writing skills were investigated: attitudes towards academic writing tasks, planning, writing paragraphs and essays, and evaluating one's own writing. The study examined the challenges faced by students in academic writing and identified common grammatical, structural and syntactic errors made in writing tasks. Data from the study showed that most students enjoyed writing tasks, drafting essays and working with peers to brainstorm ideas and opinions for their drafts. A majority of respondents agreed that they were well aware of referencing systems and the need to substantiate their ideas with supportive evidence. However, many respondents were unable to evaluate their own work and admitted that their evaluation often did not match that of their instructors. The project aims to propose interventions and techniques to support student academic writing practices in the foundation year.

Relevantly, KhaledBarkaoui (2007) handled Teaching Writing to Second Language Learners: Insights from Theory and research Writing is one of the most difficult skills that second-language (L2) learner's are expected to acquire, requiring the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competencies. As many teachers attest, teaching L2 writing is a challenging task as well. This paper aims to summarize the main findings of L2 writing theory and research concerning the nature of the writing competencies that learners need to develop in order to be able to write effectively in L2 and how instruction can help them attain these competencies.

2.31 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has reviewed related literature on the concepts of the study, and surveyed critically some previous related studies.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discussed the following: methods of the study, population of the study, sample of the study, description of the sample and the instruments, reliability, validity and data analysis procedure. The study has adopted the descriptive analytical methods. Two tools were used as data collecting method in this study (a questionnaire for English language teachers, and a test for secondary school students).

3.1 Research Tools

The researcher used two tools to collect the information of this study. The first tool includes the questionnaire which was given to seventy (70) Sudanese English language teachers whom were selected randomly. The second tool was test which was given to Sudanese students at secondary schools in Omdurman locality, the academic year (2015-2016). The researcher choosed sixty (60) students as the sample.

3.1.1 The First Tool (Teachers' Questionnaire)

The first tool is a questionnaire which was distributed to the teachers from both sexes. This questionnaire included a covering page which introduces the topic of the research and identifies the researcher. It used Likert 5-point scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree). The statements are about the writing skill.

The questionnaire was designed as a tool for collecting information about the problems encountered Sudanese students at secondary schools in Omdurman locality, the academic year (2015-2016). The questionnaire included 15 statements given to Sudanese English language teachers from different secondary school. It was judged by experienced professors from Sudan University of Science and Technology. The responses for the questionnaire

were given to an expert in statistics and the results are as in the tables of analysis.

3.1.2 The Second Tool (Test for Sudanese students at Secondary Schools)

The second tool was test which was given to the Sudanese students at secondary schools in Omdurman locality, the academic year 2015-2016. The researcher chooses sixty (60) students as the sample. The topic was a journey to apart near the convergence of the River Nile after that the papers were collected, numbered a The material of this research are originally written as answers to writing test designed by the researcher, to test subject's ability to express their ideas in two different sessions, the students were provided to with a writing topic and were allowed one hour to finish the topic, and marked by the researcher and three different teachers.

3.2: Population of the First Tool (Teachers' Questionnaire)

The populations for this study are secondary staff members at some Sudanese secondary schools. The researcher used the simple random sampling to select the population of the study. The following table and figure show the number of distributed questionnaire, the number of received questionnaire with full-required information and percentages.

3.3The Sample of the First Tool (Teachers' Questionnaire)

The study sample respondents differ according to the following characteristics:

- The respondents according to their age:
(Less than 25 - {26 – 35} – {36- 45} – {46- 60} above 60)
- The respondents according to gender:
(Male, Female).
- The respondents according to Academic qualifications:
(PhD, M.A, B.A, Dip)
- The respondents according to their experience years:
({1-5 years} - {6-10 years} {11-15 years} - {above 15 years}).

The following is a detailed description for study sample individuals according to the above characteristics:

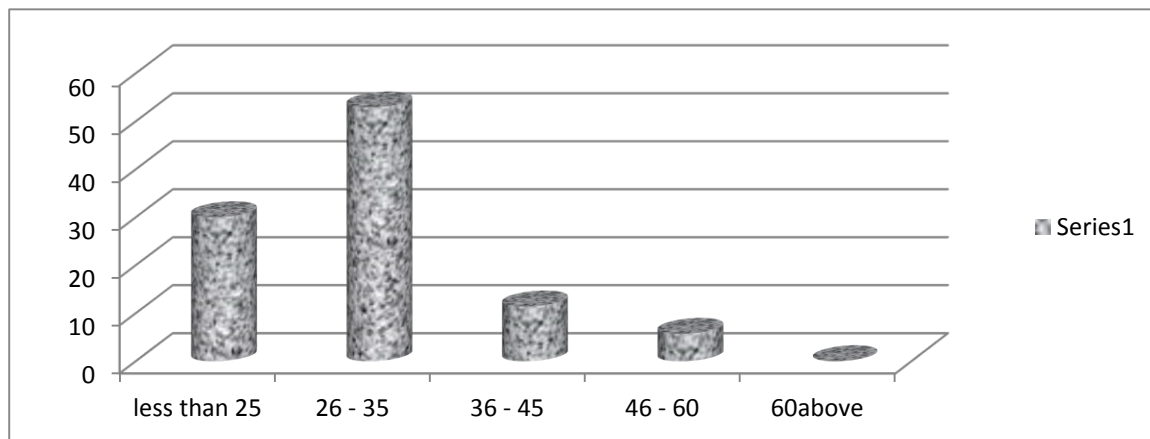
Table (3.1)

The distribution of sample individuals according to their age

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
less than 25	21	30.0
26 - 35	37	52.9
36 - 45	8	11.4
46 - 60	4	5.7
60above	0	0
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

Figure (3.1) The distribution of sample individuals according to their age



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

From the table No (3.1) and figure No (3.1), it has shown that most of the respondents (37) with percentage (52.9%) are at the age of (26 – 35) years. And (21) of the respondents with percentage (30%) are less than 25 years, but no one of the respondents is above 60.

Table (3.2)

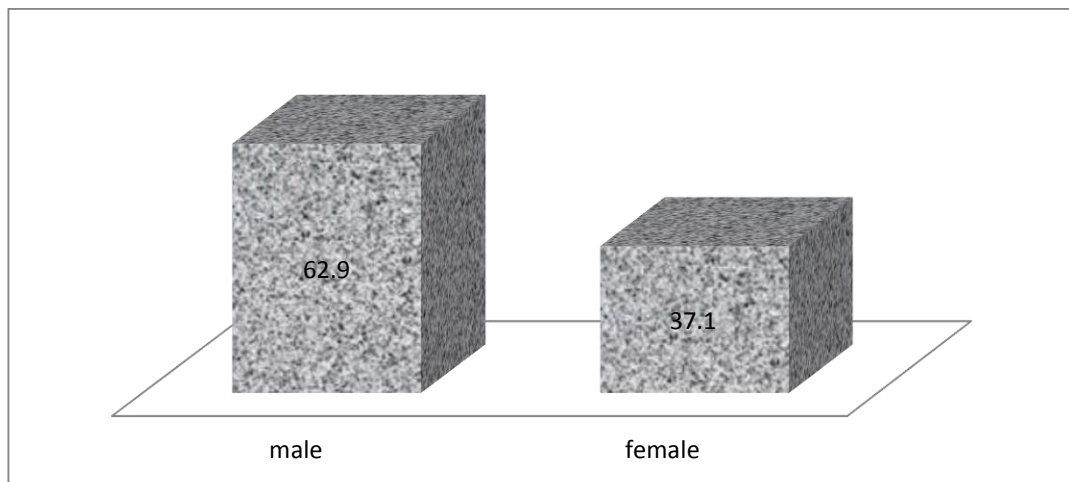
The distribution of sample individuals according to their gender

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
male	44	62.9
female	26	37.1
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

Figure (3.2)

The distribution of sample individuals according to their gender



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

From the table No (3.2), and the figure No (3.2) it has shown that most of the respondents (44) with percentage (62.9%) are male, and (26) of the respondents with percentage (37.1%) are female. It is clear that the number of male questionnaire respondents is higher than the number of female.

Table (3.3)

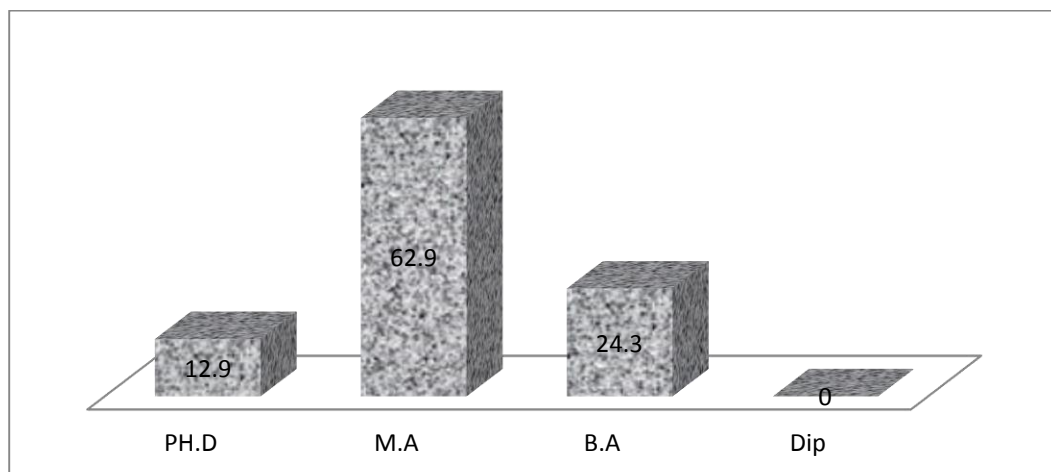
The distribution of sample individuals according to their qualifications

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
PH.D	9	12.9
M.A	44	62.9
B.A	17	24.3
Dip	0	0
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

Figure (3.3)

The distribution of sample individuals according to their qualifications



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

From the table No (3.3) and figure No (3.3) it has shown that most of the qualifications of the respondents are M. A holders (44) with percentage (62.9%), and (17) of the respondents with percentage (24.3%) are B.A holders, only (9) of the respondents with percentage (12.9%) are PhD holders, but no one of the respondents is Dip holder.

