

# **CHAPTER TWO**

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Part One:**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

In this chapter, the researcher is attempted to shed some light on literature related to study which is teaching grammar in secondary schools and problems facing both teachers and students.

The study is focused on grammar related to linguistic competence, types of grammar, theories and approaches and suitable techniques for teaching grammar in the secondary schools.

It is also focused on the problems related to methods and educational factors affecting teaching grammar. In addition, it focuses on those reviews related to previous studies on the some topics and the comment of them.

#### **2.1 Grammar**

Grammar is the structure of the sentence. As mentioned in Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language (11:88) it is difficult to capture the central role played by grammar in the structure of language, other than by using a metaphor such as a frame work or Skelton. But no physical metaphor can express satisfactorily the multifarious kinds of formal patterning and abstract relationship that are brought to light in a grammatical analysis. Two steps can be distinguished in the study of grammar. One is to identify units in the streams of speech unit such as (word and sentence) and the other is to analyze the pattern into which these units fall. The relationships of meaning that these patterns convey. Depending up on which units, we recognize at the beginning of the study, so the definition of grammar alter.

Richard (2002:231) defines grammar as “the speaker's knowledge of the language.” It looks at the language in relation to how it may be structured in the speaker's mind and which principles and parameters are available to the speakers when producing the language.

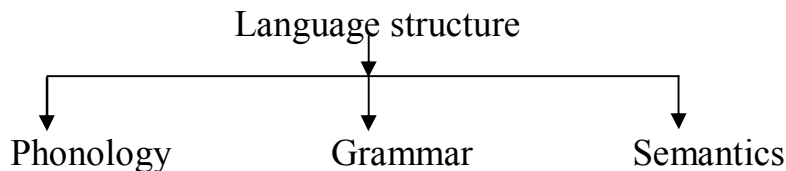
Most approaches begin by recognizing the “sentence” and grammar is the study of sentence structure. A grammar of a language is an account of the languages as possible sentence structures organized according to certain general principles.

Chomsky (1928:11) writes

*“A grammar is a device of some sort for producing the sentence of the language under the analysis to which is added rider that the sentences produced must be grammatical ones acceptable to the native speaker”.*

There are two distinct applications of the term grammar, specific sense and general one. The specific sense is more traditional in which grammar is presented as one branch of language structure distinct from phonology and semantics.

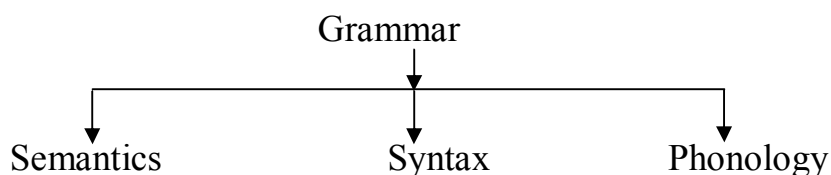
**Fig (1) Language structure**



This is the approach used in this Cambridge Encyclopedia.

The general sense of the term popularized by Chomsky subsumes all aspects of sentence patterning including phonology and semantic and introduced the term syntax as more specific notion. Chomsky (1957:p.11).

**Fig (2) Grammar**



Looking of these two views, it is Chomsky's that gives a wide perspective definition of grammar.

### **2.3 The Place of Grammar**

Brown (1994) states 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 ( prefixes and suffixes / roots , verb and noun endings , etc ) are a part of grammar and ,when we use the word grammar , we refer to sentence level rules. Yule (1996:75) states" morpheme is minimal unit of meaning or grammatical functions".

Grammatical competence occupies a prominent position as a major component of communicative competence. Organizational competence is an intricate, complex array of rules, some of which govern sentence grammar, while other governs how we string sentences together "discourse". Grammatical competence is necessary for communication to take place, but not sufficient to account for all production and reception in language. (ibid:6).

### **2.4 Study of Grammar**

Sidney (2002) states that the study of language is a part of general knowledge. We study the complex working of the knowledge to understand our selves. In the study of language, grammar occupies central position. But there is also a practical reason to emphasize the study of grammar. It is easy to learn to use dictionaries by yourself to find the pronunciation, spelling or meaning of words but it is difficult to consult grammar books without considerable knowledge of grammar.

There is several application of grammatical study:

1. Recognition of grammatical structure is often essential for punctuation.
2. A study of one's native grammar is helpful when one studies the grammar of a foreign language.
3. Knowledge of grammar is a help in the interpretation of literary as well as nonliterary texts, since the interpretation of the passage sometimes depends crucially on grammatical analysis.
4. A study of the grammatical resources of English is useful in composition: in particular, it can help you to evaluate the choices available to you when you come to revise an earlier written draft.(ibid:6)

## **2.5 The Organization of Grammar**

Lock (1996:4) mentions that the organization itself can be considered two important concepts are needed for this, (ranked and class).

Rank refers to different levels of organization within grammar.

For example; people throw stones.

The stretch of language consists of one sentence and three words. Sentence and word are two ranks of grammatical organization, which in English are recognized in writing system, the former by an initial capital letter and final full stop and the latter by spaces between the units. The term sentence represents the highest rank of grammatical organization in both spoken and written English.

Cook (1989:44) defines

*“Rank as the one way of representing the relationships of the parts to whole is the rank structure in which each rank is used in linguistics to describe grammar of sentences. The ranks of grammar are sentence, clause, phrase and word”.*

The sentence can be analyzed into three units. These units are called groups. The sentence consists of three groups each of which consists of a number of words. Sometimes the sentence consists of two clauses or

more, each of which clause consists of a number of groups, each group consists of words. The analysis will take into account four ranks within grammar: word, group, clause and sentence. (ibid: 5)

Class: terms like noun (N) and verb (V) are names of word classes (part of speech). The word in the sentence can be labeled according to their class. The two other major word classes are adjective (adj) and adverb (adv.) and the same class labels are also used to label the groups. Phrase: the term group has been used here, some grammars use the term phrase, for example noun phrase, verb phrase and adverbial phrase for noun group, verb group and adverb group. Embedding: where one unit is used as constituent of another unit in the same or lower rank (ibid: 8).

## **2.6 Competence and Grammar**

Chomsky (1999) states that competence is in principle, independent of performance. As the result of accident or stroke, people are often rendered speechless and appear to lose their language faculty, yet they may subsequently show no ill – effects of their trauma.

The investigation of competence is challenging because our knowledge of language is both complex and largely unconscious. Few people capable of understanding the sentence could give you a linguistic analysis of it, so the question of how such knowledge can be studied permits of no easy answers. To know language is to have mentally represented grammar, standard viewed consisting of a set of rules which conspire to define the individual's competence.

We can't just have memorized a huge list of words and sentences that we dredge from our memory on the appropriate occasion: we must have command of set of rules that constitute our grammar and by reference to which we can produce or understand or make judgments on any of an infinite set sentence. The use of language is creatively rule governed

comes from examples of overgeneralization particularly prominent in speech of children acquiring their first language (ibid).

Such rules are part of our individual knowledge of language and this knowledge can be idiosyncratic and different from adult pattern that the child is acquiring. In any community, the rules we know are largely, shared, but they are properties of the individual, internal to his or her head. To reflect this fact or mentally represented grammar is now referred to as our I – language (first language) our individual, internal language as opposed to E – language outside our head, external to us. (ibid).

