<div dir="rtl">

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

</div>

Sudan University of Science & Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

Investigating Difficulties in Understanding Written Texts Arising from Syntactic Structures

<div dir="rtl">

تقصي الصعوبات في فهم النصوص المكتوبه الناجمة من التراكيب النحوية

</div>

(A Case Study of Sudan University of Science and Technology)

A thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Ph.D. in English Language (Applied Linguistics)

Submitted by :

Amani Ebrahim Ahmed Salih

Supervised by:

Dr. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed

Oct. 2016

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

الأيـــــــة :Quranic Verse

قال تعالى:

﴿ وَمَا أُوتِيتُمْ مِنَ الْعِلْمِ إِلَّا قَلِيلًا ﴾

﴿ الإسراء : 85 ﴾ Holy Quran

I

DEDICATION

To my beloved parents and family members

Acknowledgements

All praise is due to Allah the Almighty Who assisted me and guided me to a final target of this effort. .I owe this work to those who assisted me and guided this work to it's final destination. Special thank go to Dr. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed, Sudan University of Science and Technology, who supervised this research over the years and helped me in writing it. I would like to express my warm thank to professor Ahmed Babeker Al Taher for his untired help without which this research could not have been edited and directed I am really indebted to him. My acknowledgments also go to my colleagues in Al Neelain University Faculty of Arts, who never give up their assistance whenever I consulted them. I am alos indebted to Sudan University of   Science and Technology for the chance of teaching the students to come out with this result in the process of higher studies. My Acknowledgement is extended to everyone who rendered a helping hand to me to carry out this task.

Abstract

This study aimed to investigate difficulties in understanding written texts arising from syntactic structures. It is a case study of students at Sudan University College of Languages". It concentrates on investigating the diversified views that English language teachers at Sudan University of Sciences and Technology have about the difficulties arising from misunderstanding of syntactic structures of English, as well as testing university students through pre/ post test inside the classroom so as to see their fluency and accuracy as well as standing on their understanding of syntactic structures and common mistakes when they occurred or carried out in the wrong way. Great hope that, this investigation will help in the diagnosis of these problems (see chapter 2)..The population of the study consists of 30 English language teachers from different Sudanese universities in Khartoum state who have differences in their experience as well as in their universities whether they are supervisor, lecturers in governmental Universities and others experts in the field. In addition to130 students from Sudan University of Science and Technology third year who were chosen from the odd number of the list of the students. The data collection consist of questionnaire for the teachers and pre/post test for the students. The hypotheses of the study confirmed the existence of these problems of difficulties and misunderstanding of the written texts as far as the study concerned. Moreover, from the pre and post test, many problems appeared from the students answers. The study ended by recommendations related to the different views given by the English language teachers at Sudan University of Science and Technology and others in Khartoum locality, whether they are doctors, supervisors or experts in the field of teaching . In addition to that, there are suggestions for further studies in the same area.

(Arabic Version)

مستخلص البحث(Abstract)

هدفت هذه الدراسة الي تقصي الصعوبات الناجمة عن سوء فهم التراكيب النحوية للنصوص المكتوبة من خلال الطريقة التجريبية . تمثل الرسالة دراسة حالة طلاب السنة الثالثة بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنلوجيا. تركز الدراسة علي تقصى اختلاف وجهات النظر لمعلمي اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة السودان والتكنلوجيا فيما يخص صعوبات قواعد التراكيب فى اللغة الانجليزية والاخطاء الناجمة عن ذلك. بالاضافة الي اجراء اختبار قبلي وبعدي الي عينة لطلاب اللغة الانجليزية للوقوف على مدى طلاقة الطلاب ومدى دقة فهمهم لهذه التراكيب ومعرفة الاخطاء الناجمة عن سوء فهمهم و التي تم تسجيلها اثناء الاختبار.تتكون بيانات هذه الدراسة من المجتمع الدراسي، بعض العينات والنماذج، جمع البيانات،عامل الصدق والثبات، بالاضافة الى الاجراءات التي اتبعها الباحث لتحقيق الهدف من الدراسة.يتكون المجتمع الدراسي من 30 معلم ومعلمة بولاية الخرطوم يختلفون في خبراتهم والجامعات التي يعملون بها. بالاضافه الى 130 من طلاب الصف الثالث بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنلوجا بكلية اللغات و اللذين تم اختيارهم عشوائيا. اكدت الدراسة وجود صعوبات في فهم التراكيب اللغوية وفقا لفرضيات الدراسة حيث تراوحت اجابات الغالبية من المعلمين والمعلمات مابين (اوافق بشدة/ اوافق) كما ظهرت كثير من الصعوبات اللغوية وسوء فهمها عند اجراء الاختبار القبلي والبعدي لدي الطلاب.خلصت الدراسة الى توصيات وفق وجهات النظر المختلفة لمعلمي اللغة الانجليزية بالجامعات بولاية الخرطوم والى بعض الاقتراحات لمزيد من الدراسات في هذا المجال.

Table of contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter One

Introduction

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.1. Context of the Study

ESL learners are plagued by quite a number of texts to read. Reading, undoubtedly, account for much of the knowledge they acquire and further boost their understanding of the different disciplines they are likely to come across. Consequently, understanding written texts is remarkably linked with reading. Syntactic structures, the present study will form the point of departure in examining the factors that pose difficulties or challenges for learners to have a good grasp of the written texts. Scores of students waste such a precious time in understanding written texts as they mainly rely on dictionaries to clarify the intricacies with which a written text is marred. Without a doubt, there are other factors besides semantic ones, which can actually prevent them from making any sense of a written text.

Having a good knowledge of syntactic structures, for understanding written texts, is as important as enjoying large stock of word-power. Understanding how adjectives are used in written texts for example, can sometimes prove much more useful than a dictionary. It is not unusual for a student to pore over a text for many hours with a dictionary and still not understand it very well. However, if their attention is drawn to other factors that had the effect of impeding their understanding, this could have turned their frustrating experience of reading a written text into a more pleasurable and profitable one.

For these reasons, it is essential that ESL students are helped as much as possible with the syntactic structures found the written texts and even trained to recognize and handle them.

Reading and understanding written texts are two inseparable experiences. By detecting the syntactic structures, handling them carefully and efficiently, the researcher, seeks to suggest to the mainstream teachers to help their students become effective readers.

To clarify this point quite considerably, there are numerous factors responsible for rendering a written text inexplicable or difficult to grasp. Apart from linguistic factors, obvious difficulty relates to the legibility of a text. ESL students may have problems that are caused solely by the fact that what they are trying to understand has been poorly printed or copied, is badly set-out or is in a very small type-face.

Another factor which can account for difficulty in a written message is the use of unfamiliar words, as for example in such a sentence*: His radical views place him outside the mainstream of American politics*. The words radical and mainstream can pose some challenges to some learners, hence detriment their understanding of perhaps the whole text.

Yet, a further hurdle can be posed in cases where the necessary understanding background knowledge is not there. Unless the student has a fundamental of statistic structures, for example, there is little point for him/her looking up the unknown words in the following passage since the definitions are unlikely to further comprehension. Consider the following example:

To minimize two unknowns we differentiate with respect to each variable in turn treating the other variable as a constant. The process is called partial differentiation and the notation used is standard.

Difficult concepts can be thought of as forming a larger part of accessing a written text.

Consider the following construction:

The appeal of the view that a work of art expresses nothing unless what it expresses can be put into words can be reduced by setting beside it another view, no less popular in the theory of art, that a work of art has no value if what it expresses can be put into words.

The words in themselves are not excessively complicated and no special background knowledge is required, but the concept expressed in the passage is complex.

The above text about art is also difficult because of its syntactic complexity. In general, long sentences containing subordinate or embedded clauses tend to be less immediately intelligible than shorter, simpler ones. For example, the second instruction below is probably more readily understood than the first, which contains an embedded participial clause.

1- Explain clearly using at least three different reasons or drawing three diagrams why McClelland lost the battle.

2- Explain clearly why McClelland lost the battle. Give at least three reasons or draw three diagrams.

Nominalization, which is the use of a noun in combination with an "empty" verb, is a feature of academic text that causes problems to ESL students. The following fragments give the same instruction. The second, containing a nominalization is likely to be the more difficult:

1- In your answer you should consider the effect of heat loss.

2- Consideration should be given in your answer to the effect of heat loss.

Polysemous words are words with multiple meanings. These can cause difficulty if the student has learned one meaning of the word, but the word has a different meaning in the context of the sentence the student is reading. An example is the word solution which can mean either the answer to a problem or a mixture of two substances. Mathematics is full of words that ESL students are

likely to have learned first with their everyday meaning: table, mean, power, even, volume, root, etc.

Jokes and puns are frequently based on the polysemous nature of the words they contain, which is why they are usually so difficult for ESL students

Another syntactic feature of academic text is to has complex noun groups. The Following is an example of a noun (system) which is both pre-modified by an adjective and 3 nouns and post-modified by a phrase that omits the relative pronoun and copula (that is <u>intended</u> ...). This kind of noun group can be very sproblematic for language learners.

He invented a rudimentary binary data-transmission system intended to be operable over distances of more than 10 meters.

Cohesion refers to the way writers link phrases, clauses and sentences into a coherent whole. However, a mature and pleasing style can be impenetrable to language learners. In the pairs of sentences below, the first one in each case will probably be more difficult to understand than the second:

1- John bought a red pencil and Mary a blue one.

2- John bought a red pencil and Mary bought a blue pencil.

1-The killer whale tosses the penguin into the air and generally torments itsprey before it eats it.

2-The killer whale tosses the penguin into the air and generally torments the penguin before eating it.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

To a greater extent the teaching learning operation is immensely attributed to good construction and the talents of the teacher. Students, in many instances are well placed to grasp the learning or teaching material if carefully prepared and presented. For the students to understand a text perfectly well, teachers have to interfere quite positively.

Some of what students have to read will be prepared by the teacher. So a good teacher knows the levels and the abilities of their students, and hence their selection of the subject matter has to be in harmony with that. Much of what the students have to read, however, will come from textbooks or, more recently, from the Internet. Clearly, the tutor has no control over the content and style of these passages; what they can do however is to decide whether or not to use the text at all with their students, or with their ESL students. Alternatively, they could choose to rewrite the text to make it more accessible.

Supposing you want to use a difficult passage is to be used from a textbook as it is, there are a variety of strategies that students can apply to make certain that they have a better opportunity of understanding. Some of the more common ones are SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review) and KWL (What do I know, what do I want to know, what have I learned) or other kinds of graphic organizer.

1.3. Significance of the problem

The significance of the present study arises from the fact that it is an attempt to handle the question of understanding written texts in isolation of the traditionally pursued path of vocabulary. From the researcher own experience as a student, the researcher come to believe that syntactic structures have a great role in understanding written texts. Moreover, it is not well studied or master by students learning English. Therefore, the researcher will attempt to analyze, summarize, and highlight the area of difficulties in the study. The researcher will make a survey around syntactic structures in general and concentrated on adjective in particular .In quite a number of studies, the main reason for failure to understand a written text is largely attributed to poor vocabulary. However, the researcher hopes to present new factors greatly linked with syntactic structures.

A syntactic structure is such a wide area which needs to be curtailed to be effectively handled. The scope of this study will be narrowed down to dealing with the use of adjectives [and] how they complicate or set hurdles for understanding. What further makes this study significant, is that ,very few people, to the best of the researchers knowledge have set out to consider the factors impeding understanding other that than semantic ones.

1.4. Objectives

This thesis takes as its basic objective the examination of the factors other than semantic ones which pose specific difficulty for second language learners in Sudanese context. Lots of factors have been already cited not neglecting how they can be handled. However, the emphasis is on how to help students apply their reading strategies quite independently. Understanding what they read is only one of the difficulties faced by ESL

1.5. Questions

1. To what extent that syntactic structures present in a written text can hurdle understanding?

2. How far is it possible teaching reading strategies can help students circumvent structural difficulties embedded in a text?

3.To what extent is it possible to suggest that having a full grasp of syntactic structures is enough to understand a written text?

1.6. Hypotheses

1. Syntactic structures found in written texts can pose hurdles to understanding.

2. Reading strategies can help students circumvent structural and syntactic difficulties embedded in written texts. (The researcher assumes that students learning English are comprehensively aware of syntactic structures) .

3. Having a full grasp of syntactic structures can sometimes enough to understand a written text.

1.7 Methodology

In this study experimental methods will be adopted. A couple of test namely pre and post tests will be conducted to collect information. A questionnaire for the tutors will be distributed, and analyzed by SPSS. The researcher will also confirm the validity and the reliability of the research tools before their application.

1.8. Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.

Chapter Two

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework
Part one: Theoretical Framework

2.1 Syntax

The word syntax derives from the Greek word syntic , which means arrangement. Morphology deals with word formation out of morphemes; syntax deals with phrase and sentence formation out of words. Syntax is the part of grammar that represents speaker's knowledge about a sentence or even a text and their structures.

The rules of syntax combine words into phrases and phrases into sentences. Among other things the rules specify the correct words order for a language.

e.g. English is SVO language so;

1. The president nominated Jack as a new supreme court, is a meaningful and grammatical because the words occur in the right order, while

2. President as the a new supreme justice nominated Jack., is ungrammatical and meaningless because the words order are incorrect for English language.

Furthermore, an important role of syntax is to describe the relationship between a particular group of words and the arrangement of it to get meaning. The word order of the sentence contributes significantly to its meaning.

The following sentences in (3) and (4) contain the same words. But in different order, hence it result in different meaning

3. He ran up the hill

4. He ran the hill up

Words and phrases can be grouped according to their sentence building functions. Syntactic classes of words are traditionally called parts of speech.

English has the following parts of speech: verb, noun, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, verbal particle (the off in turn off the light), article.

Note.

The following test to determine what is a preposition and what is a verbal particle in English :

a). The mouse ran ups the clock--up the clock he ran. (Prepositional phrases can be fronted).

b.) The man ran up a big bill. Up the big bill he ran. (Verbal particles cannot.) Also: The mouse ran up it (pronoun is object of the prep and can follow the preposition) but not, the mouse ran it up. The man ran it up (pronoun is object of the verb and follows the verb) not *The man ran up it. Adapted from Syntax (by Edward J. Vajda).

The rule of syntax specify the grammatical relation of the text and provides the information which permit the hearer to understand who is doing what to whom which is crucial for meaning (5) and (6) are reversed , so the otherwise identical sentences have different meaning

5. Your dog chased my son.

6. My son chased your dog.

According to Victora Formkin, Robert Rodman, and Nina Hyams in An Introduction to Language (1986-P120) ,these and other constraints that a sentences must adhere to (some verbs must be followed by some things and that some things must be animated or not and so on and so forth). In the sentence, Sara slept the baby is incorrect. If we asked to correct it we can come up with something like "Sara puts the baby to sleep" which is not possible sentence of English, to be a sentence, words must confirm to specific patterns determined by the syntactic rules of the language. A fundamental fact about words in all languages is that they can be grouped together into relatively small number of classes, call syntactic categories. This classification reflects variety of factors. Included the style of meaning that words express, the types of structures in addition to other factors (affixes they can take)

2.2.1 Syntactic Structures

The researcher is intended to provide a brief overview of some of the topics that will be covered under the name of syntactic structures. The material is presented in the context of examining several different, but equivalent representations of sentence structure. The sentence analysis model discussed here is based in part on the constituent theory of sentence structure. Therefore, the overview begins with a review of some of the intuitive notions that give rise to the constituent theory of sentence analysis and to the concept of a phrase-structure grammar. Other topics discussed included in this overview.

The constituent-structure theory of sentence analysis derives from the perception that the words of a sentence seem to combine naturally into recognizable units. A simple active declarative sentence, for example, appears to consist of three components: a subject, a verb, and an object, where the subject is a unit which includes words that identify the author or agent of an action; the verb identifies this action, and the object consists of words that identify the target, result, or theme of the action.

While the subject and object can each consist of a single word, that being a noun which names someone or something, both constituents often include other words, such as adjectives, that describe, explain, or elaborate whatever the noun names. It is the resulting collection of words that is then recognized as comprising the unit which functions as the subject or object of the sentence.

Furthermore, the object and the verb together are seen as making up another, more comprehensive sentence constituent that is identified as the predicate. A sentence is therefore perceived as being composed of two major functional units, namely, its subject and predicate. The composition or structure of a sentence is consequently regarded as a hierarchy formed as successive collections of words which combined into progressively more comprehensive or inclusive constituents.

These perceptions of sentence structure give rise the intuition that constituents such as the subject and predicate somehow play a role in the processing a sentence by the cognitive system. Experimental evidence can, in fact, be cited that lends credence to claims for the psychological reality of these sentence constituents and which corroborates the intuition that they are realized in cognitive processes. It is consequently supposed that the cognitive system does undertake processes whereby combinations of words are identified as comprising the functional units of a sentence. These cognitive processes entail the recognition that there are several different kinds or varieties of word.

2.2.1. Lexical Categories

Although some kinds of word are recognized as sharing characteristics, they are also identified by the cognitive system as differing in terms of the functions perform in the sentence. The nouns and adjectives, for example, share the characteristic that they both serve to identify things, but they are recognized to play different roles in a sentence, with a noun naming something and an adjective describing it. Both varieties of word are identified as differing from others such as the verbs that are associated with actions, and adverbs that elaborate upon actions represented by verbs or that amplify descriptions conveyed by adjectives. The cognitive system obviously does not explicitly acknowledge these word classes as such, but operates on the basis of the different qualities of the words comprising the classes.

The distinctions and similarities among varieties of word form the basis of the familiar convention for classifying individual words in terms of their part of speech. According to this convention, parts of speech, or lexical categories as they are also known, are identified by labels such as V for the verb and Adv for the adverb categories, with the N and the A or Adj labels being associated with the noun and adjective lexical categories, respectively. These labels of course play no role in cognitive processes; the cognitive system is not conceived of as a

symbol processor. Rather, the labels form the basis of a system for representing and describing the analysis of sentences.