Table (3.4)

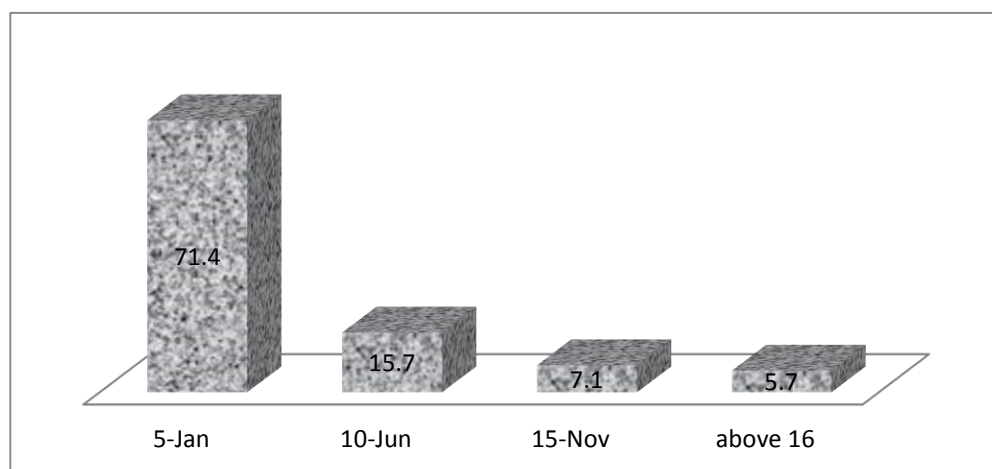
The distribution of sample individuals according to their year's experience

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
1 - 5	50	71.4
6 - 10	11	15.7
11 - 15	5	7.1
above 16	4	5.7
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

Figure (3.4)

The distribution of sample individuals according to their year' experience



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

From the table No (3.4) and figure No (3.4) it has shown that most of the respondents (50) with percentage (71.4%) have (1-5) years of experience, and (11) of the respondents with percentage (15.7%) have experience from (6- 10) years. Only (4) of the respondents with percentage (5.7%) have experience above 16 years.

3.4 The Population of the Second Tool (Test for Sudanese students)

The population for this study is Sudanese students at some Sudanese secondary schools; the researcher used the simple random sampling to select the population of the study, whom were sixty (60) young secondary schools learners.

3.5 The Sample of the Second Tool (Test for Sudanese students)

The sample of the second tool were (60) second English language students at secondary schools. These students were selected because they have already had background about writing composition in English language as well as they are already written before. Their age range between (14-16). They have the same educational background. Arabic language is the mother's tongue of most of these students. These students included both (male and female).

3.6 Reliability and Validity of the Research Tools

3.6.1 Reliability and Validity of the First Tool (Teachers' questionnaire)

3.6.1.1 Apparent Reliability and Validity

In order to check the apparent validity for the study questionnaire and validation of its statements according to the formulation and explanation, the questionnaire was checked by three Ph.D. holding referees who were specialists in the study field. Some of the referees made some suggestions, and others still confirmed that the questionnaire was suitable. In any way, the researcher studied all suggestions, and some corrections on his questionnaire have been done. The following table shows the referees and their jobs and places of work.

Table (3-5)The questionnaire’s referees and their status and places of work

No.	Name	job	Title
1	Hassan Mahil Abdallah	Assistant professor	Sudan University of Science and Technology- College of Education
2	Hillary Marino Pita	Assistant professor	Sudan University of Science and Technology- College of Education
3	Muntasir Hassan Mubarak	Assistant professor	Sudan University of Science and Technology- College of Education

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

3. 6.1.2:Statistical Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

1. Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
2. Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.
3. Test and Re-test method
4. Equivalent images method.
5. Guttman equation.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

In this study the validity calculated by using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using (split-half) method. This method stands on the principle of dividing the answers of the sample individuals into two parts, i.e. items of the odd numbers e.g. (1, 3, 5, ...) and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated. Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r}$$

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed about (20) questionnaires to respondents more depending on the answers of the pre-test sample, the above Spearman-Brown equation was used to calculate the reliability coefficient using the split-half method; the results have been showed in the following table:

3.6.2 Reliability and Validity of the Second Tool (Students' Test)

3.6.2.1 Reliability of the Test

To estimate reliability, the researcher considered the test. The students were asked to write a composition. They were not allowed to ask each other.

3.6.2.2 Validity of the Test

The test was administrated to an expert judge who related their relevance.

3.7 Pilot Study

Introduction

Nunan (1992-145) points out that all research instruments should have piloting phase. Bell (1993-48) also believes that, "all data gathering instrument should be piloted to test how long it takes recipient to complete them to check that all questions and instructions are clear and enable you remove any items which do not yield usable data".

The writing test items were piloted priors to the main study. The third year students of English language in secondary schools participated in the pilot study.

The Study Piloting was conducted for the Following Aims

1. Give the researcher a clear idea about the time needed for the test.
2. Determine whether the texts questions and instructions were clearly written.
3. Identify any problems.
4. Identify any adjustment that may be needed.

After conducting the pilot study, the researcher note that some student did not understand all the instructions, therefore, the researcher further explained these instructions.

The following part presents the analysis the study piloting, which is the student's writing test. "KashAvarz's (1994) model was used to analyze student's writing products.

3.8: Summary of the chapter

This chapter has discussed the research methodology and the research tools adopted for data collection. The chapter has provided a detail description of all the steps and procedures followed in each tools, including population, sample, validity and reliability of each tool.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0: Introduction:

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire and test. Questionnaire was given to (70) respondents who represent the teachers' community (see appendix A) at some Sudanese secondary schools, and test was given to (60) respondents (see appendix B) who represent the students' community at high secondary schools from both sexes.

4.1. The Responses to the Questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire of the (70) teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each item in the questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables will support the discussion.

4.2: Analysis of the First Tool: (Teachers' Questionnaire)

Let us turn to analyze the teachers' questionnaire. All Tables show the scores assigned to each of the (15) statements by the (70) respondents.

4.2.1: The First Hypothesis

“Teachers can Improve English Writing Skill for Sudanese students”

Statement No (1)

Learning Grammar Rules Helps Students in Developing Their Writing skill.

Table No (4.1)

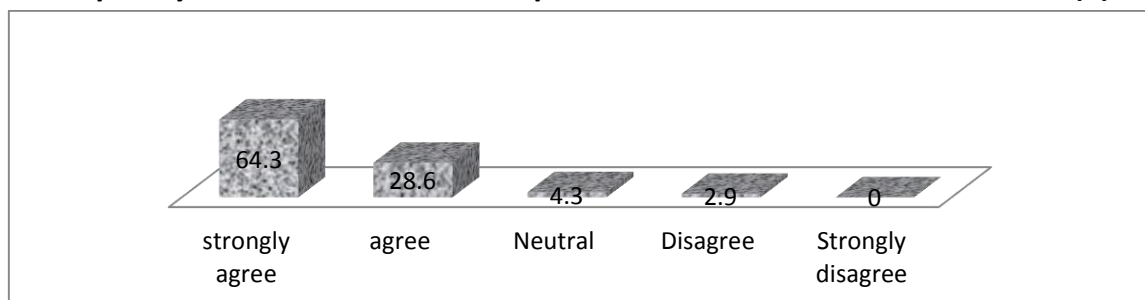
The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Statement No. (1)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	45	64.3
agree	20	28.6
Neutral	3	4.3
Disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.1)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Statement No. (1)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.1) and figure No (4.1) that there are (45) of the respondents with percentage (64.3%) are strongly agreed with “learning grammar rules helps students in developing their writing skill”. there are (20) of the respondents with percentage (28.6%) agreed. There are (3) of the respondents with percentage (4.3%) are neutral, only (2) of the respondents with percentage (2.9%) see that learning grammar rules doesn’t help students in developing their writing skill. This indicates that learning grammar rules helps students in developing their writing skill.

Statement No (2)

Wide English Vocabulary Helps students in Expressing Their Views in Writing a Topic.

