CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

In spite of studying English for many years, university students encounter many problems in writing English sentences. The researcher mainly focuses on sentence structure, because it represents the core of the problem.

In this study, the researcher will shed light to explore errors which are made by Sudanese university students in sentence construction and try to find out why learners misuse or get confused when they write sentences. Is it due to the interference of the mother tongue (interlanguage errors), or the type of errors reflect on the general features of the rules learning (intralingual errors), or the techniques which are used by the teachers in initial teaching of new structures and patterns of English language.

English is a global language, and nearly spoken all over the world. It is regarded one of the most important means of communication. By learning English, learners will know a lot about the world around them and it is a good chance for exchanging experiences in different aspects of life, social, educational, cultural and political. (Elqadi 2013).

Learning a foreign language is not easy, because the target language has different elements compared to the native language. These differences lead students to make errors in writing and speaking, but writing is the most important skill for students to learn.

According to Geoffrey (1980) making errors in writing is not a bad thing, but a good proof that learning is taking place. Making errors in a

way or another is unavoidable and is a necessary part for the learning process. It is very crucial for the teachers to have full knowledge of the causes of errors in order to adopt a more effective teaching strategy.

It is very important to arrange words and phrases to create well- formed sentences. Students should follow the rules and principles that govern sentence structure. One way to begin studying the basic sentence structure is to consider the traditional parts of speech (also called word-classes); (nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, and interjections ...etc).

The study of syntax is the study of how words combine to form phrases and ultimately sentences in languages. Because it consists of phrases that are put together in a particular way, a sentence has a structure. The structure consists of the way in which the words are organized into phrases and the phrases are organized into larger phrases. The study of phrase and sentence structure is sometimes called grammar. (Tserdanelis and Wong 2004:185).

The present study aims to investigate errors in sentence construction which are made by third year students of the Faculty of Education in Sudan University of Science and Technology. The researcher will try to explain the reasons for their occurence, with the intention of establishing the most frequent areas that inhibit the mastery of English grammar.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The present study is intended to explore and suggest solutions for the problems behind students' errors in constructing a proper English sentences.

This problem represents a crucial area in academic writing, particularly for students who study English as a second language.

Like any other language, English has its own patterns and rules for correct sentence structure. University students who study English as their specialization (in faculties of education and faculties of arts) exhibit serious inadequacies in producing sentences that conform to the patterns and rules of the English language. The consequence of this is that their writing is always characterized by a lot of instances of either incomprehensible discourse or improper representation of the ideas that they want to express or the messages that they try to convey.

Learners' production of sentences reveal weak performance in the following areas:
(1) Writing sentences using the most important English sentence patterns.
(2) Writing sentences according to the different functions of sentences.
(3) Writing sentences according to the different types of sentence.

Most evidently, those students have problems in the following areas:
(1) Word order.(in statements and interrogative sentences).
(2) Subject-verb agreement.
(3) Passivization.
(4) Relative clauses. (defining and non-defining clauses).

1.2 Objectives of the study
The objectives of the study are:

a. to discover the types of errors that are made by Sudanese university students in sentence structure.

b. to find out that, if the teachers correct students' errors in sentence structure or not.

c. to investigate whether the textbooks contain sufficient examples and practice questions or not.

1.3 Questions of the study

The study tries to provide answers for the following questions:

a. What are the kinds of errors that are made by Sudanese University Students in sentence structure?

b. How do teachers correct students' errors in sentence structure?

c. What do the textbooks consist of?

1.4 Hypotheses of the study

The study has the following as its hypotheses:

a. Sudanese university students have problems in sentence construction in the following aspects:

(I) Word order (statements and interrogative sentences).

(II) Subject-verb agreement.

(III) Passive constructions.

(IV) Relative clauses (defining and non-defining clauses).

b. University teachers do not correct students' errors that relate to sentence construction.

c. The textbooks do not contain sufficient examples and practice questions in sentence construction.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is based on the fact that most of university students lack the ability to produce well-formed sentences and they fail to express themselves accurately. The aim of this study is to enable students to write correct English sentences.

This problem is a very serious one for a number of reasons, the most important of which are:

(1) In academic writing (whether in examinations, assignments or research), the students suffer from producing their intended or required tasks in a comprehensible manner.

(2) In the future, the students will not be able to communicate effectively with their colleagues or counterparts.

(3) University teachers who have to evaluate the production of such students (in examinations, assignments or research papers at all levels) usually have a hard time trying to figure out what such students intend to convey.

The study also seeks to specify the role of the teachers, teaching methods, and techniques in bettering the command of the students in writing well-formed sentences. Such specifications can explore new trends in teaching and learning programme by adopting suitable techniques that the students need in order to overcome the areas of difficulties. Yule (1998:2) states that,...most of these problems are due to grammar since English language has been taught for specific purpose such as business, diplomacy or academic. Thus students make errors when they have problem with the chain of language (syntax), choices of words, (Vocabulary), forms of words (morphology) and shape of words (spelling).

This study will help university students to develop their writing skills. It also helps language teachers to understand the difficulties which face learners, so that they can direct their efforts, efficiently and effectively, to improve the abilities of students. It may also be beneficial to planners and course designers to spot out the areas of difficulties and try to find the suitable solutions .

1.6 Methodology of the Study

This study adopts the descriptive analytical method to conduct its results.

The data of the study come mainly from two sources:

(a) The results of the test which the students do.

(b) A questionnaire which the teachers respond to.

The test provides the data that relate to the type and amount of errors which the students usually make when they construct English sentences. This data is analyzed statistically by using SPSS and is commented on, in order to provide answers to the firt research question and is used for the verification of the first hypothesis.

The analysis of questionnaire reflects the reality of the situation and places the problems in its proper dimensions. This data provides evidence that replies the answer to the first question and reinforces the verification of the first hypothesis. It also provides answers to the second and third questions and verifies the second and third hypotheses.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This research is limited to Sudan University of Science and Technology and Omdurman Ahlia University. The sample of the study is taken from

the third year students in the faculty of education and the teachers from two universities in 2015. The research is carried out in the academic years 2013,2014, and 2015. The results of this study depend on the validity and reliability of the instruments which are constructed by the researcher.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.0 Introduction

The main concern of this study will focus on syntax which covers a variety of linguistic aspects for example; Grammar and error analysis. The selection of this topic is due to two main reasons: First, syntax is a very crucial branch of linguistics, it touches the area of the writing system. Second, most of the Sudanese university students lack the ability to produce well-formed sentence and hence fail to express themselves in a good designed-work. However there are many problems which encounter learners in sentence structure.

2.1 Chomsky's Theory of language

The idea of structuralist in language was dominant during the first half of the present century, which is associated with the names of many great linguists, such as Ferdinand de Saussure and Nikolas Trubetzkoy in Europe, and Leonard Bloomfield in the United States. The review of basic principles would not be complete, without a reference to the profound change in linguistic studies which have taken place as a result of the work of Noam Chomsky. Chomsky has proposed an approach to language description which is known as transformational generative grammar. According to Chomsky, in any syntactic description the observable syntactic structure of sentences, the surface structure, should be related to a more abstract deep structure.

The rules that express the relation of deep and surface structure in sentences are called grammatical transformations. Chomsky also makes it a requirement that the rules of the grammar should be explicit. This

means that the rules automatically generate sentences without having to use a native speaker's intuitive knowledge of language in the process. (Allen and Corder: 1975: 40-41)

2.2 Transformational Generative Grammar

Transformational generative grammar 1965 (TG for short) created quite a controversy. The protagonist in this approach is Noam Chomsky, a student of the structural linguist, Zellig Harris Chomsky's theory of grammar is the most dynamic and influential, if any linguist wants to develop his subject, he cannot ignore Chomsky's theoretical pronounce-ments. Every other 'school' of linguistics at the present time tends to define its position in relation to Chomsky's view on particular issues. (Lyons: 1977: 9)

The chomskyan revolution contains three periods. The first period from 1957 to the early sixties was marked by the publication Chomsky's first major work, his book "Syntactic structure 1957", and a violent attack on the behaviourist view of language, as exemplified in Skinner's work, Verbal Behavior (1957; Chomsky 1959). The second period, from early sixties to 1967, transformational generative grammar widened its scope, and the newer developments are represented in Chomsky's second major work, "Aspects of the theory of Syntax"(Chomsky 1965). In the third period, 1967 to the early seventies, a new generation of linguists and former students of Chomsky, like Lakoff, Fillmore, and Mc Cawley, critically examined transformational generative grammar and develop new directions by a shift of emphasis from syntax to semantics ('generative semantics'). Chomsky was concerned with linguistic analysis, and he believed with Harris that a linguistic analysis could be done without reference to meaning.

The generative approach opened a new perspective of Linguistic theories from Saussure to Harries and Haliday had treated language as a static entity or finished product which can be objectively examined, analyzed and described. The Chomskyan approach reflected 'creativity of language', the process of linguistic production and interpretation, which structural linguistics had disregarded. Chomsky did not claim that it was a new approach, it was in his view merely, a rediscovery, of Humboldt's famous observation that 'language makes infinite use of finite means', (Chomsky: 1965: 5).

By examining current models of syntactic analysis from a generative perspective. Chomsky found them deficient. Up to a point the immediate constituent analysis of sentences, used by structural linguists, proved useful and lent itself to a conversion to generative rules, and immediate constituent analysis became an essential basis of a generative grammar as its phrase structure base component. But in syntactic structures Chomsky was able to show that it bogged down in the treatment of anything beyond the simplest type of sentence, it was unable to handle such changes of sentences as those from active to passive. Chomsky resolved this problem by introducing a transformational component and concluded that two sets of rules, phrase structure rules and transformational rules would be necessary elements of syntax. (Stern:1983: 140-142).

Transformation generative grammar plays a crucial role in syntax and grammar too, Transformation generative grammar (T.G) offers a good opportunity to none-native speakers of the English Language to form correct sentences through applying the rules of noun phrase , verb phrase, adverb phrase…etc.Transformation generative grammar (T.G) improves the level of English language students and helps them to avoid errors in the sentence structure. Constituent analysis gives the learners a

chance to recognize the position of subject verb, adjective,…etc. in easy way.

2.3 Language structure (and the organization of information) Structuralism

Taylor (1998: 10) states "the way words are put together in logical and grammatical sequences, and the way in which a particular group of words are selected by speakers or writers as they communicate, is studied in terms of syntagmatic structure and paradigmatic system".

The swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), one of the most important early exponents of modern linguistics, made a major contribution to the study of language structure. First, the horizontal nature of structure is described by Ferdinand in terms of joining of words or longer units (**syntagms**) to form grammatically acceptable and meaningful clauses and sentences for example, the clause "He leaves tomorrow" contains three words arrange in logical and grammatical order. Here the syntagmatic sequence consists of pronoun+verb+ temporal adverb.

Second, he compared this structure with the vertical nature of system, that is the choosing of competing linguistic options available to speakers within a syntagmatic sequence. For example, the clause "He leaves tomorrow", the pronoun (he) could be replaced by (she, you, etc). the verb (leaves) could be replaced by (departs, sails….etc), and the adverbial (tomorrow) could be replaced by (next week, as soon as...ect).

He   leave (s)   tomorrow

She

You

He   leave (s)   tomorrow

                           departs

```
                        sails to Rio
He               leaves          tomorrow
                        next week
```

The relationship between competing linguistic options is referred to as paradigmatic. Once the speaker or writer has been subconsciously chosen words or word groups from the paradigmatic axis, then they must be combined syntagmatically in a logical order to create meaning.

The name of structuralist given to a particular group of American linguists who analyzed the constituent parts of sentence structure, further developed these essential parsing techniques. For example Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949), introduced the idea of Immediate Constituent Analysis. The method of this analysis enabled grammarians to split sentences, clauses, and clause constituents; noun phrases, verb phrases , adverb phrases, etc. into their component parts. For example:

The meeting broke up at midnight and the delegates went home. (sentence).

The meeting broke up at midnight (clause).

and (conjunction).

the delegates went home (clause).

the meeting (noun phrase).

broke up (verb phrase).

at midnight (temporal adverb phrase).

 and (conjunction).

the delegates (noun phrase).

went home(verb phrase).

 the meeting (determiner + noun).

broke up (verb + particle).

at midnight (preposition + noun) etc.

The single words also could be split into meaningful morphemes:

quick – ly

(adjective + adverbial suffix) (Taylor: 1998 : 11-13).

2.4 The structure of the sentence

In the sentence, yes, my neighbor has seen the dog, the words are arranged in a definite order. Any other arrangement is ungrammatical. For example:

My neighbor has seen yes the dog. (incorrect).

Yes, neighbor my has seen the dog. (incorrect).

Among these groups my neighbor and the dog seem to be the same type of structure since they can substitute for each other.

1. Yes, my neighbor has seen the dog.

2. Yes, the dog has seen my neighbor.

Almost all fields of study have abbreviations for terms that are often repeated:

Sentence $\longrightarrow$ S

Sentence modifier $\longrightarrow$ SM

Noun phrase $\longrightarrow$ NP

Verb phrase $\longrightarrow$ VP

Transformational grammar rules are expressed in the following way:

S $\longrightarrow$ (SM) Nuc

Nuc $\longrightarrow$ NP＋VP

In English, a sentence consists of a sentence modifier and a nucleus; a nucleus (**Nuc**)contains a noun phrase and a verb phrase. The parentheses around **SM** mean that this element is optional.

In the above rules, the sentence modifier must come first, then the nucleus; in the nucleus the noun phrase must come first, after that the verb phrase.

A sentence modifier is a word like yes, no, certainly, naturally,maybe, perhape,possibly, in fact, to be sure, or obviously. For example;

Yes, that man drinks milk is represented as follows.

```
                    S
                   / \
                  /   \
            SM        Nuc
            |         / \
            |        /   \
            |      NP     VP
            |      |      |
            |      |      |
           Yes   that man drinks milk
```
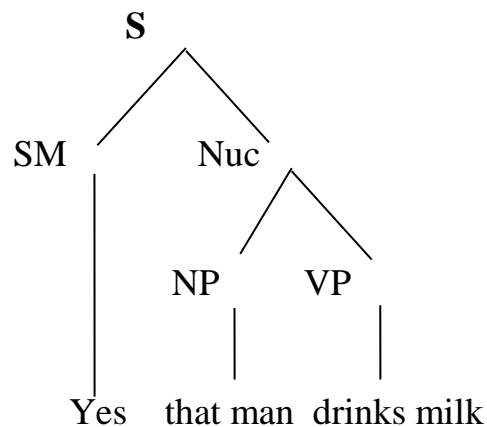
The statement That man drinks milk is represented without the optional element SM:

```
              S
              |
             Nuc
             / \
            /   \
          N P    VP
           |     |
           |     |
         that man  drinks milk  ( Liles: 1971: 10-12)
```
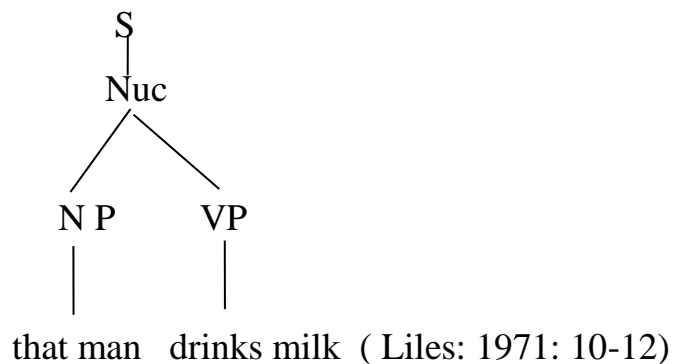
2.5 Constituent structure

Richards and Schmidt (2002: 535) claims one of the most important goals of linguistics is to identify the syntactic rules of a language and to supply descriptions that group together those words in a sentence which hang closely together both formally and semantically. These groups are called constituents. structure.

Constituent structure is a representation of the set of constituents which an expression contains. For example, the constituents of the English noun phrase "this big house" are the demonstrative (this) + the adjective (big) + the noun (house). Constituent structure is usually represented in terms of a labelled or a tree diagram. (Richards and Schmidt: 2002: 400)

To put words in the correct order in the sentence requires syntactic knowledege. But sentences are more than just one word placed after another. The words form groups, and within the groups they form subgroups, and so on. For example:

The sentence; (the child found the puppy). can be divided into two parts:

The child/found the puppy.

Any other division, such as in the examples below would be wrong, because the words in each part do not seem to belong together.

The / child found the puppy.

The child found the / puppy.

If this division process were continued, and all the separate units were diagrammed, the diagram below would be the result:

```
                    The child found the puppy
                    /                        \
              The child                   found the puppy
              /      \                     /          \
           the      child              found       the puppy
                                                    /     \
                                                  the     puppy
```
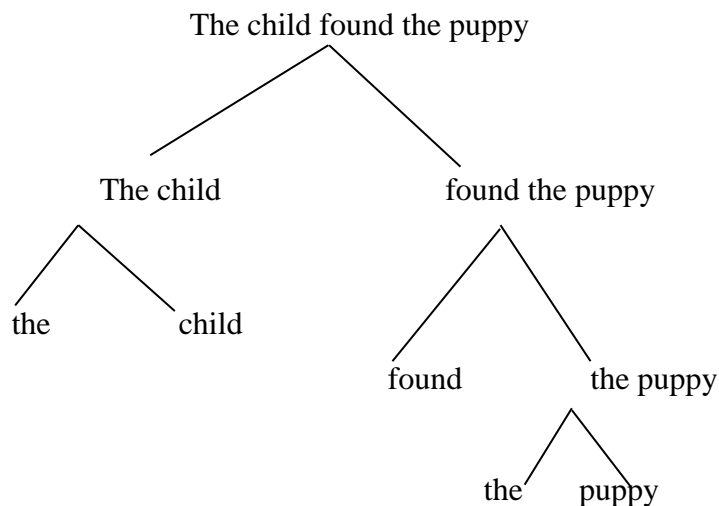
The groups and subgroups of words that go together as in the diagram above, are called the constituents of the sentence. Thus, (found the puppy) is a constituent, but (found the) is not.

All sentences in all languages have constituent structure. And all languages have syntactic rules that determine the linear order of words and how the words are grouped to give the constituent structure. The certain constituents can be replaced by other constituents without affecting the grammar of the sentence (although the meaning may change). In the sentence (the child found the puppy) the constituents the puppy and the child can be substituted for one another to give:

[the puppy] [found [the child]]

In the example above, constituent structure is indicated by means of the brackets instead of diagram. Constituents that can be substituted by one another without losing of grammaticality form a syntactic category. The syntactic category that the child and the puppy belong to is Noun phrase (NP). Noun phrases can function as "subject" or "object" in a sentence, and only noun phrases may do so. It often consists of a noun or pronoun. (infinitives also function as noun phrases).

The constituent (found the puppy) is a verb phrase (VP). Verb phrases always consist of a verb, which perhaps follows by other constituents, such as a noun phrase.

The constituent structure of (the child found the puppy) can be represented to indicate what syntactic category and each constituent belongs to.

The child found the puppy.

```
                              S
                  _____|_____
                 NP                        VP
              ___|___                  _____|_____
            Art       N               V           NP
             |        |               |        ___|___
             |        |               |      Art       N
             |        |               |       |        |
            the     child           found    the     puppy
```
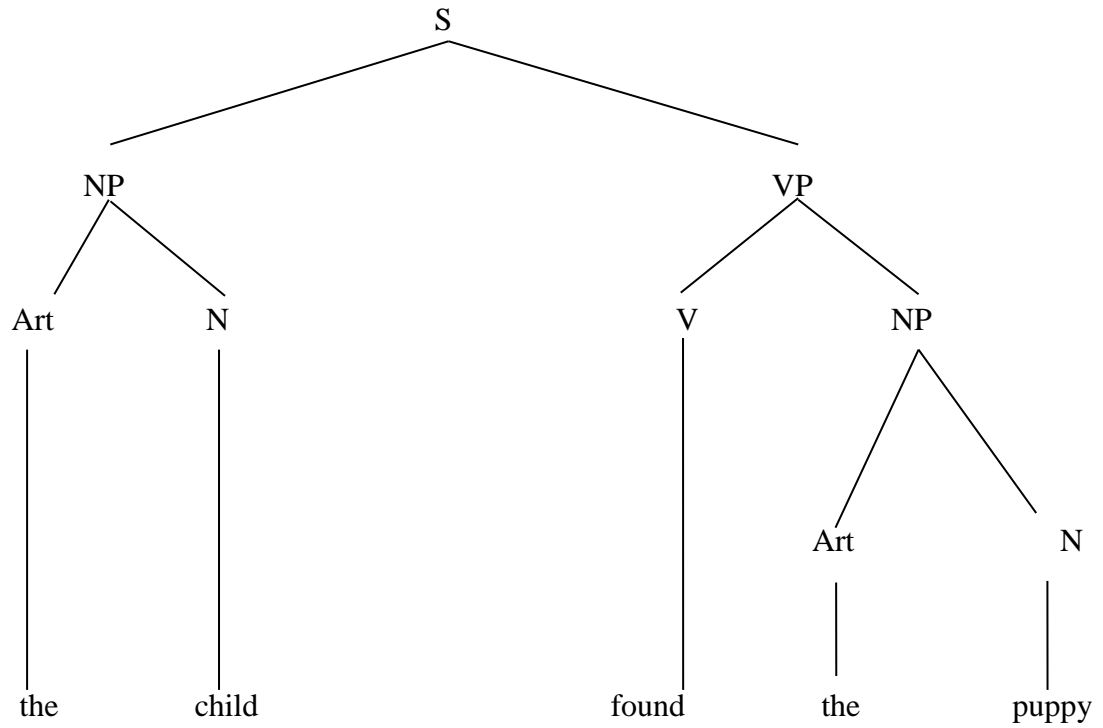
Every English sentence can be represented in a constituent structure tree.
The examples below show the syntactic categories:

The lazy child slept.

```
                        S
              _____|_____
             NP                    VP
          ___|___                   |
        Art  adj   N                V
         |    |    |                |
         |    |    |                |
        the  lazy child           slept
```

A woman found a cake in the cupboard.
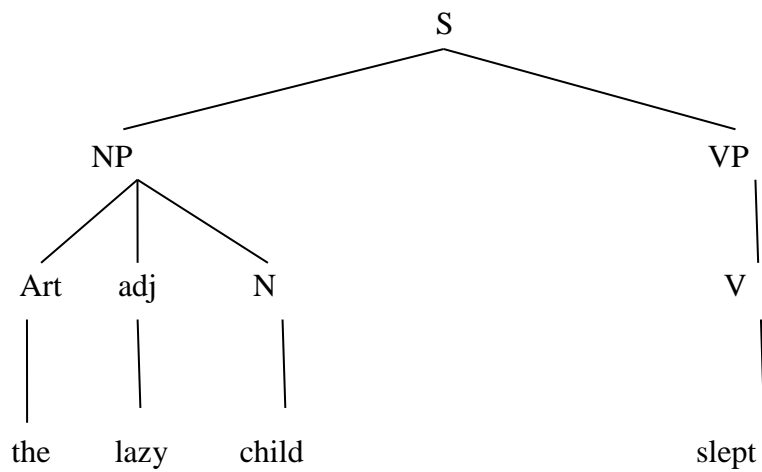
```
                              S
                 _____/ _____
               NP                          VP
             _/  \_              _____/ |  _____
           Art     N           V          NP            pp
            |      |           |         _/ \_          _/ \_
            |      |           |       Art    N       P     NP
            |      |           |        |     |       |    _/ \_
            |      |           |        |     |       |  Art    N
            |      |           |        |     |       |   |     |
            a    woman       found      a    cake    in  the  cupboard
```