Bloomfield (1933:15) defines:

*“a language is the totality of utterances that can be made in speech community. Utterances are the fruits of performance, so there is apparently a close relationship between E- language and performance. But while performance data provide some evidence for the nature of I- language, there is no need, of making additional claim that these data constitute an entity in their own right an E-language”.*

William (1967:4) states, “Speakers of a language are able to produce and understand an unlimited number of utterances, including many that are novel and unfamiliar”. This ability which is called linguistic competence constitutes the central subject matter of linguistics. The investigation of linguistics competence, linguistics focus on mental system that allows human being to form an interpret words and sentence of their language. This system called grammar.

For this purpose we will divide grammar into components:

<u>Component</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>
1. Phonetics	the articulation and perception of speech
2. Morphology	word formation
3. Phonology	the pattern of speech sound
4. Syntax	sentence formation
5. Semantics	the interpretation of words and sentence

Linguists use the term grammar in a rather special and technical way. Because this usage may be unfamiliar to average university students, we will devote some time to considering several fundamental properties of that linguists call grammar. (ibid: 5)

## **2.7 Meaning in Grammar**

Lock (1996) claims that in order to think about grammar as a resource for making and exchanging meaning, it is necessary to explore what might be meant by meaning, there are three types of meaning within grammatical structures can be identified: experiential meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning. Experiential has to do with ways language represent our experience (actual and vicarious) of the word as well as inner world of our thought and feeling. Interpersonal meaning has to do with ways in which we act upon one another through language, giving requesting information, getting people to do things and offering to do things ourselves and the ways in which we express our judgments and attitude about such things as likely hood, necessity and desirability. Textual meaning is important in the certain of coherence in spoken and written text.

Chomsky (1995:42) explains

*“Evidence for innateness, for properties of the initial state of the child acquiring its first language, can be drawn equally from the development of the vocabulary: word meaning is largely innate”.*

Alkhuli (1989:35) argues that the meaning of a sentence is derived from two sources: its lexemes, i.e. words and its grammar. Lexemes supply us with a part of meaning called lexical meaning. On the other hand, the grammar build-up of ascertain sentence supplies us with another part of meaning called grammatical meaning. The grammatical meaning consists of four components: syntax, function words, intonation and inflections.

Looking at these two views, it is Lock's that gives strong evidence about the meaning in grammar.

## **2.8 Grammar and Language Teaching**

Grammar has been neglected in the field of second language teaching but for different reasons. Widdowson (1985:8) defines "language teaching as being a social and often in situational activity, brings theories of language and language learning into contact with practical constraints."

Allen and Corder (1975:45) state

*"Since the end of the Second World War language teaching theory has tended to emphasize the rapid development of automatic speech habits, and the need of discourse students from thinking consciously about underlying grammatical rules. Advocates of oral method, the audio-lingual method and the multi-skill method in more extreme forms have assumed that language learning is and inductive rather than a deductive process and that the most effective of teaching is to provide plenty of oral and practice, so that students learn to use the language spontaneously without need for overt grammatical analysis".*

The experience of a large number of teachers over many years suggests that a combination of inductive and deductive methods produce the best result. Language learning is not simply a mechanic process of habit formation but a process which involve the active co-operation of the learner as rational individual. Most teachers will continue to see language learning as fundamentally an inductive process based on the presentation of data, but one which can be controlled by explanation of suitable type. An important question concerns with the nature of the grammatical explanations given to the students and the type of linguistic grammar from which these explanations should be drawn. Thus we see the teaching of grammar not as an end in itself, but a useful aid in helping a student to achieve the practical mastery of a language. (ibid)



### 2.8.1 The Role of Grammar in language Teaching

Grammar plays an important role in the field of second language teaching.

Murcia (1991:465) offers six easily identified variables that can help you to determine the role of grammar in language teaching. Notice that for each variable the continuum runs from less to more important.

**Table (2.1) variables that determine the continuum of the importance of grammar.**

variables	Less important	Focus on form	More important
A-learner variable			
1-age	Children	Adolescents	Adult
2-level of proficiency	Beginning	Intermediate	Advanced
3-education background	Preliterate (no formal education)	Semi-formal education	Literate well educated
B-Instructional variable			
1-skills	Listening / reading	Speaking	Writing
2-register	Informal	Consultative	Formal
3-need / use	survival	Vocational	professional

Brown (1994:350) explains these variables clearly such as age, level of proficiency, education background, language skills, register and needs and goals.

## **1. Age**

Clearly, due to normal intellectual development variable, young children can profit from a focus on form. Adults with their abstract intellectual capabilities can use grammatical pointers to advance their communicative ability.

## **2. Level of Proficiency**

If too much grammar focus is forced on the beginning level learners, you run to the risk of blocking the acquisition of fluency skills. At this level, grammatical focus is helpful as occasional 'zoom lenses which we zero in on some aspect of language that is currently being practice. At the advanced level, grammar is not necessarily " more important" it is less likely to disturb communicative fluency. It may or not be more important depending on the accuracy already achieved by learners. (ibid ).

## **3. Education Background**

Students who are not literate or who have no formal education background may find it difficult to grasp the complexity of grammatical terms and explanation. Highly educated students are cognitively more receptive to grammar focus and may insist on error correction to help refine their already fluent skills. (ibid ).

## **4. Language Skills**

Because of the permanence of writing and demand for perfection in grammatical form in written English, grammar work may be more suitable for improving written English than for speaking, reading and listening. (ibid).

In language teaching, Richards and Schmidt (2002:292) define

*“Language skills are the mode or manner in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are generally called the four language skills. Sometime speaking and writing are called the active / productive skills and reading and listening, the passive /receptive*

*skills. Often the skills are divided into sub skills, such as discrimination sounds in connected speech, or understanding relations within a sentence”.*

## **5. Register**

Informal contexts often make fewer demands learner's grammatical accuracy. In conversation classes for example form, may be less of an issue than in a class on formal writing.

Grady and Dorovlsky (1986:726) define register as speech variety appropriate to particular speech situation (e.g. formal vs. casual).

## **6. Needs and Goals**

If learners are headed toward professional goals, they may need to stress formal accuracy more than learners at the survival level. (ibid).

I believe that Murica and Brown give us a wide knowledge and full explanation about the role of grammar in the field of the second language teaching.

## **2-9 Grammar and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

The development of communicative language teaching in the mid-1970, grammar associated with more or less discredited approach to second language teaching, in which discrete grammar items to be master on after another and methodology consist largely of presentation of rules and example sentences followed by extensive of drilling patterns . The rules of grammar found in many text book of periods where often at the best half-truths and did little to help learners see how the structure could be used meaningfully in context.

Lightbown and Spada (1993:72) add

“In communicative language teaching classroom, we may find the following characteristic:

1. There is a limit amount of error correction and meaning emphasized over form.

2. Input is simplified and made comprehensible by the use of contextual cues, props and gesture rather than through structural grading (presentation of one grammatical item at a time, in sequence of simple to complex).
3. Learners usually have limited for learning. Sometimes, however, subject-matter courses taught through the second language can add time for language learning. Incommunicative classrooms, learners have considerable exposure to second language speech of other learners.