Table No (4.2)

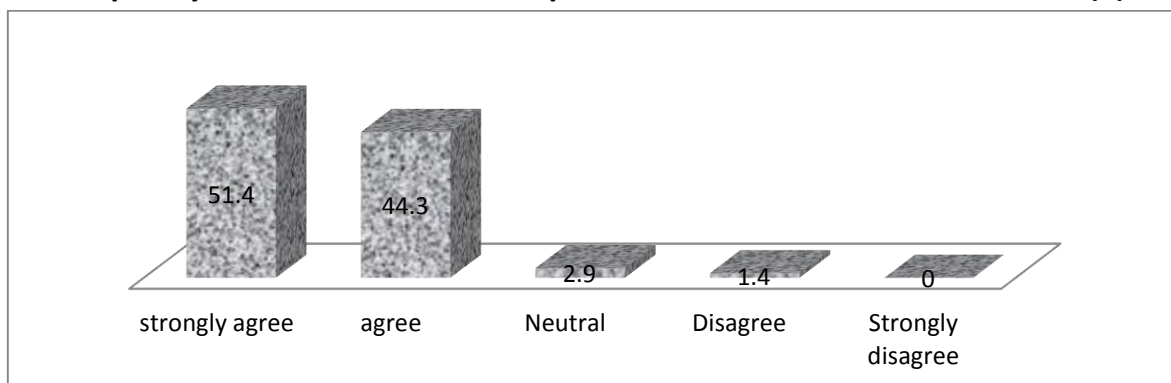
The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (2)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	36	51.4
agree	31	44.3
Neutral	2	2.9
Disagree	1	1.4
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.2)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (2)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.2) and figure No (4.2) that there are (36) of the respondents with percentage (51.4%) are strongly agreed with “wide English vocabulary helps students in expressing their views in writing a topic” there are (31) of the respondents with percentage (44.3%) agreed, there are (2) of the respondents with percentage (2.9%) are neutral, there is only (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) disagreed to that.

Statement No (3)

Using Space in Writing helps Students in Clarifying Their Views in Writing Topic.

Table No (4.3)

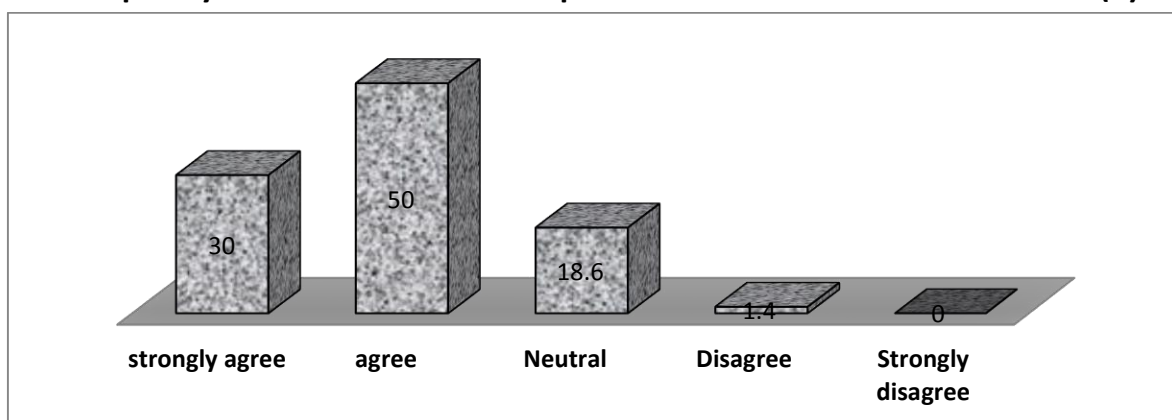
The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (3)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	21	30.0
agree	35	50.0
Neutral	13	18.6
Disagree	1	1.4
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.3)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (3)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.3) and figure No (4.3) that there are (21) of the respondents with percentage (30%) are strongly agreed with “using space in writing helps students in clarifying their views in writing topic” there are (35) of the respondents with percentage (50%) agreed, there are (13) of the respondents with percentage (18.6%) are neutral. There is only (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) disagreed to that.

Statement No (4)

Using Punctuation Marks help Students in Stating Their Views in Writing Topic

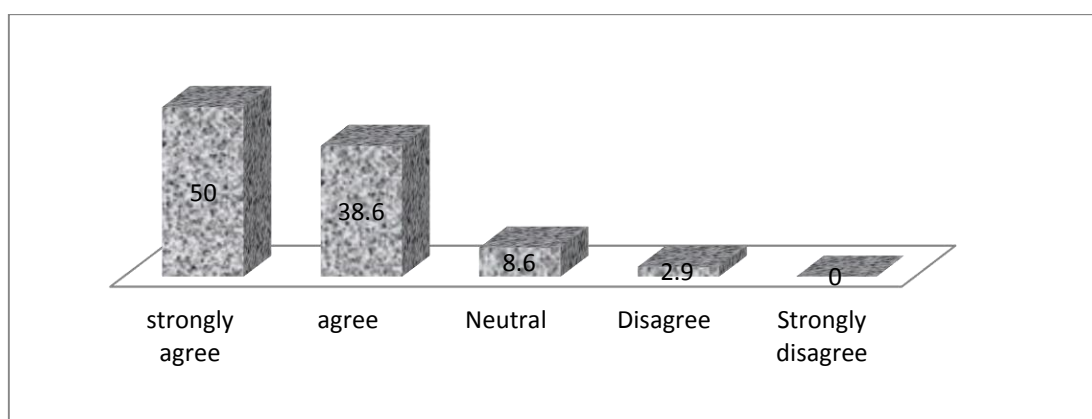
Table No (4.4)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (4)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	35	50.0
agree	27	38.6
Neutral	6	8.6
Disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (4)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.4) and figure (4.4) that there are (35) of the respondents with percentage (50%) strongly agreed with “using punctuation marks helps students in stating their views in writing a topic”. There are (27) of the respondents with percentage (38.6%) agreed, also there are (6) of the respondents with percentage (8.6%) are neutral; while there are (2) of the respondents with percentage (2.9%) disagreed to that.

Statement No (5)

Using Indentation Helps students in Lying out their Topic in Writing

Table No (4.5)

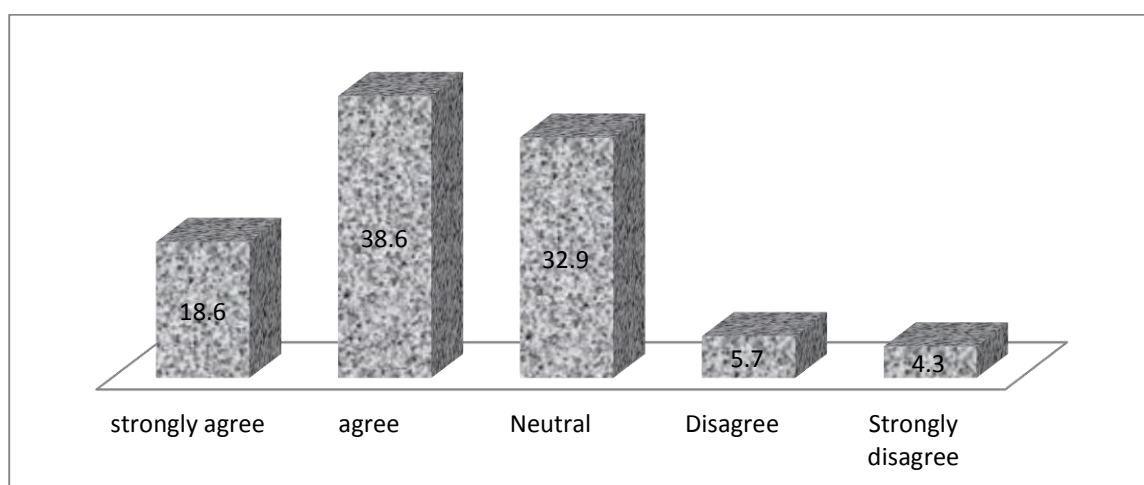
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (5)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	13	18.6
agree	27	38.6
Neutral	23	32.9
Disagree	4	5.7
Strongly disagree	3	4.3
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.5)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (5)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

it is clear from the table No (4.5) and figure No (4.5) that there are (13) of the respondents with percentage (18.6%) strongly agreed with “using indentation helps students in laying out their topic in writing” there are (27) of the respondents with percentage(38.6%)agreed, there are(23) of the respondents with percentage (32.9%) are neutral, also there are (4) of the respondents with percentage (5.7%) disagreed, while there are (3) of the respondents with percentage (4.3%) strongly disagreed to that.

4.2.2: The Second Hypothesis

“Teachers can play an Effective Role to Develop Sudanese School Students’ Writing Skill through Classroom Interaction”

Statement No (6)

Teacher’s Age Affects Students’ Interaction inside the Classroom

Table No (4.6)

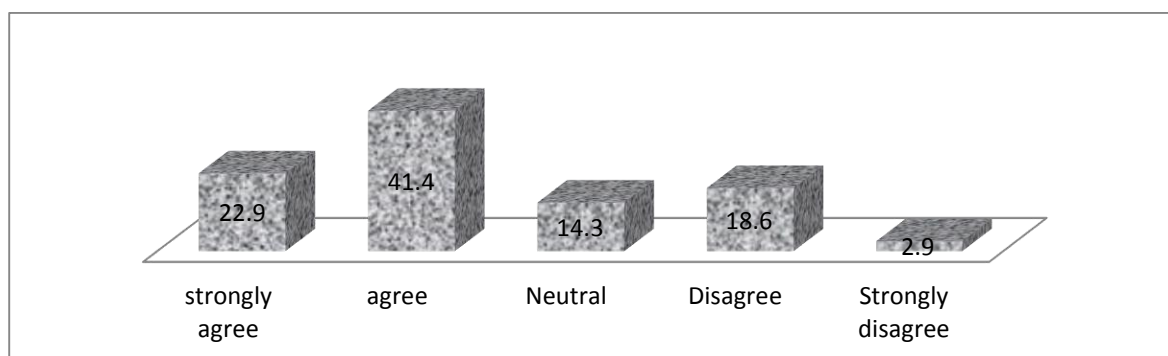
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Statement No. (6)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	16	22.9
agree	29	41.4
Neutral	10	14.3
Disagree	13	18.6
Strongly disagree	2	2.9
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.6)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of statement No. (6)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.6) and figure (4.6) that there are (16) of the respondents with percentage (22.9%) strongly agreed with “teacher’s age affects students’ interaction inside the classroom” there are (29) of the respondents with percentage (41.4%) agreed, while there are (10) of the respondents with percentage (14.3%) are neutral, there are (13) of the respondents with percentage (18.6%) disagreed, also there are (2) of the respondents with percentage (2.9%) strongly disagreed to that.