I found it.
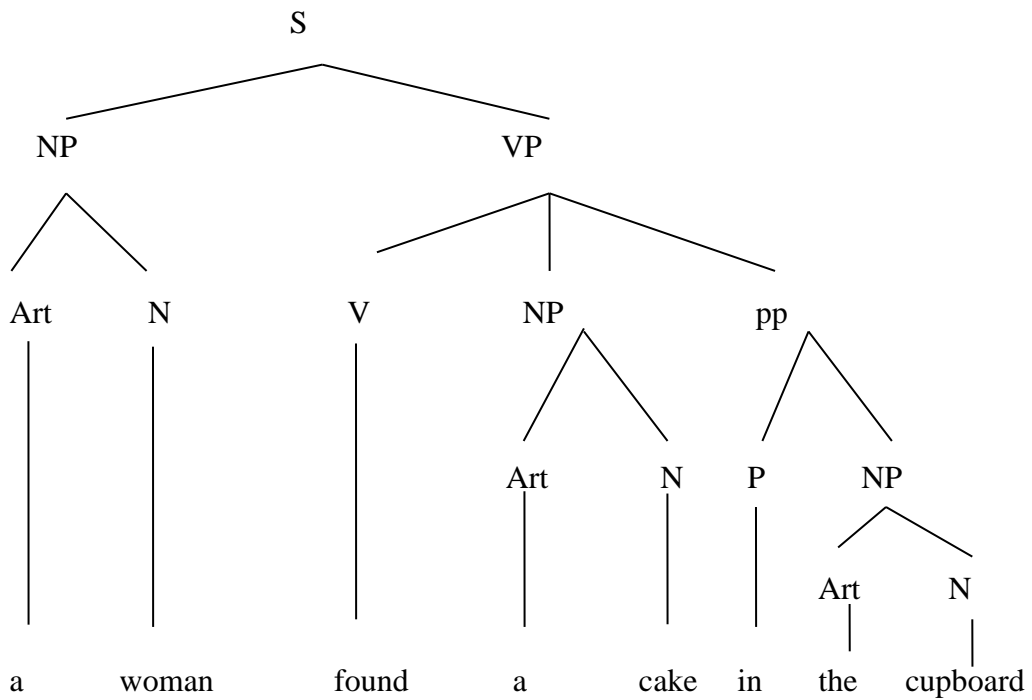
```
                              S
                 _____/ _____
               NP                          VP
                |                        _/  \_
               Pro                      V      NP
                |                       |       |
                |                       |      Pro
                |                       |       |
                I                     found     it
```
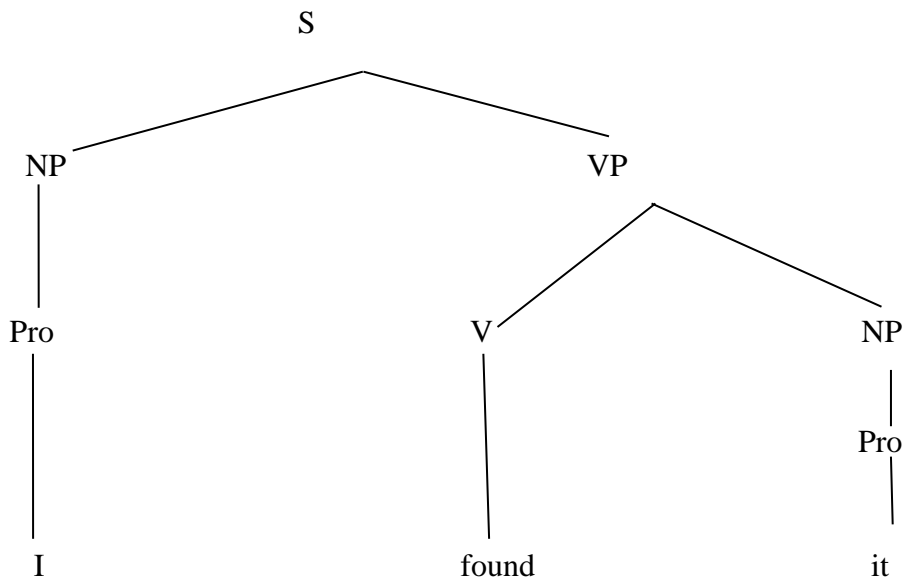
(Fromkin and Rodman 1978: 198-201).

2.6 Generative Grammar

Since the 1950s, particularly developing from the work of the American linguist Noam Chomsky, there have been attempts to produce a particular type of grammar which would have a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic elements would result in well-formed sentence. This explicit system of rules, it was proposed, would have much in common with the types of rules found in mathematics.*"I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences".* (Chomsky1957:13).

The term of generative is interpreted by the mathematical point of view. For instance: Algebraic expression 3x + 2y and x and y are given / then the simple algebraic expression can generate an endless set of values. When x=5 and y=10, the results is 35. When x=2 and y=1, the result is 8. The endless set of such results is generated by the operation of explicity formalized rules. If the sentences of a language can be seen as a comparable set, then there must be a set of explicit rules which yield those sentence, such as a set of explicit rules is a generative grammar. (Yule: 1996: 101).

The sentence "The boy ran to the park" is very limited in a variety of ways. For example,The set can be used to yield only a finite number of sentences, actually only four sentences:

1. The boy ran to the park.
2. The boy ran to the boy.
3. The park ran to the boy.
4. The park ran to the park.

Sentences (3) and (4) seem to be strange, and the second sentence is a little peculiar with its twofold occurrence of boy. The grammar of English should not generate sentences like (3) and (4). Sentences (1) and (2) are acceptable.

2.6.1 Types of Rules

Phrase structure rules

$$S \longrightarrow NP + VP$$

$$VP \longrightarrow \begin{cases} Vi + (pp) \\ Vt + (Np) \\ be + (Adj) (Np) (adv) \end{cases} vt \ \text{for transitive verb}$$

PP $\longrightarrow$ Prep + NP

NP $\longrightarrow$ D + N

D $\longrightarrow$ the, a

N $\longrightarrow$ boy, girl

Vi $\longrightarrow$ ran

Vt $\longrightarrow$ won

be $\longrightarrow$ were

prep $\longrightarrow$ to

Adj $\longrightarrow$ young

2.6.2 Deep and surface structures

There are two types of structure for each sentence. One structure would be that of the sentence as it is actually produced and the other structure would consist of all the units and relationships that are necessary for explaning the meaning of the sentence. For examples; the sentence (The

old house fell down), this sentence has two structures: one is the structure of the sentence as it is pronounced or written, and the other is a

more abstract structure that permits a native speaker of English to know that this sentence means both (The house fell down) and (The house was old). In the same way, a native speaker of English knows that (The boy chased the girl) and (The girl was chased by the boy) have similar meanings. Both sentences should be provided with the same abstract structure, but to provide this abstract structure with two different realized structures, because the actuality of production sentences are different. An ambiguous sentence such as (He needed the money more than Mary) should have different abstract structures, because it has two clearly distinct meanings.

The terms deep structure and surface structure can be used to refer to the abstract structure and to the actuality of production structure. An important problem arises in stating the relationship of deep structure to surface structure, or vice versa. The term transformational will be utilized to refer to the relationship. Since the relationship is usually a complex one, the transformational can be used to apply to all the steps that relate deep structure to surface structure.

Wardhaugh (1977:18) states the transformational relationship between deep and surface structures and the transformations which relate the two kinds of structures can be illustrated by reference to the sentences given previously. The sentence (The old house fell down) is derived from a deep structure presented schematically with each triangle representing a clause or (S) as follows:
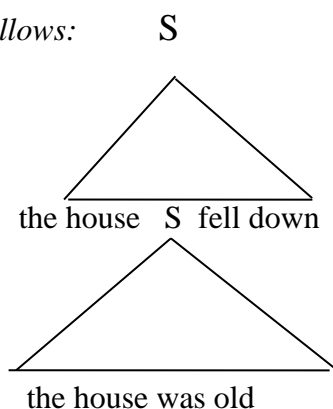
The above drawing can be replaced by the following, representation of the deep structure

```
                              S
                   NP                    VP
            NP            S          Vi        adv
         D     N      NP      VP
        the  house   D    N   be   Adj   fell    down
                    the house was  old
```
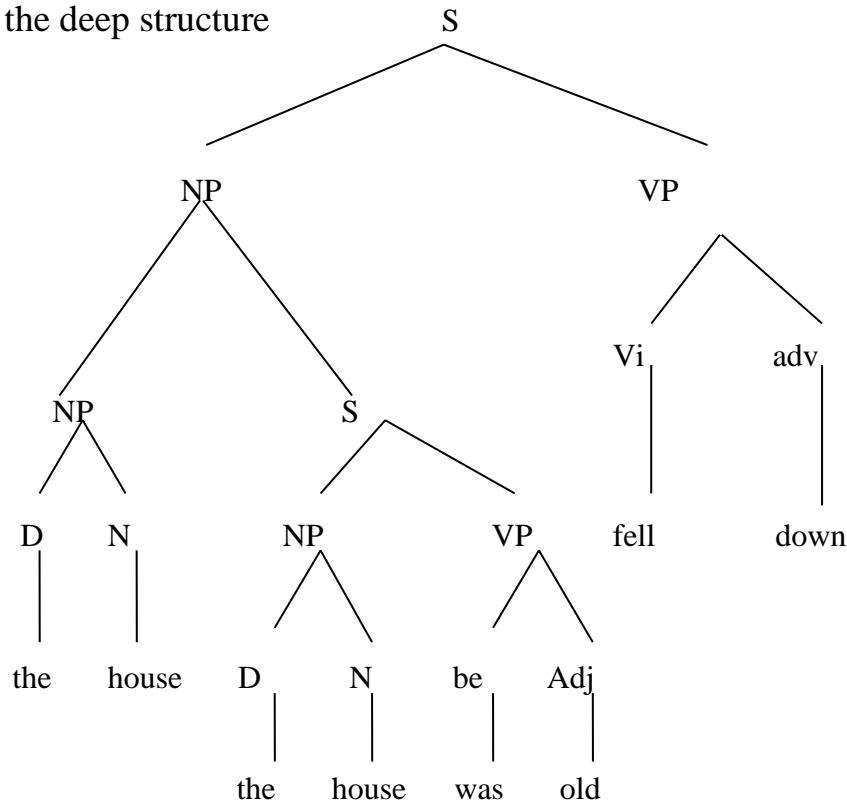
[the house [the house was old] fell down]

2.6.3 Transformations

There is a problem that is deriving (The old house fell down) from, the house [the house was old] fell down and of showing how the old house fell down is also related to (the house **which** was old fell down). A grammar of a language consists of one set of rules, the phrase-structure rules, which produce deep structure like the house [the house was old] fell down. It also consists of a set of transformational rules to turn deep structures into surface structures, that is, into actually produced sentences. If a (NP + S) sequence occurs dominated by a (Np), and if that (S) dominates a (Np) whose referent is the same as the (Np) in the (NP+S) sequence, then the dominated (NP) becomes either who or which. This rule is called the relative transformation.
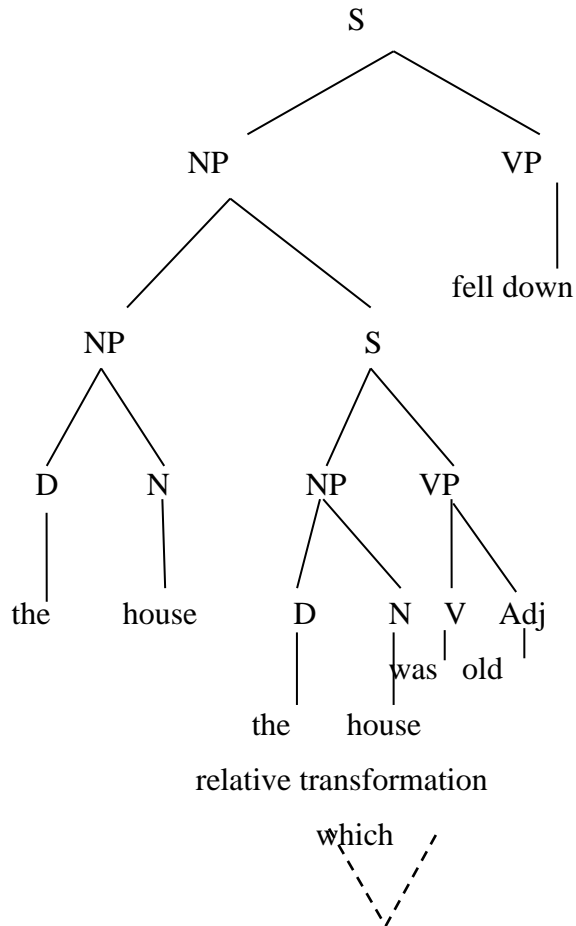
The house which was old fell down.

The optional rule is the deletion transformation that permits to remove (who or which) together with any form of the verb be that follows, giving (the house [old] fell down). There is another rule (adjective movement transformation) moves any resulting single adjective between the (determiner) and the (noun), that is, between (**the)** and (**house)** to produce (The old house fell down).

An alternative way of showing these transformations and the relationship of deep to surface structures is as follows:

Deep structure   [the house [the house was old] fell down]

▼

relative transformation

[the house [which was old] fell down]

■

be-deletion transformation

▼

[the house [old] fell down]

■

adjective movement transformation

▼

Surface structure

The old house fell down

The transformational process also relates (The old house fell down) to (The house which was old fell down) since it drives the former through the later in the process of going from deep to surface structure.

The sentences "The boy chased the girl" and "The girl was chased by the boy" are related. The second sentence is not a transformation of the first. Transformations do not alter one sentence into another, they change one structure into another, a deep structures into a surface structure. These two sentences have slightly different deep structures. A verb chase may be active or passive, depending on (NP) occurs in the first position in the sentence.(Wardhaugh: 1977: 14-21).

2.7 Basic Sentence Structure

The subject of a sentence is very crucial structural element. It plays an important role in many grammatical processes. What groups of words can make up the subject. Subject contains:

a proper noun	e.g., John
a pronoun	e.g., he, she, it
an article plus a common noun	e.g., a baby, the sheep
a numeral plus a common noun	e.g., three sheep
an article, a numeral plus a common noun	e.g., the three sheep

The examples above contain either a noun of some sorts or a pronoun. Hence, such a group of words has come to be called a noun phrase (NP): Although noun phrases may different in internal structure, nevertheless they all act alike in consider to the way passives are formed. In the examples below, sentences (a) and (b) analyzed in (c) despite their very different subject noun phrases:

  a. <u>John s</u>aw Mary.

  b. <u>Those three sheep</u> saw Mary.

  c. <u>Noun phrase</u> saw Mary.

At the same time, the NP in each case must be broken up in various ways:

  a.

Noun phrase
Proper noun
John

saw Mary

b.

Noun phrase		
Article	Numeral	Noun
those	three	sheep

saw Mary

c.

Noun phrase	
Adverb	Proper noun
Fortunately	John

The structure of the noun phrase in (a) John saw Mary can be represented as follows:

a. NP
   |
   Noun
   |
   John   saw Mary
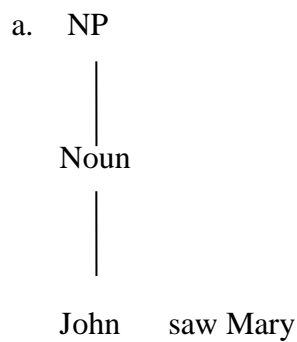
The noun phrase in (b) (those three sheep saw Mary) will be represented thus:

NP
Article   Numeral   Noun
those   three   sheep saw Mary
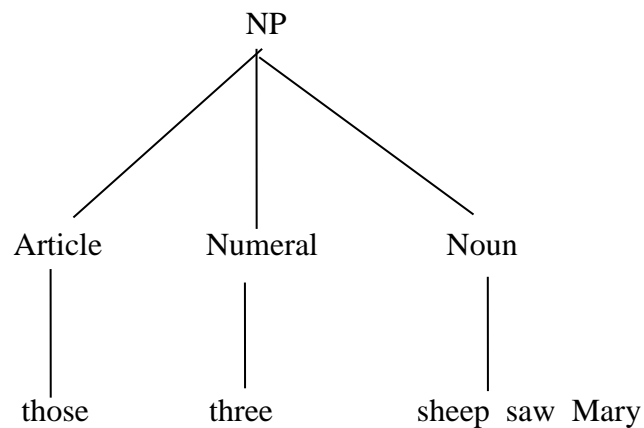
The tree diagrams show the structure of the two noun phrases (John) and (those three sheep) are alike. In two sentences (a) and (b), there must be a noun phrase after the verb as well as before the verb. The noun phrase may function as subject and also as object.

a. Mary saw John   (John saw Mary).

b. Mary saw those three sheep (Those three sheep saw Mary).

The two sentences above should be analyzed so as to allow a noun phrase to occur either as a subject or as an object in a sentence, for example:

```
NP   saw              NP
 |                     /|\
 |                    / | \
 |                   /  |  \
N              Article Numeral  N
 |               |      |       |
 |               |      |       |
Mary            the   three   sheep
```
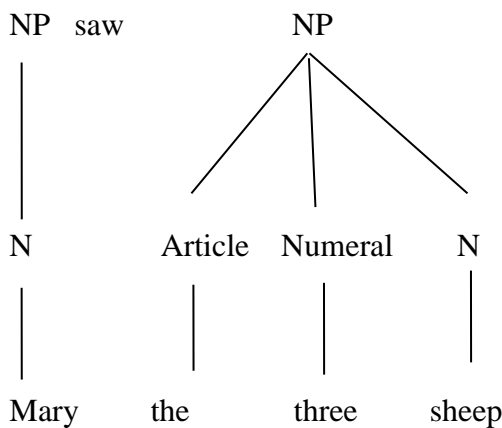
The two diagrams above reflect the fact that subjects and objects are made up of the same kinds of phrases. What is left now is the verb (saw).

```
(a)              Sentence
                  /  |  \
                 /   |   \
               NP  verb   NP
                |    |     |
              John  saw  Mary
```
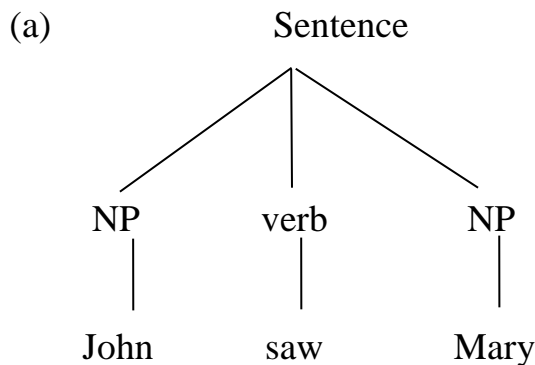
The term verb phrase (VP) is applied to the constituent consisting of a verb (V) and a noun phrase together.

(b)

(c)
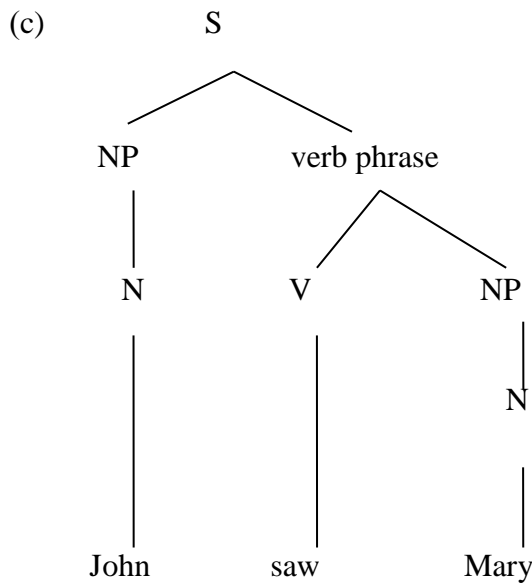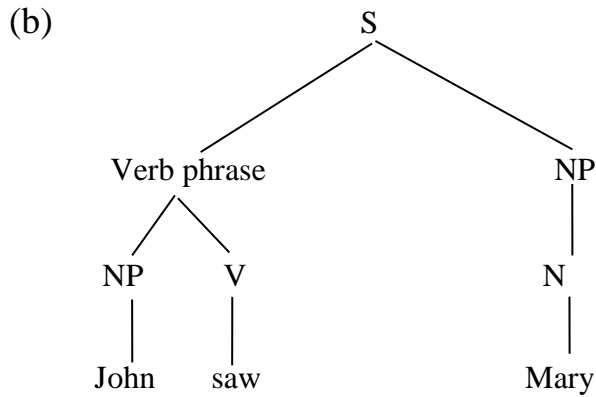
Structure (b) is the least likely to be correct; there are a number of discussion against it. However, It is difficult to choose between structures (a) and (c), but there are some evidences for adding a (VP) node over the verb and its object. This means that the structure (c) is correct. (Akmajian and Heny: 1975: 26-30).

2.8 Phrase structure Rules For the English Noun Phrase:

Akmajian and Heny (1975: 41) mention the NP is a major structural component of sentences, and it would be worthwhile to explore in a little more detail the internal structure of this category. Not only to dicover what this structure is, but also to note certain important principles that emerge from our attempt to construct an NP rule. The left of the head noun (N) within the NP, a variety of elements may occur. (The head noun of an NP is represented by the symbol N in the rule NP→ ....N ......).

(1) a. the book

  b. a book

(2) a. these books

  b. those books

(3) a. that book

  b. this book

(4) a. John's book

  b. my book

The words (these ,those ,this, that) called demonstratives, and possessive words such as (your, my, and John's occur in the same place within the NP as the articles (the) and (a). These words are called Determiners abbreviated in trees as Det). These groups of words may not occur with each other within an NP. For example (the this book) incorrect, (the my books) incorrect and (the your these books) incorrect and so on.

a. NP ⟶ (Det)

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{the} \\ \text{a} \\ \text{this} \\ \text{that} \\ \text{these} \\ \text{those} \end{array}\right\}$$

b. Det $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{my} \\ \text{your} \\ \text{his} \\ \text{her} \\ \text{its} \\ \text{our} \\ \text{your} \\ \text{their} \\ \text{NP} \end{array}\right\}$

The members of the three categories (individual articles, demonstratives, and possessives) in the rule above, occur in the same position under (NP), but it does not explain the differences between the categories for example demonstratives, can occur in environments that prohibit articles, for instance.(those of the boys who were sick). Vs (the of the boys who were sick). To account for these differences, the subcategories of determiners under (Det) must be introduced.

The rule of determiner includes the constituent (NP). This reflects the fact that the possessive phrases can contain entire noun phrases as in

(the man's book, the car's fender, this lamb's fleece), and so on. For example, the man's book.

```
                         NP
                        /  \
                     Det     N
                      |      |
                     NP     book
                    /  \
                 Det     N
                  |      |
                 the    man
```
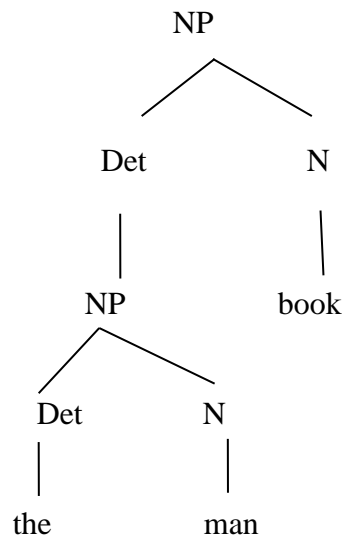
Here the rule has not provided a means to join the possessive suffix 's to the (NP) dominated by (Det), but it would be a simple matter to revise the rule in order that every (NP) dominated by (Det) is automatically assigned the suffix 's for example, (Det) ⟶(NP + 's). In the diagram above, the rules will now generate a wide class of determiners.