2.2.2. Syntactic Categories

The system for classifying words into lexical categories therefore extends to the classification of sentence constituents into syntactic categories. These categories are usually described as phrases, and their characteristics or properties derive from the properties or characteristics of the words that make them up. The predominant properties that characterize each particular variety of phrases, and which establish the role it plays in a sentence, are determined by the properties of the principal or head word that it includes.

The head word of the subject or object of a sentence, for example, is a noun so that these constituents are classified as noun phrases and are identified by the NP label. Since the verb is regarded as the head of the predicate, this constituents classified as a verb phrase and is identified by the VP label. A sentence can thus be represented as consisting of noun phrase and verb phrase syntactic categories. The sentence itself is classified as a syntactic category with the label S.

Formalization of the foregoing classification system, and of the intuitions regarding sentence structure that form the basis of this system, is called a grammar. Most grammars incorporate in some manner the notion that sentences can be analyzed in terms of syntactic categories such as the noun and verb phrases. There are exceptions, such as the Word Grammar, wherein the role of syntactic categories is played by relationships among words or word to word dependencies. .The relationships and interword dependencies of Word Grammar therefore represent the word combination aspect and syntactic categories that is inherent in the constituent-structure theory of sentence analysis. The grammars that are generally regarded as the prototypical formalizations of this theory, however, and which are still most frequently

applied in cognitive models of sentence processing, are variants of the phrase-structure grammars.

2.2.3. Rewriting Rules

Phrase-structure grammars are often characterized as rule-based because the classification of words and the formation of phrases is described by a collection of rules.

For example, the classification of words such as 'cats,' 'like,' and 'nice' into the noun, verb, and adjective lexical categories, respectively, may be represented by lexical rules of the form N dogs, V like, and A nice. The arrow is often read as 'is replaced by' or 'rewrites as' when it is regarded as denoting a symbol replacement operator in the application of a phrase-structure grammar to produce sentences. Hence, rules of this form are usually called rewriting rules.

The arrow symbol may also be read as 'includes' or 'is the parent of' when the rule is understood to express a constituency relation on the categories for which the symbols in a rule serve as labels. For example, a noun phrase category may be regarded as including or being the parent of adjective and noun categories, and this fact may be represented by a phrase-structure rule of the form NP□A N. The blank between the right-hand side symbols A and N, which may be read as 'and,' can be treated as representing a concatenation of the symbols, or as a combination or composition of the categories to the right of the arrow to produce the category on the left in the rule. The left-hand side category may be referred to as the 'parent' or 'mother' of the right-hand side 'children' or 'daughters' categories, with each of these categories being described as the 'sibling' or 'sister' of the other.

A syntactic category may have only one daughter, as in the rule NP □ N, wherein the noun phrase is the parent of a noun category; but in rules with more than one category label on their right-hand side, the ordering of the labels determines the order of the corresponding categories in the sentence. For

example, the rule VP □ V NP describes the verb phrase category as the parent of verb and noun phrase daughters with the verb preceding its noun phrase sister. Similarly, according to the phrase-structure rule S □ NP VP that specifies the daughters of the sentence category, the verb phrase category follows its noun phrase sibling.

2.2.4. Phrase-Structure Grammar

A collection of lexical and phrase-structure rules such as those illustrated above comprise one of the four components of a conventional phrase-structure grammar. A phrase-structure grammar, G, is defined by the entries in an ordered quadruple of the form G = <V_N, V_T, S, P>.

Where the entries are identified as follows: V_N is a non terminal vocabulary consisting of the lexical and syntactic category labels (such as the N, V, NP, and VP symbols described above).

V_T denotes a set of words, called the terminal vocabulary of G.

S is a special member of V_N that, in addition to being the label of the sentence category, identifies the starting symbol of G.

P identifies the collection of rules, which is sometimes described as the production set of the grammar.

The sets V_N and V_T are not empty, but they are normally disjoint so that their intersection is empty.

2.2.5 Derivation of Sentences

Sentences can be produced or derived on the basis of G by beginning with the starting symbol and applying rewriting rules from the production set P. The grammar G is thus treated as a rewriting system whereby the elements of its non-terminal vocabulary V_N are treated as symbols that can be rewritten or replaced by applying rules from P. This rewriting process continues by applying rules with left-hand sides that match the non-terminal symbols produced by

previous replacements. The derivation stops when no further rules can be applied because all of the non-terminal symbols have been replaced by words from the terminal vocabulary V_T.

Note, however, that it is not considered that the cognitive system produces sentences by a rewriting or symbol replacement process. It is assumed only that the cognitive processes of sentence production are in some sense equivalent to the rewriting procedures. The cognitive system performs operations that can be described in their effect by the rewriting or replacement operations represented above.

The following sequence or string of words, for example

nice dogs like cats

can be derived if

$V_N = \{S, NP, VP, A, N, V\}$

$V_T = \{cats, dogs, like, nice\}$

and P includes the following productions:

S   □   NP VP

NP □ A N

NP □ N

VP □ V NP

N   □ dogs

N   □ cats

V   □ like

A   □ nice

The derivation begins by replacing S with the symbols NP and VP by applying the rule S □ NP VP. Each of the resulting symbols, namely NP and VP, can then be rewritten by applying the rules NP □ A N and VP □ V NP. This rewriting or replacement process continues until the string of words from V_T is produced.

2.2.6 Context-Free Language

The resulting sequence or string of words from V_T is said to comprise a sentence that is derived or generated by grammar. The set of all sentences that can be generated by a grammar G is called the language of G and is identified as L(G).Because all the rules in the grammar illustrated here have a single left-hand side symbol, and the rules can be applied whenever there is a match for this symbol, without regard for whatever other symbols might be adjacent to it, a grammar such as G is described as context-free. The language L(G) generated by a context-free grammar G is said to be a context-free language.

2.2.7. Tree Diagram

Tree Diagram
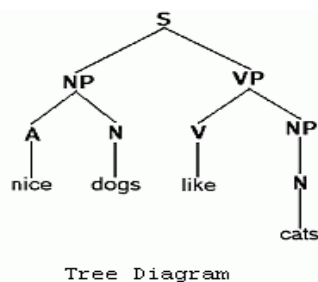
A phrase-structure grammar G can also produce a structure for a sentence that it generates. If G is context-free, this structure can have the form of a tree with its root node corresponding to the starting symbol of the grammar. Other nodes correspond to, and are labeled by symbols from the nonterminal vocabulary V_N. The leaves of the tree correspond to the words of the sentence and are therefore identified by elements of the terminal vocabulary V_T. A tree can be constructed for a sentence by a process analogous to the rewriting procedure just described; but rather than replacing a non terminal symbol, a rule attaches branches to it, with these branches ending in nodes that are labeled by the right-hand side symbols of the rule. The operation of applying rules then consists of tree substitution, rather than replacement. The substitution procedure continues as long as there are branches that end in nodes labeled with symbols from V_N, and it stops when all the branches end in leaves consisting of those words from V_T that comprise the sentence.

The resulting tree is usually represented upside down relative to the normal orientation of a tree, with its root node at the top and the leaves, corresponding to the words of the sentence, at the bottom. A tree constructed in the course of producing the sentence 'nice dogs like cats' is shown in the figure. A tree such as this represents an analysis of the sentence and may be described variously as an analysis tree, a phrase marker, or a parse tree, is called simply an analysis or a parse for the sentence. Note that is not normally thought that the cognitive system develops a representation of a sentence that has the form of a tree. It is usually assumed only that the cognitive system develops relationships among sentence constituents that can be described or represented by a tree structure. The mental representation is thus equivalent in some sense to the tree diagram.

2.2.8 Bracketed String

The phrase or constituent structure of a sentence can also be represented in the form of a bracketed string such as the following:

$[_S[_{NP}[_A nice] [_N dogs]] [_{VP}[_V like] [_{NP}[_N cats]]]]$

The development of this representation can be described in terms of a bottom-up analysis of the sentence, that is, an analysis which begins with the words of the sentence, rather than with the starting symbol of the grammar. The process begins by matching the right-hand sides of lexical rules such as A □ nice and N □ dogs to the words of the sentence. This matching is represented by inserting brackets into the sentence that carry subscripts corresponding to the lexical category of the individual words. Thus, we can write,

$[_A nice] [_N dogs] [_V like] [_N cats]$

The bracketed words are then grouped according to the syntactic categories they comprise by introducing brackets that corresponding to the syntactic rewriting rules. Thus, inserting brackets corresponding to the applications of the rules NP □ A N and NP □ N

2.2.9 Equivalence of Representations

The equivalence of the bracketed string and the tree diagram representations of the analysis of the sentence can be established by devising a procedure, a well-defined, step by step process that converts one of the representations into the other. The bracketed string can be converted into a tree by starting with the bracketed words. For each word, the brackets are converted into a tree branch that runs from word to a node labeled with the label of the left bracket. (Each word actually can be called a leaf of the tree; so this branch might be more appropriate. The brackets that enclose sequences of words, and which correspond to syntactic categories, can then be converted into the branches of the tree that connect the lexical category nodes to nodes corresponding to, and identified by the syntactic category labels on the brackets. The other syntactic category brackets are transformed into branches that connect nodes labeled with the category labels on the brackets. This process continues until the outer-most brackets are encountered and the root node is attached to the tree by branches connecting it to the nodes at the next level down in the tree. Another procedure can be devised that converts a tree into a bracketed string. Hence, the representations are equivalent.

2.2.10 Prolog List

The bracketed string itself can be converted into the following related representation:[S [NP [A nice] [N dogs]] [VP [V like] [NP [N cats]]]]by "promoting" the labels on the brackets so that they lie at the same level in the line as the words. The resulting representation can be converted into what amounts to a Prolog list by inserting commas to produce the following:

[S, [NP, [A, nice], [N, dogs]], [VP, [V, like], [NP, [N, cats]]]]

The foregoing representations corresponds to the structure often produced by Prolog programs that cause the Listener to function as a parser, a procedure that yields a structure for a string of words that it accepts as a sentence. The category

labels, of course, will be represented with lowercase letters so that they correspond to Prolog atoms. The Prolog list therefore appears as follows:

[s, [np, [a, nice], [n, dogs]], [vp, [v, like], [np, [n, cats]]]] [NP, [N, cats]]].

Thus, the structure of the sentence is represented in the form of a sequence of nested lists, that is, lists with elements that are in turn lists. The head terms of each of these lists are always a category label. Except for those lists in which the head is a lexical category label and the tail is an atom representing a word, the tails of all the other lists consist of one or more lists.

2.2.11 Indented Vertical List

Because the list representation is difficult to read, particularly when the structure of a sentence is complicated, some Prolog programs might also display the structure vertically as in the following representation, rather than horizontally:

```
 -S
-NP
 -A
-nice
 --N
-dogs
--VP
 -V
 -like
 -NP
  -N
  -cats
```

Wherein dashes (and sometimes blanks) are used to indicate the level of nesting of the category labels, and the words, in the original list. The number of dashes

(or blanks) preceding a label or word also indicates to the level of the corresponding node in a tree diagram representation of the sentence structure.

The vertical representation is equivalent to the Prolog list structure. The equivalence of the two representations can be established by devising a procedure that, in effect, keeps track of the number of brackets to the left of each label or word in the list representation. The number of brackets (or blanks) preceding a category label or word in the vertical representation is equal to the sum of the left brackets minus the sum of the right brackets that precede the label or word in the list. For example, there are four left brackets to the left of the word 'nice' in the list so that there are four dashes preceding it in the vertical representation. There are three dashes preceding the label N in the vertical representation because there are four left brackets preceding the word 'nice' in the list, less the two right brackets that follow 'nice,' to give two, plus the left bracket immediately preceding the label N in the list, to yield three dashes in the vertical representation.

2.2.12 Character Tree

Some Prolog programs produce representations of the structure of sentences that appear as follows:

```
                    S
              -------------
              NP        VP
            -------    -------
            A    N    V    NP
            |    |    |    | |
          nice dogs  like  cats
```
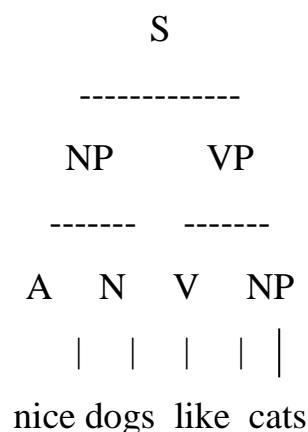
because they are relatively easy to produce in the listener output log, but still communicate the information contained in a conventional tree diagram. The

equivalence of this "character" representation to a graphical tree representation is evident. The branches of the tree connecting a parent node to its children have simply been replaced with a horizontal line of dashes beneath the parent node label, but above the node labels of the children, extending from the leftmost label to the rightmost of the labels of the children.

2.2.13 Transition Network

Transition Network
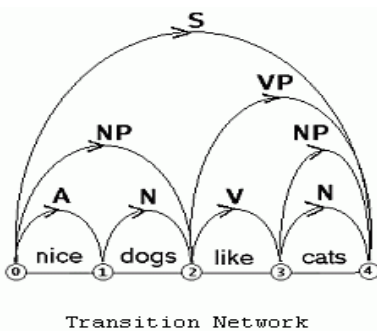
A tree diagram representation of the structure of a sentence is also equivalent to the Transition Network diagram representation. Such diagrams consist of a collection of arcs, the curved line segments in this case with an arrow head to indicate a direction. The arcs join nodes which correspond to the beginning and end of the sentence, and to the spaces between the words. The nodes are usually identified with numbers that serve to keep track of the progress of the analysis of the sentence. The nodes correspond to the states of an abstract computer. The arcs joining the nodes are marked with category labels. These labels represent the lexical or syntactic category identified by the abstract computer as it executes a transition corresponding to one of the arcs in the diagram.

The abstract computer does not normally display Transition Network diagrams for the sentences is recognizes. Although sentence structure can in principle be represented as a Transition Network, such diagrams actually depict the operations the machine performs to recognize sentences.

For example, as the abstract machine processes the first word of the sentence, 'nice,' it executes a transition that spans the word, moving from the state labeled '0' to the state labeled '1' in the direction identified by the arrow head on the corresponding arc, during which it identifies the word as an adjective, in the category labeled A. Similarly, as it processes the next word, 'dogs,' the abstract machine identifies it as a noun, with the lexical

category label N. Thus, the machine executes transitions that correspond to the two rewriting rules A □ nice and N □ dogs. Having identified the categories of the first two words, the machine can now execute a transition that spans both words and which corresponds to the rewriting rule NP □ A N.

All of the transitions of the abstract machine therefore correspond to rewriting rules. The correspondence between transitions, and the arcs representing them, can be established as follows. Each arc corresponds to the left-hand side of a rewriting rule, and is identified with the label of the left-hand side category of the rule. The arcs immediately below the arc in the diagram correspond to the right-hand side of the same rewriting rule, and are identified with the right-hand side labels in this rule. For example, the topmost arc in the diagram here is identified with the S label, and corresponds to the left-hand side of the rewriting rule S □ NP VP. The arcs immediately below are identified with the NP and VP labels corresponding to the right-hand side categories of this rule.

The transcription of the rewriting rules of a context-free phrase-structure grammar as described above yields a Transition Network Grammar. The operations of the abstract computer that works on the basis of a Transition Network Grammar can be emulated using a programming language such as Prolog. The resulting program processes sentences in top-down, depth-first fashion; that is, the program starts with an attempt to execute the transition represented by the arc identified with the S label. To complete this transition, however, the machine must first execute the transitions corresponding to the arcs immediately below the S arc in the diagram. Thus, it must traverse the NP arc; but, in order to execute this transition, it must first traverse the A arc, and then the N arc. In other words, it must identify the lexical categories of the first two words. Having done so, it can then traverse the NP arc. In order to execute the VP transition, however, the machine must first execute the V and NP transitions represented below the VP arc in the diagram. Once these arcs have

been traversed, the machine can traverse the VP arc, and hence complete the S transition, thereby recognizing the sentence.

The processing outlined above can be compared with the operation of the Listener as it recognizes a sentence on the basis of a Prolog program that implements a Definite Clause Grammar. For example, the rewriting rule S □ NP VP can be translated into a Prolog rule with a head structure corresponding to the sentence category on the left-hand side of the rewriting rule and with goals in its body corresponding to the noun and verb phrase categories on the right-hand side. In order that this rule be proved during a sentence recognition, the goals in the body of the rule must first be proved. The proving of the Prolog rule thus corresponds to the condition on the transitions in the Transition Network Grammar that the arcs immediately below an arc in the diagram must be traversed both the arc itself can be traversed.

In fact, an early study of Prolog as a programming language for natural language processing demonstrated the equivalence of a form of Prolog implementation of Definite Clause Grammar to Transition Network Grammars. At the time this study was undertaken, Transition Network Grammars were among the most important natural language processing strategies then available. Their importance has declined with the development of other, more efficient and convenient analysis procedures. Transition Network Grammars can nonetheless still serve to introduce significant computational concepts. They also can be interpreted in terms of psychological models of sentence processing.. For example, the transitions of the abstract machine representing a Transition Network Grammar can be viewed as modeling the changes in mental state that take place in the course of processing a sentence.

2.2.14 Chart

Sentence analysis programs based on Transition Network Grammars have largely been replaced by Chart Parsers. These procedures employ a data structure called a chart to store intermediate results obtained in the course of analyzing a sentence. Most chart-based parsers, albeit not all of them, work on the basis of a context-free phrase-structure grammar, and the information recorded in the chart includes the rewriting rules that can be applied, and the location of their application within the sentence at each stage of its analysis.