Statement No (7)

Teacher's Gender Affects Students' Interaction inside the Classroom

Table No (4.7)

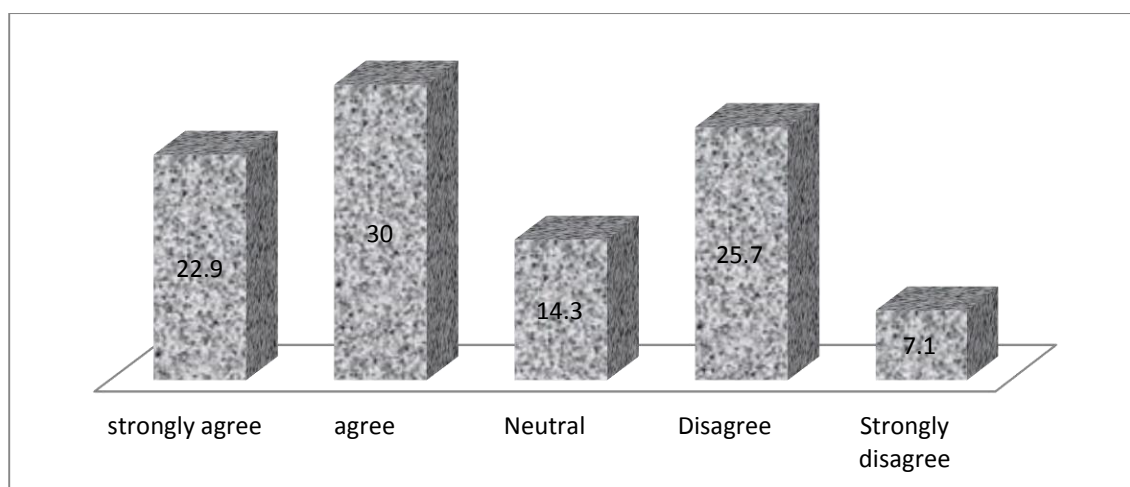
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (7)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	16	22.9
agree	21	30.0
Neutral	10	14.3
Disagree	18	25.7
Strongly disagree	5	7.1
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.7)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (7)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.7) and figure No (4.7) that there are (16) of the respondents with percentage (22.9%) strongly agreed with “teacher’s gender affects students’ interaction inside the classroom” there are (21) of the respondents with percentage (30%) agreed. There are (10) of the respondents with percentage (14.3%) are neutral, while there are (18) of the respondents with percentage (25.7%) disagreed, also there are (5) of the respondents with percentage (7.1%) are strongly disagreed to that.

Statement No (8)

Teachers' Cultural Background Affects students' Interaction inside The Classroom

Table No (4.8)

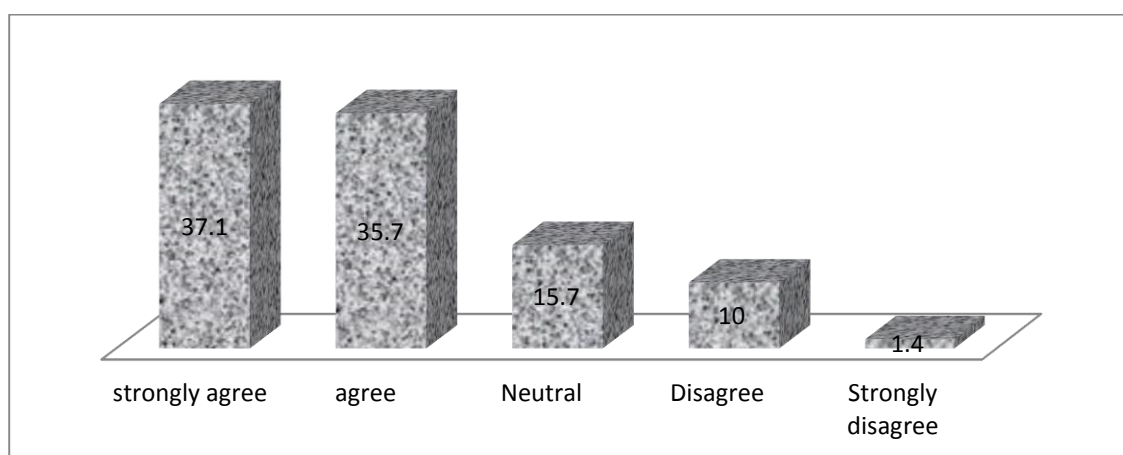
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (8)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	26	37.1
agree	25	35.7
Neutral	11	15.7
Disagree	7	10.0
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.8)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of statement No. (8)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.8) and figure No (4.8) that there are ((26) of the respondents with percentage (37.1%) are strongly agreed with “teachers’ cultural background affects students interaction inside the classroom” there are (25) of the respondents with percentage (35.7%) agreed. There are (11) of the respondents with percentage (15.7%) are neutral, while there are (7) of the respondents with percentage (10%) disagreed, also there is (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) strongly disagreed to that.

Statement No (9)

Teachers' Complexion Affects Students' Interaction inside The Classroom

Table No (4.9)

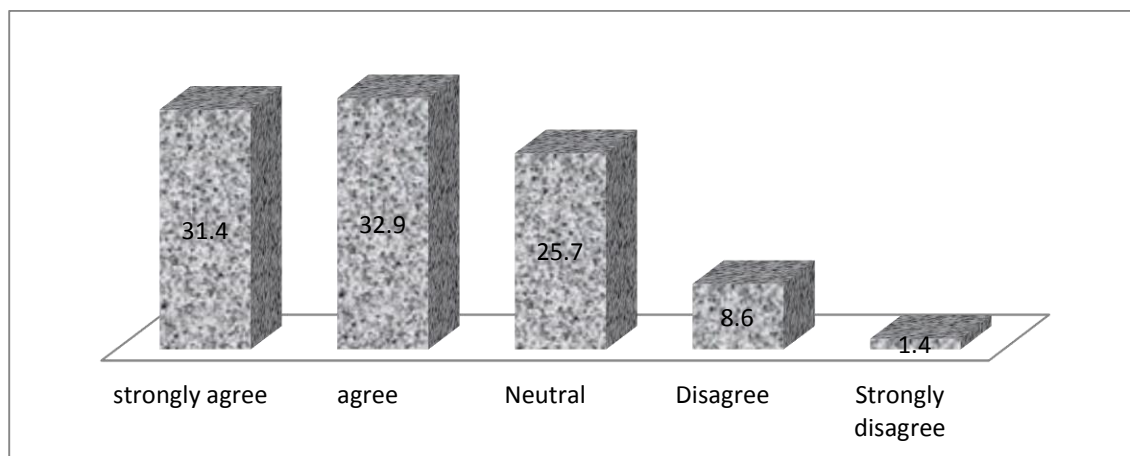
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (9)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	22	31.4
agree	23	32.9
Neutral	18	25.7
Disagree	6	8.6
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.9)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (9)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.9) and figure No (4.9) that there are (22) of the respondents with percentage (31.4%) are strongly agreed with “teachers’ complexion affects students’ interaction inside the classroom” there are (23) of the respondents with percentage (32.9%) agreed. There are (18) of the respondents with percentage (25.7%) are neutral, while there are (6) of the respondents with percentage (8.6%) disagreed, also there is (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) strongly disagreed to that.

Statement No (10)

Teaches' Creativity Affects Students' Interaction inside the Classroom

Table No (4.14)

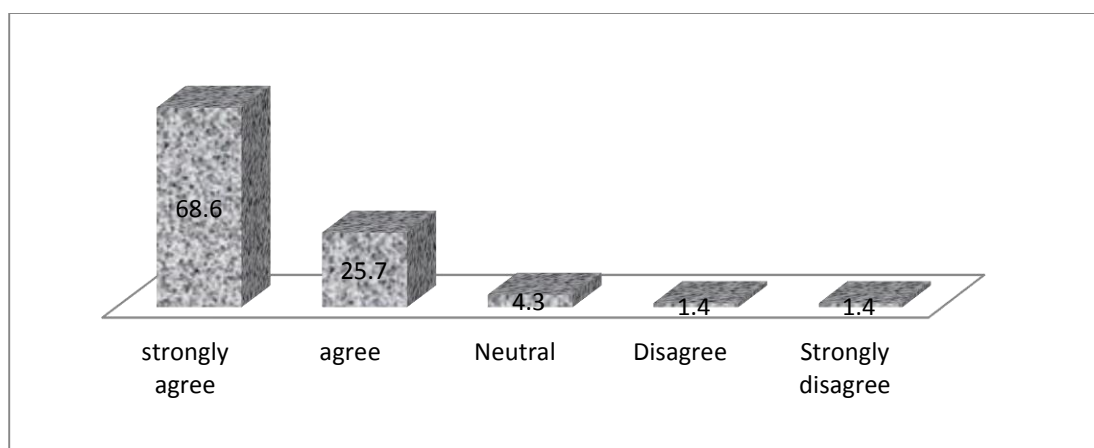
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (10)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	48	68.6
agree	18	25.7
Neutral	3	4.3
Disagree	1	1.4
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.10)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (10)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.10) and figure No (4.10) that there are (48) of the respondents with percentage (68.6%) strongly agreed with “teachers’ creativity affects students’ interaction inside the classroom” there (18) of the respondents with percentage (25.7%) agreed. There are (3) of the respondents with percentage (4.3%) are neutral. There is (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) disagreed, also there is (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) strongly disagreed to that.