Determiners don't exhaust the possible elements that perhaps appear before the head noun for instance, adjective (and John's red book) and quantifiers may come before the head e.g. (his many books).

The noun phrase elements that can follow the head noun are:
   a. The house <u>in the wood</u>.

   b. The weather <u>in England</u>.

   c. The prospects <u>for peace</u>.

   d. The theory <u>of fluid dynamics</u>.

   e. The key <u>to the kingdom</u>.

   f. The lock <u>on the door.</u>

The rule which suits the examples above is:

NP⟶(Det) N (PP)

An optional prepositional phrase comes after the head noun, and this rule , in conjunction with the rule for expanding PP (PP ⟶Prep NP). For examples:

(a)

$$NP^1$$

Det   N   PP

Prep NP^2

Det   N

the   house   in   the   wood
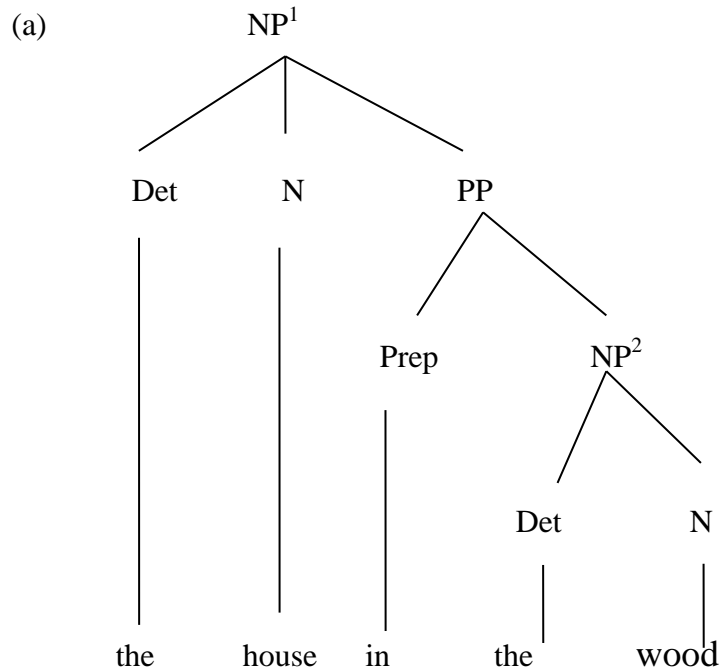
There are two noun phrases in example above.

(b) NP¹

$$\text{(b)} \qquad \text{NP}^1$$

Det　N　PP

Prep　NP²

Det　N　PP

Prep　NP³

Det　N

The　house　in　the　woods　near　the　river
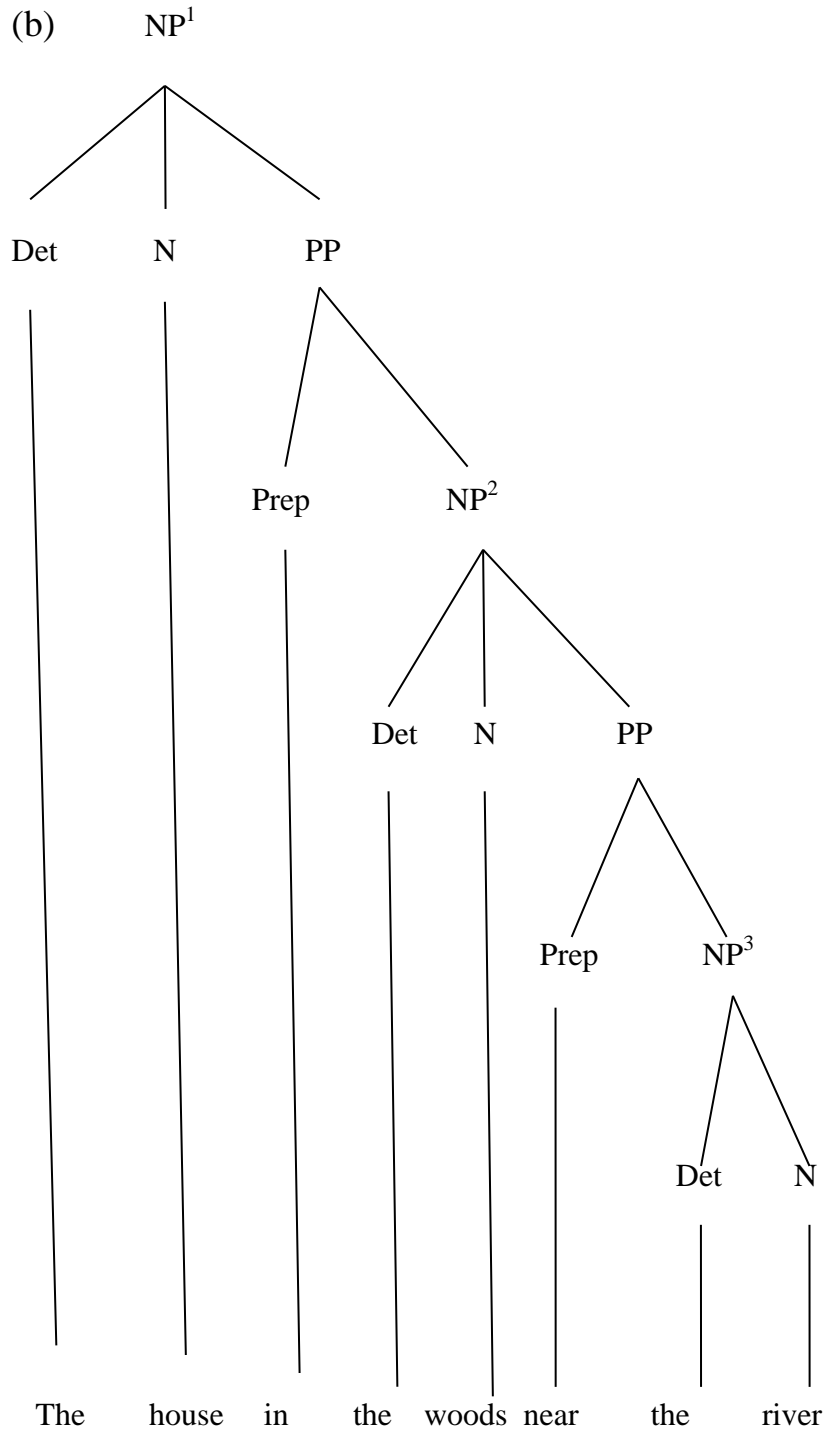
Structure (b) differs from (a) only in that NP2 has a PP after the head noun. There is no limit to this process.

(c)   NP

the   house in   the woods near the river by   the town
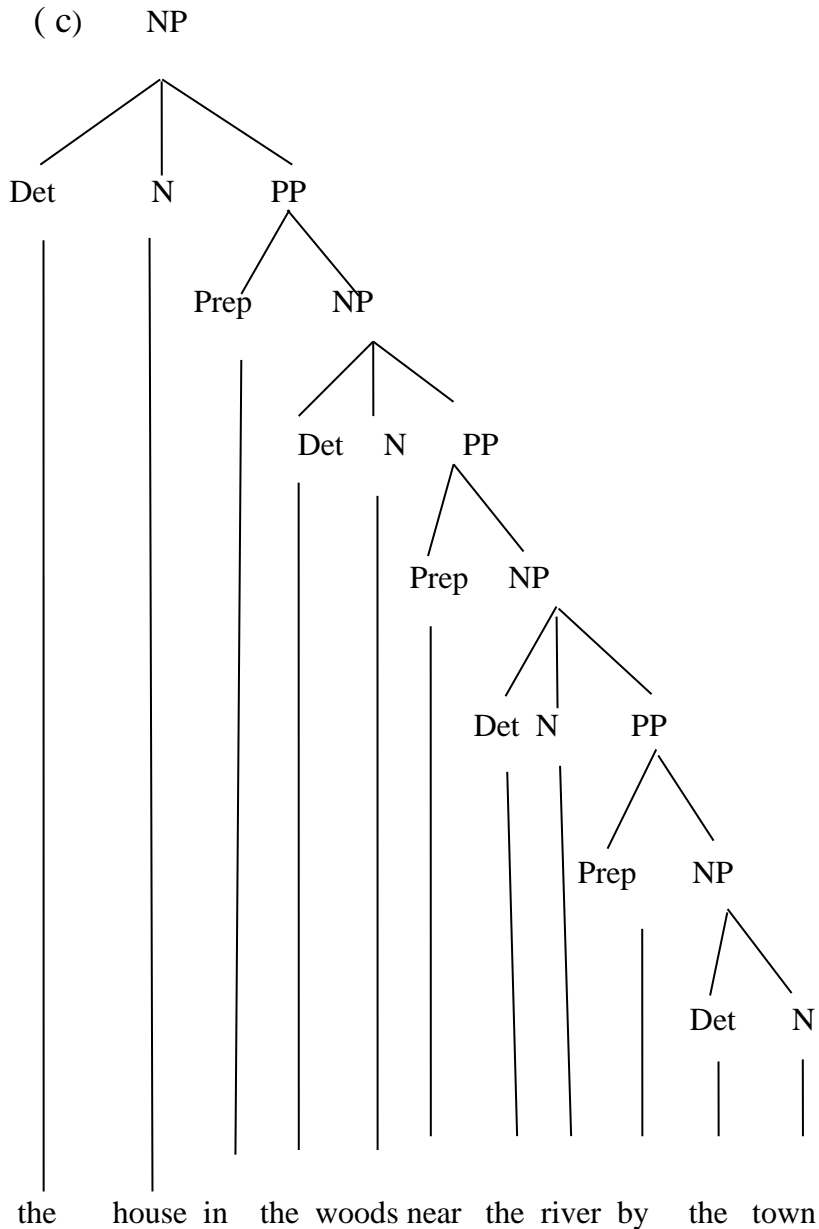
The NP and PP interact in the following rules:

a. NP ⟶ (Det) N (PP)

b. PP ⟶ Prep NP

Every (NP) is allowed to contain a (PP), which in turn contains an (NP), which in turn may contain (PP), and so on. This set of rules reflects that there is no bound on the length of a noun phrase.

Every sentence consists of (NP) the learners have an ability to build up a sentence with a longer (NP):

a. I saw the house in the woods.

b. I saw the house in the woods by river.

c. I saw the house in the woods by the river by the town.

d. I saw the house in the woods by the river by the town near the mountain.

e. I saw the house in the woods by the river by the town near the mountain over the freeway.

The sentences above indicate that any adequate grammar of English or of any other language will generate an infinite number of sentences.

The rule of (NP) may be changed to permit an optional (PP) to follow the head noun:

a. NP $\longrightarrow$ (Det) N (PP)

b. VP $\longrightarrow$ V $\begin{bmatrix} \text{(NP)} \\ \text{(Adj)} \end{bmatrix}$ (PP)

The prepositional phrases may be generated at the end of NPs as well as at the end of VPs. For examples:

a.

```
                    VP
          /          |          \
         V           NP          PP
                    /  \        /  \
                  Det   N    Prep   NP
```

b.

```
              VP
           /      \
          V        NP
                  / | \
                Det N  PP
                      /  \
                   Prep   NP
```

c.

```
                 VP
            /     |     \
           V      NP      PP
                 /|\      /  \
               Det N PP  Prep NP
                    /  \
                 Prep   N
```
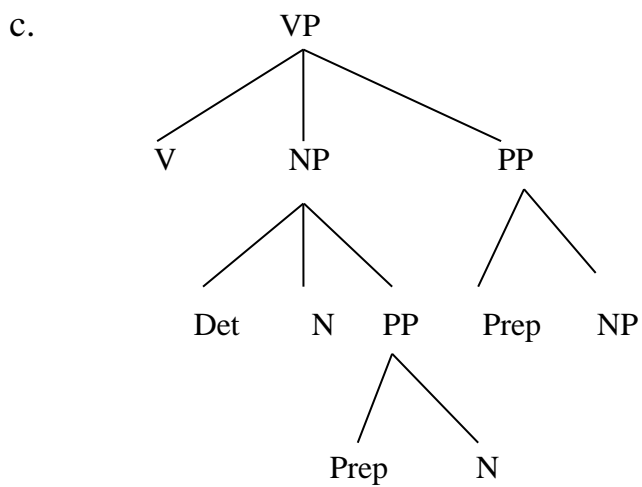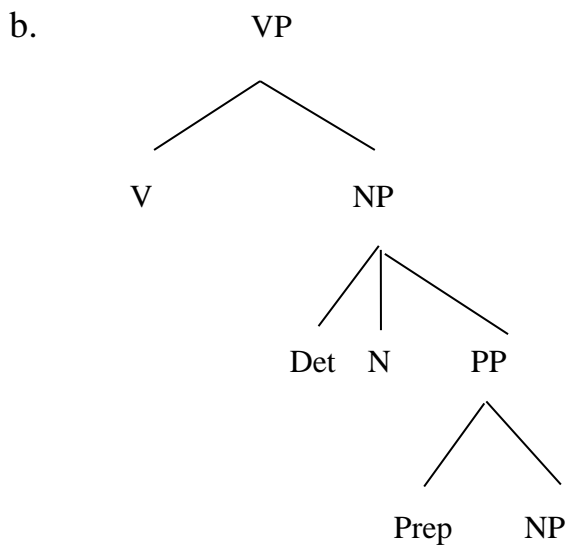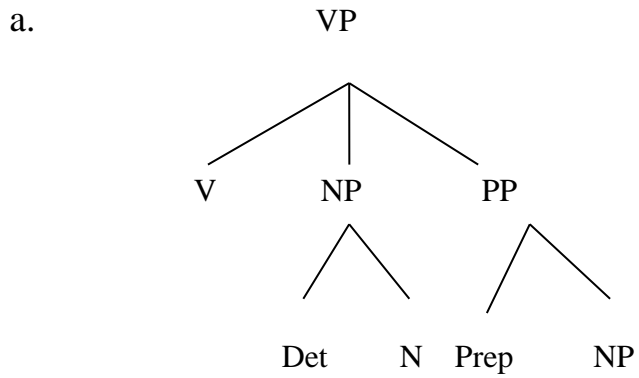
In three diagrams above, a (VP) may consist of an (NP) followed by a separate (PP) as in (a) or an (NP) which includes within it a (PP), as in

(b); or both of these possibilities, as in (c). (Akmajian and Heny: 1975: 41-47).

2.9 Auxiliary and Tense

Sentence consists of (NP), an optional (Aux)and (VP).

S $\longrightarrow$ NP (Aux) VP

For examples:

   a. The boy will kick the ball.

   b. The boy didn't like the party.

Ouhalla (1999: 26) states "Sentence (a), tense shows up as the modal (will), while the main verb doesn't carry any tense information. In sentence (b), tense also shows up on the auxiliary do".

```
                        S
              _____/|_____
             /         |         \
           NP         Aux         VP
          /  \         |         /  \
        Det   N        |        V    NP
         |    |        |        |   /  \
         |    |        |        | Det   N
         |    |        |        |  |    |
         |    |        |        |  |    |
        the  boy      will    kick the  ball
```
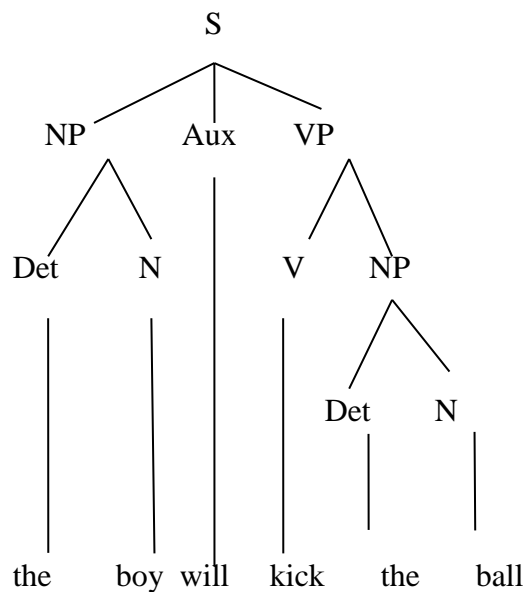
Words like (will, has, is, and may) are auxiliary verbs, belonging to the categoryAux, which also consists of modals like (might,could,would,can …etc). For example:

```
                          S
                   ┌──────┴──────┐
                  NP             VP
                   △         ┌────┴────┐
               The boy      Aux        VP
                            │          △
                            is       eating
                            may        eat
                            has       eaten
```
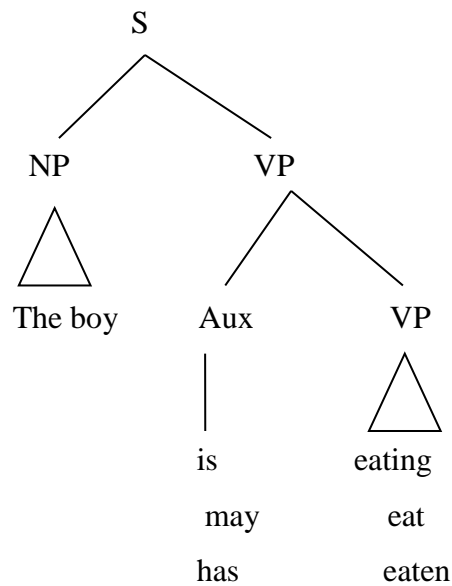
According to Fromkin, Rodman, and ....etal (2011: 105-106) auxiliary verbs specify a time frame for the event (or state) described by the verb, whether it will take place in the future, in the past or now. Here the verb phrase is the complement to (Aux). The selectional relationship between (Aux) and (VP) is demonstrated by the fact that particular auxiliaries go with particular kinds of (VPs). For example, the auxiliary be takes a progressive (-ing) form of the verb,

The boy is dancing.

While the auxiliary have selects a past participle (-en) form of the verb,

The girl has eaten.

and the modals select the infinitival form of the verb (no affixes).

The child must sleep.

The boy may eat.

VP⟶Aux VP

This rule will permit multiple (Aux) positions.

```
                    VP
                   /  \
                 Aux   VP
                      /  \
                    Aux   VP
                         /  \
                       Aux   VP
                             /\
                            /__\
```
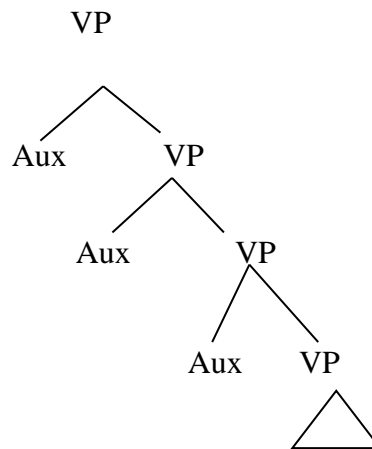
The tree diagram above shows that, English allows sentences with
 multiple auxiliaries such as:

The child may be sleeping.   (modal, be)

The dog has been barking all night.   (have, be)

The bird must have been flying home. (modal, have, be) (Fromkin, Rodman and….etal: 2011: 105-107).

2.10 Ambiguity

Ambiguous sentence means that the sentence has more than one meaning. There are three types of ambiguous sentences:

First, pragmatic ambiguity, for example, can you tell me the time?; this sentence is ambiguous because it can be utilized either a straightforward question (Are you able to tell me the time?); or (can you tell me the time?) as a request for information.

Second, lexical ambiguity, for example we had the president for dinner. This sentence is ambiguous because the expression have... for dinner can mean either (host for dinner) or (eat for dinner). It is called lexical

ambiguity because it depends on the words having more than one meaning.

Third: structural ambiguity, for example, (we need more intelligent administrators). This sentence gives two meanings. On one meaning we need administrators who are more intelligent. On the other meaning, we need a greater number of intelligent administrators. It is called structural ambiguity because it depends on how the words are arranged.

There is a method to put the structure in different way that is to bracket together the words that form a phrase:

a.[more intelligent] administrators.
On (a) first meaning, more is grouped with intelligent to form the phrase more intelligent.

b. more [intelligent administrators]
On (b) second meaning, intelligent is grouped with administrators to form the phrase intelligent administrators.

Another example of structural ambiguity is:
Pat shot the soldier with the gun.

This sentence has two meanings. First, the soldier that Pat shot had a gun. Second, Pat used a gun to shoot the soldier. The two structures can be represented by bracketing the words that go together.
Pat shot [[the soldier] [with the gun]]
On (a) with the gun is bracketed with the soldier, that means, the soldier that Pat shot had a gun.

a. Pat [[shot the soldier] [with the gun]]

On (b) with the gun is bracketed with shot the soldier, that means, Pat

used a gun to shoot the soldier. (Tserdanelis and Wong: 2004: 188).

2.11 Embedded Clauses

1. Suze said Lou cried.

2. That James won the marathon surprised Sheila.

In sentence(1) the clause (Lou cried) is embedded into the clausal structure (Suze said). In sentence (2) the clause (that James won the marathon) is embedded into the structure(surprised Sheila). The embedded clause in example (2) above (That James won the marathon) is structurally equivalent to (It) in (it surprised Sheila) or (The news in the news surprised Sheila).

2.10.1 Subordinators

Subordinators are used to mark the beginning of an embedded clause and to help identify its function in the sentence. Not all embedded clauses should be introduced by a subordinators.

1. Suze said that Dan washed the dishes.

2. Suze said Dan washed the dishes.

3. That she won surprised us.

4. She won surprised us. (incorrect).

The form of sentences (1) and (2) are well-formed with or without the subordinator that. Sentencs (3) also is well-formed but (4) is not.

The subordinate clause is an embedded clause (it is called constituent), and the sentence in which it is embedded is a matrix clause. Every

subordinate clause is embedded in a matrix clause and serves a function of grammar in it. For examples:

1. Harry said [he saw a ghost].

2. Harry said it.

3. [That Josh feared witches] upset his wife.

4. It upset his wife.

The tree diagrams can also interpret the relationship among the clauses of a sentence like (Harry said he saw a ghost). The clause (he saw a ghost) can be substituted by (it). The tree diagram below shows that the embedded clause (he saw a ghost) functions as part of the matrix clause (Harry said…) The embedded clause fills the same slot in the matrix clause such as the word (it) fills in the clause (Harry said it).

S_1

N   V   S2

Harry   said   he saw a ghost
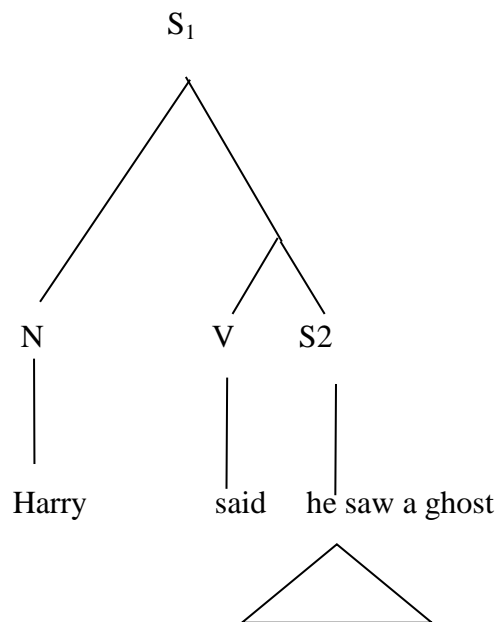
(Finegan: 2004: 163-164).

2.12 Wh-movement

There are many types of questions. The main kinds of them are wh-questions and yes-no questions. In wh-questions, the speaker is requesting information about the identity of some entity in the sentence for example, (who) question asks about the identity of a particular person.

Speaker (A) who won the big fight?

Speaker (B) The Boston Bruiser

(Why) question asks about a reason, (where) question asks for the specification of a place, (when) question asks about time.