Chart
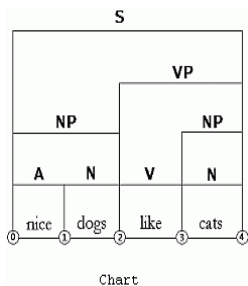
The application location of a rewriting rule is represented by numbers that correspond to the positions of the words in the sentence. These numbers mark the end points of an edge. The edge is identified by the label of the left-hand side category the rewriting rule. For example, in the diagram reproduced here, the edge corresponding to the application of the rule VP □ V NP is labeled VP and consists of the horizontal line immediately under this label, together with the two vertical lines connected to the little circles around the position numbers 2 and 4 that mark the beginning and end, respectively, of the verb phrase 'like cats.'

A Chart Parser stores all the different rules that can be applied at each stage in the analysis of a sentence. Thus, if a sentence is ambiguous, and permits more than one analysis, a Chart Parser will identify all of the alternative analyses, and will produce structural representations of each. For example, in the sentence

radio broadcasts pay

radio can be classified as a noun, an adjective, and a verb, while both broadcasts and pay can be classified as nouns and verbs. Thus, when the first word is analyzed, edges corresponding to the three categories for radio are recorded in the chart. An edge representing the identification of radio as comprising a noun phrase is also stored.

When broadcasts are analyzed, two further edges are stored corresponding to its lexical categories. Other edges, corresponding to the second word being identified as a verb phrase, and to the two words radio broadcasts being identified as comprising both a noun phrase, and as a sentence, are also recorded. These words or sequences of words that can be identified as legitimate syntactic constituents or phrases are called well-formed substrings. Hence, a chart is sometimes called a Well-Formed Substring Table. Although it is unlikely the cognitive system employs a data structure such as a Well-Formed Substring Table to store intermediate results, chart parsers can be viewed as models for those psychological models based on the conjecture that human language analysis is a parallel process, that is, alternative analyses are pursued concurrently.

Chart parsers also store edges corresponding to rules that might be applied when more words are encountered during an analysis. For example, when the word radio is analyzed, the word broadcasts has not yet been encountered, the parser will record an edge corresponding to the rule NP □ A N because, having classified radio as an adjective, it "anticipates" that the next word will be a noun.

The structural representations displayed by a Chart Parser usually consist of conventional tree diagrams or the list form of the trees. Although charts such as that shown here can be used to represent sentence structures, the chart diagram actually serves as a depiction of the elements of the data structure employed to construct the parse tree. Since procedures can be devised that convert a chart to a tree, and transform a tree into a chart diagram, the two representations are equivalent.

2.2.15 Box Diagram
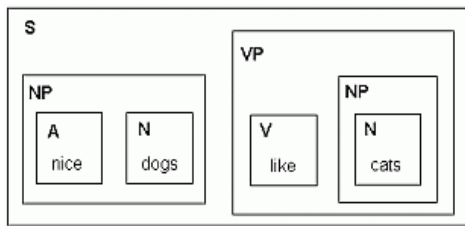
Box Diagram

Another sentence structure representation that is not normally displayed by a parser, but which is equivalent to the other representations discussed above is the box diagram. As the accompanying figure illustrates, a box diagram consists of a collection of nested rectangles, each of which is identified by a category label. The equivalence of the nested boxes in the diagram to the nested lists of the list representation of sentence structure is particularly easy to establish. The label of a given box corresponds to the head of a list, and the box or boxes inside this box correspond to the terms comprising the tail of the list. For example, the NP box that includes the A and the N boxes corresponds to the list [NP, [A, nice], [N, dogs]]. The box label NP is the head of the list while the A and the N boxes inside the NP box correspond to the lists [A, nice] and [N, dogs], respectively, comprising the tail of the list with the head NP. Thus, the box diagram can in fact be regarded as a pictorial representation of the corresponding nested list. In this context, notice that, if the words were each enclosed in their own boxes, then the equivalent list would have the form [NP, [A, [nice]], [N, [dogs]]].

The box diagram can also be viewed as a graphical representation of the interpretation of rewriting rules as inclusion relations. For example, the rule S □ NP VP can be read as a statement that the sentence category includes noun and verb phrase categories. This relation of inclusion on the categories is depicted in the diagram by the NP- and VP-labeled boxes being included inside the S-labeled box. Similarly, the A- and N-labeled boxes are included in the NP-labeled box to represent the relationship of inclusion expressed by the rewriting rule NP □ A N. The box diagram can therefore be seen as depicting a model of the mental processes of sentence analysis based on the conjecture the cognitive system recognizes successive sequences of words as comprising progressively more comprehensive and inclusive constituents.

The box diagram can be viewed as a representation of the structure of a sentence in terms of a hierarchy of sets, that is, a set of sets of sets, and so on. The category labels identify the sets involved. Note, however, that the duplicate labels N and NP identify different sets. For example, in the diagram shown here, the two boxes labelled A and N inside the first NP box identify sets that each consist of one member, namely, the words 'nice' and 'dogs,' respectively. Since it is clear from the context that we are dealing with words, we can drop the apostrophes, and the italic font, so that we can write A = {nice} and N = {dogs}.Adapted from A.C. Brett acbrett@uvic.ca Department of Linguistics University of Victoria Clearihue C139

2.3 Meaning

Semantics refers to meaning and meaning is so intangible that one groupof linguists, the structuralist , preferred not to deal with it or rely on it at all. To illustrate what we mean by the intangible quality of meaning think of such words as 'beauty', 'love', 'goodness', it would be hard to find two people who agree absolutely on what each of these words implies. Personmay seem good to one onlooker and hypocrite to another .Similarly, we all think we know what we mean by 'girl' and ' woman' but at what age does a girl cease to be a girl? At thirteen? Fifteen?......? .....? Meaning is a variable and not be taken for granted. Under the subject of meaning we shall deal with the following areas of interest: word can have more than one meaning, for example ball can be both a dance and a round object for bouncing different words can have the same meaning , for example 'regal' and 'royal'.

2.3.1 Heads and Their Modifiers, Specifies, Adjunct , Argument and Complements

Noun phrases often have internal rules. English noun phrases observe a strict word order: <u>article, adverb, adjective, noun</u>. Noun phrase structure rules differ from language to language: In French, Hawaiian, and much other language the adjectives come after the noun. In many languages the form of articles or adjectives changes to reflect the gender of the noun. When words in a phrase change grammatically to accommodate one another the process is called concord or agreement. French is a good example: le petit garcon vs. la petite fille; German: das Haus; der Apfel; die Blume. In such cases we say that the noun is the head of the phrase, since it causes other words to change and yet remains unaffected by whatever adjective or article is added to it. In English, the head of the syntactic unit called the sentence, the subject is the NP, since the verb agrees with it and not the other way around. Each syntactic atom has its heads (syntax).

To form a sentence is not like stringing beads. Rather, sentences have structural design in which words are grouped hierarchically together in larger units to give meaning.

2.3.2 Heads

phrases are consist of two levels e.g.

NP-VP- AP- PV....

Phrase level and word level. Each level can be like a pole to which different types can be attached to . The first is for the word around which the phrase is built as in N in the case of noun phrase (NPs), a V in the case of (VPs), and so on. This element is called the head of the phrase and it is possible to have structure in which only the head is filled.

NP
|
N
|
Books
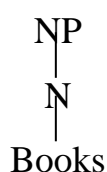
In addition to the head the elements of the phrase can include others words that have semantics and syntactic roles e.g. determiners, qualifiers,   degree words and complements. Adapted from contemporary Linguistics (p. 186)

2.3.3 Modifiers

In grammar, a modifier is an optional element in phrase structure or in clause structure. A modifier is so called because it is said to modify (change the meaning of) another element in the structure, on which it is dependent. Typically the modifier can be removed without affecting the grammar of the sentence. For example, in the English sentence. This is a red ball, the adjective red is a modifier, modifying the noun ball. Removal of the modifier would leave this is a ball, which is grammatically correct and equivalent in structure to the original sentence.

Other terms used with a similar meaning are qualifier (the word qualify may be used in the same way as modify in this context) attribute, and adjunct. These concepts are often distinguished from complements and arguments, which may also be considered dependent on another element, but are considered an indispensable part of the structure. For example, in His face became red, the word red might be called a complement or argument of became, rather than a modifier or adjunct, since it cannot be omitted from the sentence.

Modifiers may come either before or after the modified element (the head), depending on the type of modifier and the rules of syntax for the language in question. A modifier placed before the head is called a premodifier. ; one placed after the head is called a post modifier.. For example, in land mines, the word land is a premodifier of mines, whereas in the phrase mines in wartime, the phrase in wartime is a post modifier of mines. A head may have a number of modifiers, and these may include both premodifiers and post modifiers. For example:

That nice tall man from Canada whom you met

In this noun phrase, man is the head, nice and tall is premodifiers, and from Canada and whom you met are post modifiers.

Notice that in English, simple adjectives are usually used as premodifiers, with occasional exceptions such as galore (which always appears after the noun) and the phrases time immemorial and court martial (the latter comes from French, where most adjectives are post modifiers). Sometimes placement of the adjective after the noun entails a change of meaning: compare a responsible person and the person responsible, or the proper town (the appropriate town) and the town proper (the area of the town as properly defined).

It is sometimes possible for a modifier to be separated from its head by other words, as in the man came who you bumped into in the street yesterday, where the relative clause who...yesterday is separated from the word it modifies (man) by the word came.

Adapted from Grammatical Modifiers From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia.

2.4. Problems Concerned with Modifiers

In Problems Concerned with Modifiers the researcher will convey subjects that can cause subject-verb agreement confusion: compound subjects, group noun subjects, plural form – singular meaning subjects, and indefinite subjects. Then subject – verb agreement problems that can result from word placement in sentences. There are four main problems: prepositional phrases, clauses beginning with who, that, or which, sentences beginning with here or there, and questions which pose difficulties in understanding written texts.

Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase sometimes complicates subject – verb agreement.

A prepositional phrase is composed of:

a **preposition**   followed by   a **noun** or **pronoun object**
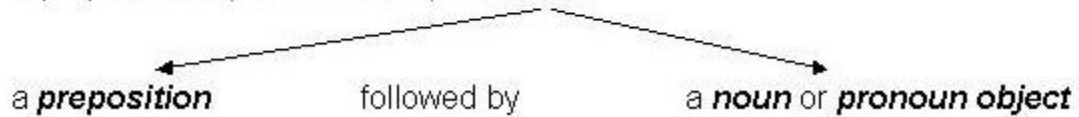
Examples of Prepositional Phrases

preposition   modifier   noun

of the car

preposition   modifier   noun

at the brown house

preposition   pronoun object

about him

preposition   modifiers   noun objects

over that last big hill

preposition   modifiers   pronoun object

to a sweet someone

A prepositional phrase may be placed between the subject and verb.

Example

prepositional phrase

The **boy** (at the door) **is** my brother.

singular noun   singular verb
no 's'   's'

In the above example, the singular verb is agrees with the singular subject boy. Sometimes, however, a prepositional phrase inserted between the subject and verb makes agreement more difficult.

Look at this example.

object of the preposition **with**

The **car** (with many riders) **was** *speeding* around the curve.

singular noun
no 's'
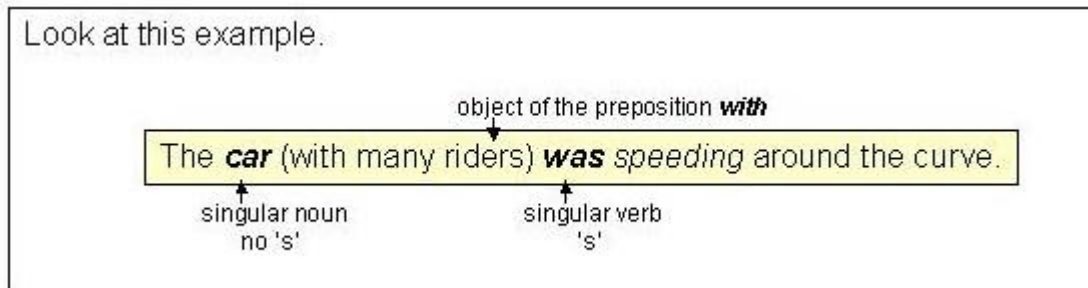
singular verb
's'

Car is the singular subject. Was the singular helping verb which agrees with car. If we aren't careful, however, we may mistakenly label riders as the subject since it is <u>nearer</u> to the verb than car is. If we choose the plural noun, riders, we will <u>incorrectly</u> select the plural verb were.

WRONG!

The **car** (with many riders) **were** speeding around the curve.
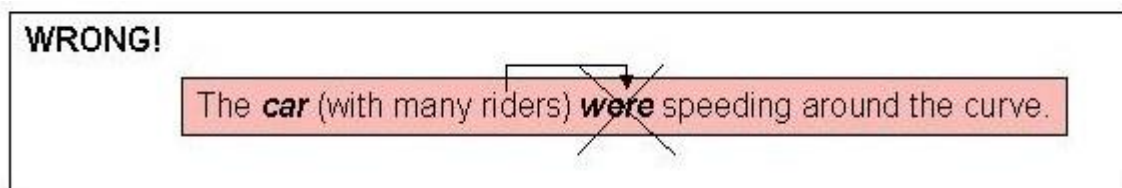
2.4.1 Solution to the Prepositional Phrase Problem

1.   Learn the major prepositions.

2.   Be alert for prepositional phrases placed between the subject and verb, and identify the noun in the phrase immediately as the object of a preposition: An object of a preposition can NEVER be a sentence subject.

   3. Locate the true sentence subject and choose a verb which agrees with it.

The **car** (with many riders) **was** speeding around the curve.

singular
no 's'

singular
's'
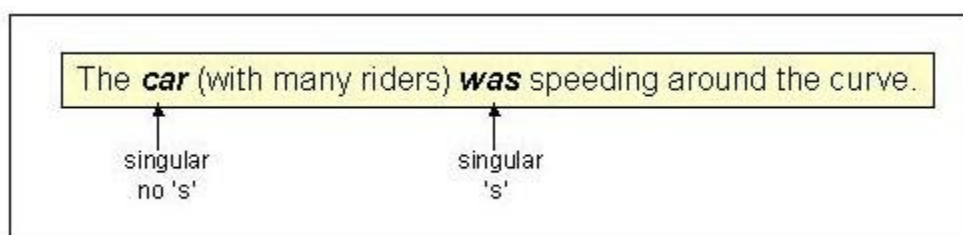
A clause beginning with who, that, or which and coming BETWEEN the subject and verb can cause agreement problems.

Like the prepositional phrase, the who / that / which clause never contains the subject of the sentence

x.

Example #1:

that clause

A dog [**that** loves its owners] deserves a reward.

singular subject — singular verb

Example #2:

that clause

Dogs [**that** eat Krunchies] live longer.

plural subject — plural verb

Example #3:

who clause

Anyone [**who** arrives late] is welcome.

singular subject — singular verb

Example #4:

which clause

The computer menu, [**which** contains five items], allows us variety.

singular subject — singular verb

2.4.2. How to Avoid Subject – Verb Agreement Errors

1. Identify who / that / which clauses immediately. To determine the correct meaning.

Anyone [**who sees his or her friends**] runs to greet them.

singular subject — singular verb

2. Locate the true sentence subject in its proper place and choose a verb that agrees with it.

Anyone [who sees his or her friends] *runs* to greet them.

singular subject   singular verb
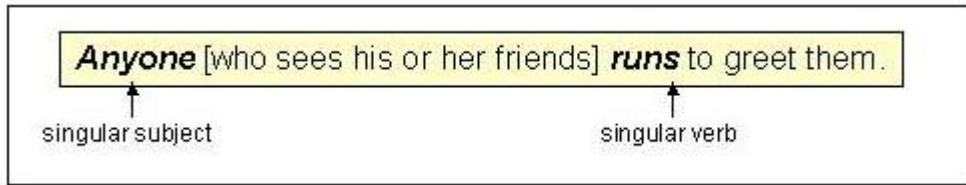
When a sentence begins with there is – there are / here is – here are, the subject and verb are inverted. After all that, you will undoubtedly find this topic a relatively easy one!

THERE IS...
HERE IS...   — singular verb 'is'

THERE ARE...
HERE ARE...   — plural verb 'are'
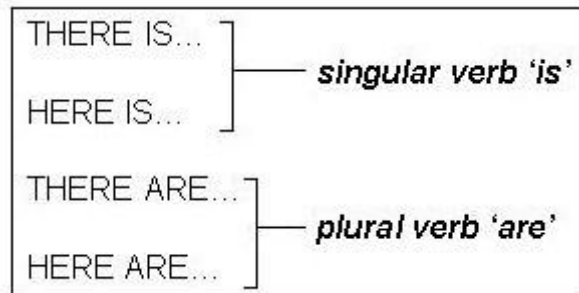
The verb in such constructions is obviously is or are. The subject, however, does <u>not</u> come BEFORE the verb.

Instead, the subject in this kind of sentence comes AFTER the verb, so you must look for it AFTER the verb.

Look at this sentence.

verb   subject

There *is* a **book** on the table.

singular verb   singular noun
's'   no 's'
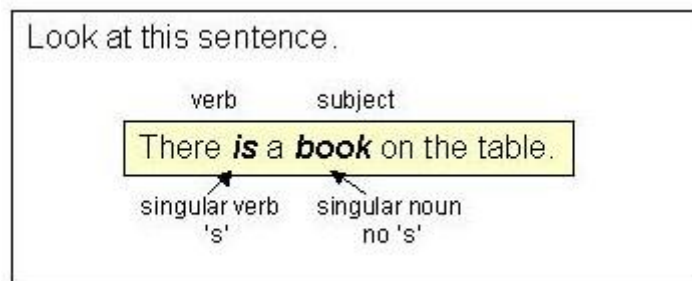
In this example, because the subject, book, is singular, the verb must also be singular.