4.2.3: The Third Hypothesis

“Mother Tongue Interference can be considered as The Major Cause for Sudanese School Students’ English Writing Errors.

Statement (11)

Mother Tongue Interference Affects Students’ Critical Thinking When They Write a Topic

Table (4.11)

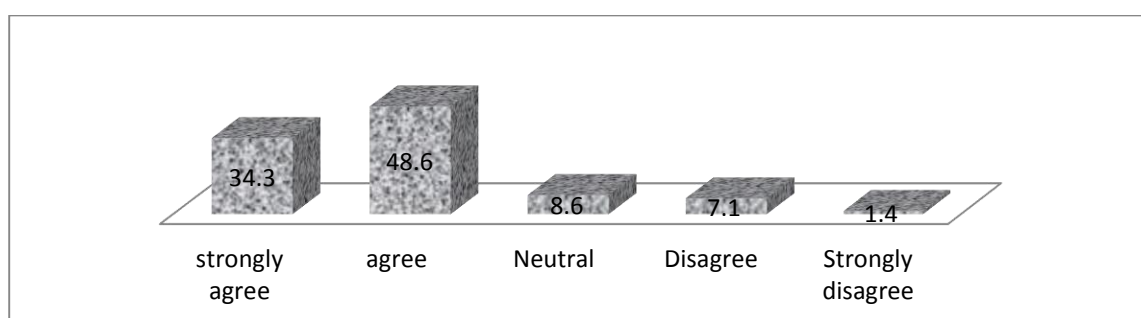
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Statement No. (11)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	24	34.3
agree	34	48.6
Neutral	6	8.6
Disagree	5	7.1
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure (4.11)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Statement No. (11)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.11) and figure No (4.11) that there are (24) of the respondents with percentage (34.3%) strongly agreed with “mother tongue interference affects students’ critical thinking when they write a topic” there are ((34) of the respondents with percentage (48.6%) agreed. There are (6) of the respondents with percentage (8.6%) are neutral. There are (5) of the respondents with percentage (7.1%) disagreed, also there is (1) of the respondents with percentage (1.4%) strongly disagreed to that

Statement (12)

Mother Tongue Interference Affects Students' Reception of Sound When They Write a Topic

Table (4.12)

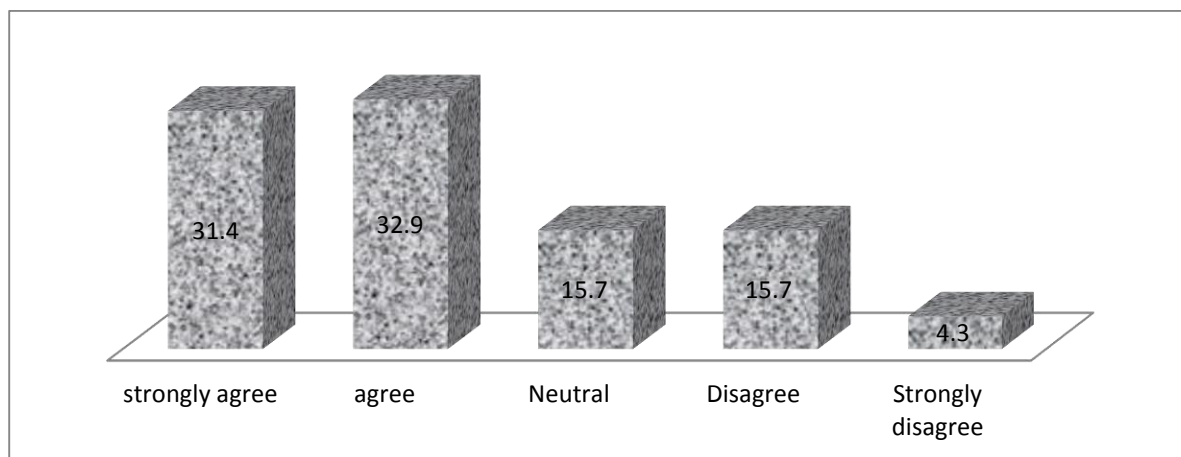
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (12)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	22	31.4
agree	23	32.9
Neutral	11	15.7
Disagree	11	15.7
Strongly disagree	3	4.3
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure (4.12)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of statement No. (12)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table (4.12) and figure No (4.12) that there are (22) of the respondents with percentage (31.4%) strongly agreed with “mother tongue interference affects students reception of sound when they write a topic” there are (23) of the respondents with percentage (32.9%) agreed. There are (11) of the respondents with percentage (15.7%) are neutral, while there are (11) of the respondents with percentage (15.7%) disagreed, also there are (3) of the respondents with percentage (4.3%) strongly disagreed to that.

Statement (13)

Mother Tongue Interference Affects Students' Utterance When They Write a Topic

Table (4.13)

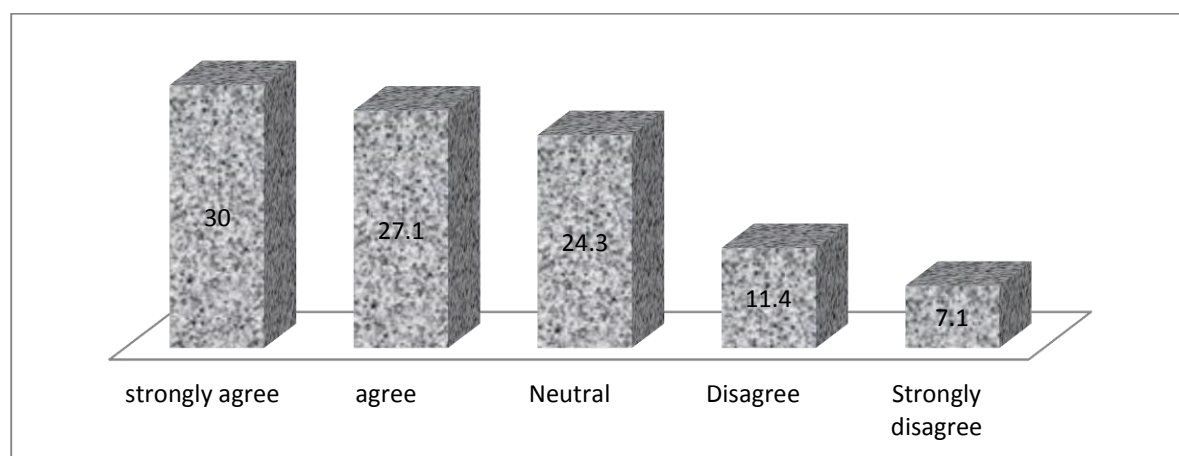
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (13)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	21	30.0
agree	19	27.1
Neutral	17	24.3
Disagree	8	11.4
Strongly disagree	5	7.1
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure (4.13)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (13)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.13) and figure No (4.13) that there are (21) of the respondents with percentage (30%) strongly agreed with “mother tongue interference affects students' utterance when they write a topic” there are (19) of the respondents with percentage (27.1%) agreed. There are (17) of the respondents with percentage (24.3%) are neutral, while there are (8) of the respondents with percentage (11.4%) disagreed, also there are (5) of the respondents with percentage (7.1%) strongly disagreed to that.

Statement (14)

Mother Tongue Interference Develops Fossilization Among Students When They Write a Topic.

Table (4.14)

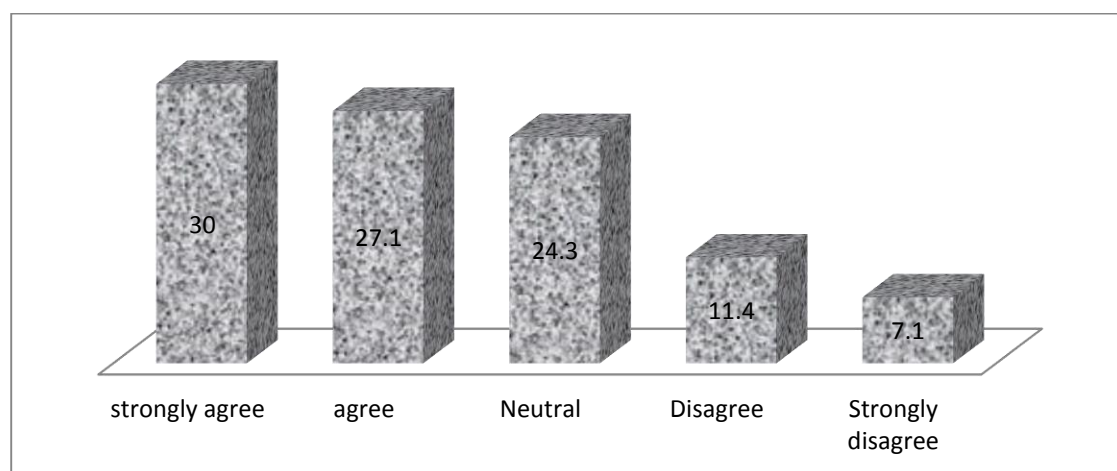
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (14)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	21	30.0
agree	19	27.1
Neutral	17	24.3
Disagree	8	11.4
Strongly disagree	5	7.1
Total	70	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure (4.14)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (14)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.14) and figure No (4.14) that there are (21) of the respondents with percentage (30%) strongly agreed with “mother tongue interference develops fossilization among students when they write a topic” there are (19) of the respondents with percentage (27.1%) agreed. There are (17) of the respondents with percentage (24.3%) are neutral, while there are (8) of the respondents with percentage (11.4%) disagreed, also there are (5) of the respondents with percentage (7.1%) strongly disagreed to that.