There are two other types of questions echo questions and nonecho questions. Echo questions are so-called because they involve one person echoing the speech of another. For instance:

Speaker A: I bought a car .
Speaker B: You bought a car?

In example (B) the speaker is echoing a sentence said by Speaker (A). In contrast to echo questions, nonecho are questions which do not repeat the speech of others but which can be used, for instance, to begin a conversation on some topic for example; If a friend walks into a room, I can begin a conversation with a nonecho question like:

Where have you been?
But not with an echo question as:
You have been where?

There's another two types of questions, direct questions and indirect questions. Direct questions are questions which the interrogative structure is an independent statement for example;

When did you get back?

But indirect questions are questions in which the interrogative structure is a dependent statement for instance; (Embedded or subordinate) clause which is the complement of a verb such as ask, wonder etc. For example;

A. He asked me who I had talked to. (indirect question).

B. He asked me: 'Who did you talk to?' (direct question).

The difference between (A) and (B) above in English spelling between direct and indirect questions by enclosing direct question in quotation marks. (Radford: 1988: 462-464).

The examples below show a comparison between the question-answer (a and b) and the pair of statements (c and d).

   a. Question: which problem did you solve?

   b. Answer: I solved the maths problem.

   c. Statement: I solved the maths problem.

   d. Statement: you solved which problem!

In (a) wh-question utilized to ask for new information. (b) is an answer of (a), (d) is an echo–question which used to express surprise at information just made available to the speaker, such as the information in (c). Echo-questions do not seek (or ask for) new information. They are sentences of surprise.

In the echo-question (d) the wh-phrase takes the place of the object of the verb. In wh-question (a) which problem did you solve? the wh-phrase appears in the beginning of the sentence. (Ouhalla: 1999: 68-69).

> *Ouhalla(1999: 69) claims (.... If the position occupied by the wh-phrase in the echo-question (d) is assumed to be the direct position of the wh-phrase in the wh-question (a) the latter can be said to be derived by a transformational rule which moves the w-h phrase from the object position of the verb to the initial position of the sentence.*

2.13 The passive Transformation

There are many constructions in English that demonstrate the need for transformational rules. For examples;

1- a. The Colts beat the Jets.

  b. The Jets were beaten by the Colts.

2- a. The dog ate the food.

  b. The food was eaten by the dog.

3- a. The police have watched John for two days.

  b. John has been watched by the police for two days.

4- a. The Colts could have beaten the Jets.

  b. The Jets could have been beaten by the Colts.

5- a. Herb is bothering Mary.

  b. Mary is being bothered by Herb.

> *Akmajian and Heny (1975: 89) state the passive sentences exhibit certain constant characteristics that do not need any special changes in the phrase structure rules. They all contain a phrase (after the main verb) headed by the preposition by. The noun phrase that prepositional phrase is the same as the subject of the corresponding active sentence, while the*

subject of the passive sentence is the same as the object of the related active sentence.

(1b) The Jets were beaten by the Colts.
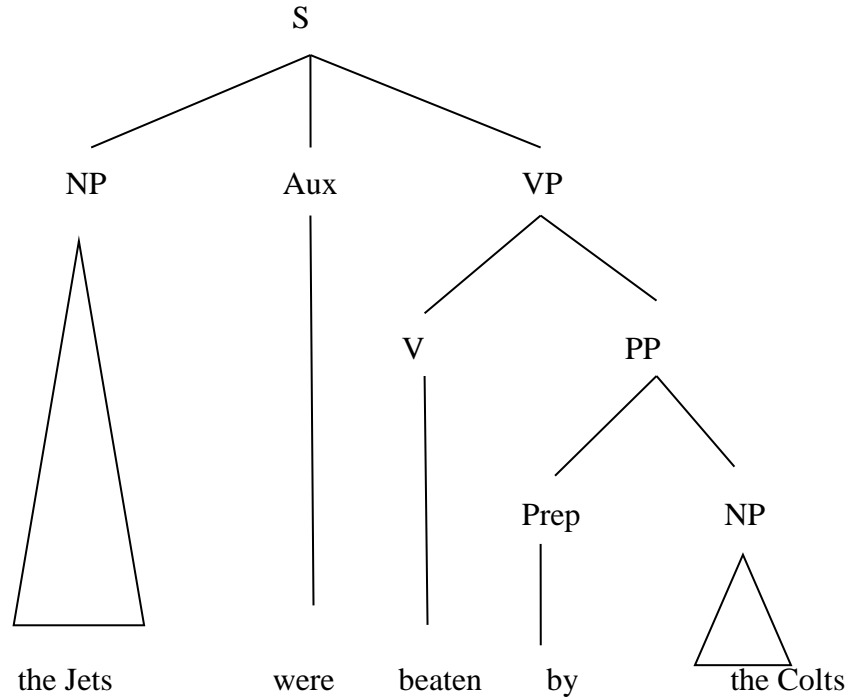
The Colts were running by the river
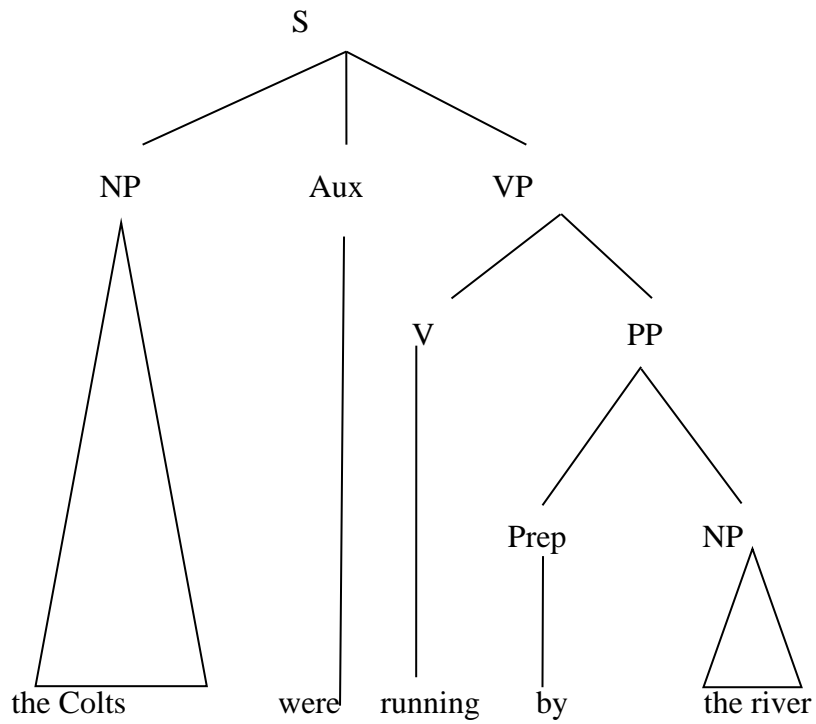
The sentence (The Colts were running by the river) is not a passive sentence because it hasn't sentence paired with it in the manner of the pairs(1-5) there is no sentence corresponding to (The Colts were running by the river.) roughly of the form (The river ran the Colts). incorrect. But the sentence (The Jets were beaten by the Colts). is a passive statement and is paired with an active counterpart; (The Colts beat the Jets).

There is a further feature of passive statements, which called verb (be). The verb (be) that is present in all the (b) sentences of (1-5). Of course, there is already a verb be that appears at the end of the auxiliary, introduced by the rule a. Aux⟶ (Modal) (Have) (Be). This is not the same (be) as that found in the passive. For example;

a. Mary **is being** bothered by Herb.

Sentence (a) has two occurrences of (be) in the auxiliary.

b. At three o'clock that patient **should have been being** examined by the doctor.

A modal (Have), and two verbs (be) appear in example (b) above. Then the additional (be) must be introduced as the last element of the auxiliary:

b. Aux ⟶ (Modal) (Have) (BE) (be)

There are now two verbs at the end of the auxiliary (BE) and (be). The first (BE) is called progressive auxiliary and the last (be) is the passive auxiliary. The Passive (be) causes the verb following it to appear in different form for examples (broken, watched, sung) on the other hand the verbs follow the ordinary (BE) are: (breaking, watching, singing). Continuing to ignore these differences notice that a rule Aux ⟶

(Modal) (Have) (BE) (be) will generate the basic auxiliary sequence found in:

a. Mary **is being** bothered by Herb.

b. At three o'clock that patient **should have been being** examined by the doctor.

and will exclude improper sequences, such as those in:

a. John **is had** watched by the police. (incorrect).

b. The Jets **could be have** beaten by the Colts. (incorrect).

The rule Aux ⟶ (Modal) (Have) (BE) (be) makes (be) an optional element. But examine sentences (1-5). The passive (be) is chosen when the main verb of the sentence is transitive. For example;

a. The food was eaten (by the dog). (ate is transitive)

b. The dog was died (by the man). incorrect (die is intransitive).

No other auxiliary verb is restricted in this way; the other auxiliaries could be selected regardless of whether the main verb is transitive or intransitive:

  a. The dog may die. (may eat the food).

  b. The dog has died. (has eaten the food).

  c. The dog may have been dying for a month. (may have been eating the food).

If the main verb of the sentence is directly followed by a simple (NP), the passive (be) can not be chosen (whether or not a prepositional phrase follows that (NP):

The food was eaten the dog (by the river). Incorrect.

But passive (be) should be chosen when the main verb is transitive and is followed directly by a constituent consisting of (by) and (NP):

a. The dog has beaten by the man. Incorrect.

b. The dog has been beaten by the man.

No other auxiliary verb is restricted in this way; the presence or absence of an (NP) after the main verb doesn't restrict the occurrence of any other auxiliary verb.

In a related active-passive pair, the subject of the active sentence occurs after (by) phrase of the passive, while the object of the active is occured in the place of the subject of the active:

The colts beat **the jets.**

    1   2

The jets were beaten **by the Colts**.

    2   1

1- a. John admires sincerity.

   b. Sincerity admires John. Incorrect.

2- a. John frightens sincerity. Incorrect.

   b. Sincerity frightens John.

Sentences (1) are active sentences with the main verb (admire) make sense only if their subjects refer to animate. But (frighten) in examples

(2) above requires instead that the (object) refer to animate beings as (2) shows.

In passive sentences, these facts are exactly reversed:

1- a .Sincerity is admired by John.

   b. John is admired by sincerity. incorrect.

2- a. Sincerity is frightened by John. Incorrect.

   b. John is frightened by sincerity.

If active-passive pairs such as (John admires sincerity) and (sincerity is admired by John) are to be generated by separate phrase structure rules and not related in some way, then the statements below must be done:

   a. **John** admires **sincerity**.

   b. **Sincerity** is admired by **John**.

The verb (admire) must have: (a) an animate subject in an active sentence but (b) an animate (NP) in the by phrase in a passive sentence.

A phrase structure treatment of passive sentences based on this rule Aux ⟶ (Modal) (Have) (BE) (be) will fail to capture the fact that various restrictions apply to the passive (be) but not to other auxiliaries:

(a) (be) occurs only with transitive verbs;

(b) it cannot occur even then if the main verb is followed directly by just a simple (NP);

(c) it must occur if the main verb is followed directly by a (PP) with (by) and (NP); and.

(d) when (be) occurs, any (NP) that is appropriate as the subject of the active sentence is now appropriate in the (by) phrase. For example;

John admires sincerity.

Sincerity is admired by **John**.

Passive Transformation

Given an active sentence,

(a) "Interchange" the subject and object (NPs) of the active sentence;

(b) Insert (by) before the new "object"; and

(c) Insert (be) after all (other) members of the auxiliary.

This rule is applied in the following example:

The dog ate the food.

The food was eaten by the dog. (Akmajian and Heny: 1975: 88-95).

2.14 Relative Clauses

Defining relative clause (restrictive relative clause). A clause which gives additional information about a noun or noun phrase in a sentence. A defining relative clause restricts or helps to define the meaning of the noun. It usually begins with (who, which, whom, whose or that), and in written English is not separated from the noun by a comma. (Richards and Schmidt: 2002: 146-147).

2.14.1 Defining relative clauses with, who , that, and which

For examples:

I spoke to the woman **who owns the hotel**.

Did you see the letter **that came this morning**?

The defining relative clauses in the two sentences above are (who owns the hotels) tells us which woman; and (that came this morning) tells us which letter).

Who is used for people:

I spoke to the woman. She owns the hotel.

I spoke to the woman **who** owns the hotel.

The man was very nice. He interviewed me.

The man **who** interviewed me was very nice.

That is used for things:

Did you see the letter? It came this morning.

Did you see the letter **that** came this morning?

The keys have disappeared. They were on this table.

The keys **that** were on this table have disappeared.

Who and **that** replace the pronoun. For example;

I spoke to the woman who owns the hotel. Not (I spoke to the woman who **she** owns the hotel.)

Which can be used instead of that (to talk about things) in a defining relative clause.

Did you see the letter **which** came this morning?

The keys **which** were on this table have disappeared.

That can be utilized instead of (**who)** (to talk about people) in an informal style.

 I spoke to the woman **that** owns the hotel.

2.14.1.1 Leaving out who, that and which in defining relative clauses

(Who, that, and which) can be the subject or the object of a defining relative clause.

Marianne is the girl **who** invited us to the party.

(Who) is the subject: **She** invited us to the party.

Marianne is the girl **who** we met last night,

Who is the object: We met **her** last night.

(Who, that or which) are often left when they are the objects in defining relative clauses.

Marianne is the girl **we met last night**. (we met her last night).

Have you seen the book **I put on this table**? (I put it on this table).

But (who, that or which) cannot be omitted when they are the subject in these clauses.

Mona is the girl **who invited us to the party.** (Not Mona is the girl **invited us to the party**).

Have you seen the book that was on this table? (Not Have you seen the book **was on this table**?

(Whom) can be used in quite formal speech. Instead the learners can use (who or that) (or they leave them out).

I met a woman (**who) I know**.

2.14.1.2 Defining Relative Clauses with whose, where, when, why, and that

(Whose) can be utilized in relative clauses (in place of his, her, their..etc) to talk about possession:

I have got a friend. **His** brother is an actor.

I have got a friend **whose** brother is an actor.

They are the people. **Their** house caught fire.

They are the people **whose** house caught fire.

Where, when, why, and that

(Where) can be used (for places) and (when) (for times) in relative clauses.

The factory **where I work** is going to close down.

Is there a time **when we can meet**?

After the word reason, (**why** or **that**) can be used in relative clauses.

Is there a **reason why /that you want to leave now**?

(Where) can be left if a preposition is used.

The hotel **we stayed at** was very small.

2.14.2 Non –defining relative clauses

"Non –defining relative clauses do not tell us which person thing, etc the speaker means; these clauses give more information about a person or thing already identified ." (Beaumont and Granger: 1992: 156).

Ken's mother **who is 69**, has just passed her driving test (who is 69) does not tell us which woman, because we already know that it is Ken's mother.

Sue's house **which is in the centre of town**, is over 100 years old.

(which is in the center of town does not tell us which house; we already know that it is Sue's house).

Non-defining clauses are common in a formal style, especially in writing. Non-defining clauses are restricted by putting commas (,) at the beginning of the clause (and often at the end of the clause).

Last weekend I met Sue, **who told me she was going on holiday soon**.

Frank Morris, **who is one of my best friends**, has decided to go and live in France.

In a non-defining clause, (who) is used for people and (which) is used for things, but (that) can not be used.

She gave me the key, **which** I put in my pocket.

she gave me the key, **that** I put in my pocket. incorrect.

In a non-defining clause (who or which) can not be left.

My uncle John, **who lives in Manchester**, coming to visit me next week.

My uncle John **lives in Manchester**, is coming to visit me next week. incorrect.

She gave me the key, **which I put in my pocket**.

She gave me the key, **I put in my pocket**. Incorrect.

2.14.2.1 Non –defining relative clauses with whose , where ,when,and whom

(Whose, where, and when) can be used in non-defining relative clauses.
 For example;

Tina Harris, **whose brother is the actor Paul Harris**, is a good friend of mine.

We visited a town called Christchurch, **where we had lunch in an Italian restaurant**.

We are going on holiday in September, **when the weather isn't so hot**.

(Whom) can be used instead of (who) when it is the object of the verb in a non- defining clause.

Sara Ross, **who /whom you met in Madrid last Summer**, will be at party tonight. (Beaumont and Granger: 1992: 236-241).

2.15 What sentence?

> *Richards and Schmidt (2002: 480) claim sentence (in grammar) is the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase, clause) are said to function. In English a sentence normally contains one independent clause with a finite verb.*

Sentence Variety

 Traditionally, there are four ways of describing sentences in English:

1. Simple
2. Compound
3. Complex
4. Compound- complex

The Simple Sentence

A simple sentence consists of a single <u>subject</u>- <u>verb</u> combination. For Examples;

<u>Children</u> <u>play</u>.
The <u>game</u> <u>ended</u> early.

The <u>lake</u> <u>has been polluted</u> by several neighboring streams.

A simple sentence may contain more than one subject:

<u>Lola</u> and <u>Tony</u> <u>drove</u> home.

The <u>wind</u> and <u>sun</u> <u>dried</u> my hair.

Or more than one verb:

The <u>children</u> <u>smiled</u> and <u>waved</u> at us.

Or several subjects and verbs:

<u>Manny</u> , <u>Moe</u>, and <u>Jack</u> <u>lubricated</u> my car, <u>replaced</u> the oil filter, and <u>cleaned</u> the spark plugs.

The Compound Sentence

Acompound sentence consists of two(or more) simple sentences. The two complete sentences in a compound statement are usually joined by a comma plus a joining word (and, but, for, or, nor, so, yet). A compound sentence is utilized when a learner wants to give equal weight to two closely related notions. The technique of showing that notions have equal importance is called coordination.

The rain increased, so the officials canceled the game.

Martha wanted to go shopping, but Fred refused to drive her.

Hollis was watching T.V in the family room, and April was upstairs on the phone.

The Complex Sentence

A complex sentence contains a simple sentence and a sentence that begins with a dependent word.

A list of common dependent words:

Dependent Words		
after	if, even if	when/ whenever
although/though	in order that	where/wherever
as	since	whether
because	that, so that	which/ whichever
before	unless	while
even though	until	who
how	what/whatever	whose

A complex sentence is used when a learner wants to emphasize one idea over another in a sentence. For example,

Because I forgot the time, I missed the final exam.

(I missed the final exam) is the idea that the writer wants to emphasize; it expresses a complete thought. The less important idea (Because I forgot the time) is subordinate to the complete thought. The technique of giving one idea less emphasis than another is called subordination.

In the examples below, the part beginning with the dependent word is the less emphasized part of the sentence.

While Aisha was eating breakfast, she began to feel sick.

I checked my money before I invited Pedro for lunch.

When Jerry lost his temper, he also lost his job.

Although I practiced for three months, I failed my driving test.

The Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence consists of two or more simple sentences and one (or more) dependant statements. In the following examples, a solid line is under the simple sentences and a dotted line is under the dependent statements.
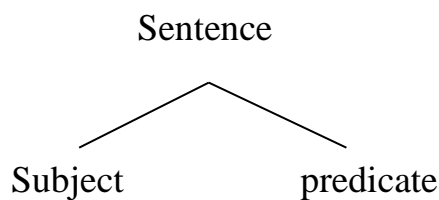
When the power line snapped, Jack was listening to the stereo, and Linda was reading in bed.

After I returned to school following a long illness, the math teacher gave me make up work, but the history instructor made me drop her course. (Langan: 2004: 137, 138, 140, 144).

2.16 Sentence Patterns

Subjects and Predicates

Sentence

Subject   predicate

The subject means what the sentence is about. The predicate is what is said about the subject. The terms subject and predicate refer to the functions of the sentence. But those sentence functions can be described in terms of form:

```
                        Sentence
                       /        \
                    NP            VP
              (Noun phrase)    (verb phrase)
```
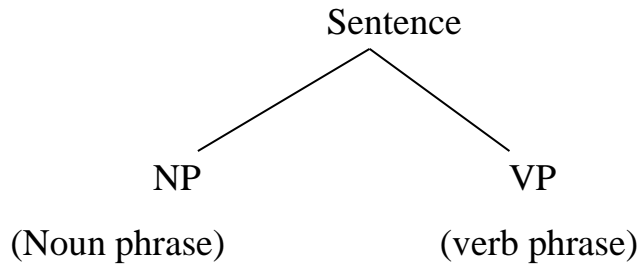
The place of subject is filled by a noun phrase and the predicate slot by a verb phrase.

The important for the classification of sentences into sentence patterns is the concept of the verb as the central, pivotal slot in the sentence. In the below list of the ten patterns, the subjects are the same (The students) to emphasis that the ten categories are different in the predicates, differences in the verb headword and in the structures following the verb.

```
                        Sentence
                       /        \
                    NP            VP
```

Subject	predicate
I. The students	are upstairs.
II. The students	are diligent.
III. The students	are scholars.
IV. The students	seem diligent.
V. The students	became scholars.
VI. The students	rested.
VII. The students	studied their assignment.
VIII. The students	gave the professor their homework.
IX. The students	consider the teacher intelligent.
X. The students	consider the course a challenge.

The sentence slots

Sentence is a series of slots. All the slots are labeled, the first one in every pattern is the subject, and the second is the predicating verb.

Because the variations among the sentence patterns are in the predicates, ten patterns are divided according to their verb types: the **be patterns**, the **linking verb patterns**, **the intransitive patterns**, and the **transitive verb patterns.**

The (be) Patterns

I. NP	be	ADV / TP
(subject)	(predicating verb)	(adverbial of time or place)
The students	are	upstairs

II. NP	be	ADJ
(subj)	(pred vb)	(subject complement)
The students	are	diligent

III. NP1	be	NP1
(subj)	(Pred vb)	(subj comp)
The students	are	scholars

The Linking Verb Patterns

IV. NP	linking verb	ADJ
(subj)	(pred vb)	(subj comp)
The students	seem	diligent

V. NP1	lnk verb	NP1
(subj)	(pred vb)	(subj comp)
The students	became	scholars

The intransitive Verb Pattern

VI.	NP		intransitive verb
	(subj)		**(pred vb)**
	The students		rested

The Transitive Verb patterns

VII.	NP1	transitive verb	NP2
	(subj)	**(pred vb)**	**(direct object)**
	The students	studied	their assignment

VIII.	NP1	trans verb	NP2	NP3
	(subj)	**(pred vb)**	**(indirect object)**	**(dir obj)**
	The students	gave	the professor	their homework

IX.	NP1	trans verb	NP2	ADJ
	(subj)	**(pred vb)**	**(dir obj)**	**(obj comp)**
	The students	consider	the teacher	intelligent

X.	N1	trans verb	NP2	NP2
	(subj)	**(pred vb)**	**(dir obj)**	**(obj comp)**
	The students	consider	the course	a challenge

The Be Patterns

According to Kolln and Funk(2010: 36) the first three formulas state that when a form of be serves as the main or predicating verb, an adverbial of time or place (pattern I), or an adjectival (pattern II), or a noun phrase Pattern (III) will follow it. Patterns I through III describe all the sentences in which a form of be is the predicating verb.

\

Pattern I (NP be ADV T/P)

The students are upstairs.

The teacher is here.

The last performance was yesterday.

The adverbs in the sentences above are modifier of the verb. In the sample sentences (**upstairs)** and (**here)** are adverb of place but (**yesterday)** is adverb of time. The ADV that occurs after (**be)** is limited to (**when)** and (**where)** information.

In the examples below, the adverbial of time and place are prepositional phrases:

The next performance is on Monday.

The students are in the library.

Pattern II (NP be ADJ)

The students are diligent.

The price of gasoline is ridiculous.

The play was very dull.

In the three sentences above, the complement which follows (**be)** is an adjectival, this slot is called the subject complement because it completes the verb and describes the subject.