CLT drew its theoretical inspiration from linguists such as Hymes and Halliday. It stressed the development of what Hymes called communicative competence , that is , the ability not just to produce correct sentences but to know when , where and with whom to use them when , use them . Syllabuses were designed around semantic notions such as time place, quantity and functions (that is, communicative uses them). Within this frame work, a methodology was developed consisting of activities designed to maximize opportunities for communication. (ibid) . Corder (1973:92) defines “competence as communicative competence, the ability to perform.”It is just as much a matter of competence in language to be able to produce appropriate utterances as grammatical ones.

The learner must develop the ability to produce and understand grammatical utterances but he must know when to select a particular grammatical sequence, the one which is appropriate to the context, both linguistic and situational.

Hymes (1972) state that grammatical competence was a part of communicative competence and several scholars closely associated with Development of CLT has continued to stress the relationship between grammar and communication. For example, in an influential paper

published in 1978, Canale and Swam included grammatical competence as one of four types of competence they considered should be included in any definition of proficiency ( the other three being sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence ).

Nevertheless, for some teachers, teaching grammar has come to be as the best a minor part of development of communicative competence and at worst drown right inimical to it.

In Chomkian view “competence means grammatical competence, the knowledge of grammar of ideal speaker.”

This may be called formalist view. It contrasts with the functionalist approach, associated with pragmatics and sociolinguistics, according to which competence suggests all the abilities of an actual speaker. (ibid).

Looking at this view, that Lightbown and Spada give a wide detail about the characteristics of communicative language teaching classroom, but Hymes’s communicative competence is difference from Coder’s competence.

## **2.10 Types of Grammar**

### **2.10.1 Case Grammar**

Richard (2002:64) defines case grammar as approaches to grammar developed in 1970 which stresses the semantic relationship in a sentence (deep structure). Parts of case grammar have been incorporated into more recent versions of generative grammar. Firstly, there is agentive case; the case of typically animate perceived instigator of the action identified by the verb. Secondly, instrumental case; the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by verb. Thirdly, dative case; the case of animate being affected by the state or action identified by verb locative, the case which identifies the location (place) or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by verb .Fourthly,

objective case; the case of any things represent able by noun whose role in action or state identified by verb is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself. (Reference paper in applied linguistic).

Fifthly, factitive case; the noun or noun phrase which refers to something which is made or created by the action of the verb. The factitive case sometime called resultitive case.

Finally, benefactive case; the noun or noun phrase that refers to the person or animal that benefits or is meant to benefit, from the action of the verb.

Chomsky (1965) defines that the terms noun phrase and verb phrase as categorical labels, and such terms as, ‘subject’, object functional labels. Chomsky proposes that we define the notion subject as [NP, S] and say, that this boy is the subject of the sentence. This boy will post the letter by virtue of the fact that it is the NP which is directly dominated by S in the phrase marker associated with the sentence. The following definitions are proposed:

Predicate of<sup>o</sup> [VP, S]

Direct Object of<sup>o</sup> [NP, VP]

Main Verb of<sup>o</sup> [Vb, VP]

In principle, according to Chomsky, we extract information concerning grammatical functions directly from rewriting rules of the base, so as to avoid having to elaborate rules to provide specific mention of grammatical functions. For example, the subject of the noun of an active sentence and the head noun of the by – phrase in its passive transform bear the same functional relationship to the verb – both denote the agent of the action denoted by the verb. Returning to a pair sentences as in:

1. This boy will post the letter.
2. The letter will be posted by this boy.

We find that '*this boy*' in both sentences may be referred to as the 'logical subject', where as it is the 'grammatical subject' of the first sentence only. (Allen and Corder 1975: 68).

Chomsky's conclusions have been challenged by a number of linguists who argue that the definition of 'subject' and 'object' should take precedence over categorical terms like 'noun phrase' and 'verb phrase'. Others have gone further and have suggested that functions like subject and object are relatively superficial, and that underlying them is a 'deep' syntactic specification in which such items as 'agentive', 'instrumental', 'locative', 'dative' are the determinant elements. In particular, Fillmore has argued that the semantic roles which noun phrases have with the respect to their predicate verbs and the position of the noun phrases in syntactic configurations are two different aspects of description, and that linguistic theory should provide some way of distinguishing between them. (ibid).

The relevance of case grammar to language teaching has not been yet fully explored, but one possible application is suggested by Fredrick Bowers (1971). Bowers shows how the notion of optional transformations enables us to distinguish between two kinds of meaning in utterances: 'propositional' meaning which is concerned with the logical relationship of words to each other, and 'situational' meaning, which reflects the speaker's ability to emphasize one part of the proposition rather than another, thus expressing attitude to the propositional content of utterance. The relation between propositional and situational meaning may be described in terms of the transformational model grammar in which the propositional meaning of a sentence is equivalent to its deep structure.

The deep structure is then converted into a surface structure by transformations which reorder deep structural items. Fillmore's case grammar has several advantages over Chomsky's transformational model

if our aim is to account for the propositional synonymy between sentences, since the deep structures in Fillmore's grammar are further removed from the superficial form of sentences, and more similar to their semantic structure than are deep structures postulated in Aspects. Some of the types reordering which are possible using Fillmore's model can be seen from the following groups of examples, where noun phrases in deep structure are marked propositionally to indicate case( of= objective, to= dative, by= agentive, with = instrumental):

Deep structure:

Give (of) that book (to) me (by) John

Surface structures:

John gave me that book.

John gave that book to me.

I was given that book by John.

That book was given to me by John.

### **2.10.2 Generative Grammar**

Yule (1996) claims that generative grammar is a type of grammar that attempts to define and describe by a set of rules or principles all grammatical sentences (well-formed) of a language and no ungrammatical ones (ill-formed). This type of grammar is said to generate or produce, grammatical sentence. The grammar will generate all the well-formed syntactic structures (sentences) of the language and fail to generate any ill-formed structures.

Lyons (1968:124) defines

*"The term generative grammar, which was introduced into linguistics by Chomsky in the mid-1950, is now a day's employed in two rather different senses. In its original, narrower and more technical sense, it refers to sets of rules which define various kinds of language- systems. In broader sense- for which we will use the term 'generativism'- it refers to whole body of theoretical and methodological assumptions about language- structure. Chomsky demonstrated that some kinds of generative grammars are*



*intrinsically more powerful than others. They can generate all the formal languages that less powerful grammar can generate and others less powerful grammar cannot generate. In particular, he proved that finite- state grammars are less powerful than phrase structure grammars and phrase structure- grammars are less powerful than transformational grammars. The difference between these three types of generative grammars in the sense of model”.*

Looking at this view, it is Lyons’s that gives strong evidence and powerful knowledge of generative grammar.

### **2.10.3 Functional Grammar**

Richard (2002) mentions that in general, any approach to grammatical description that attempts to describe the ways in which meaning and functions are realized in language. For example, instead of describing “tense” a grammatical notion, one can investigate the ways in which “time reference” a semantic notion, realized in language. The linguistic means for indicating time reference in English include not only tense and aspect, but also modals, adverbs, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses.

More specifically, the term is used to refer to a formal model of grammar developed in the 1970 by Dutch Scholar Simon Dik which consists of a series of predicate frame, hieratically layered template into which lexical items are inserted.