If the subject is plural, however, then the verb must be plural.

verb   subject

There *are* **books** on the table.

plural verb   plural noun
no 's'   's'
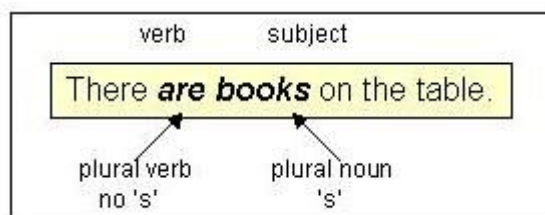
In this example, because the subject, books, is plural, the verb is also plural.

In the structures here is – here are / there is – there are constructions, look for the subject AFTER the verb and choose a singular (is) or a plural (are) verb to agree with the subject to get the correct meaning.

And finally, sometimes creating a question will cause the subject to follow the verb as well. Here, identify the subject and then choose the verb that agrees with it (singular or plural).

Example #1:

verb   subject

What **is** the **problem**?

singular

verb   subject

What **are** the **problems**?

plural

Example #2:

verb
subject

How **has** the **flower** grown this quickly?

singular

verb
subject

How **have** the **flowers** grown this quickly?

plural
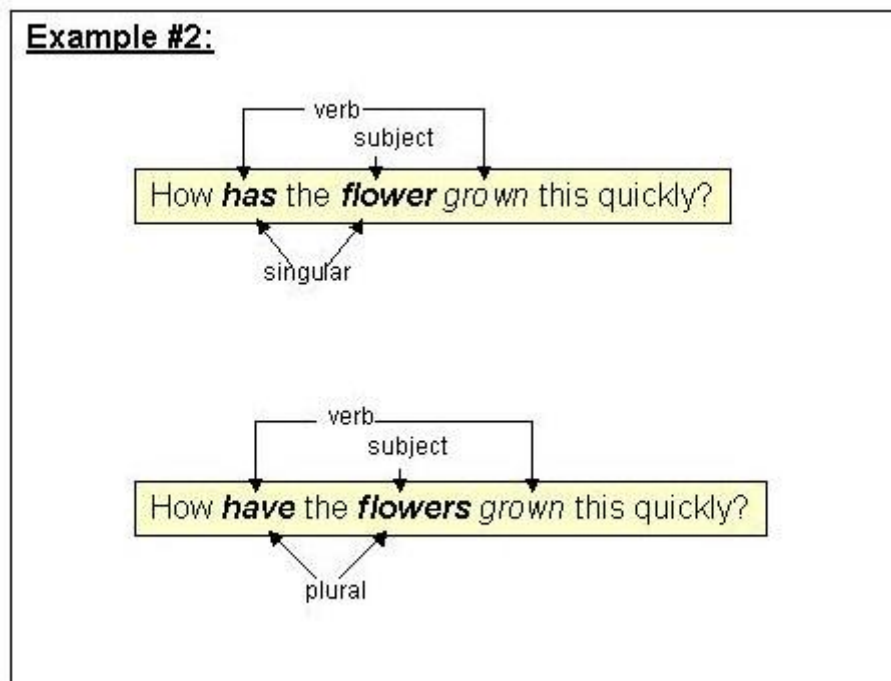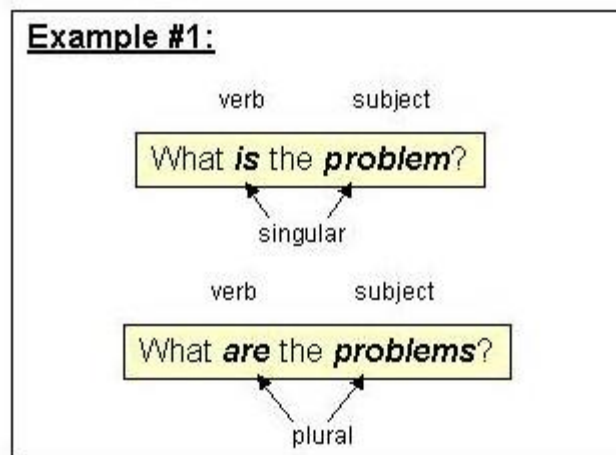
Adapted from Self Teaching Unit: Subject - Verb Agreement© 2000, 1978 Margaret L.

2.5 The Relation Between Writing and Grammar

Grammar, spelling, and punctuation are the most basic components of good writing and understanding. Grammatically correct texts are easier to read, easier to get published, and easier to sell to readers. A firm understanding of grammar also makes the writing process easier.

Grammar is unpleasant for some writers. We're in it for creative expression—we want to tell a story, make a statement, or share ideas. Why do we have to fret over parts of speech and punctuation marks?

But syntax is necessary. You can get by as a professional writer without totally mastering grammar, but you will fall flat on your face if you don't know the basics.

Too many writers avoid studying grammar because they prefer to focus on the creative side of writing. Some work under the assumption that grammar is unimportant (they are wrong!), while others rely on editors and proofreaders to do the dirty work.

But developing good grammar habits, while painstaking, enriches the experience for everyone involved—from the writer to the editor to the reader.

Why Grammar, Spelling, and Punctuation Matter

If you've ever read a piece of writing that was peppered with typos and grammatical mistakes, you know how frustrating these oversights can be for a reader. They're like bumps in the road, jarring you out of the text. When you're deeply immersed in a story or article and encounter one of these errors, you're pulled out of the reading experience.

Writers gain great benefits from developing skills in grammar. Have you ever been writing and gotten stuck on some technicality? Should I put a comma here? Am I using this word correctly? Are these words in the right order? If you've learned grammar and studied a style guide, eventually these kinds of questions won't interrupt the flow of your writing.

Some of grammatical mistakes can be found in novels, magazine articles, even in textbooks, and (especially) on blogs. Now, a lot of these errors are typos. It's not that the writers or editors didn't know their way around the English language—they just let one (or two) mistakes slip past. If people who are experts at editing can't catch every mistake, can you imagine the number of errors in a piece produced by someone who doesn't have a good handle on grammar? Those works are riddled with mistakes!

And when mistakes appear to be more than mere typos and instead seem to reflect a deficiency in good grammar and basic writing skills, then reader find him/her self questioning the quality of the work. If writers can't be bothered to learn the tools of their trade, why reader should bother reading their work? Then misunderstanding should take place .

There are many things that lead to better writing, and there are a few things that raise a flag to signal poor writing. Bad grammar is one of them.

Learning the rules of grammar might be a drag, but it's a worthwhile pursuit if you want to get your work published and find an audience for your writing. Study a little bit of grammar each week, and you'll be writing better in no time.

Once you master grammar, you won't have to worry about it anymore. It becomes a natural part of your writing process. Proofreading and editing become less of a chore, and your writing sessions flow more smoothly. So grammar and writing go hand in hand Good grammar leads to better writing and better understanding.

.(The All-Important Relationship Between Grammar and Writing)Posted by Melissa Donovan on October 22, 2013 ·

2.6. Some Problems of Writing

As it indicated by professor Frantzen: LOYOA UNIFERSITY OF CHICAGOENGLISH TUTORING AT THE LITERACY CENTER

Here are brief descriptions of common writing problems, about how they apply to the work. The misused of the syntactic structures in them will affect the intended meaning by the writer.

2.6 .1. Agreement

Check carefully for errors in agreement; don't shift person (especially third person [he, she, it] to second [you]); number, or tense, without reason. If you are using the singular, stick to it unless you have cause to switch to the plural. Example: Everyone should know what they want. Correction: Everyone should know what he or she wants. Watch collectives—e.g., the Socialist Party is "it" not "they"; General Motors is "it" not "they." Switches in tense are very annoying: "She drove to the mall and looks around for a store."

2.6.2. Awkward constructions

Awkward constructions contain errors in logic or are so imprecise that they can't be readily understood. Sometimes a sentence is awkward because a key term is obscure—e.g., you write that "the poem follows a decision-type format." What is that supposed to mean? If you know what it is supposed to mean, then say it clearly. Awkwardness is not only a matter of incorrect expression—although errors are awkward, of course. Awkwardness usually indicates a gap in expectations between you and your reader, created when you say something you don't need to, or fail to say something you should, fail to explain something completely. Very often a sentence is marked "awkward" because it is too long; the sentence can perhaps be divided into two sentences for clarity.

2.6.3. Clichés, trite expressions

Trite language belongs to everybody and therefore to nobody in particular, especially not to you.

The cliché in undergraduate writing in English classes is that "the author sends a message." Authors are not radio stations; they communicate complex ideas in complex ways. Only propaganda sends "a message"—and even then it is very difficult to control meaning so tightly that only one "message" is sent. Even a TV. commercial sends more than one "message." Texts don't "send messages" so much as readers find "messages" in them—but even so, do all readers find the same "message"? It is odd, in this age of the individual, to find students automatically reducing a complex work of art to a single statement—as if everybody who read a text found the same "message" in it; as if the "message" one person found were the only "message" to be found. Do you really think so? There are better ways to address the main point you think the author is making, the argument the author makes, the author's rhetorical objective, and so on. As soon as you get away from the mechanical model (sends a message), you have to think about what you want to say the author is doing.

The cliché in undergraduate writing in English classes is that someone "could / could not identify with" a character. Characters are tools; you should think of a character as an "it," not a "he" or a "she." A character is a device used by an author for manipulating ideas and for setting ideas and emotions into a fictional context. You can or cannot "identify" with the character, as you wish, but you should realize what you are saying, which is that you do or don't agree with what the author is using that character to say and / or show. If you think "identify with" means anything else, you're suggesting that you think literary characters are real people. Literary characters might have been real people once, but they aren't when you are reading about them. In general, trite expressions are revealing of an uncritical disposition. For example, people may "iron out

their differences," may "drift apart," may find revising their essays "as easy as rolling off a log." But these tired expressions simply replace your own thoughts and reactions with prefabricated slogans and catch-phrases. Your language should be appropriate to your subject, and it should be your own. That is how the structures affect meaning.

2.6 4. Combining sentences

Combine short sentences into longer, more varied structures; avoid choppy effects. Example of choppy effects: "This is the ultimate difficulty. It developed from the evasion of responsibility for decades. Now the price has to be paid. We must come to terms with it." Try something like: "This, the ultimate difficulty, developed because our predecessors evaded their responsibilities for decades. Now we have to pay the price." Note that subordinate clauses help combine sentences—here instead of a list of short sentences we get a clear cause/effect process.

2. 6.5 Comma Splices

Independent clauses, or complete sentences, should not be strung together with commas. A comma cannot ordinarily separate two independent clauses (i.e., complete sentences). That error is called a "comma splice." For example, "The book is on the desk, it once belonged to my father." or "The merchant repeats himself many times, he does not have a good memory." The comma in each example should be replaced with a semi-colon or period; a dash is also possible—but not always recommended. Or, remembering that variety in sentence length and rhythm is important, use subordination: "The book, which once belonged to my father, is on the desk." "Because he often repeats himself, we see that the merchant does not have a good memory."

2.6. 6. Documentation

Be sure that you understand the documentation system. No excuses. Plagiarism is academic dishonesty and will result in a student's failing the paper or the entire course. So, to know how to use it correctly make the reader understand you correctly

2.6.7. Dummy subjects

Be careful about overusing dummy subjects—beginning sentences with "It is" or "There is/There are"; these are "dummy" subjects because they stand in for real subjects. The reader should not have to guess what your "it" refers to or where your "there" can be found. Sometimes it is not easy to avoid the dummy subject—perhaps this sentence is a case in point, but someone could have written, "Sometimes the dummy subject is not easily avoided"—a bit shorter and more compact. When you see that you use "It is" or "There is/are" often, rethink the sentence and try to eliminate the dummy subject. These how these types of structures a affect the meaning.

2.6.8. Edit for economy

Edit for economy. Learn how to omit needless words and get to the point. For "She fell down due to the fact that she hurried" write "She fell because she hurried." Be concise; don't take ten words when you need only five. But being concise does not mean being abrupt; say only what needs saying, but say all that needs to be said. Wordiness results from redundant expressions and/or repetition; both problems can be corrected once you realize that you must search for them. Note too that wordiness may result from uncertainty about what you want to say. Learn to recognize this "exploratory style" as a stage in writing a good sentence, as part of the process, but not the final form. Revise the evasive, indecisive quality out of your prose.

2.6.9. Emphasis

Structure sentences so that the important words and ideas stand out. Put important ideas and words in slots which stress their value. Sometimes by reversing the order of clauses you can shift the focus of the sentence to the main idea away from a less important one. For example, "We learn that he values nothing more than success when we see him kill his own brother." This sentence would be more emphatic if we reordered the clauses: "When we see him kill his own brother, we learn that he values nothing more than success" (emphasis falls on "brother" and "success").

2.6. 10. Evidence

When someone write his/her paper must supply evidence for the argument. In the main, this should come from the primary text/s you cite. If you think a passage reveals an important idea about the aspect of the work you discuss, you should cite it. Just as it's important to avoid paraphrasing a work it's important to select evidence carefully (don't string quotes together one after another to fill up space with redundant examples). Your paper must argue the details of the text, not general ideas; the more detailed the evidence, the more persuasive the case. Your evidence will reveal your sensitivity to language and how authors use it.

2.6. 11. Sentence fragments

A fragment is a group of words or a phrase (a dependent clause) used as if it were a complete sentence (an independent clause). A fragment can be a dependent clause—a clause which must depend on, be connected to, a main or independent clause to form a complete sentence. "His first novel." is a fragment; "It was his first novel." is a complete sentence. "That he would leave soon" is a dependent clause and a sentence fragment if used as a complete sentence. "He decided that he would leave soon" is complete—here the dependent clause,

"that he would leave soon," is linked to an independent clause ("He decided"). Sometimes fragments are used for effect—as in "She left the house in good order. Or so she thought." But don't take a chance unless you're sure you need the effect of the fragment.

2.6.12. Generalizations

General statements have the unexpected effect of undercutting the writer's authority and causing the reader to question his or her judgment. "Since time began," one might write, "women have been deprived of all their rights." One would immediately focus on the word "all" and take exception to such a statement—the sentence tries to claim lots of ground but overreaches, and in the end it has very little authority; "since time began" is another gross generality: a statement about all time is likely to require qualification. General statements tend to be abstract, categorical, and liable to be false.

2.6.13. Nominalization

Reduce wordiness by writing with strong verbs rather than weak verbs and nouns. Verbs should convey the main idea and action of the sentence. Using nouns to name actions and weak verbs when strong verbs could carry the action (and meaning) of the sentence is called "nominalization." Instead of saying "The resolution to the problem can be seen in author's attempt to reconcile..." try: "The author resolves the problem by reconciling..." Here, "resolves" replaces "resolution" and accompanying baggage.

2.6.14. Texts design

Every texts needs a central idea; the definition of a paragraph is A distinct passage or section of a discourse, chapter, or book, dealing with a particular point of the subject, the words of a distinct speaker, etc., whether consisting of one sentence or of a number of sentences that are more closely connected with

each other than with what stands before and after. (Oxford English Dictionary) A paragraph a page long does not have ONE key idea but probably contains several somewhat related ideas run together. Examine the structure of every paragraph before you hand in a paper. What's the topic sentence? How do subsequent sentences relate to it? All will affect the meaning and understanding.

2.6. 15. Parallel constructions

Employ parallel constructions for parallel ideas. Parallel constructions are easy to read and often express ideas elegantly and effectively. Strive to create them when they serve your purpose. Example: "His objective was to win, but playing fair also mattered to him." Correction: "His objective was not only to win, but also to play fair." Make nouns parallel to nouns, verbs to verbs: "The author shows the reader the path to being virtuous rather than to vice." Correct: "the path to virtue rather than to vice."

2.6.16. Parenthetical phrases and restrictive clauses

Parenthetical expressions—phrase in an opposition to a subject or to another phrase—must be set off by TWO commas, not one. For example, "In the third chapter, which he actually wrote first, the author claimed to have discovered the cure for cancer." (Incorrect: "In the third chapter, which he actually wrote first the author . . . .) The "which" clause is set off by commas correctly here. These are also known as "nonrestrictive clauses" since they do not define the noun modified but add extra information.

2.6. 17. Passive voice

Watch overuse of the passive voice (structures in which the subject receives rather than initiates or performs the action: The ball was caught). Sometimes the passive is necessary and helpful, but too often it is abused and it obscures the real subject and action of the sentence. The passive voice also

becomes general and vague. It's usually better to write about people who do things than things which are done by an undefined somebody, especially if the whole point of writing is to write about people who ACT. "The ball was caught" may be the better way in some contexts, but "She caught the ball" describes the meaningful action more effectively.

2.6. 18. Possessives and plurals

Contractions are a matter of correctness rather than style. The plural of man is men, and the possessive of men is men's, not mens'. Don't confuse "it is," contracted as "it's," with "its," the possessive adjective. Example of the confusion: The cup lost it's handle. For "it's" here read "its." Don't confuse the possessive with the plural, either: Example: The boy's came home late. Read "boys." The possessive of "their" is theirs, not "their's."

2.6. 19. Pronouns

Beware of vague or confusing pronouns and antecedents. Is it clear to what or to whom pronouns refer? Is the referent suppressed? Example: The disaster was reported in the papers. They still didn't act. Who is "they"? Not papers, surely. If you write "Government officials still didn't act" the reader understands. Be careful, when you begin sentences or paragraphs with "This," that the reader knows which noun "This" refers back to—e.g1 "This what?" in the margin, it means that the referent is either vague or unnamed (that it exists somewhere in your mind, perhaps, a collective "This," rather than on paper). The test? Always supply a noun to follow: "This point," for example, "This issue," or whatever. Get into the habit of questioning your use of "This" in the sentence-initial position.

Make sure that a pronoun refers back to the correct noun and that the pronoun is not ambiguous (if two men have just been named, "he" could refer to either one

of them. Make sure that you use "who" to refer back to people and "that" to refer back to things. "The woman who wrote the book," not "The woman that wrote the book."