Pattern III (NP1 be NP1)

The students are scholars.

Professor Mendez is my math teacher.

The tournament was an exciting event.

In all patterns, the noun phrase fills the place of the subject, in pattern III a (NP) is occured after (**be)** to fill the subject complement slot. The numbers that mark the (NPs) show that the two noun phrases have the same referent. In the example (Professor Mendez is my math teacher). **Professor Mendez** and **my math teacher** refer to the same person. The subject complement renames the subject; **be,** (the main verb)which connects the subject with its complement.

The linking verb patterns

The linking verb is a verb that completes by subject complement (an adjectival or a noun phrase) that describes, characterizes, or identifies the subject.

Pattern IV (NP V-link ADJ)

The students seem diligent.

I grew sleepy.

The soup tastes salty.

In pattern (IV) an adjectival occurs in the subject complement slot; it describes or name an attribute of the subject, just like in pattern II. In many cases, a form of (**be)** can be substituted for the pattern (IV) linking verb with a minimal change in meaning: (**I grew sleepy.)** and (**I was sleepy.)** are surely close in meaning. But, sentences with (**be)** and (**seem)** could be different in meaning.

Pattern (IV) consists of the verbs of the senses; besides taste, the verbs (smell, feel, sound, look) often link an adjective to the subject:

The soup smells good.

The dog looks sick.

As with pattern (II), an adjectival prepositional phrase sometimes fills the subject complement slot:

The piano sounds **out of tune**.

The fighter seems **out of shape**.

Besides verbs of the senses and seem, others are (appear, become, get, prove, remain, and turn). All of these verbs except (seem), hold membership in other verb classes too-transitive or intransitive or both. The way to recognize linking verbs is to understand the role of the subject complement, to identify the form of the structure following the verb and its relationship to the subject.

Pattern V (NP1 V-link NP1)

The students became scholars.

My uncle remained a bachelor.

The subiect complement slot is filled by a noun phrase following the linking verb in pattern (V). The two examples above show that,the two (NPs) have the same referent, as same as pattern (III). There are very few linking verbs that will be used in pattern (V); most of them take only adjectivals, not noun phrases, as subject complements. The two verbs (**become)** and (**remain)** are the most common and (**seem)** also takes a noun phrases, but this happens rarely:

That seemed a good idea.

He seemed a nice person.

But in the case of these sentences, a prepositional phrase with the preposition (**like)** is more common:

That seemed like a good idea.

He seemed like a nice person.

The subject complement here is an adjectival prepositional phrase, so these two sentences with (**like)** are pattern (IV).

The most common link between two noun phrases with same referent is (**be)** (pattern III). And often the replacement of (**be)** for the linking verb in pattern (V) makes little difference in meaning:

The students became scholars. (Pattern V).

The students are scholars. (pattern III).

The Intransitive Verb Pattern
(Pattern VI: NP V-int)

The students rested.

Mary laughed.

The visitors from India arrived.

The three sentences above describe the intransitive verb pattern. An intransitive verb has not complement, noun phrase or adjectival in the slot following the verb. Most of sentences of pattern (VI) consist of more than the simple subject and verb. The adverbial information will be added:

The student rested **after their long trip**.

Mary laugh **loudly**.

The visitors from India **finally** arrived **at the airport**.

This pattern looks like pattern (I), with no complement after the verb, but there is a difference: The adverbial in pattern (I) is not optional; it is required. Pattern (I) has a structure that tells where or when, on the other hand the optional adverbials of pattern (VI) are not restricted to time and place information; they are able to reply other questions such as (why or how or how long): "John slept soundly" "John slept for an hour" (patternVI) but "John was soundly" or " John was an hour" is not accurate.

Exceptions to the intransitive pattern

In intransitive verbs, there are a few verbs that require an adverbial to make them complete. For examples:

My best friend resides in Northridge.

The boys sneaked past the watchman.

She glanced at her watch.

(Reside) and (sneak) and (glance) are intransitive verbs that require an adverbial of place.

The Transitive Verb Patterns

All transitive verbs take one or more complements. All transitive verbs have one complement in common: the **direct object**.

Pattern VII: NP1 V-tr NP2

The student studied their assignment.

Amy's car needs four new tires.

In the two sentences above the noun phrase following the verb, the referent of the direct object is different from that of the subject, as indicate by the different numbers in the formula. Transitive verb is as an action word: its subject is regarded the doer and its object the receiver of the action. In the sentence (The students studied their assignment), their **assignment** is the receiver of the action **studied**. But sometimes the notion of receiver of the action doesn't apply at all:

Our team won the game.

We enjoyed the game.

It is hardly seems accurate to say that **game** "receives the action". And in

Red spots covered her neck and face.

The verb shows a condition rather than action. Many transitive verbs are action words and many direct objects are receivers of the action.

The direct object answers (**what** or **whom)** question:

The students studied (what?) geometry.

Devon helped (whom?) her little brother.

The question will not differentiate transitive verbs from linking verbs; in pattern (III and V), the subject complements also tell what:

Pat is a doctor. (Pat is what?)

Pat became a doctor. (Pat became what?)

The one way of distinguishing transitive verbs is that the two noun phrases have different referents.

An exception occurs when the direct object is either reflexive pronoun (John cut himself) or reciprocal pronoun (John and Mary love each other). In two sentences, the two (NPs), the subject and the direct object, have the same referent, so the number (1 and 2) in the formula are inaccurate. These sentences like pattern (V), the linking verb pattern. But the verbs cut and love are not like those of the linking verbs.

Pattern VIII: NP1V-tr NP2 NP3

The students gave the professor their homework.

The judges awarded Mary the prize.

The clerk handed me the wrong package.

There are two (NPs) which follow the verb in pattern(VIII). The three noun phrases in each example above have different referents. The first slot following the verb is the indirect object; the second is the direct object. The indirect object is defined as the recipient of the direct object, the beneficiary of an act. The indirect object usually names a person who is the receiver of whatever the subject, (NP1), gives. In first example; (the students, the professor, and their homework) all refer to different people or things. In the third patternVIIIsample sentence, a pronoun fills the indirect object slot.

An important feature of the pattern (VIII) is: The indirect object may follow the direct object, here the preposition must take place:

The students gave their homework **to the professor**.

The judges awarded the prize **to Mary**.

The clerk handed the wrong package **to me**.

With some pattern (VIII) verbs the preposition will be **for** rather than **to**:

Jim's father bought him a new car.

Jim's father bought a new car **for him**.

When the direct object is a pronoun, the shift is required; without the prepositional phrase the sentence would be ungrammatical:

The students gave it to the professor.

The students gave the professor it. (incorrect).

Jim's father bought it for him.

Jim's father bought him it. (incorrect).

Pattern IX: NP1 V-tr NP2 ADJ

The students consider the teacher intelligent.

The teacher made the test easy.

The boys painted their hockey sticks blue.

In pattern (IX) the object complement is an adjective that describes the direct object. The relationship between the direct object and the object complement is the same as the relationship between the subject and the subject complement in patterns (II and IV). In pattern (II and IV) the subject complement describes the subject; in pattern (IX) the object complement describes the direct object:

The teacher is intelligent.

The test is easy.

The hockey sticks are blue.

The object complement has two functions:

(a) It completes the meaning of the verb.

(b) It discribes the direct object.

Pattern X :NP1 V-tr NP2 NP2

The students consider the course a challenge.

The students elected Emma chairperson.

Barrie named his pug Jill.

Adjectives and noun phrases can be subject complements, both adjectives and noun phrases also serve as object complements. In this pattern the object complement is a noun phrase. The direct object and the noun phrase have the same referent. The direct object complement in pattern (X) has two purposes:

(a) It completes the meaning of the verb.

(b) It renames the direct object.

There is a relationship between two noun phrases to that of the subject and subject complement in pattern (III):

The course is a challenge.

Emma is the chairperson.

The words (to be) can be inserted between the direct object and the following slot; this can serve as a test for pattern (IX and X). If (to be) is possible, then what follows is an object compement. Which of the following sentences will pass the "to be" test?

Taro finds his job easy.

Taro found his job easily.

Pam found her job the hard way.

Pam finds her job a challenge.

If the learners have determined that the **first** and **last** sentences in the list could include (**to be)**, the learners have identified object complements. The other two end with adverbials that tell **how** about the verb.

Sometimes the object complement is signaled by as; it is called an expletive:

We elected Tom as our secretary.

We refer to him as "Mr. secretary".

I know him as a good friend.

The witness identified the defendant as the burglar.

(**As)** is sometimes optional; but in other cases is required. With the verbs

(**refer to** and **know)**, the object complement can not be added without as.

We refer to him "Mr. Secretary". incorrect.

I know her a good friend. Incorrect. (Kolln and Funk: 2010: 33-

40, 42- 47,49-53)

2. 17 Sentence Types

The ten sentence patterns formulas describe the basic structure of senten-ces, or declarative statements. The aim of such sentences is to state, or declare, a fact or an opinion. But the formula is sometime changed for asking questions (interrogative sentences), give commands (imperative sentences), and express strong feelings (exclamatory sentences):

Declarative: He talks on his cell phone all day long.

Interrogative: Is he talking on his cell phone now?

Why does he talk on his cell phone so much?

Imperative: Turn that cell phone off.

Exclamatory: What a lot of time he spends on his cell phone !

Interrogative Sentences (Questions)

Yes/No question, and the wh-question are most commmon interrogative patterns in English. Both types of questions change the basic declarative word order by putting the verb, or part of the verb, in front of the subject.

They are going to the movies. (declarative)

Are they going to the movies? (Yes/No question)

Where are they going? (wh- question)

In the examples above, the first part of the verb (**are going)** is occurred in front of the subject; It is called an (**auxiliary)**. Yes\No questions allow "Yes" or "No" answers, although other responses are possible:

Q ： May I go with you?

A ： We'll see.

Wh-questions called information questions, use interrogative words like (why, where, when, who, what, or how) to elicit specific details. In the question "where are they going? " the interrogative word comes first and fills the optional adverbial slot in a pattern (VI).

Where are they going?

They are going **where**.

The interrogative can fill an (NP) slot:

What have you been reading?

You have been reading **what**.

Some interrogatives act as determiners:

Whose car are you taking?

You are taking **whose** car.

The examples indicate that, the slot of the basic declarative pattern will be out of order, because the interrogative word always comes at the beginning, no matter what grammatical function it has. However, when the information being elicited is a (**who** or **what)** that fills the place of subject, then the usual word order of (subject-verb-object) is maintained and the auxiliary is not shifted:

Who broke the window?

What is making that noise?

Imperative Sentences (Commands)

In imperative sentences the subject is unstated although clearly understood:

Subject	Predicate
(You)	Sit down.
(You)	Take your time.
(You)	Tell us a story.

Commands are common in casual speech. But they are not common in writing:

Draw vertical lines to identify the sentence slots.

Diagram each sentence.

Exclamatory Sentences

The exclamatory sentence is any sentence that spoken with heightened emotion, written with an exclamation mark:

I love your new house!

Wipe that grin off your face!

Are you kidding me!

But in terms of form, the first sentence is declarative; the second one is imperative; and the last one looks like a yes/no question. By contrast, a formal exclamatory sentence involves a shift in word order that focuses on a complement:

What a lovely house you have!

How proud you must be!

What a piece of work is man! [Shakespeare](Kolln and Funk: 2010: 55-57).

2.18 Subject-Verb Agreement

Langan (2004: 173) mentions a verb must agree with its subject in number. A singular subject(one person or thing) takes a singular verb. A plural subject (more than one person or thing) takes a plural verb. Mistakes in subject-verb agreement are sometimes made in the following situations:

1. When words come between the subject and the verb.

2. When a verb comes before the subject.

3. With indefinite pronouns.

4. With compound subjects.

5. With who which and that.

2.18.1 Words between the subject and the verb

If the words come between the subject and the verb, they will not change subject-verb agreement: For example;

The breakfast cereals in the pantry are made mostly of sugar.

In the above sentence, the subject (cereals) is plural and so the verb (are) is plural. The words(**in the pantry)** that come between the subject and the verb don't affect subject-verb agreement. To recognize the subject of certain sentences, the prepositional phrases should be crossed out. For examples;

One ~~of the crooked politicians~~ was jailed for a month.

The posters ~~on my little brother's wall~~ included rock singers, monsters and blond television stars.

Common prepositions

about	before	by	inside	over
above	behind	during	into	through
across	below	except	of	to
among	beneath	for	off	toward
around	beside	from	on	under
at	between	in	onto	with

2.18.2 Verb before the subject

A verb agrees with its subject even when the verb comes before the subject. Words that may precede the subject include (there, here, and in questions,

who, which, what, and where).

Inside the storage shed **are** the garden <u>tools.</u>

At the street corner **were** two <u>panhandlers</u>.

There **are** <u>times</u> I'm ready to quit my job.

where **are** the <u>instructions</u> for the microwave oven?

To recognize the subject, ask (who or what) of the verb, for example; in the first sentence above ask, " what are inside the storage shed ?", the answer, garden tools, is the subject.

2.18.3 Indefinite Pronouns

The indefinite pronouns always take singular verbs. And they were listed Below:

(-one words)	(-body words)	(-thing words)	
one	nobody	anything	each
anyone	anybody	everything	either
everyone	everybody	something	neither
someone	somebody	nothing	

(**Both**) always takes a plural verb. For examples;

One of my children **eats** raw onions as if they were apple.

Nobody **wanders** in those woods during hunting season without wearing bright-colored clothing.

Neither of those last two books on the list **is** required for the course. Somebody **has** been playing my records.

Both of these belts no longer **fit**.

2.18.4 Compound Subjects

Subjects joined by <u>and</u> generally take a plural verb: For example;

<u>Yoga</u> and <u>biking</u> **are** Lola's ways of staying in shape.

<u>Ambition</u> and <u>good luck</u> **are** the keys to his success.

When subjects are joined by (or, either…..or, neither….nor, not only…. but also), the verb agrees with the subject closer to the verb. For example;

Either the restaurant <u>manager</u> or his <u>assistants</u> **deserve** to be fired for the spoiled meat used in the stew.

The nearer subject in the above example, assistants, is plural, and so the verb is plural.

2.17.5 Who, Which, and That

If (who, which, and that) are used as subjects, they will take singular verbs when the word they stand for is singular and plural verbs if the word they stand for is plural. For example;

Freddie is one of those people <u>who</u> **are** very private.

the verb is plural, because (who) stands for people, which is plural. But in the sentence,

 Freddie is a person <u>who</u> **is** very private.

The verb is singular, because (who) stands for person, which is singular.

The dogs <u>which</u> **roam** around this area are household pets abandoned by cruel owners.

A sharp pain <u>that</u> **begins** in the lower abdomen may signal appendicitis.

The heavy trucks <u>that</u> **thunder** past my Honda make me feel as though I'm being blown off the road. (Langan: 2004: 173-177).

2.19 Error Analysis

Larsen (1992: 59) states "an error is a noticeable deviation, reflecting the competence of the learner. It is a systematic deviation made by the learner who had not yet mastered the rules of the target language".

Richards and Schmidt (2002: 184-185), mention "Error analysis developed as a branch of Applied Linguistics in the 1960s, and set out to demonstrate that many

learners' errors were not due to the learner's mother tongue, but reflected universal learning strategies. Errors analysis was, therefore offered as an alternative to Contrastive Analysis".

Error analysis may be carried out in order to:

a. Identify strategies which learners utilize in language learning.

b. Try to identify the causes of learners' errors.

c. Obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid to teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. (Richards and Schmidt: 2002: 184-185).

James (1998: 5) states error analysis accounts for the learners' interlanguage and the target language itself followed by a comparison of the two, so as to locate the mismatches. Errors could be described in terms of the target language without backing to the mother tongue of the learners.

Corder (1967) mentions Error Analysis (EA) is a method used by teachers and researchers to collect samples of the learner's language, identifying the errors in the sample, describing these errors, classifying Them according to their nature and causes, and evaluating their seriousness.

2.19.1 Sources of errors
Richards (1971) distinguished three sources of errors;

a. Interference errors: These kind of errors occur when L1 learner uses elements from his/her mother tongue while speaking/writing the target language.

b. Intralingual errors: These type of errors reflect on the general

features of the rules learning. For example, faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules are applied.

c. Developmental errors: errors occur by leaner who tries to build up a hypothesis on the second language on the basis of limited experience.

Richards (1971) claims intralingual errors can be divided into the following categories:

a. Overgeneralization errors: the learner creates a wrong structure on the basis of the other structure in the second language, for example; " He can sings". where English permits "He can sing".

b. Ignorance of rule restrictions: the learner uses rules in the context where they are not used, for example. " He made me to go rest"instead of "He asked or wanted me to go rest".

c. Incomplete application of rules: the learner fails to use a fully developed structure, for example; " You like to read" in the place of "Do you like to read?".

d. False hypothesis: the learner does not perceive or understand a distinction in the target language, for example; the use of "was" as a marker of past tense in "one day it was happened. English Language Teaching Journal, 25,204-219.

 Richards (1974), classified errors into two categories:

a. Interlingual errors: these kind of errors are caused by the interference of the learner's first language.

b. Intralingual and developmental errors: these errors happen during the process of learning the target language at a stage when the learners

have not really acquired the knowledge. Moreover, errors are also caused by the difficulty of the anguage itself.

Dulay and Burt (1974) divided learners' errors into three categories:

a. Developmental errors: errors that are the same as the mother tongue acquisition.

b. Interference errors: errors that reflect on the structure of the mother tongue.

c. Unique errors: these kind of errors are not due to developmental and interference errors.

Selinker (1972) states there are five different factors responsible for the learner's errors. First, transfer of structure or rules from the mother tongue to the target language. Second, transfer of training, this includes fossilized items, rules and subsystems. Third, the strategies that learners use when learning the target language. Fourth, the strategies of target communication referring to the methods and strategies utilized by learners to communicate with native speakers of the second language. Fifth, overgeneralization of the rules.

2.19.2 The nature of the learner's language:
Identifying Errors:

Ellis (1997: 15-16) mentions, the first step in analyzing the learner's errors is to identify them. To identify errors we have to compare the sentences that learners produce with what seems to be the normal or correct sentences in the target language which correspond with them. Allen and Corder (1974: 128) claim "the process of recognizing and identifying errors is one of comparing original utterances with their plausible and authoritative constructions, and identifying the differences". The way to identify errors is to compare them between the original language and the language that is written or spoken by learners.

Describing Errors:

Corder (1973: 277) states errors can be divided into four categories: **omission** of some required elements, for example; (Cow is useful animal) incorrect Cow is **a** useful animal. **Addition** of some wrong elements, for example; (She came **on** Last Monday) incorrect She came Last Monday. **Selection** of an incorrect element, for example; (He was angry on me) incorrect He was angry **at** me. And **disordering,** for example; (He asked her what time was it) incorrect He asked her what time **it** was.

Classification of Errors

Valdman (1975), divided errors into **global** and **local** errors, a global error is a communicative error that causes a proficient speaker of foreign language either to misunderstand the message in the utterance of the speaker, or to regard that message incomprehensible within the textual context, while a local error is an error that relates to linguistic. It occurs when the structure or form is badly designed. Hammerley (1991), divided errors into **surface** errors and **deep** errors. First, surface errors, these kind of errors need minor corrections. He says that, these errors do not need corrections with explanation. They need to put them correctly without explanation. While deep errors require explanation of why the error was made and what the right form is. Prabhu (1987), divided errors into systematic errors and incidental errors. He states that, systematic errors are the type of errors that deviate from the form of the native speaker, but incidental errors are the kind of errors that do not need linguistic explanations or examplifications from the teacher, for example; the teacher corrects the errors of pronunciation when he raises his eyebrows to draw the attention of the student.

Ellis (1997: 17) states we need to distinguish errors and mistakes. Errors reflect on the gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect on the occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance , the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows.

Corder (1967) has made a distinction between mistakes and errors, he utilizes the term errors to refer to systematic errors of the learner's underlying knowledge of the language. These errors show or reflect the current developmental level of the learner's second language. But he uses the term mistakes to refer to wrong forms caused by memory lapses, slip of the tongue, and other instances of performance errors.

Brown (1993: 205) claims mistake refers to the error of performance that is either slip or random guess in that, it is failure to utilize a known system in the right way. Native speakers are able to recognize and correct such mistakes which are not a result of a deficiency in competence but the result of some sort of break down in the process of production. Larsen (1992: 59) mentions an error is a deviation which reflects the learner's competence. This deviation happens when the learner does not master the rules of the second language. The learner can not correct himself because it is a product reflective of his current stage of second language development, or underlying competence.

2.20 Previous Studies

The researcher has gone throught some of the previous and related studies. These studies are very beneficial for the present study. They supply the researcher with useful information which helps in this study. These studies were presented as follows:

Study (1)

This study was conducted by Gammar Addawla Abbas Mohamed Albooni, under the title "An Analysis of Syntactic Errors in Written and Oral Production Made by Students of Arts" Khartoum University in the year 2004 . Ph.D Thesis.

This study is an attempt to describe and examine the approximate systems of English Language department in written and oral production. It tries to discover whether students improve their learning or not at the end of the year. The study also aims to determine which gender shows better improvement in written and oral production. The sample consists of (250) students, (freshmen) (102) were males and (148) were females. The researcher adopted inductive and descriptive approach and he collected the data from two tests, oral and written.

The study revealed that the area in both speech and writing, in which errors decreased at the end of second semester. Female students' average performance in both written and oral production is higher than male students. Articles prepositions, verbs, nouns, and pronouns are the area of most difficulties in the students' learning process. Arabic interference was most visible in students' frequent omission of verb (to be), prepositions, articles errors and repetition of subject and object.

The previous study was concerned with written and oral production while the present study deals with writing performance.

Study (2)

This study was conducted by Wafaa Abdalrazzak Khalil under the title " An Analysis of Common Grammatical Errors Made by Omani University Students in Writing English Essays" Ph.D. thesis 2015.

This study is an attempt to investigate and identify the grammatical types of English Language errors in writing English essays written by Omani University Students at Nizwa University and to find out the possible causes and the sources of why these errors occur. It also finds out whether all the teachers of English at the primary and secondary level in the Sultanate of Oman are reasonably qualified in teaching such a language. The sample of this study contains (100) students, (freshmen) (45) were males and (55) were females. The research was mainly descriptive, experimental and analytical. The researcher used two instruments for conducting this study: English written essays and a questionnaire for (ELT) teachers.

This study revealed five types of errors which found in the students' essays; including errors in the use of tenses, articles, prepositions, concord and pronominal errors. The high frequencies of errors in tenses. Most of the errors that were revealed could be attributed to two major sources interlingual and interalingual. The teachers of English Language at primary and secondary schools are poorly equipped with the required skills to teach English due to inadequate training. Moreover, most of them are not specialized in English Language.

The sample of the previous study was taken from the college of Arts and science, college of Engineering and Architecture, college of Management and Information system and the college of pharmacy and Nursing, while the sample of the present study was gathered from faculty of education English department.

Study (3)

This study was conducted by Mona Elamin Elnour Ali, under the title "An Analysis of English Language Learners Use of Cohesive Devices (The case of Alneelain University 4th year students). Ph.D. thesis 2011.

This study is an attempt to investigate the students competence when practicing devices in written discourse. To give possible reasons for writing problems concerning cohesive devices at discourse level. To suggest steps to overcome the problems and remedy the errors relating to cohesive devices. To draw out the attention of teachers in using these devices deliberately during lectures. The sample consists of (45) fourth year students out of (117) students chosen randomly. The researcher used descriptive quantitative approach. The researcher utilized three instruments for collecting the data: Test, interview, and supervision.