Halliday (1970a: 143.) distinguishes

*“Three major functions. The first one is the ideational function: language serves for the expression of ‘content’: of the speaker’s experience of the real world, including the inner world of his own consciousness. In serving this function, language also gives structure to experience and helps to determine our way of looking at things, so that it requires some intellectual effort to see them in any other way than that which our language suggests to us”.*

Halliday points to the transitivity system of grammar as being the area which reflects the ideational function of language. Thus, he thinks of the transitivity as accounting for type of processes in which participant and circumstantial roles are involved. For example, a sentence likes:

Ali bought an armchair at the sales.

The sentence contains a process, expressed by the verb, two participant roles, an ‘actor’ (Ali) and a ‘goal’ ( an arm chair) and a circumstantial role ‘ place’ ( at the sale). Apart from the roles of ‘actor’ and ‘goal’, Halliday also distinguishes participant roles like ‘resultant’, ‘beneficiary’, ‘recipient’, ‘instrument’ and ‘force’. It is easy to see how closely Halliday’s transitivity functions correspond to Fillmore’s cases. The correspondences might be set out in the simple table:

<b><u>Fillmore cases</u></b>	<b><u>Halliday’s roles</u></b>
Agentive	actor
Objective	goal
Instrumental	instrument
Dative	recipient
Factitive	resultant
Benefective	beneficiary
Source	force
Locative	place

We might notice that Fillmore, working as it were from within the grammatical system, naturally relates these semantic notions to linguistic category of case where as Halliday, working from outside the system, naturally associates them directly with the sociological concept of role. Both, however, are dealing with the same aspect of linguistic structure. The proposition in case grammar corresponds to the transitivity options as described in Halliday’s ‘systemic’ or functional grammar.

#### **2.10.4 Descriptive Grammar**

The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language, an approach that describes the grammatical constructions that are used in a language, without making any evaluative judgments about their standing in society. These grammars are common place in linguistics, where it is standard practice to investigate a corpus of spoken or written material and to describe in details the pattern it contains.

### **2.10.5- Pedagogical Grammar**

Is a book specially designed for teaching a foreign language or for developing an awareness of the mother tongue? Such teaching grammars are widely used in schools, so much so that many people have only one meaning for the term grammar: a grammar book.(ibid) .

### **2.10.6 Prescriptive Grammar**

Prescriptive grammar is a manual that focuses on constructions where usage is divided and lays down rules governing the socially correct use of language these grammars were a formative influence on language attitudes in Europe and America during 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. Their influence lives on in the hand books of usage widely found today such as a dictionary of modern English usage (1926) by Henery.

### **2.10.7 Reference Grammar**

Reference grammar is grammatical description that tries to be as comprehensive as possible, so that it can act as reference book for those interesting establishing grammatical facts (in much the same way as a dictionary is use as reference lexicon (ibid).

### **2.10.8 Theoretical Grammar**

Theoretical grammar is an approach that goes beyond the study of individual languages, to determine what constructs are needed in order to do any kind of grammatical analysis and how this can be applied consistency in the investigation of human language. It is thus a central notion in any investigation of linguistic universal. (ibid).

### **2.10.9 Traditional Grammar**

Traditional grammar is a term used to summarize the range of attitudes and method found in the period of grammatical study before the advent of linguistic science. The tradition question is over 2,000 years old and includes the work of classical Greek and Roman grammarians,

Renaissance writers and 18<sup>th</sup> century prescriptive grammarians. It is difficult to generalize about such a wide variety of approaches, but linguists generally use the term pejorative identifying an unscientific approach to grammatical study.

However, many basic notions used by modern approaches can be found in these earlier writing and there is no fresh interesting in the study of traditional grammar, as a part of history of linguistic ideas.(ibid).

## **2.3 Grammar Theories**

There have been several theories on grammar. The following section will give just a brief account of main theories and show how each theory may affect methodology. Green Baum (2002:25) states

*“ Grammatical theories make an assumptions about the nature of natural language( language that human beings acquired naturally, as opposed to artificial language such as computer language), present goals for describing them and develop methods for argumentation, formulation and explanation. Grammatical theories are applied to the descriptions of the individual languages. Sometimes the purpose of the application is to develop theory, to demonstrate how the theoretical framework can cope with the language data and to investigate what changes in the theory are required for it to be successful”.*

### **2.3.1 Traditional Grammar**

Alkhuli (1989) claims that traditional grammar generally tended to be prescriptive by trying to impose some rules of language correctness and protect language from corruption and impurity. To put it differently, traditional grammar had tendency to plan for a language instead of just reporting how it actually goes. Traditional grammarians established the famous eight parts of speech: verb, adverb, noun, pronoun, an adjective, preposition, conjunction and interjection. This classification has often been criticized by neogrammarians for inconsistency and inaccuracy: some definitions do not define well because they do not exclude members of other classes: some definition based on semantic consideration where

as others are based on functional one, which means that there is no unified criteria for a defining or classifying. Traditional grammar employs parsing which is categorization of word within a certain sentence into subject, verb, direct object, indirect object, complement and so on.

This type of grammar may be helpful in teaching foreign language owing to its relative simplicity particularly and usefulness. Its eight parts of speech plus functional categories with so-called rules have proved to be pedagogically beneficial despite the criticism some modern linguists against this grammar. In addition to , when a traditional grammarian gives the rules of a language , let the teacher look at those rules as guides to students not as superimposed instruction on how group of people out to use that language . The need for rules by foreign language learners is certainly more urgent than the need of native speaker. The learners of foreign languages often express their satisfaction with knowing the patterns and regularities of target languages because such generalization makes the learned material controllable and retainable. (ibid).

### **2.3.2 Immediate – Constituent of Grammar**

Alkhuli (1989) states that Immediate – Constituent(IC) Grammar is absolutely descriptive and has nothing to do with how a language should be. Its main concern is to analyze sentences as they actually are.

Yule (1996:93) defines, “immediate constituent analysis is an approach with the same descriptive aims”. The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents in sentences go together to form larger constituents.

The IC theory assumes that every English sentence can be divided into two units, each of which can be divided into two. This process bi-division is to continue till the word level is reached, where no more cutting can be carried on.

In teaching a foreign language, the teacher may make use of grammar by substituting one unit for two units and by repeated substituting until the sentence is reduced to its two minimal components, i.e.. Subject and predicate. Of course, this depends on the student's level and on how much the teacher himself knows of this grammar theory and how intelligently he can apply his theoretical knowledge for practical and educational objectives .(ibid:34)

### **2.3.3 Tagmemic Grammar**

According to tagmemic theory tagmemics, established by Pike and Fries 1957, well-known American linguists, there are two bases for classification: inflectional and functional.