Statement (15)

Mother Tongue Interference Affects Students' Accuracy When They Write a Topic.

Table (4.15)

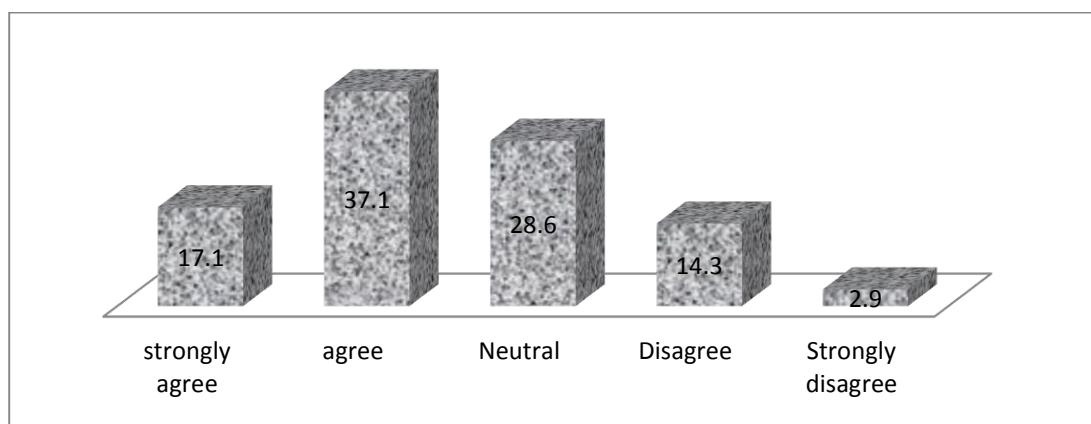
Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (15)

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	12	17.1
agree	26	37.1
Neutral	20	28.6
Disagree	10	14.3
Strongly disagree	2	2.9
Total	7	100.0

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

Figure No (4.15)

Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Statement No. (15)



Source: The researcher from applied study, Excel Package, 2015

It is clear from the table No (4.15) and figure No (4.15) that there are (12) of the respondents with percentage (17.1%) strongly agreed with “mother tongue interference affects students' accuracy when they write a topic” there are (26) of the respondents with percentage (37.1%) agreed. There are (20) of the respondents with percentage (28.6%) are neutral, while there are (10) of the respondents with percentage (14.3%) disagreed, also there are (2) of the respondents with percentage (2.9%) strongly disagreed to that.

4.3 Test of the Study Hypotheses

To answer study questions and check its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problems “investigating problems encountered Sudanese students in developing writing skills”. To do that, we will give five degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer “agree”, three degrees for each answer” neutral", two degrees with each answer “disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree". This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, we will use the non-parametric chi-square test to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions.

4.3.1 Results of the First Hypothesis

The First Hypothesis in this study States the Following:

“Teachers can improve English writing skill for Sudanese school Students”

The objective of this hypothesis is to draw attention for the role of the teachers in developing writing skills for Sudanese school young learners.

To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's question, and for all questions. We compute the mean, standard deviation, chi square and p-value which is the most central tendency measures, that is used to describe the phenomena, and it represents the centered answer for all respondents' answers after ascending or descending order for the answers.

Table (4.16) Testing the First Hypothesis of the Study

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Learning grammar rules help students in devolving their writing skill.	2.5	0.8	35	0.000
2	Increasing vocabulary helps students in expressing their views in terms when they write a topic.	2.7	1.8	27	0.000
3	Using space in writing helps students in clarifying their views in terms when they write a topic.	2.8	0.7	23	0.000
4	Using punctuation marks help students in stating their views in writing a topic.	2.6	0.6	29	0.000
5	Using indentation helps students in laying out their topic writing.	3.0	3.3	32	0.001

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-1) was (35) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "learning grammar rules help students in expressing their views in writing a topic".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-2) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized

mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “increasing vocabulary helps students in expressing their views in writing a topic”.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (1-3) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “using space in writing helps students in clarifying their views in writing topic”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (1-4) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Using punctuation marks help students in stating their views in writing a topic”.
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (1-5) was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “using indentation helps students in laying out their topic in writing”.

4.3.2 Results of the Second Hypothesis

The second Hypothesis in this study States the Following:

“Teachers can play an effective role to develop Sudanese schools Students’ writing skills through classroom interaction”

The objective of this hypothesis is to raise attention for one of the ways can teachers use it to develop Sudanese school students’ writing skills through classroom interaction”

To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's question, and for all questions. We compute the mean, standard deviation, chi square and p-value which is the most central tendency measures, that is used to describe the phenomena, and it represents the centered answer for all respondents' answers after ascending or descending order for the answers.

Table (4.17) Testing the Second Hypothesis of the Study

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Teachers' age affect students' interaction inside the classroom.	2.9	1.8	30	0.000
2	Teachers' gender affect students' interaction inside the classroom.	2.5	1.5	22	0.000
3	Teachers' cultural background affect students' interaction inside the classroom.	2.8	1.6	26	0.000
4	Teachers' complexion affect students' interaction inside the classroom.	2.7	0.7	37	0.000
5	Teachers' creativity affect students' interaction inside the classroom.	3.2	0.7	22	0.000

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2-1) was (30) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Teachers' age affect students' interaction inside the classroom".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2-2) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Teachers' gender affect students' interaction inside the classroom".

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2-3) was (26) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Teachers' cultural background affects students' interaction inside the classroom".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2-4) was (37) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which are greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Teachers' complexion affects students' interaction inside the classroom".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2-5) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Teachers' creativity affects students' interaction inside the classroom".

4.3.3 Testing of the Third Hypothesis

The third Hypothesis in this study States the Following:

“ Mother Tongue Interference can be Considered as the Major Cause for Sudanese School students’ English writing errors”

The objective of this hypothesis is to identify errors made by students by specifying their different types of writing skills”

To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's question, and for all questions. We compute the mean, standard deviation, chi square and p-value which is the most central tendency measures, that is used to describe the phenomena, and it represents the centered answer for all respondents' answers after ascending or descending order for the answers.

Table (4.18) Testing the Third Hypothesis of the Study

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Mother tongue interference affects students’ critical thinking when they write a topic.	2.4	1.0	19	0.010
2	Mother tongue interference affects students’ reception of sound when they write a topic.	2.5	0.2	30	0.002
3	Mother tongue interference affects students’ utterance when they write a topic.	2.9	1.1	27	0.000
4	Mother tongue interference develops fossilization among students when they write a topic	2.7	0.7	37	0.000
5	Mother tongue interference affects students’ accuracy when they write a topic.	2.8	0.7	26	0.000

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3-1) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Mother tongue interference affects students' critical thinking when they write a topic".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3-2) was (30) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Mother tongue interference affects students' reception of sound when they write a topic".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3-3) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Mother tongue interference affects students' utterance when they write a topic".

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3-4) was (37) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Mother tongue interference develops fossilization among students when they write a topic".
- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3-5) was (26) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (14.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Mother tongue interference affects students' accuracy when they write a topic".

4.4 Analysis of the Second Tool (Students' Test)

Introduction

The responses to the test of the 60 students were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each question in the test is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following table and figures will support the discussion.

4.4.1 Statistical Reliability for students' test

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the test using Alpha - Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following, For calculating the validity and the reliability of the test from the above equation, the researcher distributed the test to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient the results have been showed in the following table

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of questions
.87	60

Table (4.19)

The frequency distribution of the answers according to the types of errors

Types of errors	Wrong answers	Correct answers	Most answers
Syntactic error	40	20	Wrong
Semantic error	35	25	Wrong
Spelling error	33	27	Wrong
Miscellaneous error	45	15	Wrong
Morphological error	50	10	Wrong