2.6.20. Punctuation

Ordinarily, uses commas only where you pause when reading a sentence aloud: "Williams' first book, was very successful." No need for a comma there. Use a semi-colon (;) as you would a period, not a comma. Use a semi-colon to separate items in a list or to separate two closely related independent clauses, not a dependent and an independent clause. Correct: "Williams wrote several books; none of them, however, were as successful as the first." Incorrect: "Williams wrote several books; The Triad being first. Do not isolate a dependent clause by putting a semi-colon (;) before it, e.g., "He walked to school; a triumph over fear." Instead: "He walked to school—a triumph over fear." Use a comma, a colon (:), or (less often) a dash (—) to integrate that dependent clause into your sentence; a semi-colon is a full-stop, closer to a period than a comma.

2.6. 21. Repetition

Edit for economy; remove repetitious words and phrases. Repetition undercuts the progress of the paper and causes the reader to lose interest. Look at each sentence in isolation from its context and learn to identify the new information a new sentence adds to the one before. When there isn't enough—or any—new information, you are repeating the old.

2.6. 22. Redundancy

Avoid redundant and obvious expressions. Don't tell the reader what he or she doesn't need to know. Example: "In our modern world of today...." or "The author begins with an introduction...." "Today" and "modern" overlap, and so do "our" and "modern." Likewise, "In Twain's first chapter, he argues . . ." ("Twain's first chapter argues," or "In the first chapter, Twain argues . . . .). Other examples: "Both Smith and Jones took different views of the war." or "Both Smith and Jones took the same view of the war." Both/different and Both/same are redundant. Since Smith and Jones are different people, the reader assumes that they took differing views and has to reread the sentence to see if something has been missed (it hasn't, except by the author-as-editor). Try, "Smith and Jones took different views of the war." Or, "Smith and Jones took the same view of the war."

 Another example: "For his young readers, the author must avoid intimidating them by taking too much for granted." Here, "For his young readers" and "them" are redundant. Try: "The author must avoid intimidating young readers by taking too much for granted."

2.6. 23. Run-on sentences

Example: Run-on sentence are series of short sentences linked by "and" or some other conjunction these are very annoying to the reader they are easy to fix.

2.6.24. Quotations

in this matter there are two points:. Indent quotes of 5 lines or more; don't italicize them, shrink the font, or anything else; just indent them. If you indent, use quotation marks ONLY if the material is dialogue or direct discourse (otherwise the quotation marks are redundant). In every case, integrate quotations into your prose. Don't turn your paper into a patch-work in which

your voice suddenly stops, and, without a transition, another voice begins. Such devices as "According to . . ." and others are useful in bridging your prose and the prose you quote. If you quote a sentence or two from any source, enclose the quoted material within quotation marks (" ") and give the page number outside the quotation marks. Example: The narrator says that Janice stood "at six feet, "with "shining eyes, blond hair, and a warm smile" (323). Do not write "smile, p. 323," since the narrator did not say "page 323." Omit any sentence punctuation before the parenthesis. EXAMPLE: "a warm smile," (323). Omit that comma!

2) Use single quotes (' ') only when you quote something inside a quotation ("The smith objected to the 'silly' game he was forced to play," Austen wrote); you might see single quotes used throughout some articles, but those articles are following a British style sheet, not an American style sheet; British and American usage is exactly the opposite in this matter..

2.6.25. Subjunctive mood

Learn to distinguish the subjunctive mood from the indicative. The indicative refers to facts, the subjunctive to conditions contrary to fact. Example: "If I were you, . . ." (correct); "If I was you, . . ." (allowed conversationally, but "were" would be better).

2.6.26. Summarizing the plot

Don't summarize the plot. Summary has a purpose, but only a limited one, in a critical paper; the objective of a critical paper is analysis of the material from a certain perspective. Unless the reader knows what will be argued—which is to say, unless an analytical objective is in view—he or she will have no context for an elaborate discussion of plot summary. Short summaries are necessary to support arguments; but you should expect in this case that your reader knows the material about as well as you do. Set up critical

framework that clarifies the objectives of your paper; then, where necessary, fit brief summaries into that framework.

2.6. 27. Thesis and plan

Two points here1) Every paper must have an identifiable thesis statement. That statement can be more or less direct, but it must be prominent in the paper's first paragraphs. Failure to provide a thesis statement is a strong indication that the paper is a description or a summary rather than an argument. A topic is something you write about; a thesis is an argument about a topic.

2) Along with a thesis, your paper should always convey a plan for pursuing the thesis. It is better to be mechanical (safe) than arbitrary and unclear (sorry) when you indicate the direction of your argument to the reader. A good thesis statement does not necessarily suggest how the argument will be organized. It might seem mechanical to write "First I will, and then I will, etc.," and you can always revise that kind of writing out of later drafts. However, a good structure helps the reader grasp the main points of the paper. Less mechanical ways of generating a plan include such phrases as, "By comparing X to Y in three key instances, I will show that . . .," "In order to explain this claim, I will focus on two aspects of X," and so forth. (Most teachers do not have a phobia about using the first person pronoun, by the way; they expect you to write in your own voice.)

2.6.28. Titles

Be sure you title your paper. A good title will suggest that the paper has a specific focus and will say something about the thesis. Never title a paper something like "Second paper" or "The House of Mirth" (or whatever is the

name of the novel or short-story or poem you are writing about). That shows a sad lack of imagination and effort.

2.6.29. Transitions

One of your major tasks is to let the reader know what your paper will attempt, and how you will go about it. The reader should not be in doubt about the direction your paper takes. Connections between sentences and between paragraphs should be unambiguously clear, for in order to make those connections, you need transition markers to indicate contrast or qualification; illustration; ("for example, for instance"); development ("furthermore, again also"); conclusion or result ("Consequently, Therefore"), and so forth. Your direction should always be apparent to the reader.

2.6. 30. Word choice

The reader depends on the writer's ability to choose words carefully, to say exactly what he or she means. If word choice is inexact, the reader will easily form the wrong impression. And even if the reader can second guess the writer, and think to himself, "Oh, this must mean ——," the reader has a right to be annoyed: he or she shouldn't have to do the writer's work. Be sure you know the meanings of the words you use and be sure that they are appropriate to the context (not too informal or slangy, not pretentious or fancy). Sometimes word choice is a problem because the words are used incorrectly; sometimes word choice is merely inappropriate. Reading aloud is a good way to test word choice. "Unique" is a special case. Remember that you cannot qualify "unique": something either is, or is not, unique, and uniqueness does not come in degrees like smallness does—"quite unique, very unique," and so forth.

2.7. Some Writing Techniques://///////////////

2.8 Why study grammar?

The study of language is a part of general knowledge. We study the complex working of the human body to understand ourselves; the same reason should attract us to studying the marvelous complexity of human language. Everybody has attitudes towards the English language and its varieties, and has opinions on specific features. These attitudes and opinions affect relationships with other people. If you understand the nature of language, you will realize the grounds for your linguistic prejudices and perhaps moderate them; you will also more clearly assess linguistic issues of public concern, such as worries about the state of the language or what to do about the teaching of immigrants. Studying the English language has a more obvious practical application: it can help you to use the language more effectively. In the study of language, grammar occupies a central position. But there is also a practical reason to emphasize the study of grammar. It is easy to learn to use dictionaries by you to find the pronunciation, spelling, or meanings of words, but it is difficult to consult grammar books without a considerable knowledge of Its Features.

2-9 Competence and grammar

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

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

We can't just have memorized a huge list of words and sentence that we dredge from our memory on the appropriate occasion: we must have command of set of rules that constitute our grammar and by reference to which we can produce or understand or make judgments on any of an infinite set sentence. The use of language is creatively a rule governed comes from examples of overgeneralization particularly prominent in speech of children acquiring their first language (ibid).

Such rules are part of our individual knowledge of language and this knowledge can be idiosyncratic and different from adult pattern that the child is acquiring. In any community, the rules we know are largely, shared, but they properties of the individual, internal to his or her head. To reflect this fact or mentally represented grammar is now referred to as our1- language (first language) our individual, internal language as opposed to E- Language outside our head, to us.(ibid).

Bloomfield (1933:15) defines "A language is the totality of utterance that can be made in speech community. Utterances are the fruits of performance, so there is apparently a close relationship between E- language and performance. But while performance data provide some evidence for the nature of $1 - A$ language there is no need, of making additional claim that these data constitute an entity in their own right an E- language".

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

2-10 Meaning in Grammar

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

Chomsky (1995:42) explains

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

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

2-11 Grammar and language teaching

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

Allen and Corder (1975:45) state

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

The experience of a large number of teachers over many years suggests that a combination of inductive and methods produce the best result. Language learning is not simply mechanic process of habits formation but a process which involve the active co-operation of the learner as rational individual. Most teachers will continue to see language learning as fundamentally an inductive process based on the presentation of data, but one which can be controlled by explanation of suitable type.

An important question concerns with the nature of the grammatical explanations given to the students and the type of linguistic grammar from which these explanations should be drawn. Thus we see the teaching of grammar not as an end in itself, but a useful aid in helping a student to achieve the practical mastery of a language.(ibid).

The Role of grammar in communicative language teaching

There is a mixture of beliefs regarding grammar instruction. Some scholars support the exclusion of grammar learning (e.g. Prabhu, 1987), while other researchers emphasize the need to include grammar teaching in CLT (e.g. Light Bown & Spada, 1990; Nassaji, 2000; Spada & Lightbown, 1993).Krashen's (1982, 1985) hypothesis of acquisition versus learning has had an influence on the notion that focusing solely on meaning is sufficient for SLA. In his

hypothesis, Krashen claims that there is a distinction between acquisition and learning. He believes that acquisition happens naturally, provided

Ards, Gallo, and Renandya (2001) reported that the teachers in their study believe that explicit grammar instruction is essential in L2 learning, although they claimed that they adopted CLT in their teaching. There seems to be a discrepancy between L2 teachers' beliefs regarding grammar instruction in CLT and their actual classroom practices. As such, there is a need to investigate L2 teachers' perceptions and implementation of grammar instruction within a CLT context. In addition Grammar plays an important role in the field of second language teaching. Murcia (1991:465) offers six easily identified variables that can help you to determine the role of grammar in language teaching. Notice that for each variable the continuum runs from less to more important.

The uses of grammar

  Woods (1995 : 5) describes that grammar was used in different aspects to mean different matters .that is to say, it may come in a book form to mean the language rules or it may come as a subject which teachers teach at schools to their learners to utilize the language correctly or grammar may be regarded as an approach to describe and analyze the language .

Leech et.al (1982: 5) confirms that the term grammar is considered as the core of the language that relates the semantics with phonology. Podgorski (2008: 4) asserts that grammar is considered to be an important part of a language and therefore taught in detail using several different teaching methods.

Grammar and written language:

Thorns bury (2004: 8) says that grammar in the recent days presented to the learners is basically based on written grammar. Rid out and Clarke (1970: 146) mentions that the term grammar was derived from the Greek meaning "the science of letters". Leech and et.al (1982: 8) see that mastering grammar helps learners improving their style of writing.

2.13 Grammar and spoken language

Eyre's (2000: 6) clarifies that grammar is something which a language speakers need. He shows that knowledge of grammar is divided into two types: implicit knowledge which enables speakers to form sentences in a grammatical way and explicit knowledge which enables speakers to identify and describe the errors. Jespersen (1969 : 19) sees that the speaker of the language has different choices in using the language in expression his thoughts and feelings, while in suppression some speakers may want to express something but they couldn't and this will affect the impression of the listeners .

2.14 Grammar and communication

Lock (1996 : 266 – 267) states that communicative competencies is not just the ability to produce correct sentences but also to know when, where, and with whom to use them . He also added that communication has pre-requisites .he added that grammatical competence is an essential part of communicative competence and the development of the communication is the result from the relation between grammar and communication .

Purport (2004: p, 53) asserts that the grammatical competence is the knowledge of the rules of phonology, lexicon, syntax and semantics. He added that there are three kinds of competencies that people need for communication: sociological competence (using the language functionally and contextually), strategic competence (ways to get our meaning across) and discourse competence (strategies of constructing and interpreting texts). The knowledge of grammar has been considered as the successful elements for students who are studying English as a foreign language. However, it seems that grammar is less important in communication due to the current trend of communicative competence, the basic concept of communicative competence is that the speaker doesn't need to worry about grammatical errors as long as she/ he gets a cross the meaning. It doesn't mean that grammar is not important. To provide solid

background for communication, grammar cannot be discarded in language teaching. In this paper is try to argue why grammar is necessary for communication so most students want to learn how to express and communicate well a foreign language. This primary goal in studying foreign language. Today the world becomes smaller and English is now a tool to connect ourselves to other countries- as time passes, we need English more to communicate properly in a competitive global word.

The main concern of researchers and English teachers in the world was how to deal with grammar effectively in English classroom. The knowledge of grammar has been considered as the successful element for students who are studying English as a foreign language. In Greek and Latin times, the study of language was the study of grammar. Grammar was very important area in the academic world. As bastogne (1994) says that effective communication in a language would be seriously impaired without an ability to put grammars to use in a variety of situations. He argues that grammatical knowledge is a must for successful communication. Noonan (1991) also supports that grammar exists to enable us to mean, and without grammar it is impossible to communicate beyond a very rudimentary level.

2.15 Types of grammar

Grammar is classified into two types

Prescriptive grammar and descriptive grammar. Yule (1996: 87) confirms that each adult speaker of a language has some types of mental grammar, first a form of internal linguistic knowledge. This grammar is subconscious and is not the result of any teaching. A second, linguistic etiquette which is the identification of the best structures to be used in a language. A third view of grammar involves the study and analysis of the structures found in a language

1.15.1 Prescriptive grammar

Yule (199: 91) that the prescriptive grammar is to adopt the grammatical labels to categorize words in English sentences; it is a set of rules for the proper use of English. Eyras (2000: 5-6) shows that prescriptive grammar is considered traditional and old type; it tackles the language rules and it should be used by speakers in writing and speaking in correct way. He added that prescriptive grammar deals with structure or words as correct or incorrect. Prescriptive grammar focuses on the necessary areas of the language.

Kohli (1999: 140) highlights that prescriptive grammar attempts to perform the legislative function of the language and no need to neglect the language rules. He added that prescriptive grammar doesn't allow the neglecting of the language rules.

Fromkin and rodman (1993:13) state that prescriptive grammar attempts to legislate what the learners grammar should be. It prescribes; it doesn't describe, except incidentally.

Descriptive grammar

Yule (1996: 92) mentions that throughout the present century the descriptive grammar appeared when analysts collected samples of the language they are interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of the language as it is used, not according to some view of how it should be used. He added that the descriptive approach is the basis of most modern attempts to characterize the structure of different language. From kin and Rodam (1993:13) state that descriptive grammar descriptive grammar describes the basic linguistic knowledge of the language. He added that descriptive grammar deals with sounds, words, phrases and sentences of the language. He also confirmed that the descriptive grammar of a language represents the unconscious linguistic knowledge or capacity of its speakers. It doesn't teach the rules of the language; it describes the rules that are already known. Nordiques (2004 :17) mentions that descriptive grammars are essentially scientific theories that attempt to

explain how language works. The goal of the descriptivist is simply to state how language actually works. People spoke long before there were linguists around to uncover the rules of speaking. The intending of descriptive grammar is to posit explanations for the facts of language use, and there is no assumption of correctness or appropriateness.

2.15.2 Functional grammar

Wikipedia, (2009) the free encyclopedia, maintained that functional grammar is a model of grammar motivated by functions. The model was originally developed by Simon c. Dik at the university of Amsterdam in the 1970s, and has undergone several revisions ever since. The latest standard version under the original name is laid out in the two- volume 1997 edition, published shortly after Dik, s death. The latest incarnation features the expansion of the model with a pragmatic/ interpersonal module by Kees Hengeveld and Lachlan Mackenzie. This has led to a renaming of the theory to functional discourse grammar/ this type of grammar is quite distinct from systematic functional grammar as developed by Michael Holliday and many other linguists since the 1970s. Kohli (1999: 1339) states that functional grammar is incidental grammar that acquired by language learners naturally. He added that grammar can be learnt via the learning process and can be learnt by limitation or consciously by deduction and observation.

2.15.3 Formal Grammar

   Kholi (1999: 141) mentioned that the formal grammar deals terminology. It tackles the description and analysis of the language. Lapalombara (1976: 54) sees that it is not possible to separate between functional grammar and formal grammar because the two kinds deal with words and their group.

2.15.4 Traditional grammar

Wikipedia, (2009) the free encyclopedia, maintains that traditional grammar, linguistically, is theory of the structure of language based on ideas western societies inherited from ancient Greek and roman sources. The term is mainly used to distinguish these ideas from those of contemporary linguistics. In the English – speaking world at least, traditional grammar is still widely taught in elementary schools. Traditional grammar is not unified theory that attempts to explain the structure of all languages with a unique set of concepts (as is the aim of linguistics). There are different traditions for different languages, each with its own traditional vocabulary and analysis. In the case of European languages, each of them represents an adaptation of Latin grammar to particular languages. Traditional grammar distinguishes between the grammars of elements that constitute a sentence (inter-elemental. Yule (1996: 89) mentioned that traditional grammar is concerned with using the parts of speech to label the grammatical categories of words in sentences. Woods (1995: 6) points out that teachers use the traditional grammar widely in the classroom via giving definitions of the parts of speech. Gith (1973 : 41) sates that the traditional grammar focuses on the good arrangement of words and the relations between the words in a sentence. He clarifies that traditional grammar tackles the syntactic organization of words in a sentence. He criticizes the traditional grammar of being based on Latin grammar and some of the traditional grammar schools are based on the written rather than spoken languages.

2.15.5 Generative grammar

Nordiques (2006:28) describes that a generative grammar is essentially one that' projects' one or more given sets of sentences makes up the language one is describing, a process characterizing human language. Chomsky (1997: 13) states that a generative grammar must also be explicit; that is, it must precisely specify the rules of the grammar and their operating conditions. He added that

generative grammar is a set of explicit rules. Yule (1996: 101) mentions that generative grammar was an attempt to produce a particular type go grammar, as a development of the American linguist Noam Chomsky, which is a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic elements would result in well- formed sentences.