The study revealed that fourth year students at university level lack competence in English writing and this is attributed to mother tongue interference, interalingual, and cultural aspects. The most prominent devices in (EFL) writing may be conjunctions and reference and the least prominent devices could be substitution and ellipsis. Courses of writing at university level should concentrate on marking the exercises, analyzing texts and discussing common errors to help students to write

well coherent and proficient texts. Lecturers in other subjects should use different cohesive devices during the course of the lecture.

In this previous study the researcher focused on paragraph and text through application of cohesive devices. On the other hand the present study concentrates on sentence structure (syntax).

Study (4)

This study was conducted by Mohamed Ilyas Mohamed Aradeb under the title "Evaluation of Writing Performance of Second Year English Language Students in Kordufan Universities. Ph. D Thesis 2010.

This study is an attempt to investigate the main problems that face second year English students in learning the writing skill. The researcher tries to find out how can Kordufan university students produce well-organised piece of writing with appropriate language, good sentences and paragraph construction, suitable use of punctuation marks, correct spelling and clear handwriting. This study will help teachers in their fields to overcome the problems of writing. The sample composed (140) participants chosen randomly from the three universities: Kordufan, West Kordufan, and Dalanj. (120) second year English students and (20) English Language teachers from the three universities, The researcher

used the descriptive analytical approach because it is suitable for such studies. An interview, a test and a ready-made material were used as tools for data collection.

The final out come of the interview, the exam sheets and the test showed that students were to some extent good in the use of appropriate

language, spelling and handwriting. Students were weak in sentence and paragraph construction and the use of punctuation marks. Students' weak writing performance is due to a number of reasons such as: students' weak writing performance in the basic and secondary levels. Students were not interested in practising the writing skill.

This previous study concentrated on paragraph construction, spelling, handwriting, and the use of punctuation marks. The present study focuses on errors in sentence structure and doesn't mention any thing about paragraphs.

Study (5)

This study was conducted by Said Hassan Farahat, under the title "Errors Analysis: A Study of The Written Performance of University of Khartoum Freshmen in the year 1994" Master thesis.

This study is an attempt to identify, classify, and analyse the common and frequent grammatical errors of the students under study and explain the reason beyond their occurrence. The study also aims to establish the most frequent areas that inhibit the mastery of English grammar. The sample contains (300) students freshmen, (120) were males and (180) were females.

The study followed the descriptive and analytical approach and the researcher used a ready-made material (composition, comprehension, English grammar) as instruments for data collection.

The result of this study are: Most of the errors which were made by students due to the strategies of learning were employed by students themselves. The interference of mother tongue play a great role in

making errors. Other factors such as overgeneralization, simplification and bad instructions were also causes of student's errors.

The previous study was concerned with grammatical aspects while the researcher of present study concentrates on sentence structure.

Comment:

It is assumed that the studies reviewed above, whether directly related to the present study are of some values to the present study.

The researcher agrees with Gammar Addawla Abbas Mohamed in the point that (articles, prepositions, verbs, nouns, and pronouns) are the area of most difficulties in the students learning process. Students should be mastering the basic four skills reading, writing, listening and speaking. This study was concerned with written and oral skills. The results of this study show that female students outperform in both written and oral production in comparison to male students.

The researcher agrees with Wafaa Abdalrazzak Khalil on her statement about high frequencies of errors in tenses. This study reveales that most of the errors attributed to two major sources interlingual and intralingual. My research does not correlate with wafaa's since her study sample was based on diffrent faculties such as faculty of Engineering and Architecture, faculty of management and information system and the faculty of pharmacy and Nursing.

Mona Elamin Enour wrote about Cohesive Devices and states that university students lack competence in writing English. The researcher mentions that, courses of writing should be concentrated on marking the exercises, analyzing text and discussing common errors to help students

to write well coherent and proficient texts. Lecturers in other subjects should use different cohesive devices during the course of the lecture.

The researcher certainly do agree with Mohamed Ilyas that university students are weak in sentence and paragraph construction and the use of punctuation marks. Mohamed Ilyas states that, students were not interested in practicing the writing skill. In my opinion, more exercises will play an important role to improve the ability of students in writing skills.

Said Hassan Farhat wrote about grammatical errors. The researcher mentions the most errors are committed by students are due to the strategies of learning, which are employed by students themselves and interference of the mother tongue play a great role in making errors. In my view, the strategies used by some of the teachers are not suitable for some of the students.

Chapter Three
Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the population and sample of the study, the instruments of data collection, the techniques and the procedures utilized for data analysis. This study adopts the descriptive analytical method.

3.1 Population of the Research

The population of the study are Sudanese Universities Students who study English Language as a foreign language and English Language Teachers.

3.2 Sample of the Research

The sample includes (80) participants taken from two universities:

(50) Third-year students from Sudan University of Science and Technology Faculty of Education in the year 2014-2015.

(30) English Language teachers from Sudan University of Science and Technology and Omdurman Ahlia University.

The subject are native speakers of Arabic, they study English as a foreign language, their ages are between (19-21) years.

(30) English Language teachers from Sudan University of Science and Technology and Omdurman Ahlia University.
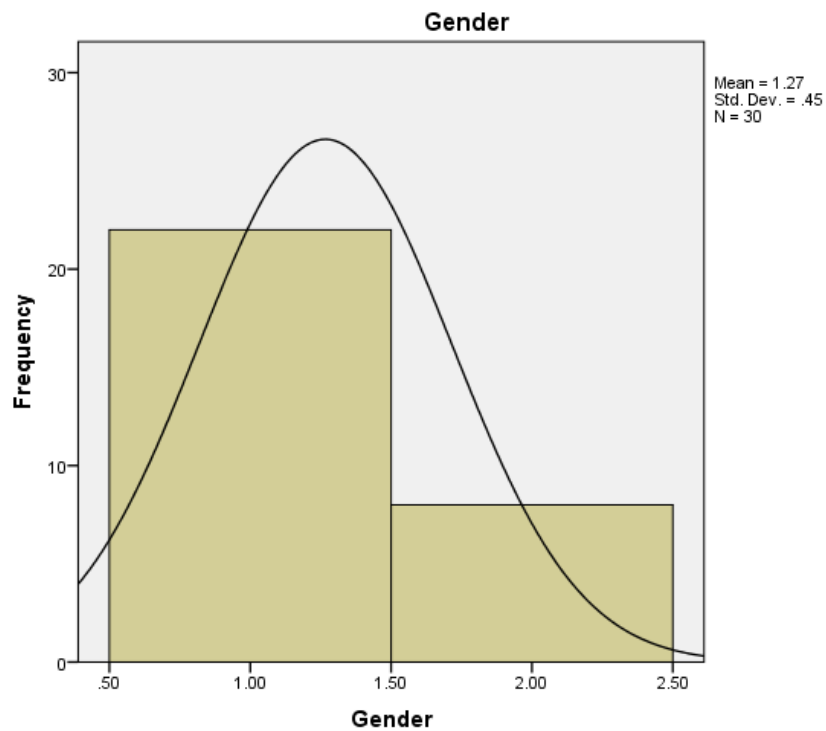
The subject of the study are Arabic native speakers

3.3 The Features of the Sample

The distribution of the teachers

Table (3.1.) Gender

|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	22	73.3	73.3	73.3
	Female	8	26.7	26.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Gender

Mean = 1.27
Std. Dev. = .45
N = 30

Histogram (3.1): Gender

The teachers' total number is 30 in the two universities 22(73.3%) are male and 8(26.7%) are female. The researcher chooses males and females to balance between two genders in order to give different views.

Table (3.2): Qualification

|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	BA	4	13.3	13.3	13.3
	MA	22	73.3	73.3	86.7
	PhD	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
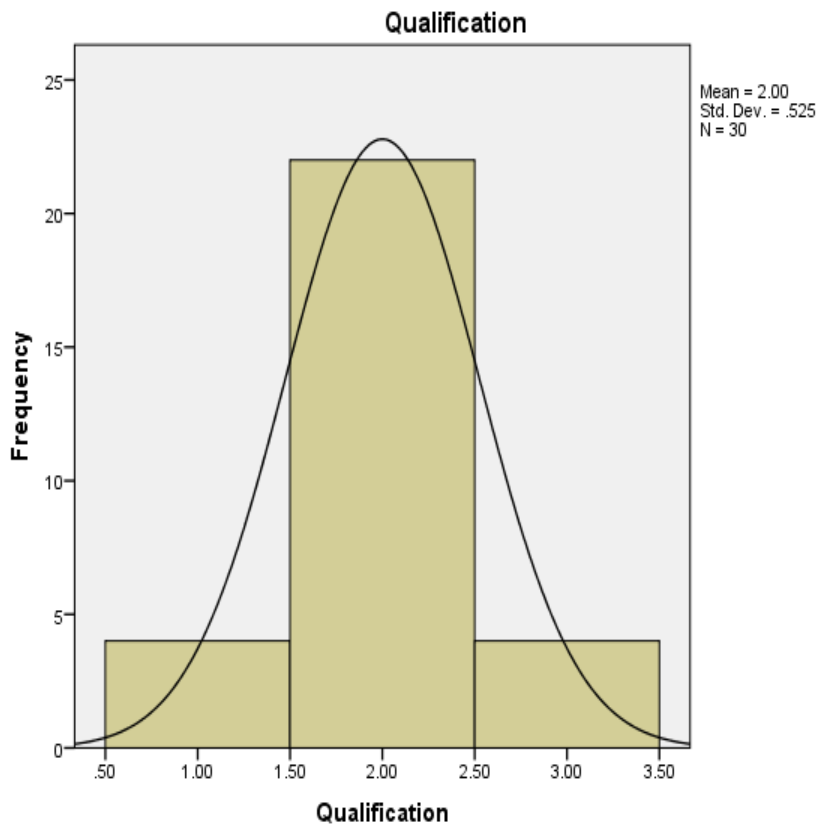
Histogram (3.2): Qualification

Table (3.2) shows that most of the teachers are holders of masters degree (22) of them represent (73.3%) of all teachers. There are (4) Ph.D holders who represent (13.3%) of the teachers. There are also (4) B.A holders represent (13.3%) of the teachers. The researcher selects teachers

who have B.A, MA, and Ph.D to respond the questionnaire, because they have different opinions and different academic qualifications.

Teachers' experience in years.

Table (3.3): Experience in years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 - 5 years	13	43.3	43.3	43.3
	6 - 10 years	6	20.0	20.0	63.3
	More than 10	11	36.7	36.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
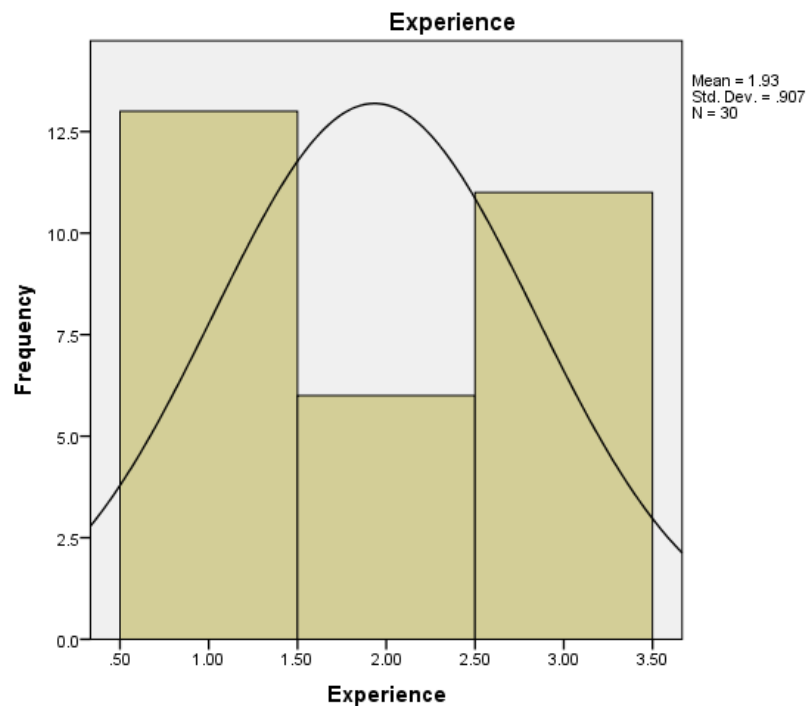
Histogram (3.3): Experience in years

The table (3.3) shows that teachers who have (0-5) years experience are (13) teachers who represent (43.3 %) of the total of the teachers.

Teachers who have more than 10 years experience are (11) who represent (36.7%) of teachers. Teachers who have (6-10) years experience are (6) who represent (20%) of teachers. The researcher selects teachers who have different experience years to give various notions.

3.4 Instruments and Procedures of Data Analysis

In this research the data is collected through:

(a) A test which the students conduct.

(b) A questionnaire which is responded by the teachers.

3.4.1 The Design of the Test

The test was designed to give an accurate evaluation of the students in Sudan University of Science and technology. The test was composed of four sections. The first section tested the level of students in word-order, It consisted of eight statements and questions. The second part contained five statements which tested subject-verb-agreement. The third one was composed of five sentences of passive voice and the last section included six statements; three were defining clauses and the others were non-defining clauses.

3.4.2 The Design of the Questionnaire

The second instrument was a questionnaire. It was designed to find out the views of teachers about their students regard with errors that made by them in English sentence structure. There were four choices given to the teachers, (usually, sometimes, rarely, never). The questionnaire contained three sections. Section one consisted of six statements about the problems in word-order (statements and questions), subject-verb-agreement, passive voice, and defining and non-defining clauses.

Section two was composed of two statements about the method which is followed by many teachers in correcting sentence structure errors. Section three included three statements about textbooks (examples, activities, and the time).

3.5 Data Analysis

Data is analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Statistical analysis is conducted by using (SPSS) programme. Also, the data is discussed in the light of theoretical framework of the study as well as the research questions and hypotheses.

3.6 Reliability and Validity

Both the test and the questionnaire were given to four specialized teachers; Dr. Amna Mohamed Badri, Dr. Tagelsir Hassan Bashoum, Dr. Ienas Ahmed Abdelrahman and Dr. Hillary Marino Pitia. All of them are Ph.D holders who are specialized in English Language. They checked the test and the questionnaire and then provided their suggestions and recommendations which the researcher used to make the necessary correction.

3.6.1 Piloting

The researcher distributed nine papers of the test to the third year students before the main test. The test was corrected by the researcher.

3.6.2 Questionnaire reliability

The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated by using Cronbach's Alpha. The tables below show this.

Reliability of section one.

Table (3.4).

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.953	6

Reliability of section two.

Table (3.5).

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.897	2

Reliability of section three.

Table (3.6)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.980	3

Cronbach's alpha for three sections show very high indicators of reliability: 0.953 , 0.897 and 0. 980 respectively.

3.7 Summary

This chapter includes population of the study who are Sudanese University Students. Sample of the study which consists of eighty participants taken from two universities. The instruments of data collection: The researcher uses two instruments, a test and a questionnaire. The techniques and the procedures utilize for data analysis are: The features of the sample which contain; the distribution of the teachers, qualifications, and the years of experience. Chapter three also consists of the design of the test and the questionnaire. It contains the reliability and validity of both test and Questionnaire. The next chapter will be data analysis and discussion.

CHAPTER FOUR

Discussion, Analysis, and Interpretations

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the data which was collected through the two instruments of the study; the teachers' questionnaire and the students' test.

The data have been analyzed by using the (SPSS) programme. The outputs of the analysis appear through the tables and histograms: The tables and histograms of the questionnaire present the results in percentile forms. The tables of the students' test show the mean percentages, the modes, the medians, and the standard deviations. The histograms provide a schematic representation of the percentages of the scores in the different sections of the test.

It is to be noted here that the histogram presents an important feature of the data. This feature is the normal distribution of the data. The feature is revealed by the curve of normal distribution. All histograms of the questionnaire section and the test section, show a normal distribution of the data.

The curve have the following characteristics:

1) They are not too flat.

2) They are not too pointed.

3) They do not lean to the left or to the right.

4.1 The questionnaire

This section presents the data analysis of the three sections of the questionnaire:

1) Section two.
2) Section three.
3) Section four.

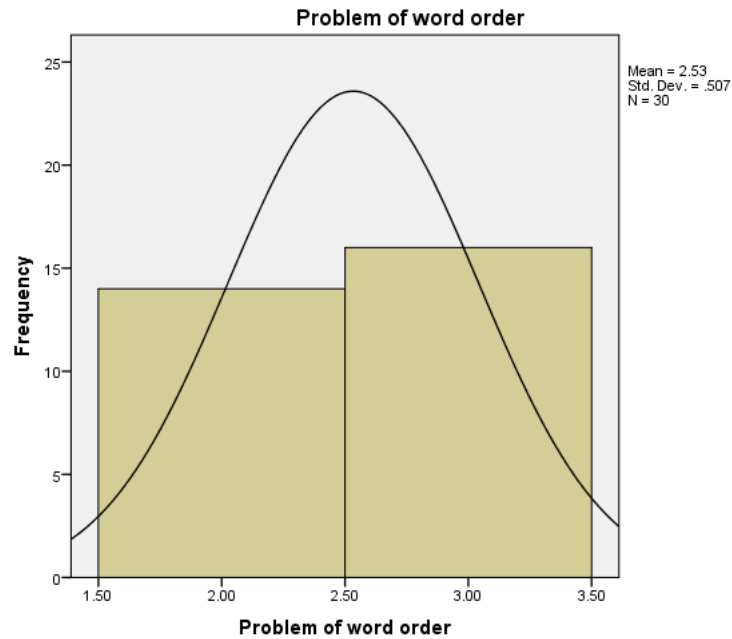The first section "personal data" is presented in chapter three.

Section (2)

Teachers' questionnaire.

4.1.1 Item One

" In word order, university students lack the ability to construct well-formed English sentences."

Table (4.1.): Problem of word order

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sometimes	14	46.7	46.7	46.7
	Usually	16	53.3	53.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Histogram (4.1): Problem of word order

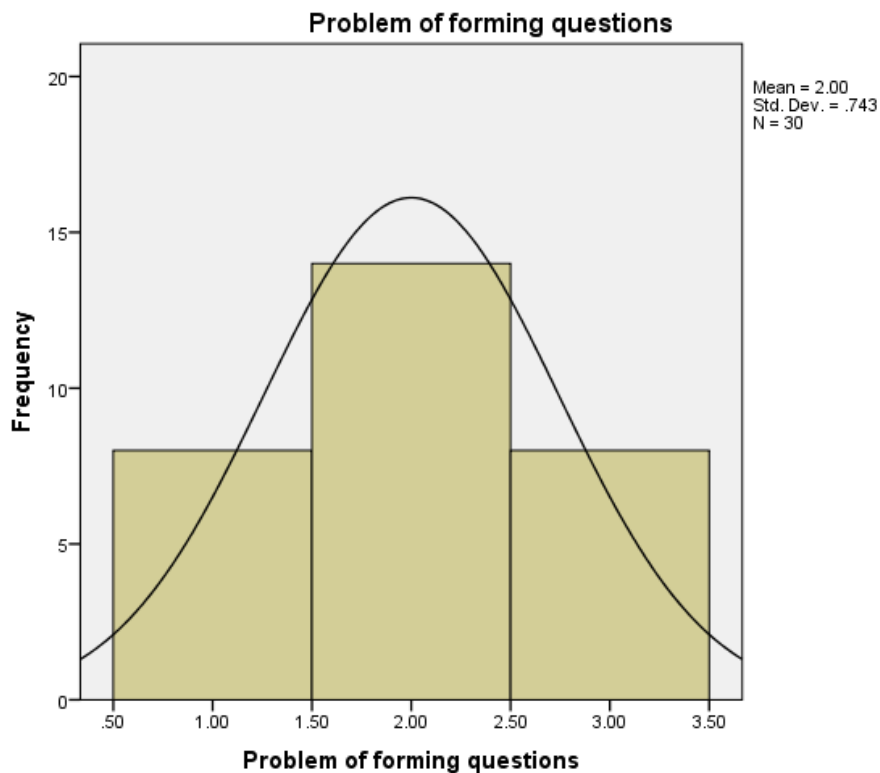The curve in histogram (4.1) shows that the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.1) shows that:

1) 53.3% of the sample agree that, university students usually have problems in constructing well-formed sentence in terms of word order.

2) 46.7% of the sample agree that, the students sometimes have problems in word order.

3) No one believes that, the students rarely or never have problems in word order.

4) So, it can be concluded that, the majority of teachers agree that (word order) is a problematic area for university students.

4.1.2 Item two

"University students are very weak in forming questions(WH-questions and Yes/No questions)."

Table (4.2): Problem of forming questions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Rarely	8	26.7	26.7	26.7
	Sometimes	14	46.7	46.7	73.3
	Usually	8	26.7	26.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Histogram (4.2): Problem of forming questions

The curve in histogram (4.2) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.2) shows that:

1) 46.7% of the sample agree that, university students sometimes have problems in forming questions.

2) 26.7% of the sample agree that, university students usually have problems in constructing questions.

3) 26.7% of the sample agree that, university students rarely have issues in forming questions.

4) No one thinks that, university students never have problems in constructing questions.

As a result, it can be said that, most of the teachers agree that constructing questions is an area of difficulty.

4.1.3 Item three

" In subject-verb agreement, students exhibit insufficient skills to match the subject with its verb."

Table (4.3): Problem of S-V agreement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Never	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Rarely	1	3.3	3.3	6.7
Valid	Sometimes	17	56.7	56.7	63.3
	Usually	11	36.7	36.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
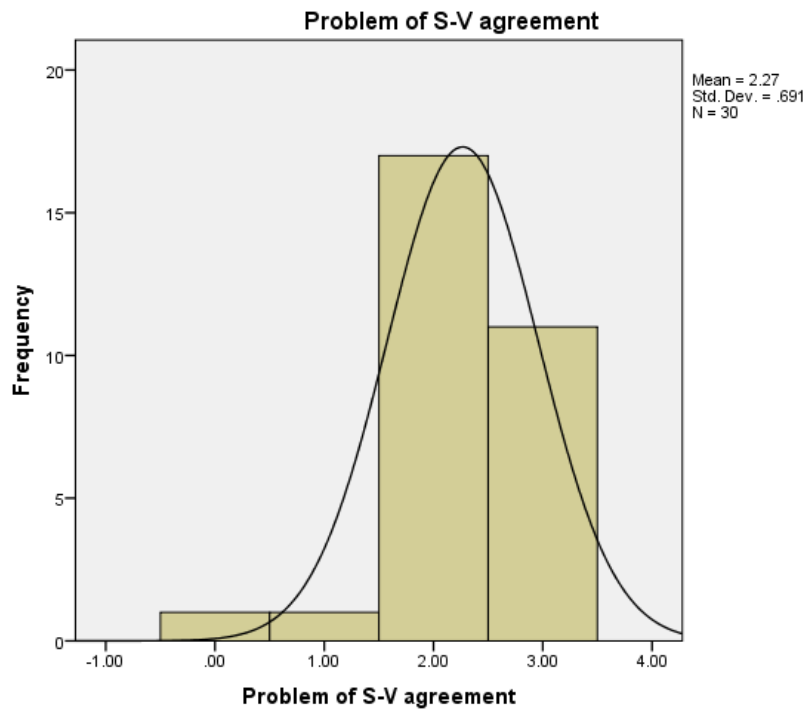
Histogram (4.3): Problem of S-V agreement

The curve in histogram (4.3) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.3) shows that:

1) 56.7% of the sample agree that university students sometimes have problems in arranging agreements between subject and verb.

2) 36.7% of the sample agree that, university students usually have problems in matching the subject with its verb.