Inflectional or morphological classes are determined by suffixes a word can take. A word is a noun if it can take the plural morpheme . A word is a verb if it can take “ing” or past morpheme. A word is an adjective if it can take “er” or “est.” On the other hand, functional or syntactic classes are determined by function a word performs in specific sentence. The function is controlled by the position or slot that word fills. This means that inflectional class of a certain word is static, whereas its functional class is dynamic. (ibid: 34)

The teacher may benefit from the possible application of tagmemic theory. In fact, pattern practice is based on these tagmemic slots and slot fillers. Further, the teacher may use such formulas to test and teach the syntactic class of a word. However, there is some doubt if he can benefit from inflectional classes as defined by tagmemists because such classification is strongly criticized for several reasons. For example, pretty is an adjective because it takes “er” and “est.” but according to the word "beautiful" is not an adjective because it cannot take the suffixes “er” or “est.” This shows how semantics is sacrificed by tagmemics for

the sake of morphology which makes morphological classification bit artificial. (ibid: 35)

### **2.3.4 Transformational Grammar**

Transformational Grammar is a modern linguistic theory which appeared in the (1950) and was established by linguist called Chomsky and modified by several others later. This theory represents a reaction to all previous grammar theories, such as a reaction manifests itself in many ways:

Firstly, according to transformational grammar, every sentence has a deep structure and surface structure.

Secondly, the deep structure is turned into a surface structure one through optional and obligatory transformational rules.

Thirdly, this grammar is characterized by explicitness, which means the grammar accounts for all linguistic facts explicitly without learning some facts to the reader's intelligence.

Fourthly, this grammar is supposed to be formal, symbolized and quasi mathematical because it uses symbols, abbreviations, formula like description, number and the like.

Alkhuli (1989:35) states

*“The teacher who is familiar with such grammar can make use of it in teaching foreign languages. Personal experience (the teacher) has shown that students find a great interest in formalized transformational rules provided that such rules are given in the right way and does that suit the learners` level. Such rules have proved to be quite effective in teaching some grammar relations such as active, passive, simple, compound and simple complex structures”.*

### **2.3.5 Grammar in Mind**

Sidney (1993) explains that during the last forty years, the most influential figure in theoretical linguistic has been Chomsky. He conceives the goal of linguistics to be a description of the internalized grammar of native speakers their mental grammar. This is the knowledge

of rules and principles that underlies the ability to speak and understand their language. It is an unconscious knowledge and it is to be distinguished from the conscious knowledge that we obtain if we study grammar. As a native speaker, we acquire our unconscious knowledge through exposure to the language during childhood. We don't need to study grammar to be able to communicate in our own language.

Chomsky draws distinction between competence and performance in language. Competence is underlying knowledge, where as performance is the actual use made of that knowledge. Performance is affected by factors that are assumed to have nothing to do with language, for example limitation on memory and a person's mental state at a time. Chomsky restricts the goal of linguistics to a description of linguistic competence. So mental grammars are not directly observable, evidence for a description competence must be derived from some aspects of their performance. Chomsky's belief that progress in linguistics require researchers to concentrate on competence is controversial and so are his views on what data constitute evidence for his theory. Chomsky's conception of competence in most of his work is restricted to the knowledge that enables an active speaker to produce an indefinitely large number of sentences , some of which are novels in the sense that they do not replicate sentences that the speaker has produced before. (ibid: 27).

Many linguists have argued that competence should include knowing how sentence in context, since that knowledge may affect the form of sentences and the interpretation of sentences. Individual speakers of language have different mental grammar. For example, people vary in the number of words they know and the meanings they ascribe to them. People might expect to vary also in range of constructions that they can use and understand. Chomsky is not concerned with the language variation. For him, the goal of linguistic description is a description of the



ideal speaker- hearer's intrinsic competence. As perfect dictionary would ignore the limitation on the knowledge of actual speakers (and of course all our present incomplete dictionaries discount these limitation); so a perfect grammar must ignore the limitation and idiosyncrasies in their actual grammars. (ibid).

Chomsky claims psychological reality for the formulations of his theory. His grammar is intended to represent mental grammar of the native speaker. The model of this mental grammar that the theory constructs undergoes change as additional elate are discovered and accounted for, and the theory may need to be amended drastically. It was thought that the rules postulated for the grammar would correspond to mental operation in the production and recognition of speech, but attempts find evidence for the psychological reality of the rules in encoding and decoding processes have been frustrated. Psychological reality is claimed only for the representation of the knowledge of rules. Chomsky also claims that his theory explained how children acquire the ability to speak at an early age despite the complexity of the rules and despite their exposure to fragmentary and imperfect data. Children hear incomplete sentences, hesitation, and false starts and yet are able to construct an internalized grammar that abstracts from the data that they are exposed to: Chomsky hypothesizes that human beings have a language faculty separate from other mental faculties. This faculty referred to as universal grammar is species- specific (limited to human beings) and innate. Because children are equipped with his innate faculty, they are able to construct an internalized grammar quality when they are exposed to a particular language. According to Chomsky, the principles required to abstract from the raw data to construct an internalized grammar are universal, pertaining to universal grammar. It is hypothesized that in addition to innate absolute universals that are

common to all languages, there is also an innate set of parameters that vary among languages.(ibid: 28).

## **2.4 The Purpose of Teaching Grammar**

Teaching grammar is important because grammar is a vital tool for conveying meaning. The study of grammar helps students improve their written and oral language competency and communication ability.

El-Koumy (2002:34) mentions “the whole-language approach views grammar as a process through which meaning is understood or created.

Grammar is taught to EFL students because it is the tool by which messages are produced and learners can speak or write effectively. Moreover, it provides good mental training.

Alhashimi (1354-AH: 3-4) indicates “ grammar is the only sciences that has the right to be advanced because correct and incorrect speech is known by it, and it assists in understanding all other sciences”. So, grammatical errors have their own role in the learning process because they may affect students' confidence or hinder them from passing the exams.(Scientific Magazine:2012).

## **2.5 Teaching Grammar**

Rodman (1998) claims that the descriptive grammar of a language attempts to describe everything speakers know about language. It is different from teaching grammar, or dialect. Teaching grammars are that we use in school to fulfill language requirements. They can be helpful to those who do not speak the standard or prestige dialect but find it would be advantageous socially and economically to do so. Teaching grammars state explicitly the rules of the language, lists the words and their pronunciation and aids in learning and aid a new language or dialect.

It is difficult for adults to learn a second language without being instructed, even when learning for an extended period in a country where

the language is spoken. Teaching grammars assume that the student already knows one language and compares the grammar of target with native language. The rules on how to put words together to form grammatical sentences also refer to the learners' knowledge of their native language. Such statements assume students know the rule of their own grammar, in this case English. Although such grammars might be considered prescriptive in the sense that they attempt to teach students what is or is not grammatical construction in the new language, their aim is different from grammar that attempts to change the rules or usage of language already learned.(ibid:18).

## **2.6 Approaches for Teaching Grammar**

There have been many approaches used for teaching grammar.

### **2.6.1 To teach or not teach grammar**

Brown (1994) mentions that the next question is whether or not to teach grammar in language classes and how to teach it . Varied opinions on the questions can be found in the literature on language teaching. Grammar has been central. Reason, balance and experience of teachers in recent CLT (communicative language teaching) tradition tell us that judicious attention to grammatical form in the adult classroom is not only helpful but essential to speedy learning process.

### **2.6.2 How to Teach Grammar**

**Grammar should be presented inductively or deductively.**

An inductive approach is currently more in favor because it is more in keeping with language acquisition (where the rules are absorbed subconsciously with little or no conscious focus). Frank (1884:9) explains that a language could be best taught by using it actively in the classroom rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and

spontaneous use of foreign language in the classroom. Learners would be able to induce rules of grammar. In addition, it conforms more easily to the concept of interlanguage development in which learners' progress through possible stages of rule acquisition. It allows students to get communicative feel for some aspect of language before getting possibly overwhelmed by grammatical explanation and it builds more intrinsic motivation by allowing students to discover rules rather than being told them. (Brow 1994:349).