2.15.6 Mental grammar

Forman (2000: 5) clarified that descriptive grammars aim at revealing the mental grammar which represents the knowledge a speaker of the language has. They do not attempt to prescribe what speakers, grammars should be. Chomsky (1986: 20) states that all humans are born with the capacity for constructing a mental grammar, given linguistic experience; this capacity for language is called the language faculty.

2.16 Grammar and the implicit/explicit learning dichotomy

Many followers of CLT have tended to associate the method with a basically 'no-grammar' or at least 'not-a-lot-of-grammar' approach, epitomized by Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis, which downplayed the conscious teaching of grammatical rules and fore grounded the provision of meaningful, comprehensible input as the driving force of effective L2 instruction. The argument was that because children do not focus on grammar as they acquire their Ll. a strong emphasis on grammar is not essential, and can even be distracting, as far as the developments of communicative skills are concerned. This position gained support from the recognition that in real-life communication grammatical accuracy is not essential - after all, does it really matter if we get a tense wrong as long as we are understood? Other CLT proponents, however, disagreed with this view, and interestingly this group included most of the founding fathers and mothers of the method. If we re-read the early documents of the communicative approach, we find that most of the original CLT theoreticians were quite keen to emphasize salient structural

linguistic components, as illustrated, for example, by the initial sentence of Little wood's highly influential teaching methodology text - Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction (1 981): states that "One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view." Not only did this group of scholars not think that including grammar would undermine the effectiveness of communicative language teaching, they believed that a focus on accuracy was an essential part of the method.

These contrasting stances regarding grammar corresponded to a well-known psychological dichotomy, that of implicit versus explicit learning. Explicit learning refers to the learner's conscious and deliberate attempt to master some material or solve a problem. This is the learning type emphasized by most school instruction. In contrast, implicit learning involves acquiring skills and knowledge without conscious awareness, that is, automatically and often with no intentional attempt to learn them. Naturalistic language acquisition (e.g. picking up a language while staying in the host environment) clearly falls under this latter category, and as we saw earlier, the emerging view of a typical communicative classroom was that it should approximate a naturalistic learning context as closely as possible, thereby providing plenty of authentic input to feed the students' implicit learning processors. Undoubtedly, this view was to a large extent motivated by the fact that the main language learning model for humans - the mastery of our mother tongue - predominantly involves implicit processes without any explicit teaching; quite amazingly, children acquire the incredibly complex system of their Ll entirely through engaging in natural and meaningful communication with their parents and other caretakers, without receiving any tuition whatsoever, not even systematic corrective feedback. The implicit nature of this process is evidenced by the fact that most people cannot explain the rules of their mother tongue once they have mastered them

2.17.Communicative fluency

Everybody who has ever tried to speak in a foreign language knows that the accurate use of linguistic form is not the only, and very often not the most serious, concern with regard to communicative effectiveness. In many respects, communicative fluency is more significant and the implicit-explicit dichotomy discussed above also plays a crucial role in understanding this aspect of communication. In the literature of the psychology of language learning, fluency is usually discussed under the broader concept of "automaticity/automatization", and the promotion of fluency is usually subsumed under "skill learning theory". Thus, from a psychological point of view the relevant issue to explore is how L2 skills can be automatized.

Let us briefly look at the main tenets of skill learning theory because they illustrate how both explicit and implicit processes are necessary for the successful mastery of L2 communicative competence. Skill learning theory holds that the utomatization of any skill, including language skills, requires implicit - or procedural - knowledge. Although this theory is consistent with Krashen's (1982) proposal that communicative competence relies on implicit (acquired) knowledge, it contradicts Krashen's theory by positing that in order to build up an implicit knowledge base, one has to start out by receiving explicit knowledge. The development of any skill (driving, knitting, playing tennis, etc.) needs to start with some initial explicit - or declarative- input, which in turn becomes gradually automatized through repetition. Thus, even though the ultimate goal of skill-learning is to arrive at automatized, implicit knowledge, a systematically designed fluency-building sequence is made up of an initial explicit teaching stage and subsequent practice, further divided into controlled and open-ended practice:

1- The declarative input stage provides clear and concise rules as well as sufficient examples that the learner can then interpret and rehearse, to raise explicit awareness of the skill to be internalized.

2- The controlled practice stage should offer opportunities for abundant repetition within a narrow context. "Narrow" is a key attribute here because the proceduralization of explicit knowledge requires a great deal of repetition, not unlike the way a musician practices a piece again and again. Therefore, the key to the effectiveness of this stage is to design drills that are engaging rather than demotivating.

2.18. The Rules of Grammar in Communicative Language Teaching

There is a mixture of beliefs regarding grammar instruction. Some scholars support the exclusion of grammar learning (prabhu, 1987), explains that "while other researchers emphasize the need to include grammar teaching in communicative language teaching (e.g. lightbown & spade, 1990; Nassaji, 2000 ", Spada&lightbown, 1993). Krashen's (1982, 1985) hypothesis of acquisition versus learning has had an influence on the notion that focusing solely on meaning is sufficient for second language acquisition. In his hypothesis, krashen claims that there is a distinction between acquisition and learning. He believes that acquisition happens naturally, provided the role of grammar in communicative language teaching that learners receive sufficient comprehensible input and that only acquired knowledge that can lead to fluent communication. Also krashen's monitor hypothesis proposes that explicit form teaching only serves as a tool for monitoring learners' language. That is, learners learn grammatical rules only to monitor the correctness of their language use, which is in addition to what has been acquired. However, the advocates of explicit grammar instruction argue that it is inadequate to acquire a second language l2, if meaning is the only focus. Long (1991) states that "differentiate between focus on forms and focus on form. He defines focus on forms as learning grammar rules, and focus on form as drawing learners' attention to grammar in activities and tasks". In the past two decades, some researchers have returned to the investigation of form-focus reinstruction in

communicative language teaching (e.g. Celce-Murcia, 1991; "doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1993; long &Crookes, 1992). The studies on language accuracy of students in an immersion program in Canada provide important evidence that form focused instruction is needed (e.g. Harley & swain, 1984; swain, 1985). These immersion students received massive amounts of input and had plenty of interaction in the program for a period of time, but their utterances still contained grammatical mistakes. As a result of excluding form-focused instruction, the learners' output lacked in accuracy (Williams, 1995). Despite the negative reports about immersion programs in regard to language acquisition, research also indicates the success of French immersion programs in Canada. The students in the programs out performed those who learned French as a separate subject in their overall proficiency in French as well as their knowledge of the target language culture (cummins & swain, 1986; lessow-hurley, 2009). Many educators misunderstand focus on form as teaching and learning grammatical rules. However, form-focused instruction does not refer to presenting rules to students. A number of studies (e.g. doughty, 1991; doughty & Williams, 1998; light own, 1991; trashy &white, 1993; white, 1991) have examined the effectiveness of focusing on form and indicated that students with form-focused instruction outperformed those without instruction on the targeted forms. The results of these studies are very important, because they support the role of form-focused instruction. Some teachers think that form-focused instruction and communicative activities, where the focus is on meaning, should be separated. Teachers believe that drawing students' attention to grammar, while they are engaging in meaning, may have harmful effects (lightbown, 1998). However, some scholars argue that form-focused instruction and communicative activities should be combined. Students pay more attention to target forms, and the forms become more memorable, if students learn them in context (Foto, 1994; Lightbown, 1998; Nassaji, 2000; Wang, 2009). One way to present grammar communicatively is through structured input activities (lee

&Vanpatten, 2003). Structured input is a type of instruction that directs learners to pay attention to the target language through arranging input from the instruction. These activities are called structured input activities. The basic notion of these activities is how learners encode grammatical forms through meaningful context. The purpose of structured input activities is to raise learners' awareness of the target structures with meaning.

2.19. Communicative Tasks and Their Roles in Teaching and Learning Grammar

Brumfit (1984) lists a set of criteria necessary for achieving fluency:

A-the language should be means to end .i.e. The focuses should be the form and on the meaning as well.

B-the content should be determined by the learner that has to formulate and produce ideas.

C-there must be negotiation of meaning between the speaker i.e. Students must be included in interpreting the meaning from what they hear and construct what to as response.

D-the normal process of listening, speaking and writing will be in play: i.e. Students will practice and develop strategic competence.

E-teacher intervention to correct should be minimal.

In Brumfit view fluency activities will give students the opportunity to produce and understand items which they have gradually acquired during activities focused on linguistic form. (Elsadig 2007: 14)

Classroom activities develop pattern of language interaction among learners. Willis (1996) gives a useful typology of classroom activities:

Reasoning gap: involves deriving some information from given information through inference and deduction. Information transfer: is a type of communicative activity that involves transferring information from one medium e.g. (text) to another, (from table- diagram), such activities are indeed to help

developing learners communicative competence by engaging them in meaning focuses on communication.

Information gap: is another type of communicative activity in which each participant in the activity holds some information, other participants don't have and all participants have to share the information they have with other participants in order to successfully complete a task or solve a problem. Role playing and simulation: communicative act that achieve through language in the world outside the classroom and pedagogical tasks which are carried out in the classroom involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the language which their attention is principally focused on meaning rather form. They have a non – linguistic outcome, and can be divided into rehearsal tasks activation tasks: a piece of classroom work which involves communicative interaction, but one in which learners will be rehearsing for some out of class communication. Language exercise: apiece of classroom work focusing learners on, and involving learners in manipulating some aspect of linguistic system.

-communicative activity: a piece of classroom work involves a focus on a particular linguistic feature but also involving the genuine exchange of meaning. Having specified target and pedagogical tasks, the syllabus designer analyses language items in order to identify the knowledge and skills that the learner will need to have in order to carry out the tasks. The next steps are to sequence and integrate the tasks with enabling exercises designed to develop the requisite knowledge and skills.

2.20. Structure of Pronouns

In the use of pronouns the misused of syntactic structure affect the grammaticality as well as the meaning of the sentence or phrase.

The researcher will take a look at some common mistakes in the structure of some pronouns. People said :

1- Each of these girls play football well. Which is incorrect.

1- Each of these girls plays football well. Which is correct.

2- Each of these four roads lead to the farm. Incorrect.

2- Each of these four roads leads to the farm. Correct.

After Each of , the correct is to use a plural noun or pronoun and a singular verb.

As well as to say:

1- Both didn't go. Which is incorrect.

1-Neither went. Which is correct.

In negative structure use both instead of neither.

1- Ne all did not go. Incorrect.

1-None of us went . correct

In negative structures to make a good meaning is to use none instead of all.

1- Each boy and each girl were given a book. incorrect.

1- Each boy and each girl was given a book. Correct.

As well as :

1- Have you got a pen? I haven't got.

1- Have you got a pen? I haven't got one.

The verb get needs to be followed by an object , other wise it will give other meaning.

1- My all books are lost.

1- All of my books are lost. Which is correct?

1- Your problem is bigger than me. Which is comparison between my problem and yours?

1- Your problem is bigger than mine. Which is correct?

Pronouns should go in the prober order- the person spoken to, first, the person spoken of, second and the speaker, third

1- I and Sara are friends.

1- Sara and I are friends.

2. 21.Modifiers problems

2.21.1 Misplaced Modifiers

A modifier should be placed next to the word it describes otherwise losing trace
to the meaning will take place.

Example

Jones lifted the **heavy** box **containing supplies.**

heavy modifies *box*   *containing supplies* modifies *box*
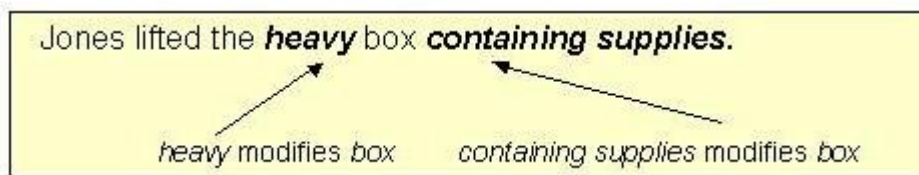
But notice here , how the placement of the modifier creates different possible
meanings:

The instructor **just** nodded to Elvis as she came in.
 (She did not speak or extend her hand; she only nodded.)

The instructor nodded **just** to Elvis as she came in.
 (She did not nod to anyone except Elvis.)

The instructor nodded to Elvis **just** as she came in.
 (She nodded *when she came in.)*

Note how different placement of the word only creates a difference in meaning
between these two sentences.

A. The shopper **only** looked at ties.
B. The shopper looked **only** at ties.

Sentence A means that the shopper did not buy any ties.

Sentence B means that the shopper visited only the tie department.

So a misplaced modifier is a word, phrase, or clause that is improperly separated from the word it describes. Sentences with misplaced modifiers often sound awkward, confusing, or downright illogical.

2.21.2 Misplaced Single Word

Example

The vendor **almost** *sold* all of her pottery at the crafts fair.

misplaced modifier

The logical meaning of this sentence is not that the vendor almost sold all of her pottery, but that she sold almost all of her pottery.

Therefore, almost correctly belongs next to all.

Correct: The vendor sold **almost** *all* of her pottery at the crafts fair.

2.21.3 Misplaced Phrase

Example

She served hamburgers to the children **on paper plates.**

misplaced modifier

As written, this sentence means that children were served on paper plates. On paper plates is misplaced.

Correctly written, the sentence means that hamburgers were served, on paper plates.

Correct: She served *hamburgers* **on paper plates** to the children.

Example #2

As written, this sentence means that the <u>car</u> is carrying a briefcase. Carrying a briefcase is misplaced.

Correctly written, the sentence means that the <u>man</u> is carrying a briefcase.

2.21.4 Misplaced clause

Example

As written, this sentence means that the <u>store</u> was broken..

Correctly written, the sentence means that the <u>toy</u> was broken.

Example

As written, the sentence means that I <u>forgot</u> my keys after I got home.

2.21.5.Squinting Modifiers

A squinting modifier is a modifier misplaced so that it may describe two situations.

Example
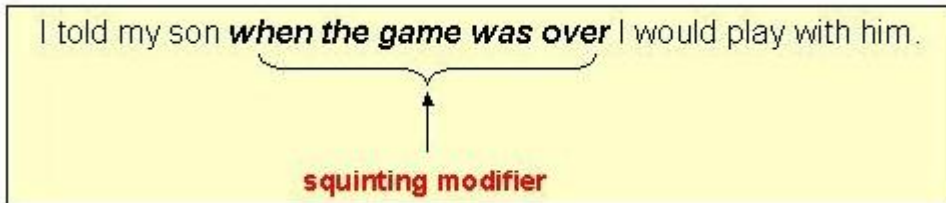
The sentence above is unclear.

Does it mean that I told my son when the game was over?

OR

Does it mean that I would play with him when the game was over?
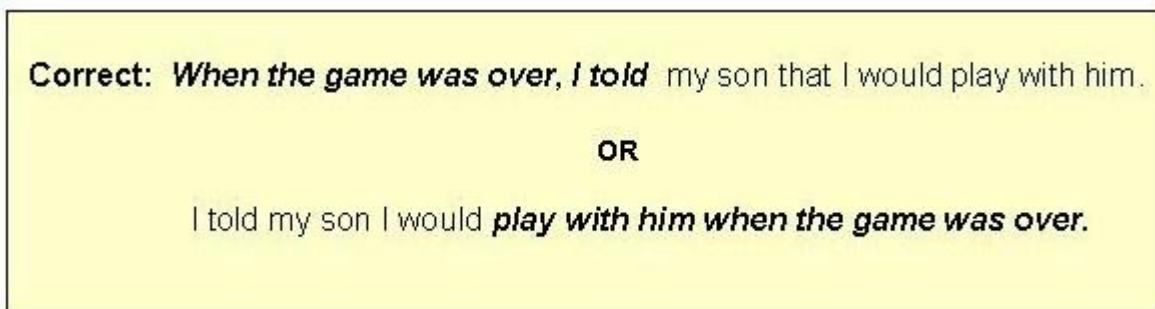
2.21.6 Awkward Separations

An awkward separation creates a confusing meaning.

Example
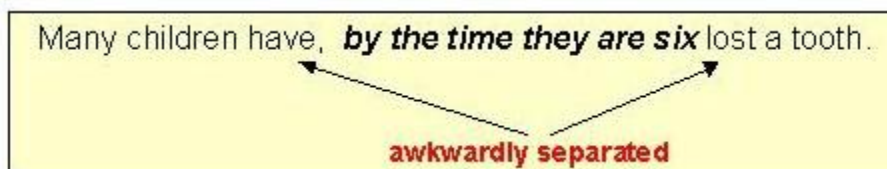
As written, this sentence separates the auxiliary verb from the main verb, creating an awkward gap.

Correct: *By the time they are six,* many children **have lost** a tooth.
OR
Many children **have lost** a tooth *by the time they are six.*

2.21.7.Dangling Modifier Errors

A dangling modifier is "dangling" because its placement gives it nothing to modify.

In many cases, the dangling modifier appears at the beginning of a sentence, although it can also come at the end. Sometimes the error occurs because the sentence fails to specify anything to which the modifier can refer. At other times the dangling modifier is placed next to the wrong noun or noun substitute: a noun that it does not modify.

Dangling modifiers may appear in a variety of forms.

2.21.8.Dangling Participles

Passing the building, the broken window was clearly visible.

In this sentence, the modifier passing the building is positioned next to the broken window.

The resulting meaning is that "the broken window" is "passing the building," clearly not the

intended meaning.

Once revised and corrected, I got an A.

In this sentence, the modifier once revised and corrected is positioned next to I, suggesting that "I" have been "revised and corrected."

2.21.9.Dangling Gerund

After roasting for three hours, we turned the oven off.