3) 3.3% of the sample agree that, university students rarely have problems in the area of subject-verb agreement.

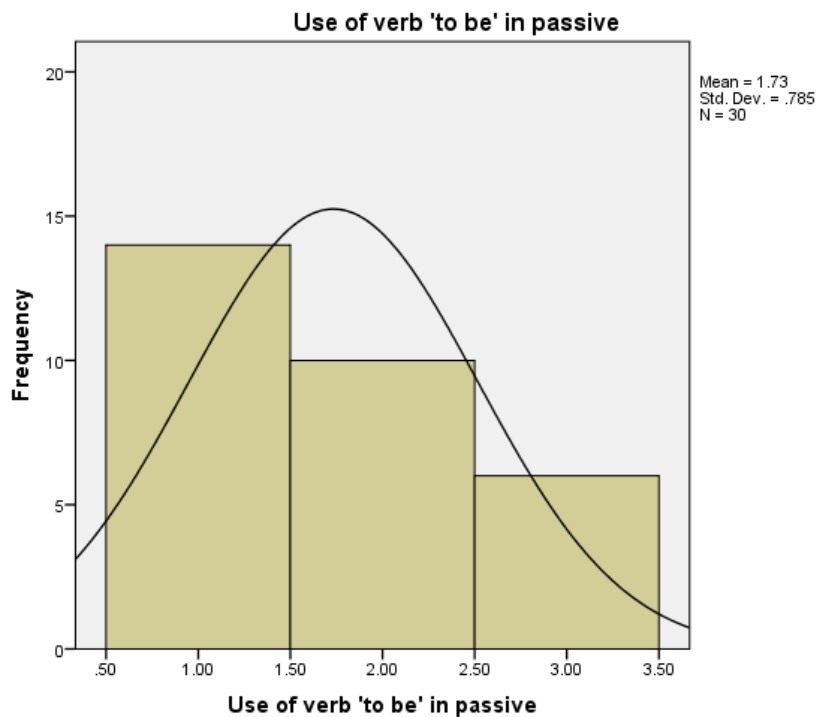4) 3.3 % of the sample agree that, university students never have problems in matching the subject with its verb.

So, it can be said that, most of the teachers agree that, the subject-verb agreement is an area which university students have problems in.

4.1.4 Item four

" University students use the verb "to be" in the passive voice correctly."

Table (4.4): Use of verb 'to be' in passive voice

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Rarely	14	46.7	46.7	46.7
	Sometimes	10	33.3	33.3	80.0
	Usually	6	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Histogram (4.4): Use of verb 'to be' in passive form.

The curve in histogram (4.4) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.4) shows that:

1) 46.7% of the sample agree that, university students rarely use "verb to be" in passive form correctly.

2) 33.3% of the sample agree that, university students sometimes use "verb to be" in passive form properly.

3) 20% of the sample agree that, university students usually use "verb to be" in passive form accurately.

4) No one thinks that university students never use "verb to be" in passive form in right way.

Therefore, it can be concluded that, the majority of the teachers agree that, using "verb to be" in passive voice is a problem which encounters university students.

4.1.5 Item five

"University students are able to use the preposition 'by' to precede the agent in passive constructions".

Table (4.5): Use of 'by' to precede agent in passive voice

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Rarely	9	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Sometimes	16	53.3	53.3	83.3
	Usually	5	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
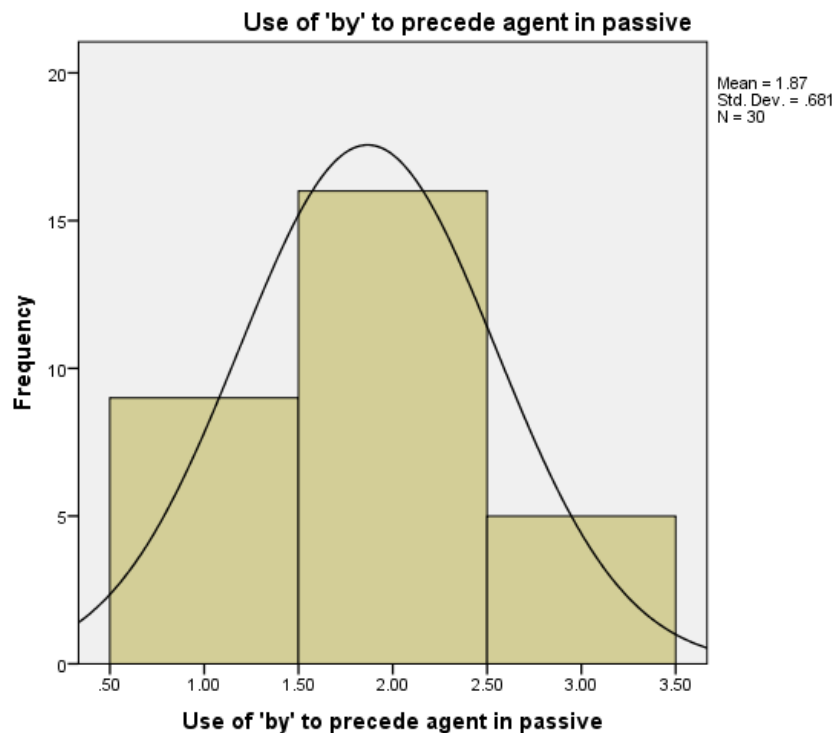
Histogram (4.5): Use preposition'by' to precede the agent in passive voice.

The curve in histogram (4.5) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.5) shows that:

1) 53.3% of the sample agree that, university students are sometimes able to use the preposition "by" to precede the agent in passive constructions.

2) 30% of the sample agree that, university students are rarely able to use "by" to precede the agent in passive forms.

3) 16.7% of the sample agree that, university students are usually able to use "by" to precede the agent in passive forms.

4) No one thinks that, university students are never able to use "by" to precede the agent in passive forms.

Hence, it can be said that, most of the teachers agree that, university students have problems in using the preposition "by" to precede the agent in passive constructions.

4.1.6 Item six

"Students use defining and non-defining clauses correctly"

Table (4.6): Problem of usingdefining and non-defining clauses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Rarely	10	33.3	33.3	43.3
	Sometimes	13	43.3	43.3	86.7
	Usually	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Histogram (4.6): Problem of defining and non-defining clauses

The curve in histogram (4.6) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.6) shows that:

1) 43.3% of the sample agree that, university students sometimes use defining and non-defining clauses correctly.

2) 33.3% of the sample agree that, university students rarely use defining and non-defining clauses accurately.

3) 13.3% of the sample agree that, university students usually use defining and non-defining clauses properly.

4) 10% of the sample agree that, university students never use defining and non-defining clauses correctly.

So, it can be concluded that, the majority of the teachers agree that, defining and non-defining clauses are area which university students have problems in.
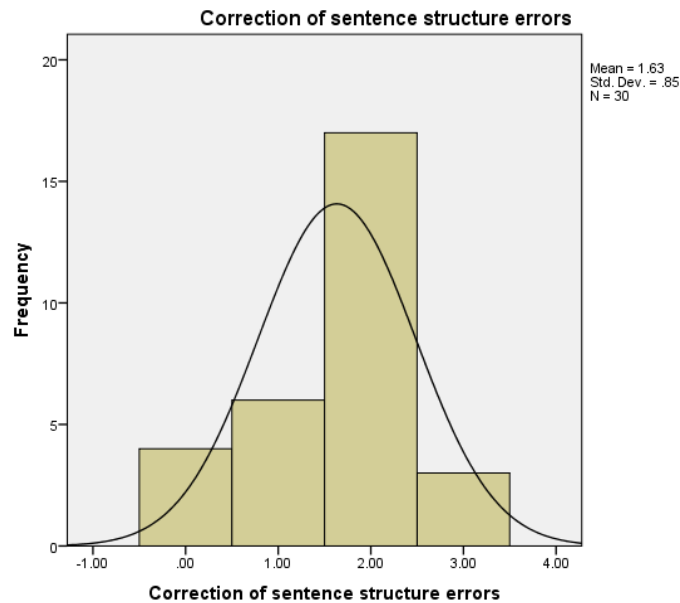
Section three

4.1.7 Item one

" Teachers do not correct errors that related to sentence structure".

Table (4.7): Correction of sentence structure errors

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	4	13.3	13.3	13.3
	Rarely	6	20.0	20.0	33.3
	sometimes	17	56.7	56.7	90.0
	Usually	3	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Histogram (4.7): Correction of sentence structure errors

The curve in histogram (4.7) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.7) shows that:

1) 56.7% of the sample agree that, teachers sometimes don't correct errors that related to sentence structure.

2) 20% of the sample agree that, teachers rarely correct errors that related to sentence structure.

3) 13.3% of the sample agree that, teachers never correct errors that related to sentence structure.

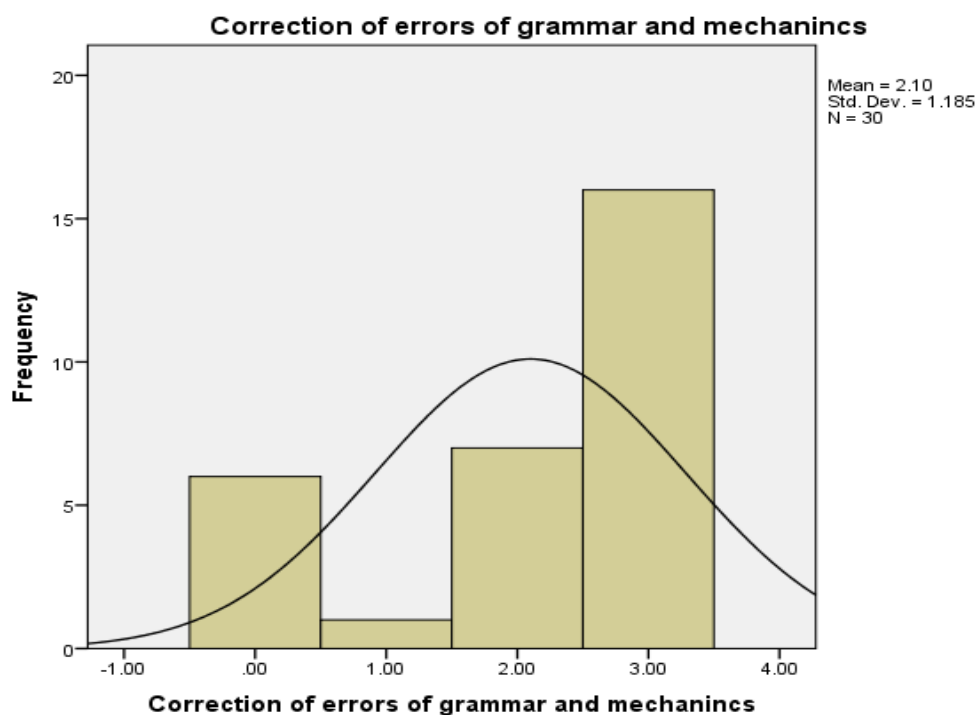4) 10% of the sample agree that, teachers usually don't correct errors that related to sentence structure.

So, it can be said that, most of the respondents agree that, teachers don't correct errors that relate to sentence structure.

4.1.8 Item two

" Teachers only correct errors that related to grammar and mechanics of writing".

Table (4.8): Correcting grammatical errors and mechanincs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Never	6	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Rarely	1	3.3	3.3	23.3
Valid	sometimes	7	23.3	23.3	46.7
	Usually	16	53.3	53.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Histogram (4.8): Correcting grammatical errors and mechanics

The curve in histogram (4.8) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed.The table (4.6) shows that:

1) 53.3% of the sample agree that, teachers usually correct errors that related to grammar and mechanics of writing.

2) 23.3% of the sample agree that, teachers sometimes correct errors that related to grammar and mechanics of writing.

3) 20% of the sample agree that, teachers never correct errors that related to grammar and mechanics of writing.

4) 3.3% of the sample agree that, teachers rarely correct errors that related to grammar and mechanics of writing.

As a result, it can be said that, the greater part of the teachers agree that, teachers only correct errors that related to grammar and mechanics of writing.

Section four

4.1.9 Item one

" Teachers are satisfied that the textbooks contain sufficient examples, which help students to improve their ability in writing skills".

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Table(4.9): Teachers satisfied with a number of examples					
Valid	Never	2	6.7	6.7	6.7
	Rarley	3	10.0	10.0	16.7
	Sometimes	10	33.3	33.3	50.0
	Usually	15	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
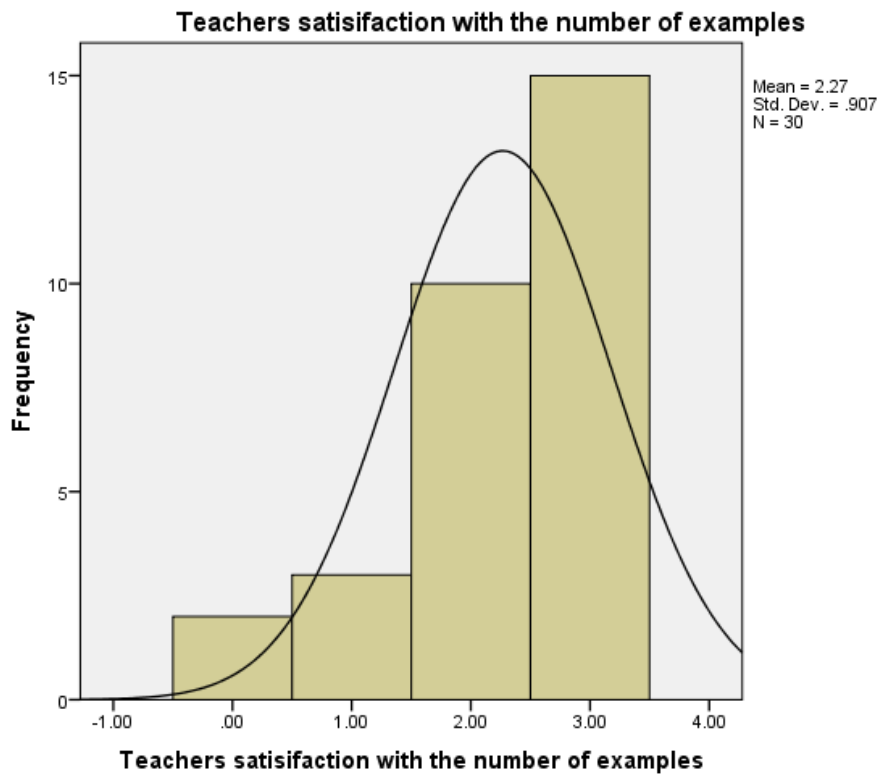
Histogram (4.9): Teachers satisfied with a number of examples.

The curve in histogram (4.9) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.9) shows that:

1) 50% of the sample agree that, teachers are usually satisfied that, the textbooks contain sufficient examples, which help students to improve their ability in writing skills.

2) 33.3% of the sample agree that, teachers are sometimes satisfied that, the textbooks contain sufficient examples, which help students to improve their ability in writing skills.

3) 10% of the sample agree that, teachers are rarely satisfied that, the textbooks contain sufficient examples, which help students to improve their ability in writing skills.

4) 6.7% of the sample agree that, teachers are never satisfied that, the textbooks contain sufficient examples, which help students to improve their ability in writing skills

Finally, 50% of the teachers agree that, the textbooks contain a sufficient number of examples, which help students to improve their ability in writing skills.

2.1.10 Item two

" The writing activities which are given to students are not enough to motivate and encourage students to practice their writing skill properly".

Table (4.10): Writing activities are not enough to motivate students

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Never	2	6.7	6.7	6.7
	Rarley	1	3.3	3.3	10.0
Valid	Sometimes	11	36.7	36.7	46.7
	Usually	16	53.3	53.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
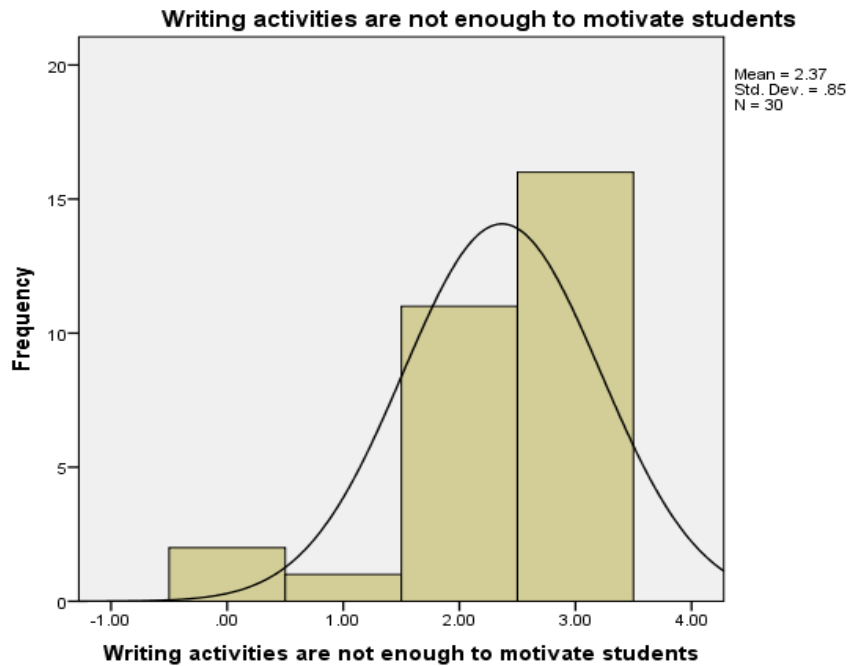
Histogram (4.10) : Writing activities are not enough to motivate students

The curve in histogram (4.10) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.10) shows that:

1) 53.3% of the sample agree that, the writing activities which are given to students are usually not enough to motivate and encourage students to practice their writing skill properly.

2) 36.7% of the sample agree that, the writing activities which are given to students are sometimes not enough to motivate and encourage students to practice the writing skill properly.

3) 6.7% of the sample agree that, the writing activities which are given to students are never enough to motivate and encourage students to practice the writing skill properly.

4) 3.3% of the sample agree that, the writing activities which are given to students are rarely enough to motivate and encourage students to practice the writing skill properly.

So, it can be concluded that, more than half of the teachers agree that, the writing activities which are given to students are not enough to motivate and encourage them to practice the writing skill properly.

4.1.11 Item three

" The time allotted to writing activities is usually insufficient".

Table (4.11): Time allotted for writing activities is insufficient

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Never	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Rarley	2	6.7	6.7	10.0
Valid	Sometimes	11	36.7	36.7	46.7
	Usually	16	53.3	53.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	
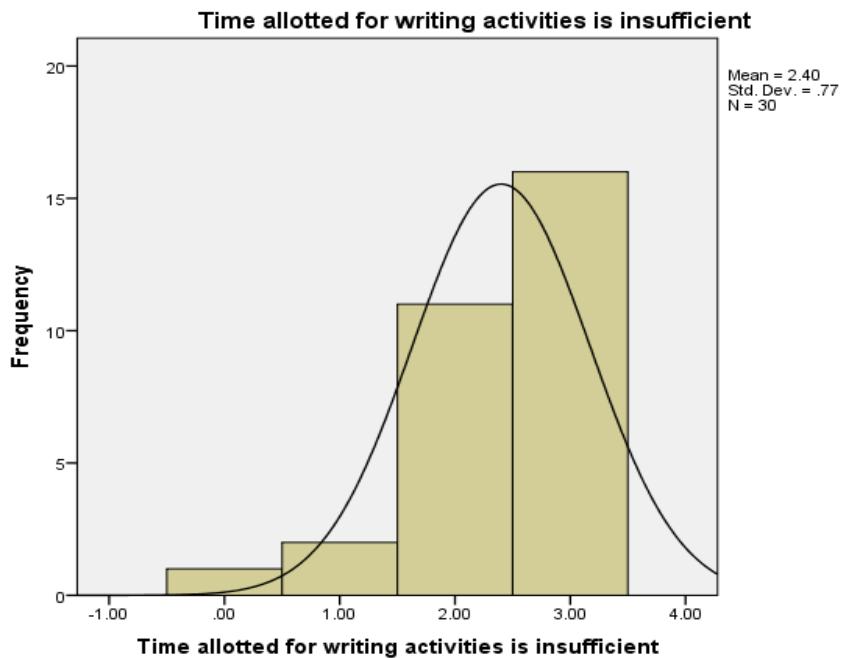
Histogram (4.11): Time allotted for writing activities is insufficient

The curve in histogram (4.11) shows that, the data of this item is normally distributed. The table (4.11) shows that:

1) 53.3% of the sample agree that, the time allotted to writing activities is usually insufficient.

2) 36.7% of the sample agree that, the time allotted to writing activities is sometimes insufficient.

3) 6.7% of the sample agree that, the time allotted to writing activities is rarely insufficient.

4) 3.3% of the sample agree that, the time allotted to writing activities is never insufficient.

So, it can be said that, the majority of the teachers agree that, the time allotted to writing activities is usually insufficient.

4.2 The students' test

This section presents the data analysis of the five sections of the test.

1) Word Order
2) S-V agreement
3) Passive Constructions
4) Defining Clauses
5) Non- defining Clauses

4.2.1 overall statistic

Table (4.12) below gives the overall statistics of the five sections.

Table (412): Statistics

		Word order	S-V agreement	Passive constructions	Defining clauses	Non-defining clauses
N	Valid	50	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.4200	2.5000	2.7800	1.2200	1.4200
Median		4.5000	2.0000	3.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Mode		5.00	2.00	3.00	1.00	1.00
Std. Deviation		1.65480	1.14731	1.18304	.78999	1.03194

The table presents the following statistics:-

1. **Word order**

- The full mark here is (8).

- The mean is (4.4200). This means that, most of the students achieved a bit over the half mark. Which can be considered a low mark for university students.

- The mode is (5) which means that, the most frequent mark is (5); again this is a very low mark.

- The Sandard Deviation is (1.65480) which > (1). This means that, the data is spread out which indicates a big variation of score.

From this, it can be concluded that, the performance of students in relation to the word order is not satisfactory.

2. S-V agreement

- The full mark here is (5).

- The mean is (2.5000). This means that, most of the students achieved half and less than half mark. Which can be considered as a low mark for university students.

- The mode is (2) which means that, the most frequent mark is (2); this is a very low mark.

- The Standard Deviation is (1.14731) which > (1). This means that, the data is spread out which indicates a slight variation of score.

From this, it can be concluded that, the performance of students in regard to S-V agreement is bad.

3. Passive Constructions

- The full mark here is (5).

- The mean is (2.7800). This means that, the students achieved a bit over the half mark. Which can be regarded as a low mark for university students.

- The mode is (3). Which means that the most frequent mark is (3); this is a very low mark.

- The Standard Deviation is (1.18304) which > (1). This means that, the data is spread out which indicates a minor variation of score.

Finally, it can be said that, the performance of students in relation to passive constructions is not satisfactory .

4. Defining clause

- The full mark here is (3).

- The mean is (1.2200). This means that, most of the students achieved low mark out of the half mark. Which can be considered a very low mark for university students.

- The mode is (1). Which means that, the most frequent mark is (1) even a lower mark.

- The Standard Deviation is (.78999) which < (1). This means that, the data is spread out which indicated a big minor variation of score.

- From this, it can be said that, the performance of students in terms of defining clauses is very bad.

5. Non-defining clauses

● The full mark is (3).

● The mean is (1.4200) this means that, most of the students achieved below the half mark which can be regarded as a very low mark for university students.

● The mode is (1) which means that, the most frequent mark is (1); this is a very low mark.

● The Standard Deviation is (1.03194) which > (1). This means that the data is spread out which indicates a minor variation in the score.

From this, it can be concluded that, the performance of students in relation to non-defining clauses is poor.