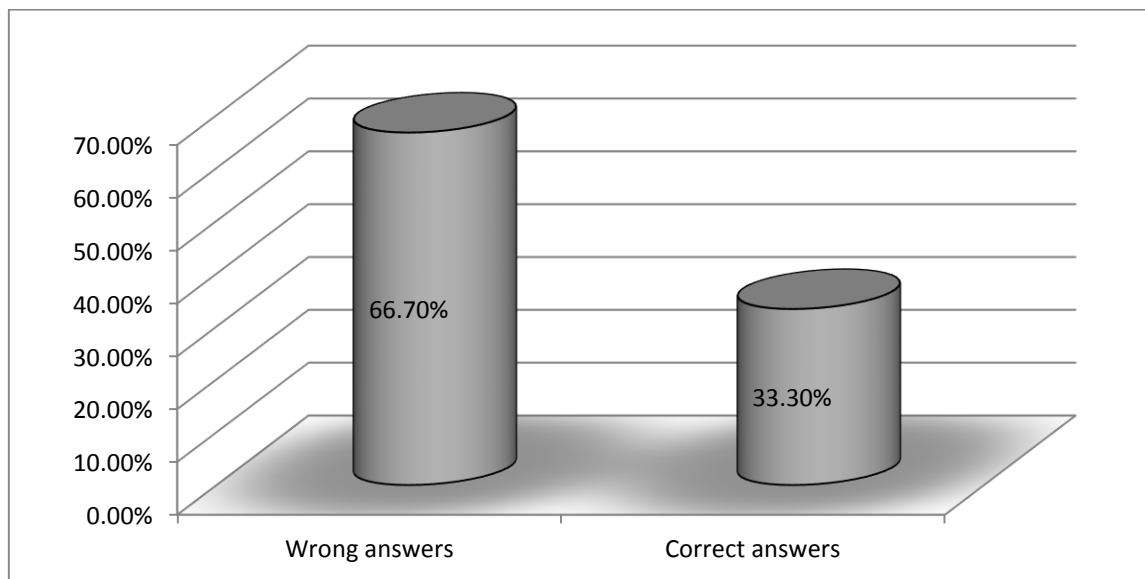
Table (4.20) The Answers Distribution of the Student's Test According to Part (1)

Syntactic error	Frequency	Percentage
Wrong answers	40	66.7%
Correct answers	20	33.3%
Total	60	100%

Source: the researcher from applied study by using SPSS

Figure (4.16)

The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (1)



The above table No (4.20) and figure No (4.16) illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the Syntactic Errors and shows that most of the sample answers were wrong which are represented by the percentage (66.7%). This justifies that student need training and developing in how they can construct sentences in their correct forms.

Table (4.21)

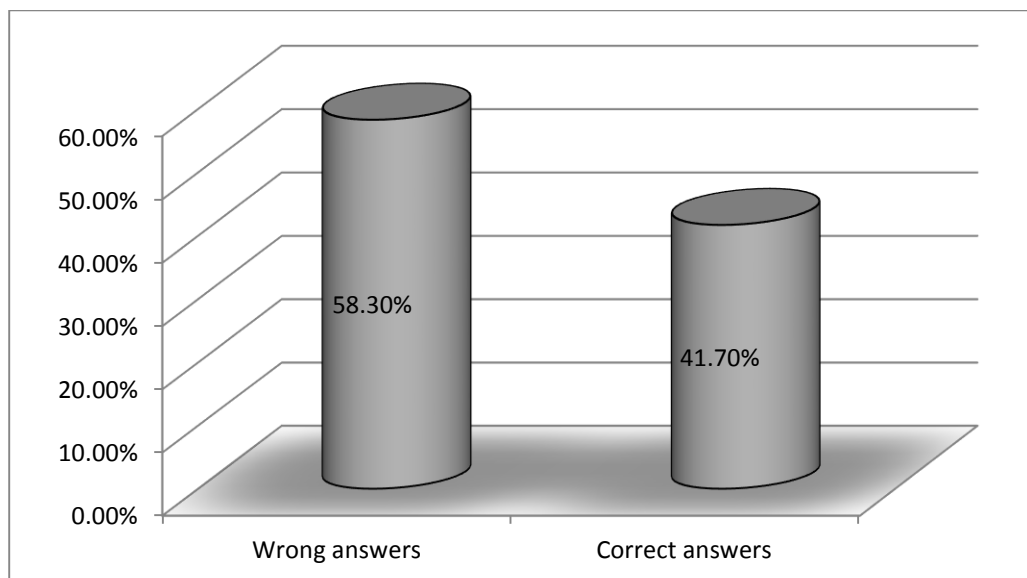
The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (2)

Semantic error	Frequency	Percentage
Wrong answers	35	58.3%
Correct answers	25	41.7%
Total	60	100%

Source: the researcher from applied study by using SPSS

Figure (4.17)

The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (2)



The above table No (4.21) and figure No (4.17) Illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the Semantic Errors and shows that most of the sample answers were wrong which are represented by the percentage (58.3%). This justifies that students need training and developing in how they can choose the correct meaning of words.

Table (4.22)

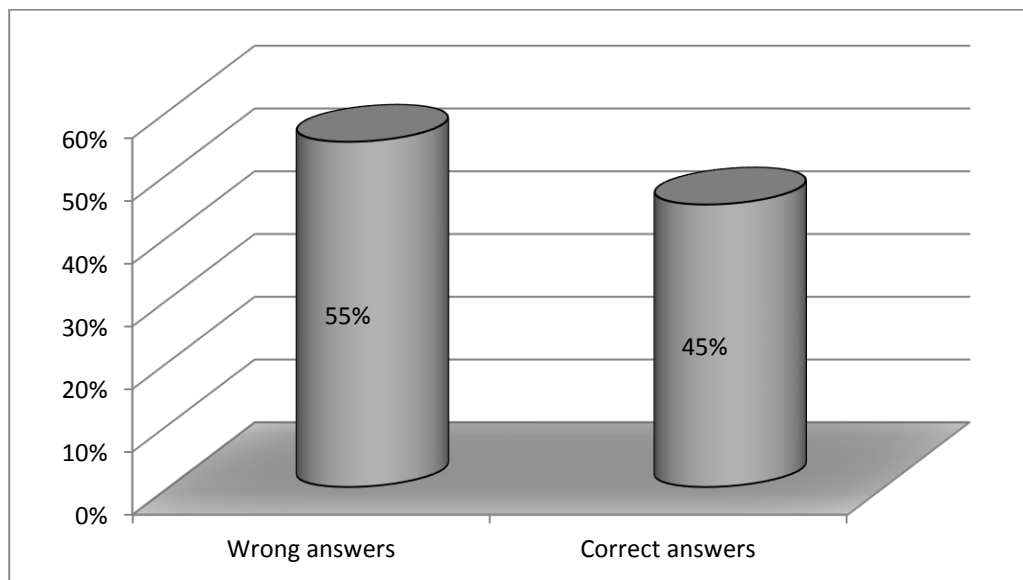
The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (3)

Spelling error	Frequency	Percentage
Wrong answers	33	55%
Correct answers	27	45%
Total	60	100%

Source: the researcher from applied study by using SPSS

Figure (4.18)

The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (3)



The above table No (4.22) and figure No (4.18) illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the Spelling Errors and shows that most of the sample answers were wrong which are represented by the percentage (55%). This justifies that students need training and developing in how they can write spelling of words correctly.

Table (4.23)

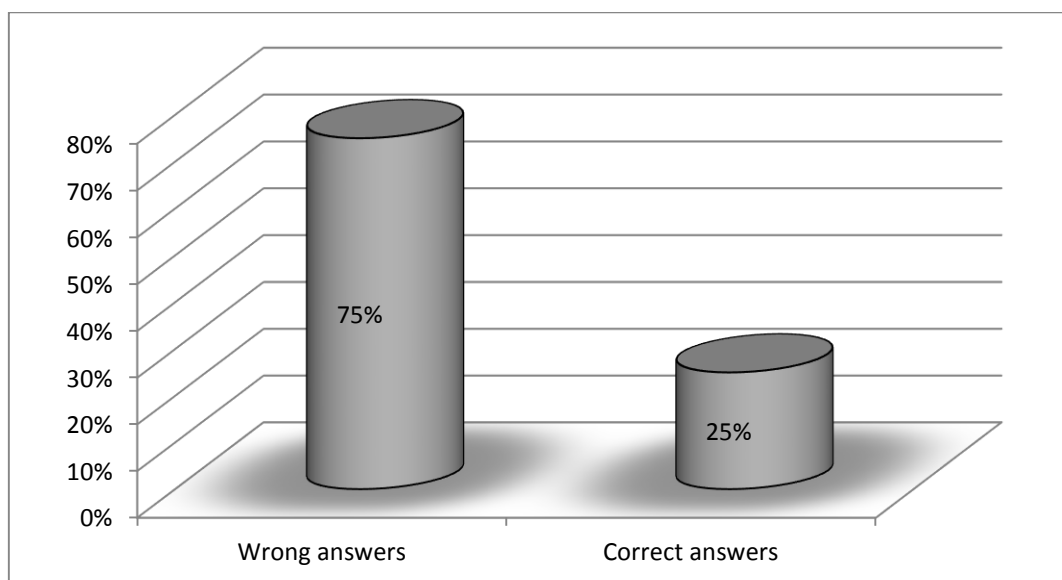
The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (4)

Miscellaneous error	Frequency	Percentage
Wrong answers	45	75%
Correct answers	15	25%
Total	60	100%

Source: the researcher from applied study by using SPSS

Figure (4.19)

The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (4)



The above table No (4.23) and figure No (4. 19) illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the Miscellaneous Errors and shows that most of the sample answers were wrong which are represented by the percentage (75%). This justifies that students need training and developing in how they can make their finishing touches and lay out of writing.