In this sentence, the modifier after roasting for three hours is positioned next to we, meaning that "we" have been "roasting for three hours."

2.21.10.Dangling Infinitive

To walk a high wire, a pole is needed for balance.

In this sentence, the modifier to walk a high wire is positioned next to a pole. As a result, the sentence means that "a pole" can walk "a high wire."

2.21.11.Dangling Elliptical Clause

When just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.

In this sentence, the modifier when just six years old is positioned next to my grandmother, suggesting that my six year old grandmother taught me ballet.

2.22 .How to Repair Dangling Modifiers – Two Options

1. Create a word for the modifier to describe. Place it next to the modifier.

Dangling: *Once corrected and rewritten,* I got an A.
Revised: Once corrected and rewritten, **my paper** got an A.

With the modifier next to my paper, the sentence clearly means that "my paper" was "corrected and rewritten."

Dangling: *To walk a high wire*, **a pole** is needed for balance.
Revised: *To walk a high wire*, **an acrobat** needs a pole for balance.

With the modifier next to an acrobat, the sentence clearly means that "an acrobat" can "walk a high wire."

2. Rewrite the modifier (phrase) as an <u>adverbial clause</u>, thus eliminating the need for an immediate word to modify.

Dangling: *Once revised and corrected*, I got an A.
Revised: *Once **my paper was revised and corrected***, I got an A.

With its own subject, "was revised and corrected" clearly refers to "my paper."

Dangling: When just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.
Revised: When **I was** just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.

With its own subject, "was just six years old" clearly refers to "I."

Dangling: *After roasting for two hours*, we turned the oven off.
Revised: *After **we roasted the turkey** for two hours*, we turned the oven off.

In all these expressions   the reader will not get the meaning unless the writer use the correct form of the syntactic structures avoiding different obstacles that hurdle the author intended meaning. All form of structures that affect modifiers and other form of syntactic structures.

2.23. Related Studies

   As far as the researcher came across, and found, the researcher have come to know that, there is no similar studies of The Role of Syntactic Structures in Understanding Written Texts. The researcher can say that, there are similar issues in a lot of studied but not identical to the issue that the researcher studied. Some of these studied are:

1. Generative Grammar Without Transformational rules: Defense of Phrase Structure. Gilbert. H. Horman 2003.

The study reveals that, the criteria of phrase structure consist in the construction of   formal model of phrase theory and the demonstration is that, this is inadequate as complete theory of grammar.

2. Gerald Gazdor, Phrase Structure Grammar and Natural Language

The study concerned on the context-free phrase structure grammar.

3**. Co-occurrence and transformation in linguistic structure.**

Summary: the paper defines a formal relation a among sentences by virtue of which one sentence structure may be called transform of another sentence structure e.g. active and passive.

The study is concerned or based on comparing the co- occurrence of morphemes. More important it process to define transformations based on the structures, the analysis of sentences structure and the different meaning that may occur.

4. Phrase Structure – Transformational Analysis and Concept of Style as Choice

KHALID SHAKIR HUSSEIN 2009 June N01. V01.5

In this study the researcher attempts to study choices in transformational grammar and that in phrase structure. The study represents them as potential significant tools in stylistic description, and that can help linguists explicate …… notion of style as choice.

5. Transformational Generative Grammar

Professor: MA.MARTHA MANETTE, A.MADRID ED.D

The study concerns on the phrase structure, transformations and the definition of them and that they are important in the structure of the sentence to gain the better understanding.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter will provide a full description of the research methodology adopted as well as the research instruments employed. Moreover, the validity and reliability of these instruments will be confirmed.

3.1 The Study Methodology

The researcher has used the descriptive and analytical method, quantitative and qualitative methods as well as the questionnaire and the pre and post-test as tools to investigate the following hypotheses:

1. Syntactic structures found in written texts can pose hurdles to understanding.

2. Reading strategies can help students circumvent structural and syntactic difficulties embedded in written texts.

3. Attaining a full grasp of syntactic structures is enough to understand a text.

In order to analyze the obtained data from the pre and post tests as well as the questionnaire, SPSS package was used. The focus has been on percentages and frequencies.

3.2 Study Population

The study population was students from Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages, Third year and thirty of the teaching staffs of English from different universities, male and female. All the students are aged 20 years old. They all speak Arabic as their first language. They are all Sudanese and some from Arab countries such as Iraq and Syria. They are all majoring in English and have as their minors either Arabic or French.

A number of variables were taken into consideration to account for the differences on part of the respondents. Hence they are dealt with according to the following:

Respondents grouped according to gender differences (male as opposed to female)

Different qualifications (B.A,MA AND PhD).

Respondents according to years of experience (1-5 years, 5-10 years, above 10 years). In case of teaching staff.

According to the above variables, the study shall provide detailed description of the individuals:

(i)Gender:

The frequency distribution for the study respondents according to the Gender as represented by table (3-1)

Gender	Number	Percent
Male	22	73.3
Female	8	26.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(3-1): The frequency distribution for the study respondents according to the gender
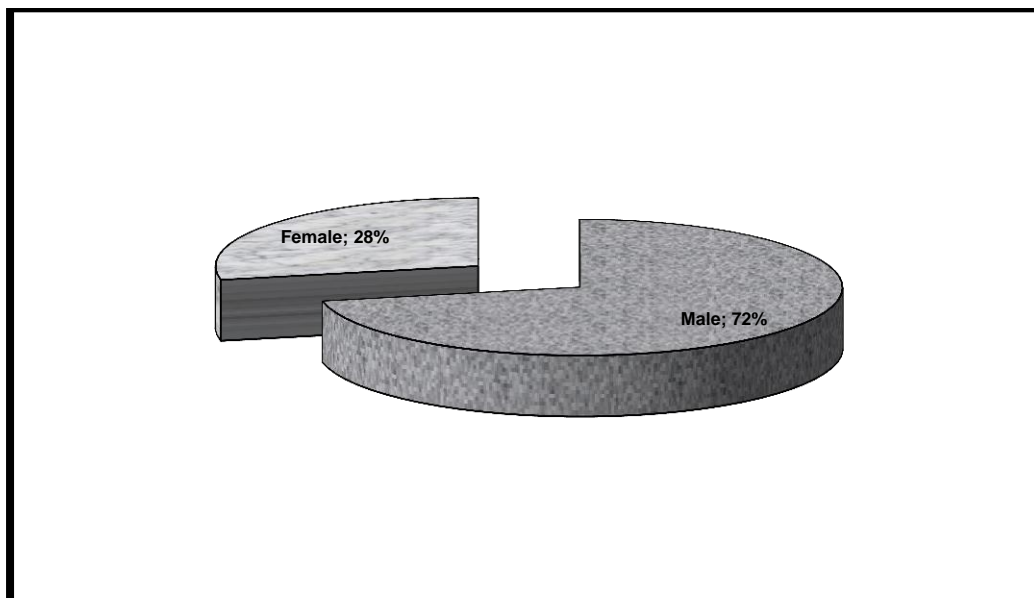
Judging by the above table and figure, it is evident that most of the study's respondents are Male, the number of those was (22) persons with percentage (73.3%). The respondents are female was (8) persons with (26.7%).

(ii)Qualification

Table no.(3-2) demonstrates the frequency distribution according to the variable of qualification.

Qualification	number	Percent
B.A.	10	40.0
M.A.	20	60.0
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(3-2) The frequency distribution of respondents according to the variable of qualification:
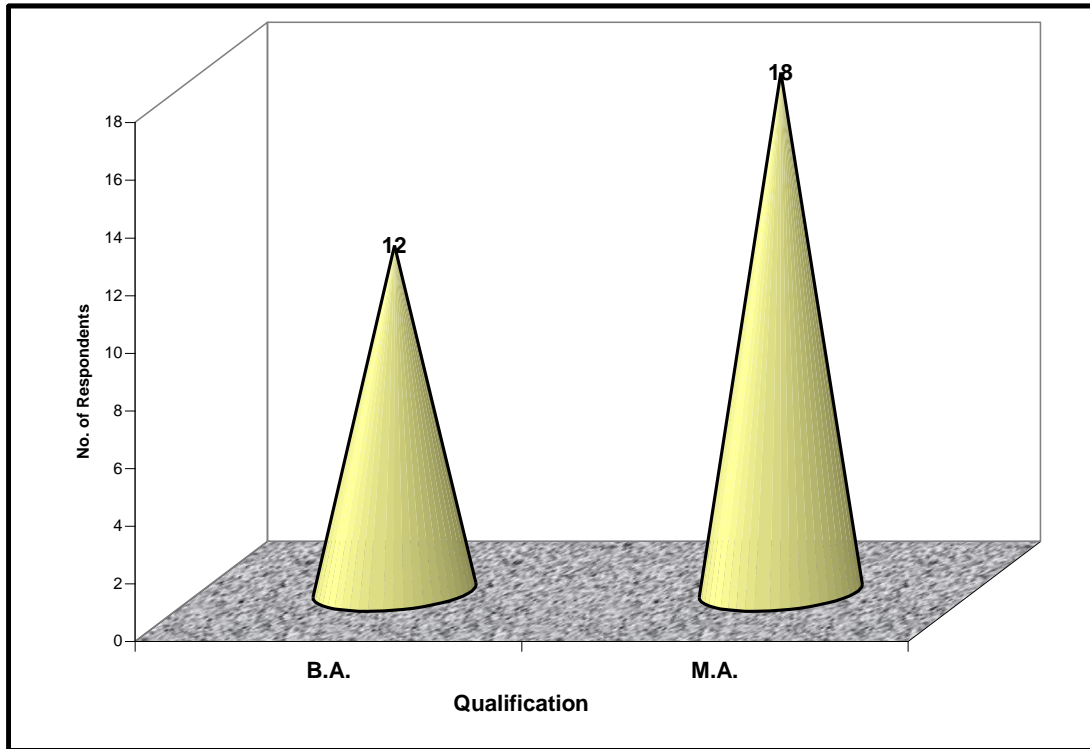
The above table and figure prove evidently that that most of the study's respondents have M.A. as qualification, the number of those was (20) persons with percentage (60.0%), The respondents have B.A. as qualification was (10) persons with (40.0%).

(iii) Years of Experience

Table no. (3-3) The frequency distribution for the study respondents according to the experience:

Experience	Number	Percent
1-5	22	73.3
5-10	6	20.0
Over 10	3	6.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(3-3) The frequency distribution for the study respondents according to the experience
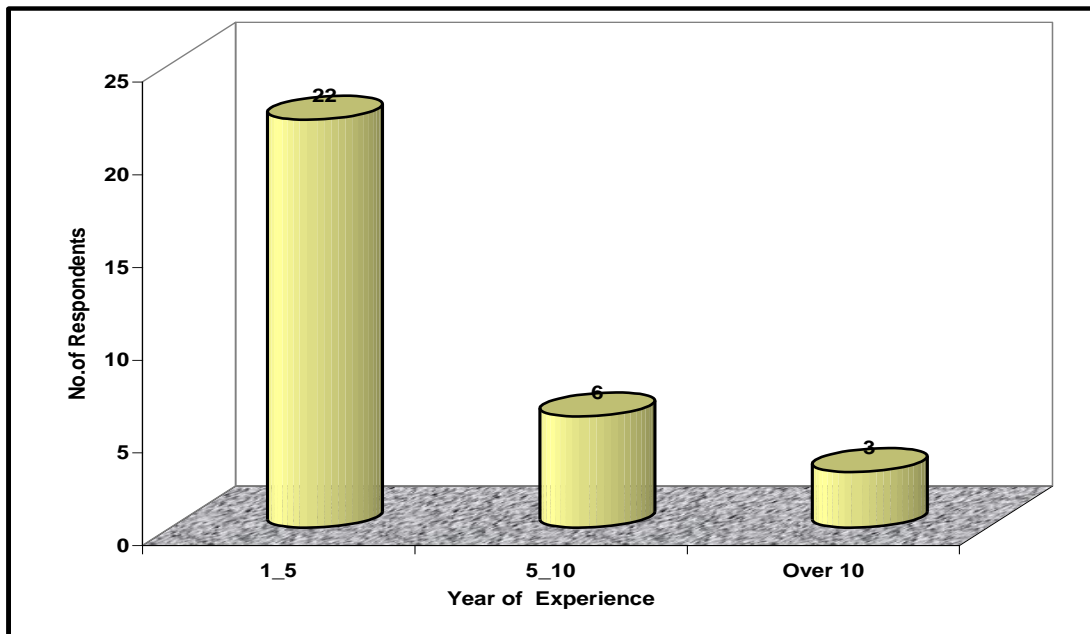
It is obvious as shown above from the table no.(3-3) and the figure no.(3-3) that, most of the sample's respondents have experience between (1) and (5) years, their number was (22) persons with percentage (73.3%). The number of sample's respondents whom have experience between (5) and (10) years was (6) persons with percentage (20.0%).and (2) persons with percentage (6.7%) have experience over 10 years.

3.4 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire:

In order to validate the questionnaire, it was shown to jury comprising 3 PhD holding referees. They made different suggestions which were all taken into consideration.

Table (3-4) demonstrating referees' titles, names and their place of work

No.	Name	Job	Qualification	Place of work
1	Ayman Hamad El-Niel	Lecturer	PhD holder	SUST
2	Hilary M. Pitia	lecturer	PhD holder	SUST
3	Abdul Rahman Abu Al Gasim	Lecturer	PhD holder	SUST

3.4.1Statistical Validity and Reliability

Reliability of any test refers to the test's capability of demonstrating the same result or results if the same measurement is used several times under the same conditions. Again, the concept of reliability also means if the same used with the same group twice or even three times it will yield the same marks. Reliability, further refers to the degree of accuracy of the data that the test measures. Below are some common methods for calculating reliability:

1- Split-half by applying Spearman Brown equation

2- Alpha Cranach Coefficient

3- Test and Re-test Method

4- Equivalent Images Method

5- Guttmann Equation

Furthermore, validity is a measure which is applied to find out how valid the choices of the respondents are, over one specific issue and in line with   a certain criterion. Validity is counted by a number of methods amongst which is the square root of the reliability coefficient.

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Re liability}}$$

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

Coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} \quad r = \text{Pearson correlation coefficient}$$

Table (3-5) The statistical reliability and validity of the pre-test sample about the study questionnaire

Hypotheses	Reliability	Validity
First	0.70	0.84
Second	0.80	0.89
Third	0.76	0.87
Four	0.83	0.91
Overall	0.78	0.88

It is observed from the results above as demonstrated by the table that all reliability and validity coefficients for pre-test sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, and for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), and some of them are nearest to one. This indicates to the high validity and reliability of the answers, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will result in correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

3.4.2 Statistical Instruments

In order to confirm the study objectives and to verify its hypotheses, we use the following statistical instruments:

1. Graphical figures.

2. Frequency distribution.

3. Person correlation coefficient.

4. Spearman-Brown equation for calculating Reliability coefficient.

5. Median.

6. Non-parametric Chi-square test.

In order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. In addition, to design the graphical figures, which are needed for the study, the computer program (Excel) was also used.

3.5 Application of the Study's Tool

After checking the questionnaire's reliability and validity, the questionnaire had been distributed to as many as (30) respondents. The required tables for the collected data were already structured. This step deals with transforming the qualitative (nominal) variables (Strongly agree, Agree, Not sure, Disagree, Strongly disagree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2, 1) respectively, also the graphical representation for its realization.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

By applying the instruments demonstrated in chapter three, this chapter presents the analysis of the collected data. Moreover,   the results of the analyses will be discussed thoroughly with the purpose of answering the research questions and confirming the hypotheses. This chapter divided into two parts. The first part is the pre and post tests and the second part is questionnaire.

4.1 Analysis of the Experiment

Three vital statements, namely the hypotheses will be dealt with here. These are respectively: (a) Complex syntactic structures found in written texts can pose hurdles to understanding.(b)Explicit teaching of grammar can help remove difficulties caused by complex syntactic structures, hence improves understanding of a written text.(c)Attaining full grasp of syntactic structures is required for adequate understanding of a written text.

To answer this question, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction.

Table (4.1) statistical t-test results of high and low proficiency groups

Group		N	Mean	Std Deviation	df	t-test	Sig (tailed)
Experiment		89	8.65	2.659	101	-1.993-	.049
Control		14	10.14	2.179			

The above table (4.1) compares between experimental and control group.   It compares between those who scored 75 % and above and their counterparts who

scored less than 75% on the pre-test. It shows that the mean score for the experiment group is (10.14), and the standard deviation is (2.179). Whereas the mean for control group is (8.65) and the standard deviation is (2.659). The calculated t-test is significant at (0.05). It shows that the overall mean of scores success for the experiment group is significantly higher than that for the control group. This indicates that the learners with good knowledge of syntax and stronger breadth of vocabulary knowledge performed better in reading comprehension tests. Based on this finding, it could be argued that the difference in understanding the written text as related to their scores can be attributed to the difference between the two in terms of their grasp of the English syntactic structures.

4.2 Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire

It consists of three interrelated parts related to surveying facts about complexity of syntactic structures and the hurdles they pose to understanding written texts. The second examines tutors' attitudes towards the explicit teaching of syntax, while the third portrays teachers' views of training to teach syntax to help their students to understand syntactic structures .

4.2.1 First Hypothesis

(i)Complex syntactic structures found in written texts can pose hurdles to understanding.