4.2.2 Separate analysis of test section

This section will now look at each section in the test separately.

4.2.2 .1 Word order

Table (4.13) below shows the analysis of data related to word order in percentile form.

Table (4.13): Word order

|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
	1.00	1	2.0	2.0	4.0
	2.00	3	6.0	6.0	10.0
	3.00	10	20.0	20.0	30.0
	4.00	10	20.0	20.0	50.0
	5.00	12	24.0	24.0	74.0
	6.00	8	16.0	16.0	90.0
	7.00	4	8.0	8.0	98.0
	8.00	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	
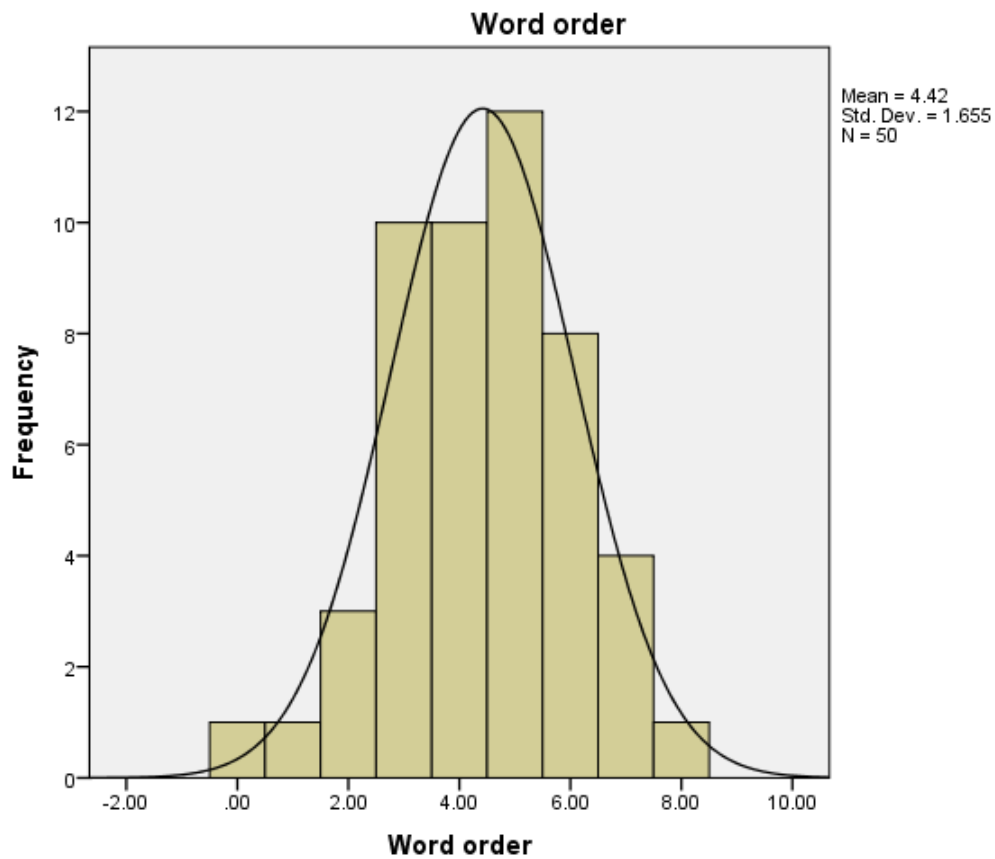
Histogram (4.13): Word order

The curve in the histogram shows a normal distribution of data.

The table shows that, (74%) of the students scored (5) out of (8) or less.

It shows that (26%) scored (6) out of (8) or more. This means that, the

performance of the majority of students in writing well-formed sentence

is not up to the required standard.

4.2.2.2 S-V agreement

Table (4.14): S-V agreement

|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	3	6.0	6.0	6.0
	1.00	5	10.0	10.0	16.0
	2.00	18	36.0	36.0	52.0
	3.00	12	24.0	24.0	76.0
	4.00	12	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	
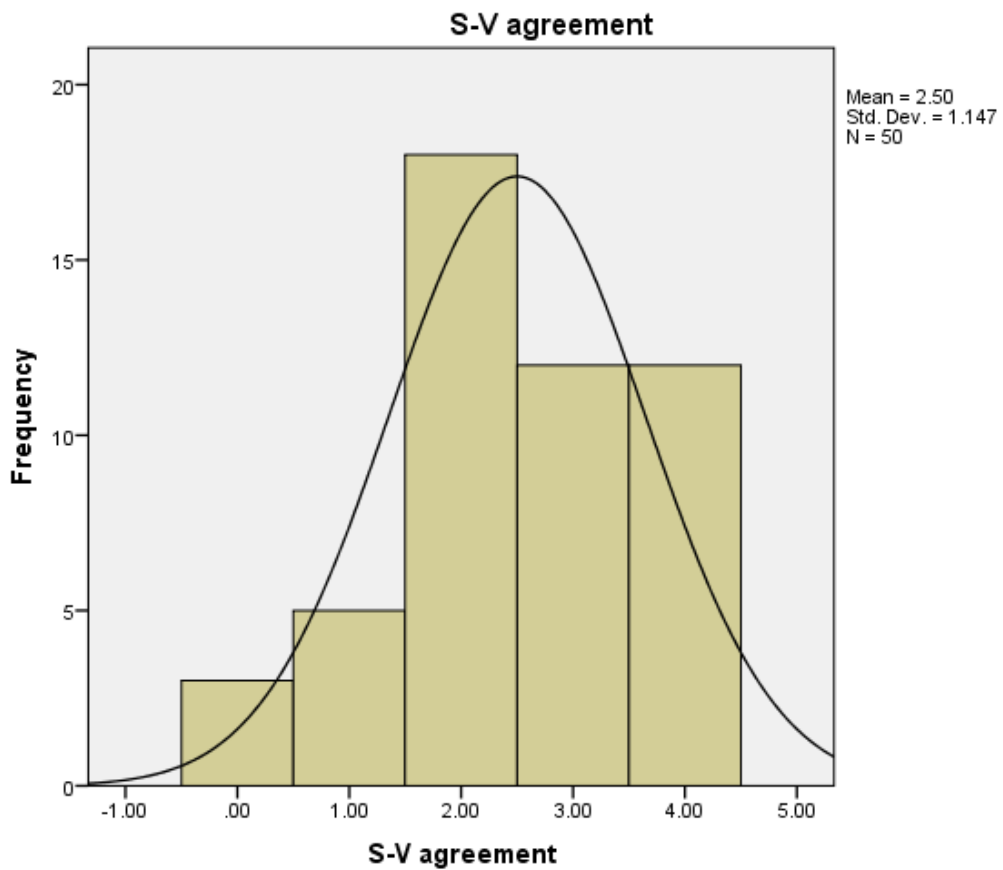
Histogram (4.14): S-V agreement

The curve in the histogram (4.14) shows a normal distribution of data. The table shows that, (52%) of the students scored (2) out of (5) or less. It shows that, (48%) scored (3) out of (5) or more. This means that, the performance of the most of students in constructing well- formed sentences is not up to the required standard.

4.2.2.3 Question three: Passive constructions

Table (4.15): Passive constructions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	.00	2	4.0	4.0	4.0
	1.00	5	10.0	10.0	14.0
	2.00	12	24.0	24.0	38.0
Valid	3.00	16	32.0	32.0	70.0
	4.00	13	26.0	26.0	96.0
	5.00	2	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	
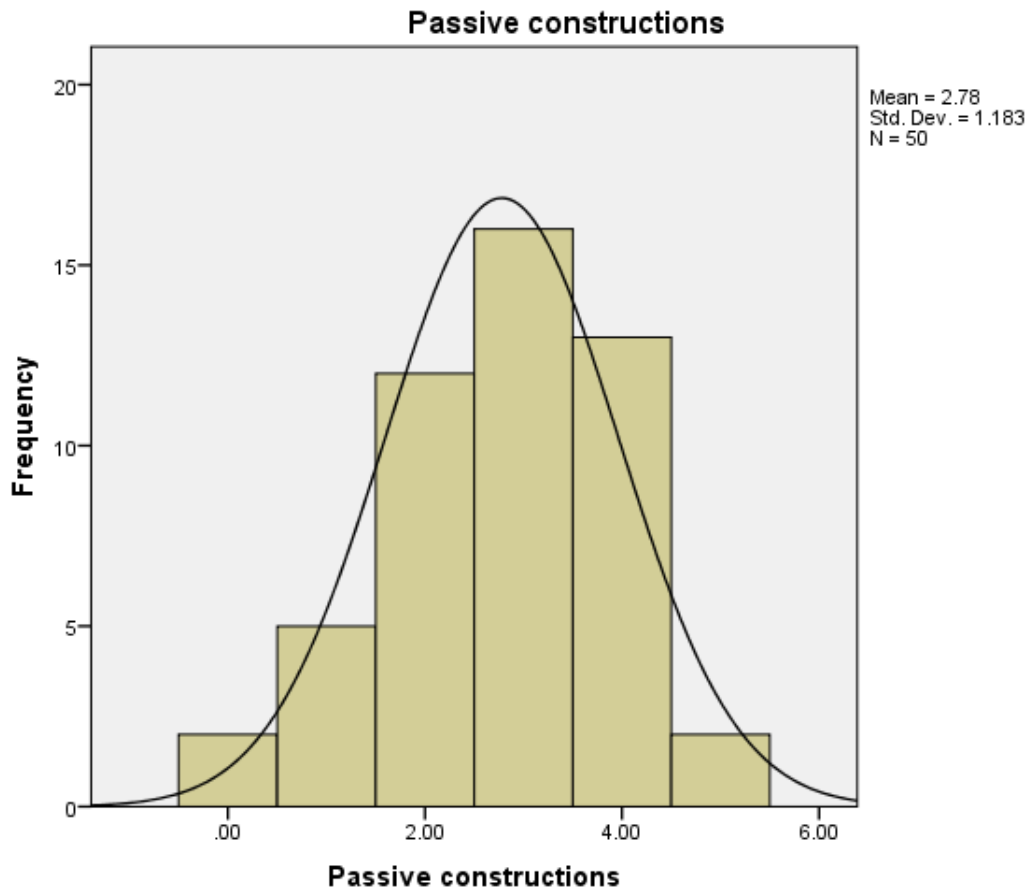
Histogram (4.15): Passive constructions

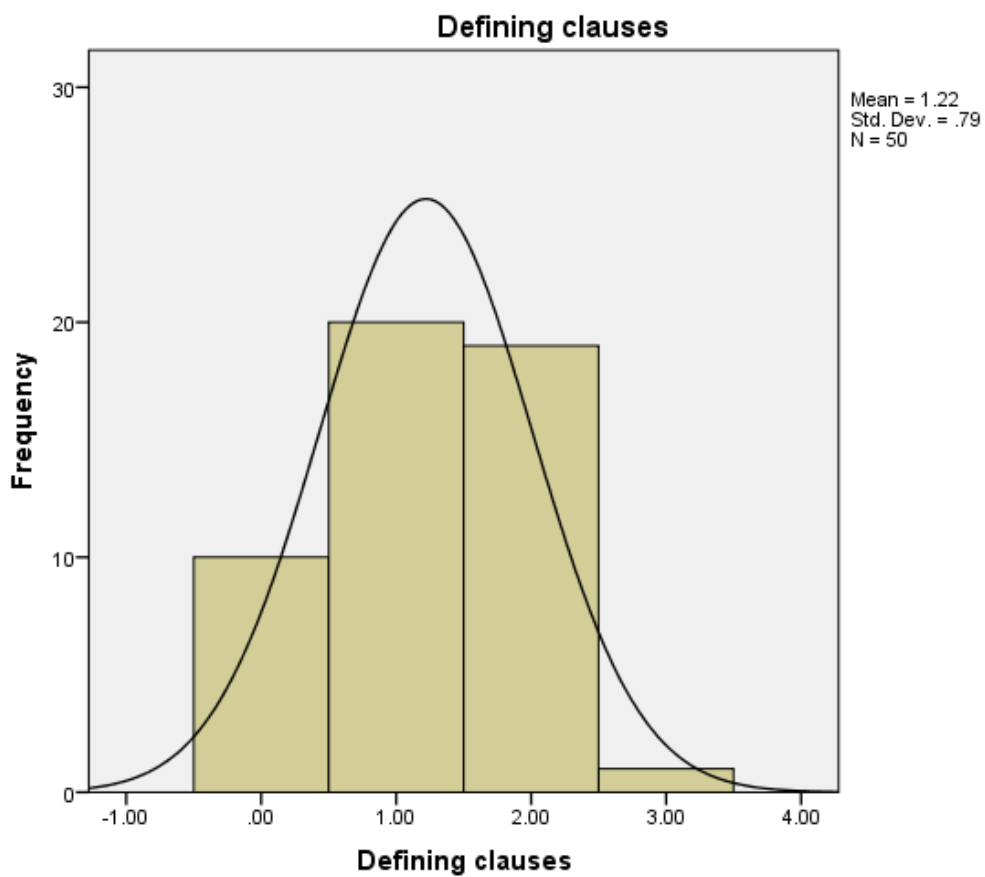The curve in the histogram (4.15) shows a normal distribution of data. The table shows that, (70%) of the students scored (3) out of (5) or less. It shows that, (30%) scored (4) out of (5) or more. This means that, the performance of the greater number of students in passive constructions is poor

4.2.2.4 Question four: Defining clauses

Table (4.16): Defining clauses

|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	10	20.0	20.0	20.0
	1.00	20	40.0	40.0	60.0
	2.00	19	38.0	38.0	98.0
	3.00	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Histogram: (4.16): Defining clauses

The curve in the histogram (4.16) shows a normal distribution of data. The table shows that, (60%) of the students scored (1) out of (3) or less. It shows that (40%) scored (2) out of (3) or more. This means that, the performance of the majority of students in defining clauses is bad.

4.2.2.5 Question five: Non-defining clauses

Table (4.17): Non-defining clauses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	11	22.0	22.0	22.0
	1.00	16	32.0	32.0	54.0
	2.00	14	28.0	28.0	82.0
	3.00	9	18.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	
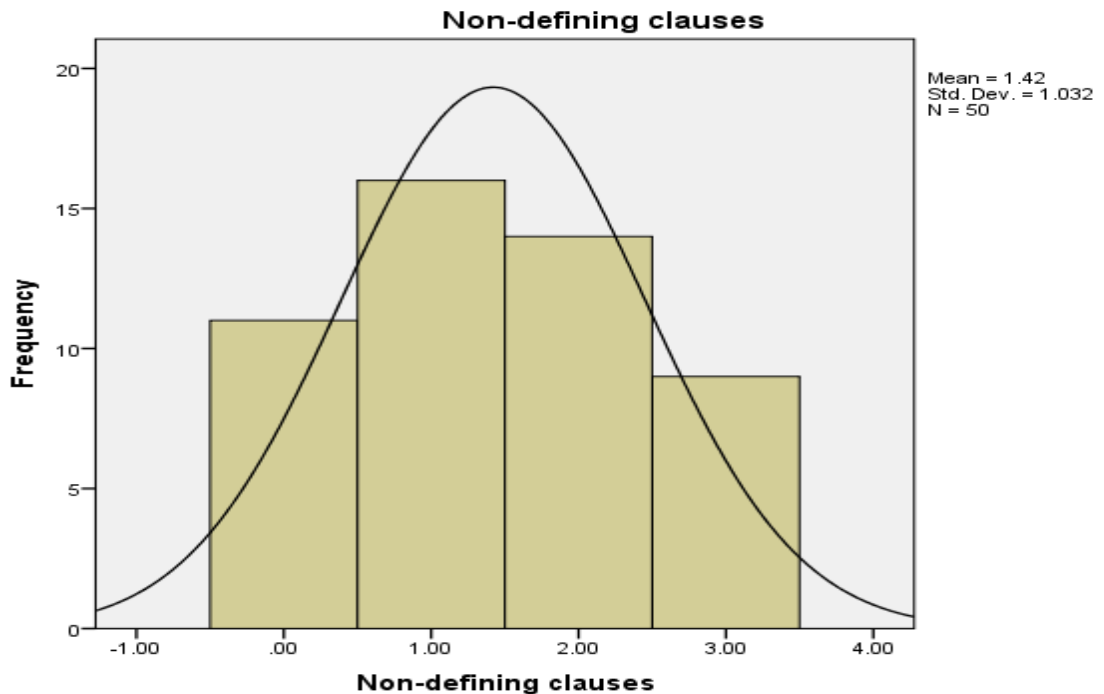
Histogram (4.17): Non-defining clauses

The curve in the histogram (4.17) shows a normal distribution of data. The table shows that, (54%) of the students scored (1) out of (3) or less. It shows that (46%) scored (2) out of (3) or more. This means that, the performance of the most number of students in non-defining clauses is also bad.

CHAPTER FIVE

Findings, Recommendations, and Suggestions for further studies

5.0 Findings

The researcher gives a brief summary of the findings in five points:

1. Errors which are committed by third year university students due to intralingual errors. (overgeneralization of the rules).

2. Students also committed errors as a cause of interlanguage errors. (The effect of mother tongue).

3. Teachers always correct errors that relate to grammar and mechanics of writing.

4. The writing activities which are given to students are not sufficient to practice writing skills.

5. The classroom time is not enough to allow students to practice writing activities.

5.1 Recommendations

Based on these results, five points of recommendations are mentioned:

1. The techniques which are used by the teachers in initial phase of teaching new structures and patterns in second language should be effective.

2. Students need qualified teachers to teach writing skills.

3. Students also should improve their level by reading, listening, and speaking.

4. Teachers should give students more practises.

5. Teachers should correct errors that relate to sentence constructions.

5.2 Suggestions for further studies

There are four topics which are suggested as further studies:

a. Focusing on problems which face university students in writing Paragraphs.

b. Investigating errors which are committed by students in mechanics of writing.

c. Examining problems encountered by students in writing preposition of time and Place.

d. Highlighting Errors which are committed by students in using punctuation marks.

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5.4 Appendix(1)

Both the test and the questionnaire were given to four specialized teachers: Dr. Amna Mohamed Badri, Dr. Tagelsir Hassan Bashoum, Dr. Ienas Ahmed Abdelrahman, and Dr. Hillary Marino Pitia. They checked the test and the questionnaire and then provided their suggestions and recommendations which the researcher used to make the necessary correction.

Dr. Amna Mohamed Badri

Head of English Language Unit and Dean of Institute of Language

at Ahfad University for Women

Dr. Tagelsir Hassan Bashoum

Assistant Professor

Sudan University of Science and Technology

Faculty of Language

Dr. Ienas Ahmed Abdel rahman Fadel

Assistant professor

Sudan University of Science and Technology

Faculty of Education

Language Department

Head of English section

Dr. Hillary Marino Pita

He joined SUST , college of language in 1995 as a teaching assistance in 1999 Hillary obtained MA in translation from University of Khartoum. In 2007 he was promsted to a position of Assistant professor at the

college of languages. However, in 2011 his services were terminated in Sudan University. In 2012 he was appointed as Assistant professor in Juba University.

Appendix (2)

Sudan University of Science and Technology

Faculty of Education

Department of English Language

Subject: Questionnaire for Teachers of English Language Title of Research:" Investigating Errors Committed by University Students in English Sentence Structure"

You are kindly requested to respond to the following questionnaire regarding your attitude and views toward your students writing skills. Your responses are highly appreciated and will be used to improve writing skills in Sudanese Universities.

 Section one: Personal information tick as appropriate

1. Gender: Male [   ] Female [   ]

2. Qualifications: BA [   ] MA [   ] PhD [   ]

3. Experience years: 0- 5 [   ] 6-10 [   ] More than 10 years [   ]

Section two:

Respond to each question by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate place to indicate your choice.

No	Item	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1.	In word-order university students lack the ability to construct well-formed English sentences.				
2.	University students cannot form questions (wh-questions and Yes\ no questions) correctly.				
3.	In subject-verb agreement, students exhibit insufficient skill to match subject with its verb.				
4.	University students use the " verb to be" in the passive correctly.				
5.	University students are able to use "by" to precede the agent in passive construction.				
6.	Students use defining and non-defining clauses correctly.				

Section three:

No	Item	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1.	Teachers do not correct errors that relate to sentence structure.				
2.	Teachers only correct errors that relate to grammar and mechanics of writing.				

Section four:

No	Item	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1.	Teachers are satisfied that the text books contain sufficient examples, which help students to improve their level in writing skills.				
2.	The writing activities which are given to students are not enough to motivate and encourage students to practice the writing skill properly.				
3.	The time allotted to writing activities is usually insufficient.				

Appendix (3)

Sudan University of Science and Technology

Faculty of Education

English Department

Test

Third year (2015- 2016) Date: \5\2015

Name: ....

Class: ....

Instruction: Answer All The Questions

Time Allowed: 1:30 hrs

Choose the correct answer by putting a circle around it

(1)

a. This is a blue big cotton shirt.

b. This is a big blue cotton shirt.

c. This is a cotton big blue shirt.

(2)

a. He is late for work always.

b. He is late always for work .

c. He is always late for work .

(3)

a. Mona gave a book Sara.

b. Mona gave a book to Sara.

c. Mona gave Sara book.

(4)

a. Did have you a party in your house yesterday?

b. Have you did a party in your house yesterday?

c. Did you have a party in your house yesterday?

(5)

a When do your *parents get back?*

b. When your *parents* do *get back?*

c. When your *parents get* do *back?*

 (6)

a.   Is   being   the   new   secretary   given   her   own   laptop   ?
b. Is the new secretary given being her own laptop ?

c. Is the new secretary being given her own laptop ?

(7)

a. Why we can't have a second chance?

b. Why can't we have a second chance?

c. Why can't have we a second chance?

(8)

a. Will your grandfather to go Tokyo?

b. Will go your grandfather to Tokyo?

c. Will your grandfather go to Tokyo?

9. One of Omar's pencil sketches .... in the art classroom.

   a. hangs   b. hang

1o. Here .... the books I borrowed last month.

   a. are   b. is

11. Somebody .... been playing my record.

   a. have   b. has

12. Either the restaurant manager or his assistants .... to be

   fired for the spoiled meat.

   a. deserve   b. deserves

13. Mohammed is one of those people who ....very private.

   a. is   b. are

14. The bridge .... over 300 years ago.

   a. built   b. has been built c. have built

15. The window is broken .... Rania.

   a. by   b. with   c. from

16. A letter .... to Ahmed yesterday.

   a. is sent   b. sent   c. was sent

17. Drinks ....into the art gallery.

  a. Should not be taken   b. Should not take c. Should not taken

18. The woman was .... in the arm.

  a. bite   b. bites   c. bitten

(19)

a. My brother ,who a teacher, is older than me.

b. My brother, who he is a teacher, is older than me.

c. My brother, who is a teacher, is older than me.

(20)

a. The mountain which we climbed yesterday was the highest mountain in Britain.

b.The mountain which climbed yesterday was the highest mountain in Britain.

 c. The mountain which we climbed it yesterday was the highest mountain in Britain.

 (21)

a. The camera that bought yesterday does not work.

b. The camera that Omer bought yesterday does not work.

c. The camera that Omer bought it yesterday does not work.

(22)

a. I have just come back from London, where **lives.**

b. I have just come back from London where **John live.**

c. I have just come back from London, where **John lives.**

(23)

a. Yesterday I met a woman named Susan, whose **husband works in Khartoum**.

b. Yesterday I met a woman named Susan, whose **works in Khartoum**.

c. Yesterday I met a woman named Susan, whose **husband work in Khartoum**.

(24)

a. Yesterday was a day when went wrong!

b. Yesterday was a day when everything went wrong!

c. Yesterday was when everything went wrong!