Richard and Roger (1995:5) add that grammar is taught deductively, by presentation and the study of grammar rules which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most grammar translation texts, syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points through a text, and there was an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way.

There may be occasional moments, of course, when deductive approach or a blend between two is indeed more appropriate. In practice, the distinction is not always apparent. Consider the following excerpt from the low intermediate classroom for example:

S<sub>1</sub> : And so , you see , I tell you the stewardess , to bring me hot tea I well , she doesn't it .

S<sub>2</sub>: Yes, well, I am also very frustrated last week, when I travel in the airplane, I get no sleep.

T: Okay Kamal before you go on, since we need to review the past tense. So you want to say, "I was frustrated" " I got not to sleep" " I told the stewardess " okay , class , let's look at some verbs .

The teacher then put those and a few other verbs on the board listed their past tense forms and had students practice them. Eventually the teacher came back to Kamal and had him finish his story. While you might question the appropriateness of the interruption here, the point is

that the teachers' focus on the past tense was deductive by virtue of the way she presented it. But it was inductive in that the focus on the past actually preferred by students' meaningful performance. (ibid: 351).

Alkhuli (1989:47) emphasizes that situational grammar implies that grammatical structure is accompanied by a real situation provided the teacher or students especially when a new structure is handled. Such situation has proved to be quite effective because it grammatical structure highly meaningful, helps to clarify the meaning of the pattern and adds liveliness to the lesson. The teacher can achieve this situationalized grammar through several ways:

1. Actual examples. Instead of using imaginary sentences, the teacher is advised to use real example related to himself, his students, their school and their actual life and experiences.
2. Real name. The teacher advised to use the names of his students in his sentences and attach to those names actual actions, habits and facts.
3. Verifiable sentence. If general sentences are to be needed, it is better to choose those verifiable ones. This means that the sentence has to in accordance with general facts of life and science.
4. Action. The teacher can use actions to teach some structures at least. This works best in the case of teaching verbs that denote action. Dynamic verbs; for example, he says, "I am going to clean the blackboard." After he finishes his cleaning, he says, " I have cleaned it."
5. Dramatization. The teacher may introduce some purposive dialogues to reinforce some structures and ask his students to memorize such dialogues and recite them at class.

It is worthy that situational grammar is not an alternative to pattern practice, but on contrary, it has to supplement it. The former emphasizes

the meaning of a pattern, where as the latter emphasizes its form. In fact pattern practice is criticized by some methodologist for neglecting meaning for the sake of form, fluency and automaticity, which may be unfortunately true. Consequently, there is a need to use both patterning practice and situationalization let them complete one another instead of competing with one another. (ibid).

### **2.6.3 Using grammatical and technical terminology in CLT classroom**

Our historical roots (in grammar translation methodology) placed strong emphasis on grammatical explanations in the mother tongue and on terminology necessary to carry out those explanations.

In CTL classes now, the use of grammatical explanation and terminology must be approached with care. Teachers are sometimes so eager to display our hard-earned metalinguistic knowledge that we forget our students are busy enough just getting the language itself that the added load of complex rules and terms is too much to bear.(ibid: 351).

There are a few simple rules which will enhance any grammatical explanations:

1. Keep your explanation brief and simple. Use mother tongue if students cannot follow an explanation in English.
2. Use charts and other visuals whenever possible to graphically depict grammatical relationships.
3. Illustrate, with clear and ambiguous examples.
4. Try to count for cognitive styles among your students ( for example, analytical learners will have an easier time picking up on grammatical explanation then will holistic learner ) .
5. Don't get yourself and (students) tied up in knots over so called exceptions to rules.

6. If you don't know how to explain something (e.g if a student asks you about a point of grammar rules ) don't risk giving false information rather than tell students you research that point and bring an answer back the next day.(ibid:352).

#### **2.6.4 Teaching Grammar purely or in structures**

Eisenstein ( 1980 ) states that collective experience of the last two decades or so CTL practice combined with the research on the effectiveness of grammatical instruction indicates the advisability of embedding grammatical techniques into general language course rather than single grammar out as a discreet “skill“ and treating it in separate course . Grammatical information whether consciously or subconsciously learned, is an enabling system, a component of communicative competence like phonology, discourse and the lexicon. Therefore, as courses help students to pursue relevant language goals, grammar is best brought into the picture as contributor toward those goals.

Brown (1989:353) states

*“In some curricula, however, certain class hours, workshops or courses are set aside for grammatical instruction. In a language teaching paradigm that stresses communicative, interactive, meaningful learning, such courses may appear to be an archaism. However, under certain conditions, they can provide a useful function, especially for high intermediate to advanced learners, where a modicum influence is already in place”.*

Those conditions are:

The grammar course is explicitly integrated into the total curriculum so that the students can readily relate grammatical pointers to their other work in English.

The rest of the curriculum controls the content of grammar course not vice versa. That is, the grammar course “serves "curricular.

Grammar is contextualized in meaningful language use.

The course is tailored as much as possible for particular individual problems students are experiencing.

Sometimes grammar modules in standardized test preparation course serve as helpful reviews of certain grammatical principles that may be incorporated into the test.

The ultimate test of the success of much courses in the improvement of students performance outside of grammar class, not in their score on discrete – point grammar tests.

Under these conditions, grammar assumes its logical role as one of several supporting foundation stones for communication. (ibid: 353).

### **2.6.5 Teachers Correction of Errors**

Brown (1994) mentions that many students' errors in speech and writing performance is grammatical. Interestingly, we have no research evidence that specially shows that overt grammatical correction by teachers in the classroom is for any consequence in improving learner's language. But we do have evidence that various other forms of attention to treatment of grammatical errors have impact on learners. Therefore, it is prudent for you to engage in such treatment, as long as adhere to principles of maintaining communicative flow, of maximizing student self-correction, and of sensitively considering the affective and a linguistic place is in.

### **2.7 Factors Causing Grammatical Errors**

These factors are respectively: lack of teachers' motivation, shortage of motivation of learners, strategies that learners use to learn the target language, MT interference, learning atmosphere and classroom situation, deficiency of students' grammatical background, teachers' training and qualification which result in absence of effective teaching, lack of staffspecially the qualified one. Added to these the cultural aspects.



Rababah (2003:17) attributes the weakness of English language learners in general, and English language department graduates specifically to various factors such as lack of knowledge of students when they join university, school and English language curricula, teaching methodology, lack of the target language environment and the learners' motivation.

According to James (1998) cited in Tabidi (2004:6) defines the sources of errors as follows:

1. Language transfer: when errors committed due to MT interference.
2. Transfer of training: when errors occur due to inadequate training procedures.
3. Strategies of second language learning: refers to the learners' own techniques to acquire the target language.
4. Strategies second language communications: these are strategies the learner uses to acquire the target language when the purpose of learning is only how to communicate.
5. Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material: when the learner over generalizes the target language rules and semantic features.