Table (4.24)

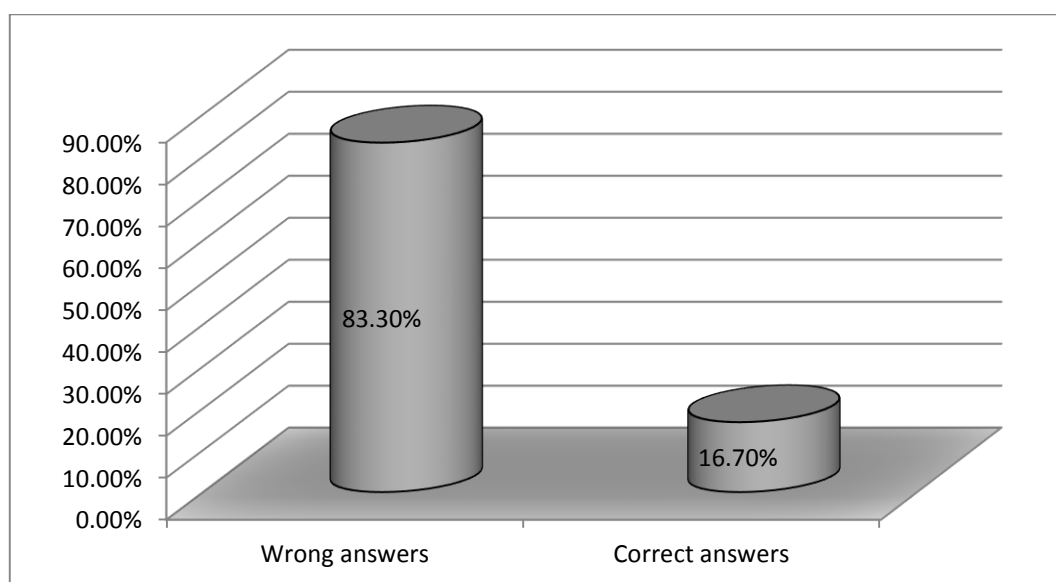
The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (5)

Morphological error	Frequency	Percentage
Wrong answers	50	83.3%
Correct answers	10	16.7%
Total	60	100%

Source: the researcher from applied study by using SPSS

Figure (4.20)

The answers distribution of the student's test according to part (5)



The above table No (4.24) and figure No (4.20) illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were wrong which are represented by the percentage (83.3%). This justifies that students need training and developing in how they can generate words by using derivation in terms of prefixes and suffixes.

Table (4.25) one sample T-TEST for the questions of the study

Parts of the test	N	mean	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
part1	60	3.6	0.2	12.6	59	0.00
part 2	60	2.7	1.81	7.4	59	0.00
part 3	60	3.4	2.44	8.12	59	0.00
part 4	60	3.6	3.5	14	59	0.00
part 5	60	4.3	4.6	13	59	0.00
For all	30	6.33	4.03	15.50	59	0.00

Source: the researcher from applied study by using SPSS

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (1) was (12.6) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (59) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (1) was (7.4) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (59) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (3) was (8.12) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (59) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our third hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (4) was (14) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (59) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (5) was (13) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (59) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents

According to the previous results the test proved that the hypotheses of the study are accepted.

4.5 Summary of the Chapter

After comparing and analyzing the results with the main hypothesis. The test significance indicates that there is highly difference among students' English language writing skills. Therefore, this indicates that high secondary school students face difficulties in English language writing skills.

To sum up, the findings of this chapter revealed that all sections justify 'the Need for writing skills' was highly rated by the students.

We can say there was a consensus of opinions in favor of the writing skill in terms of sentence structures, word meanings, spelling and finishing touches. The neutral responses, however, show irregularity and unexpected and unexplainable instability of the respondents' uncertainly in the all hypotheses.

The responses to all statements in terms of writing skills.All statements are positive in these sections were either strongly agreed to or only agreed to. The

percentages of the negative responses were less significant for the students, but higher for the teachers.

All teachers agreed to the all statements of the sections “writing skills”. The undecided responses, however, showed small differences.

The majority of the respondents were in favor of the need for the writing skills.

A very large majority of the respondents agreed on:

- a. the importance of helping the learner to acquire writing skills;
- b. the fact that writing skills increases awareness of students' selecting meaning of words;
- c. the urgent need for writing skills especially for solving and understanding of the difficult areas in English;
- d. Necessity that their English teachers know their writing skills abilities.

When the students' responses were compared among themselves, no statistical significant differences were perceivable which stated that the students have no opportunity for writing skills.

However, the teachers confirm that writing skills should be one of the main mediam of improving students' performance, they were in favor of the use of writing skills in teaching the target language so as to reach the maximum efficiency in understanding writing skill.

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.0: Introduction

The main object of this study is to investigate the problems that encountered Sudanese students at Sudanese secondary schools. This study used an analytic description methodology;

To fulfill the purpose of the study, two tools were used for data collection, a questionnaire for English language teachers at some Sudanese high secondary schools, a test for students at some Sudanese high secondary schools. This chapter includes the discussion of main findings gained when applying the tools and conclusions. Moreover, a brief recommendations and suggestions were given at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Main Findings

The data collected by two tools was calculated statistically; as a result certain numbers and percentages were reached. In chapter four a discussion of the results was presented in details. The following are the main findings:

The Research has come out with the Following Findings:

1. Students do not know how to construct sentences syntactically.
2. Students have a lot of spelling mistakes when they construct sentences.
3. Students do not know how to choose the right meaning of words when they write sentences.

4. Students do not know how to form a word by using prefixes and suffixes as morphological derivation.
5. Students do not know how to put their finishing touches in terms of their writing layout.
6. The lack of teachers' motivation on teaching writing skill affects negatively on the students.
7. The lack of group work and pair work negatively affects students' writing style acquisition.
8. The lack of visual aids badly affects the illustration of some grammatical structures.
9. The lack of conversation practice affects students' communicative competence.
10. Students' mother tongue interferes their writing English.
11. Exercises in writing in spine serious are not enough to enable students master the basic writing style.
12. The effect of ungrammatical free writing affects on students' grammar.
13. The misuse of oral situational approach affects on students' output.
14. The misuse of information gap technique affects students' grammatical competence.
15. The effect of teachers' short grammatical sentences affects on students' practice of grammar.

5.2 Conclusions

The scholars have seen that in terms of writing errors students must be aware of grammar rules when they want to write a piece of writing, because most approaches begin by recognizing the “sentence” and grammar is the study of sentence structure. A grammar of a language is an account of the languages as possible sentence structures organized according to certain general principles. Accordingly, they state that grammar is a system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. In place of words e.g. " I could' , for more specificity , have said " morphemes " , but for the moment just remember that components of words are a part of grammar and ,when we use the word grammar , we refer to sentence level rules. They state morpheme is minimal unit of meaning or grammatical functions.

5.3 Recommendations

The Research has come out with the Following Recommendations:

1. Students should be trained in how to construct their sentences syntactically.
2. Students should be trained in how to avoid a lot of spelling mistakes when they construct sentences.
3. Students should be trained in how they can choose their right meaning of words when they write sentences.
4. Students should be trained and developed in how to form words by using prefixes and suffixes as morphological derivation.
5. Students should be trained and developed in how to put their finishing touches in terms of their writing layout.
6. Teachers should use more techniques to motivate the students and make their writing lively and avoid rigidity in teaching grammar.
7. Teachers should be well trained and highly qualified and specialized to handle the material with more skills.
8. The designers of the curriculum should facilitate the writing by adding more grammatical items, practice and information gaps.
9. Students should be encouraged by being provided with simplified writing tasks so as to help them improve their writing skills.
10. Educationalist and syllabus designers should make courses for teachers in writing in particular so as to make them aware of teaching this important part.

5.4 Suggestion for further studies

The present study has the following suggestions for further studies:

- 1- Handling training programs for developing writing skills for Sudanese students at secondary schools.
- 2- The experienced teachers should use their knowledge to show what should be done to develop the writing skill.
- 3- Teachers' views and ideas should be taken into consideration when designing the school syllabus.
- 4- Exploiting literature to teach and improve students' ability in writing.
- 5- The researcher hopes that the same study should be carried out in other states.

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Appendix (A)

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Teachers:

This questionnaire is a part of PhD study entitled "Investigating problems Encountering Sudanese Young Learners in Developing Writing Skill". So I would be thankful for your assistance by applying your opinion about the questionnaire statements. For doing so, please put () in front of your choice, your assistance is highly estimated.

Part One:

1- Age:

- a. less than 25 () b. 26 – 35 ()
c. 36 – 45 () d. 46- 60 ()
e. above 60 ()

2. Gender:

Male () female ()

3. Qualifications:

- a. PhD () b- M.A ()
c. P.s () d. Dip ()

4- Years of experience as English language teacher:

- a 1- 5 () b. 6- 10 ()
c. 11 – 15 () d. 16 – above ()

Part Two:

No	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Learning grammar rules help students in devolving their writing skill.					
2	Increasing vocabulary help students in expressing their views in terms when they write a topic.					
3	Using space help students in clarifying their views in terms when they write a topic.					
4	Using punctuation marks helps students in stating their views when they write a topic.					
5	Using indentation helps students in laying out their topic writing.					
6	Teachers' age affects students' interaction inside the classroom.					
7	Teachers' gender affects students' interaction inside the classroom.					
8	Teachers' cultural background affects students' interaction inside the classroom.					
9	Teachers' complex affects students' interaction inside the Classroom					

10	Teachers' creativity affects students' interaction inside the classroom.					
11	Mother tongue interference affects on students' critical thinking when they write a topic.					
12	Mother tongue interference affects on students' reception of sound when they write a topic.					
13	Mother tongue interference affects on students' utterance when they write a topic.					
14	Mother tongue interference develop fossilization among students when they write a topic					
15	Mother tongue interference affects on students' accuracy when they write a topic.					

Appendix (B)

Students' Test

Write a composition about the following topic

A Journey that you made

This image shows a full page of white paper with horizontal dashed lines, typical of primary school writing paper. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.