### **2-7-1 Learner's Strategies**

Another factor which has an effect on learning English grammar is the strategies/techniques that learners use to learn the target language. Learners try to learn the language due to their personal knowledge. They often adopt the rules of their native language and try to apply them to the target language. They form their own hypotheses. For example they often try to find the similarities between their language and the language they learn. This is because similarities are easy to learn. i.e. they attempt to use the structures of the foreign language in the same way they use the structures of their native language. According to Macaro (2004) cognitive

strategy use falls into six dimensions: repeating/ confirming information, writing, practicing, generating, applying rules and linking with the prior knowledge strategies. Some strategies have positive effect on language performance and some produce negative effect, whereas others have no effect. For example linking with prior knowledge has positive effect. Repeating / confirming information had negative effect .e.g. the more the learner mechanically repeated information, the worse they performed; the more they synthesized what was learned and applied it to practice , the better they performed.

### **2.7.2 Mother Tongue Interference**

Language interference (conscious or unconscious) is the effect of a language learners' first language on their production of the language they are learning. Lott (1983:256) defines interference as “errors in the learner’s use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue”. The effect can be on any aspect of language: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling.etc. Although the use of the students' native language in English classes has been controversial subject. Mother tongue interference is a major factor with a great significance in the learning deterioration because it results in errors of grammar and sentence structure. On the view point of de Castro (1992:35)students would profit from comparing the similarities and difference in the two languages.i.e.L1and L2. But they should understand that ideas are translated not words. Also experienced teacher should rely on their common sense to decide whether or not to use the students L1.

Rababah (2003:18) adds that teaching in a language is an excellent way of teaching a language. Accordingly, grammatical problems are owing to translation and applying the rules of the first language to the foreign language. MT is a part of learner's life since his childhood, so its acquisition is a natural process. On the contrary, foreign language

learning takes place in an artificial, formal situation which makes it's a complicated process. Here comes the role of the teachers and effective supported studies in the field of teaching / learning.

Solutions to all these problems must be built on contrastive analysis between the first language (Arabic) and the target language (English) i.e. to compare the grammatical differences between the two languages because English and Arabic grammars are different. Students usually use in class their MT in order to comprehend the foreign language they study. Teachers usually translate to the students what they study because it is a shortcut and its saves time. This translation prevents students from understanding the target language and retards their ability to think in it. Therefore, they should be encouraged from the start to express them in the target language. Also teachers should minimize the use of MT in the second language classroom. Scientific Magazine (2012:35).

### **2.7.3 Learning Atmosphere and the Classroom Situation**

Al-sherify (2001:41) defines classroom environment as the physical, social and psychological conditions in which teaching and learning processes take place. Classroom seating, size of the class, light and airy rooms.etc. are factors that create a stimulating classroom environment, which helps in facilitating class management.

Thus, an effective teaching / learning environment is a primary educational necessity although the classroom might not be an ideal environment for acquiring a foreign language because exposing learners to the real life is not possible in classroom; besides, crowded classes hinder the learners' active participation. Teaching is about much more than just passing information. There is a sort of interaction between teachers and their students which teachers must exploit to establish control in their classes and create positive teaching - learning environment. However, not all English teachers think that class size

matters. The more students the more competitive, and the more positively motivated the class can be.(Isn.curtin.au/tlf2001/xu.html2005).

#### **2.7.4 Teacher's Training and Lack of Qualified Staff**

Teachers' training and qualification are two important elements of effective teaching. These are two important issues to discuss because the inadequacy of these added to them lack of staff the qualified one, result in absence of effective teaching which reflects negatively on learning process. What is important in teaching process is teachers contain. Teacher must attain a high linguistic competence and readiness to develop it through self-development or via training, to the point where it can be reflected positively in the teacher's performance. Majoring in a subject needs methodology to enhance it because specialization by itself is not enough i.e. once a teacher masters the language, s/he can deal with it and through experience and practice they can improve themselves because as Finocchiaro1989 in Ancker (1992:47) states that good teachers are made, not borne. This opinion indicates the importance of the effective training because as Rababah (2003:20) reports about the situation in Jordon that teacher - training programs were not very successful in changing the teachers' methodology.

Morris (2004:2) adds that teachers would graduate from educational programmers with their heads full of ideas about how they would implement them in their classroom, but once they were confronted by a real classroom situation:"they fizzed out. The worthy rule here is what Morris (ibid:8) suggests: "the first task is to understand the rules of teaching. Understand the dos and don>ts. This rule raises the questions. Who trains? How to train? Scientific Magazine (2012:37).

## **2.8 Techniques for Presenting Grammatical Structure**

Different methods make use of different kinds of classroom activities such as:

### **2.8.1 Dialogue**

According to Celce-Murcia (1979) mentions that new grammatical structure is given in context in a conversation, usually between two speakers. The structure and vocabulary included in dialogue should be one that the students have already learned. The lines of each speaker should be kept fairly short although natural. It is not necessary to establish a setting within the dialogue. The teacher can do this with a short introduction before the actual dialogue. This eliminates the need to begin each dialogue with an exchange of greeting between each of the participants.

### **2.8.2 The Text**

Grammatical structure can also be presented within the context of story of some sort of text. The teacher can read or tell the story with or without the actual text in the student's hands. Natural language should be used. Resist to the temptation to have the structure appear so frequently in the passage that it does so at the expense of authentic it. (ibid).

### **2.8.3 Rules**

For those grammatical structures which are not particularly conducive to presentation, it is certainly possible for the teacher to present the rule as long as it is supplementary by plenty of examples and practice. The teacher could follow inductive approach with any of the above means or simply give a series of examples to the students and lead them induce the rule for themselves .(ibid).

#### **2.8.4 Realia, Pictures and Pantomime**

Another possibility is for the teacher to follow inductive approach but rather than simply stating the examples or writing them on the blackboard, to accompany or dramatize them with realia, picture or pantomime.

An obvious example which comes to mind is for the teacher to demonstrate the regular past tense by saying while acting ; I am walking across the room ( stop turn to the class and say : I walked across the room.(ibid).

#### **2.5.5 Drill and Practice**

Paulston (1971) mentions that the structure has been presented keeping in mind our intention to give our students initial practice in manipulating the new item, our next procedure should involve some sort of drill. The teacher can indicate the type of drill through words and gestures. Once the pattern has been established, a minimum amount of direction will be necessary by the teacher.

There are three possible drill types:

##### **A. Manipulative Drill**

Repetition; the teacher simply provides the model containing the new structure and the students repeat it. The usual practice with this type as with many of the others is for the class to respond as whole chorally, then for the groups of students to respond.

##### **B. Substitution Drill**

Single slot: in this drill the students are given a sentence and a cue word. They are to substitute words into their appropriate place in the sentences. For example:

Teacher: I go to the store everyday – (everyday)

Student: I go to the store every week.

Multiple slot: this is a variation of the first type of substitution drill.

The basic format remains the same but this time the cue could be substituted for any item in the model. For example:

Teacher: I go to the store everyday – (every week)

Student: I go to the store every week.

Teacher: I..... (The park)

Student: I go to the park every week.

Teacher: (he)

Student: He goes to the park every week. (ibid).

### C. Transformation

For this drill, the teacher supplies a certain English syntactic structure; for example, an affirmative sentence. The students are instructed to transform that structure into a question or negative sentence.

Teacher: I go to the store every week.

Student: Do you go to the store every week?

Completion: This drill type would only be applicable for certain structural types. One possible application would be with the question tags. The teacher models the formal statement and the students repeat the model and complete the utterance with appropriate a question tag; for example:

Teacher: He goes to the store every week.

Student: He goes to the store every day, doesn't he?(ibid).

Expansion Drill: This drill can be used along with other drills or can be employed whenever needed to help students with an especially troublesome sentence. It is primarily designed to aid in the development of fluency with a long sentence. For example, model sentences:

I went to the store and I bought a dozen, a loaf of bread and a quarter of milk.

Teacher: I went to the store and I bought.....

Students: I went to the store and I bought.....

Students: I went to the store and I bought a dozen eggs.(ibid).

Integrative Drill: Again this drill is not appropriate for all structures of English. The student's task is to combine the two cues given them by teacher into one utterance, e.g.

Teacher: I went to the store. He went to the store.

Student: I went to the store and he did, too.(ibid).

#### **D. Meaningful Drill**

##### **E. Restatement**

Teacher: Abdul, ask Juan what he did yesterday?

Abdul: What did you do yesterday, Juan?

Juan: I went to the library.

Drill such as this, which requires individual response can be conducted as "chain drill."

A chain drill is one where the teacher begins the drill, but rather than giving all cues, allows the students to carry the drill where the teacher makes a statement containing a certain syntactic structure, but he will have to understand what is being said to him or her in order to respond accurately.(ibid) .

##### **F. Communicative**

##### **Drill:**

Rejoinder: The teacher makes a statement, but rather than the students simply replying with something factually correct, S/he communicates something about him or herself, e.g .

Teacher: I like apples.

Student: You like apples but I don't.

Question and Answer: It is a moot point whether an exercise of this sort should be rightfully classified as a drill. What happens is that



the teacher poses a question and the student respond by a gain, having a free choice of answer.

Teacher: What's your hobby?

Student: My hobby is collecting stamps.

Teacher: What's your pastime?

Student: My favorite pastime is watching T.V.(ibid).

### **2.8.6 Communicative Activities:**

Celce-Murcia (1977) mentions relationship between drills and communicative activity, the teacher might want to make use of the blackboard, the overhead projector or handouts to give students an opportunity to complete exercises, oral and / or written, which relate to the new structure. One way of doing this as well as promoting peer correction and a good social climate is to use of group work. Role play: role play is one technique which affords much opportunity o practice a new structure in the context of "nature" communicative usage. For example, after the teacher has introduced who-questions for the first time and the students have ample practice manipulating the form, the teacher can suggest that the students pair off and role-play the part of the newspaper reporters. Their instructions are to find out as much as possible about their partner within certain time limit. The "reporters" must later relate their findings to the class.

Problem – solving: Taking an advantage of the second language learner's cognitive ability and desire to communicate, the teacher can present the learner with all sorts of problems that need to be solved through the manipulation of new language structures.

In one problem – solving task, for example two students are asked to sit back to back or separated by cardboard screen. Both students receive colored piece of plastic of various dimensions and shapes , however , one

member of each pair is given them pre-arranged in some sort of simple geometric design while the other is given them scrambled . It is the responsibility for the first student to make.(ibid).

## **Part Two:**

### **2.9 Previous Studies**

This section about previous studies will inform the researcher about the methods and techniques used by researchers who worked in the same field. It will also provide information concerning the issues of instrumentation, sampling and data analysis.

The area of teaching grammar in Sudanese schools has not been investigated before specially the SPINE which was published in 1997. However, we can say that both local and global text grammar has something to do with the study.

In Sudan, there are rare studies in grammar in general but not on the teaching of English language through four skills that include grammar teaching.

#### **2.9.1 The First Study**

Azhari Ahmed Mohammed (1989) handled English Programmed. In his research "Film Sudanese Education of New English Programmed" "Nile Course "English language teaching in secondary schools. His questionnaire was answered by a sample of 50 teachers who taught English in secondary schools in Khartoum state. He came to results that:

For the benefit of students the grammatical part should be used in English conversation and dialogues.

Group and pair of students should practice in turn till they began to learn them by heart.

More grammar should be taught in the "Nile Course."

The tradition of English language provides more space for grammar to satisfy both the teachers and the students.

Grammar should be presented in authentic situations and not to present as separated items.

To help the students to use the grammatical rules, the teacher should teach more grammar than in the "Nile Course" the student text book.

The elected method is the best method to solve the problems of teaching grammar rules. Particularly, I agreed with his view.

### **2.9.2 The Second Study**

Ali Ahmed Suleiman (1999) handled the Techniques of Practicing English. In this research "case study of Khartoum state schools", English language teaching and classroom practice in Sudanese secondary schools. He investigated the deficiency of English grammar rules as one of items of study in three year secondary schools resulted to:

1. Students are not given enough tense to practice and produce language.
2. Teachers talking time is more than the students.
3. Large classes hinder the student learning.
4. Classroom activities are not enough for the students.
5. The students are not taught how to improve their language skills through the correct application of grammatical rules.

In my point of view, his research "The Technique of Practicing English Language" no doubt that the discussion on practicing English language inside the classroom is very good.

### **2.9.3 The Third Study**

Nadia Eltaib (1988) handled the Effect of Grammar in Nile Course" In her research: the position of grammar in the Nile Course "New Integrated Longman English at intermediate schools.

She aimed to investigate the effect of grammar on writing skill specially in writing any prose.

It was done through testing retesting directly by the researcher in the classroom. She found that the students were not able to construct any sentence grammatically correct because grammar was not given sufficient time and exercise. According to her research "The Effect of Grammar in Nile Course", notably the effect of grammar investigation is perhaps acceptable.

#### **2.9.4 The Fourth Study**

Adam Abdullah (2000) handled The Problems of Teaching Grammar. In his thesis, he aimed to investigate grammar teaching in SPINE at the level of secondary schools and students' awareness.

Questionnaire items are designed for teachers of English language at secondary schools in Khartoum State "60" teachers, as a sample. He comes to results that:

Grammar was reduced of legalistic value done to the misuse of the rules which were related to the methods used in teaching grammar. In my opinion, his research is considered as progression use of imperative for a preposition of English to enable the secondary students to construct a figure identical to the one already assembles for the first student.

#### **2.9.5 The Fifth Study**

Nawal Omer Ahmed (2004) handled the Problems of Teaching Composition.

In her research the problems of teaching composition at secondary schools in Sudan which was done through test and retest by her at ELfaroug Private Secondary School, students by giving them an item for composition.

Her research indicated that most of the errors in writing composition were grammatical errors concerning grammar teaching. Psychological problems of grammar deals with the different patterns of students varied according to their psychological differences.

In my opinion, I regarded it and considered powerful knowledge of grammar. These studies provided the researcher inside clearly to her research. The researcher gained the knowledge, method and techniques which will assess her in doing the research. According to the theoretical aspect and the previous studies relevant to it, the researcher thinks that this research would serious share in developing teaching English grammar. It will be reference to decision -makers in (syllabus design curriculum) the ministry of education in order to students' needs.

## **2.10 Summary**

This chapter provided the basic theoretical about the relevant literature review and it focused more precisely on the subject of this study. It also reviewed some related previous studies and showed how they relate to the present study.