Table no. (4-2) and figure no.(4-1) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(1) Understanding textual syntactic structures is essential for comprehending the text.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	20.0
Agree	18	60.0
Not sure	2	6.7
Disagree	3	10.0
Strongly disagree	1	3.3

Figure no.(4-2)The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(1)
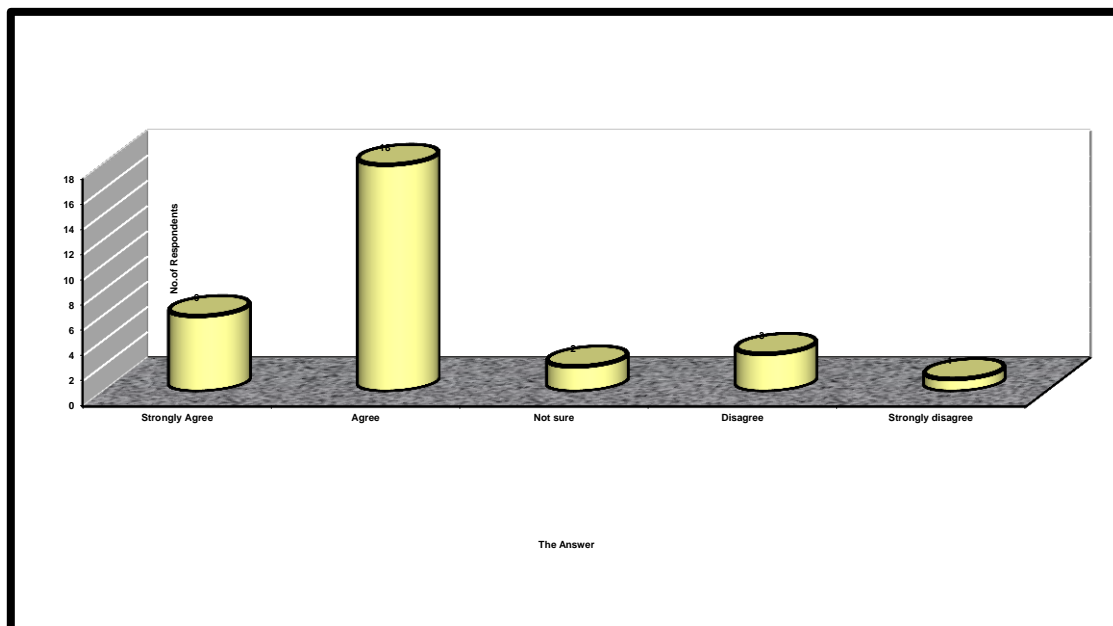
It is evident from the table and figure above that almost (80%) of the respondents do agree that complexity of syntactic structures can render the written text unintelligible. There are (6) persons in the study's sample with percentage (20.0%) have strongly agreed with. There are (18) persons with percentage (60.0%) have agreed on that and (2) persons with percentage (6.7%) have not sure about that, and (3) persons with percentage (6.7%) have disagree

about that, while only one person with percentage (3.3%) have strongly disagree about that.

This in itself can be taken as a sign that verifies or confirms the first hypothesis. It follows from that tutors should pay special attention to the question of complexity as long as it is directly linked with reading comprehension. Tutors should explain concepts as modifiers, pre-modifiers and qualifiers and the role they play in structuring English sentences. Modifiers sometimes are responsible for the difficulty that challenges readers' abilities to understand written texts.

The phrase, land mines is a good example of a pre-modifier, where land though it is a noun it acts in this context as a modifier that defines the word mines. The phrase land mines in wartimes can be taken to illustrate the question of post-modifier as it comes after the noun or technically, the head mines.

Apart from the modifiers and the challenge they pose to understanding, there are some other elements which actually need to be explained to help diminish the difficulty of understanding written texts. Students should be made aware of peculiar aspects of English Language written texts. Run-on –sentences is a phenomenon which is largely exclusive to the English language. A good example is Tayeb Salih, was an important novelist he also wrote very fine short stories. (Incorrect). A run-on-sentence can be corrected in several ways. Although, Tayeb Salih was an important novelist, he also wrote very fine short stories. Good knowledge of this will help students both to understand written sentences as well as to produce correct sentences.

4.2.2 Second Hypothesis

(ii)Explicit teaching of grammar can help remove difficulties caused by complex syntactic structures, hence improves understanding of a written text.

Table no. (4-3) and figure no.(4-2) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(2) Difficult syntactic structures can form real hurdles to understanding.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	30.0
Agree	14	40.0
Not sure	9	23.3
Total	30	100.0
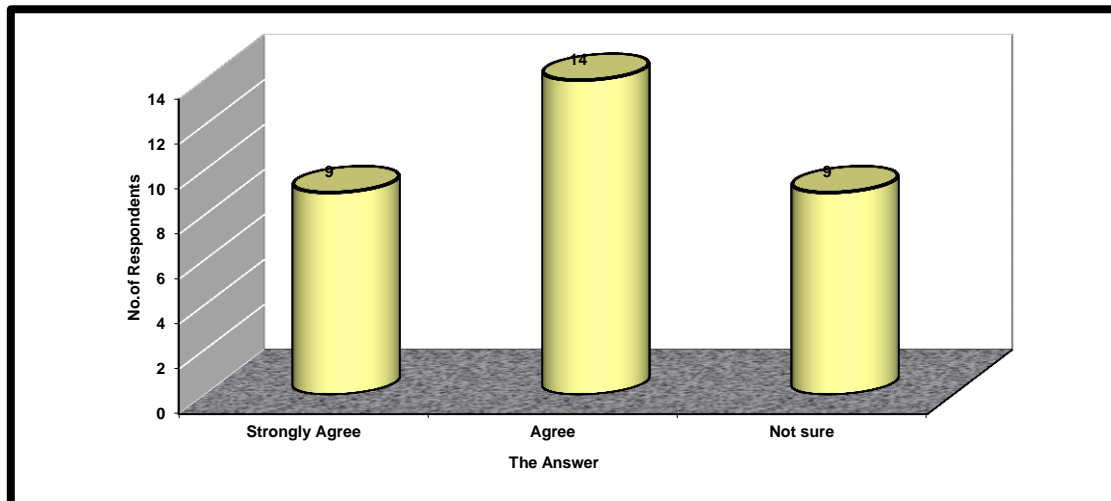
Judging by the table and the figure above that (70%) of the respondents agree that difficult syntactic structures can form real hurdles to understanding written texts in English. In order for the students to have a full grasp of any written text, they must be completely aware of the syntactic structures that underlie it. This confirm the second hypothesis Explicit teaching of grammar can help remove difficulties caused by complex syntactic structures, hence improves understanding of a written text.

Tutors should act actively to help students understand such complex texts by removal of difficulty. Some writers do not pay attention to their EFL readers and keep writing as though they write to native speakers. One of the few things they make is that they insert sentence fragments. A native speaker would understand readily, however EFL learners would find it difficult to understand. A good example of a fragment is when I first started college. For a learner to

understand such fragment it must have an independent clause: When I first started college, it was a challenging experience.

There are of course lots of other examples linked with English syntactic structures for the tutors to work hard to remove so that their students can come to better understanding of the language of the written texts. Problems in sentence comprehension become particularly marked when students are asked to deal with more advanced learning material. Such sentences may have multiple subjects and predicates, embedded clauses and phrases, passive voice or unusual word order, to mention a few.

4.2.3 Third Hypothesis

(iii) Attaining full grasp of syntactic structures is required for adequate understanding of a written text.

Table no. (4-4) and figure no.(4-3) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(3) Reading strategies can help students overcome difficulties posed by syntactic structures.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	11	36.7
Agree	15	50.0
Not sure	3	10.0
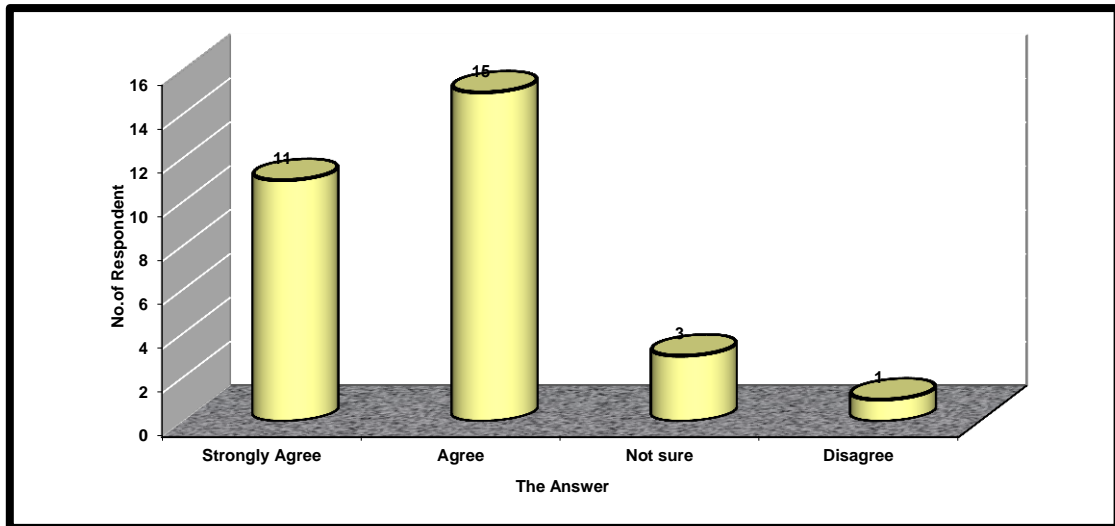
It is clear from the table and the figure that (86%) of the respondents believe that reading strategies can help students overcome difficulties posed by syntactic structures. It is through reading that EFL learners acquire much of their knowledge and understanding of the different subject areas, and reading often forms the basis of follow-up work such as class discussions or homework questions. For these reasons it is essential that EFL students are helped as much as possible and necessary to understand what they read.

A written message may be difficult to understand because it contains many words that are unknown to the student. In the following text, for example, the instruction is simple but the language in which it is expressed is not: You are requested to desist from masticating gum in this establishment. Words in bold-type may pose some difficulty to some learners, and hence the fail to understand the notice and the message to be put across is thus not conveyed.

In general, long sentences containing subordinate or embedded clauses tend to be less immediately intelligible than shorter, simpler ones. For example, the second instruction below is probably more readily understood than the first, which contains an embedded participial clause.

(a)Explain clearly using at least three different reasons or drawing three diagrams why McClelland lost the battle.

(b)Explain clearly why McClelland lost the battle. Give at least three reasons or draw three diagrams.

Tutors should be so concerned that they pay attention to the issue of long sentences as they hinder understanding particularly when setting exams. The above example illustrates this phenomenon quite adequately.

Table no. (4-5) and figure no.(4-4) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(4) Metaphorical and idiomatic expressions pose more difficulties to understanding than syntactic structures

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	26.7
Agree	17	56.7
Not sure	4	13.3
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0
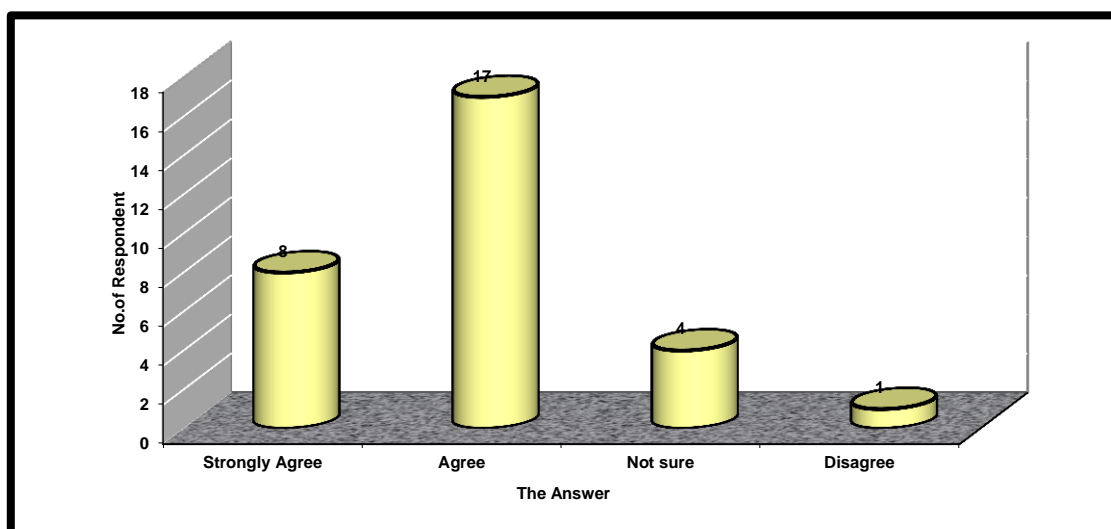
Assessing by the table and figure above, it is safely to admit that (92%) of the respondents consider that idiomatic and metaphorical expressions cause more difficulty than syntactic structures. So in order to help students overcome such difficulty teachers have to handle idiomatic and metaphorical expressions along

with syntactic structures. The next difficulty can be seen in texts such as the following:

The appeal of the view that a work of art expresses nothing unless what it expresses can be put into words can be reduced by setting beside it another view, no less popular in the theory of art, that a work of art has no value if what it expresses can be put into words.

The words in themselves are not unduly difficult and no special background knowledge is required, but the concept expressed in the passage is complex.

Table no. (4-6) and figure no.(4-5) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(5) Students Know that the noun in the adjective phrase can also be modified by other adjective. However complex syntax can cause difficulty of understanding

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	20.0
Agree	10	33.3
Not sure	8	26.7
Disagree	5	16.7
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0
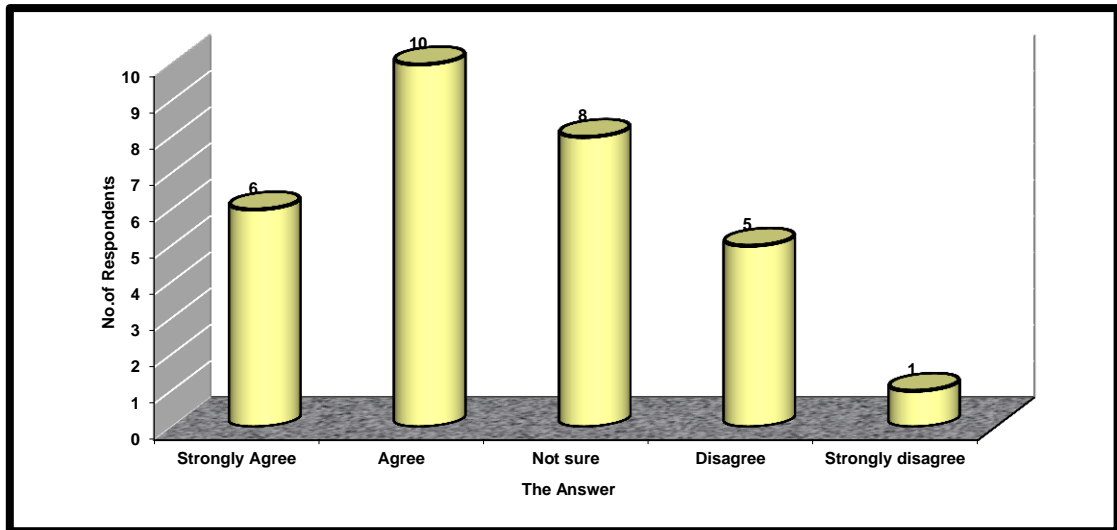
It is obvious from the table and figure above that (80%) of the respondents agree that complex syntax poses the greatest difficulty to understanding written texts. One of the problems posed by syntax is what is known as nominalization which is the use of a noun in combination with an "empty" verb. It is a feature of academic text that causes problems to EFL students. The following fragments give the same instruction. The second, containing a nominalization, is likely to be the more difficult:

-In your answer you should consider the effect of heat loss...

-Consideration should be given in your answer to the effect of heat loss...

Table no. (4-7) and figure no.(4-6) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(6) Many students don't know that adjectives modify nouns.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	7	26.7
Agree	14	46.7
Not sure	3	10.0
Disagree	3	10.0
Strongly disagree	2	6.7
Total	30	100.0
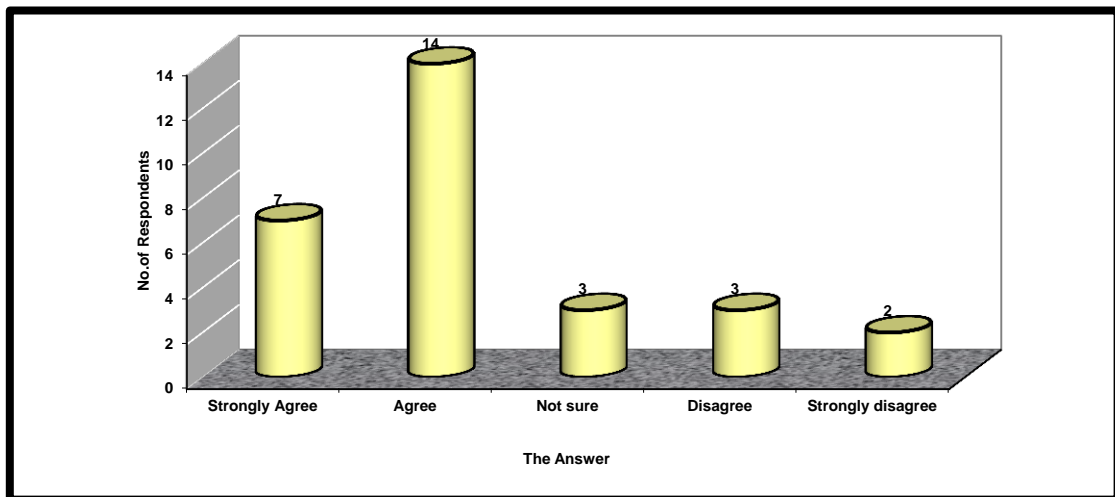
It is clear that (76%) from the table and the figures above of the respondents do agree that many students don't know that adjectives modify nouns. This type of problems owes its origin to bad teaching of grammar in particular at the secondary level. At secondary schools the teaching of grammar should be given at most care particularly in an explicit manner. This will help many of the students particularly those who seek to major in languages.

The problem with the adjectives, nouns and modifiers are greatly clear with complex noun groups. This is another syntactic feature of academic text are complex noun groups. Following is an example of a noun (system) which is both pre-modified by an adjective and 3 nouns and post-modified by a phrase that omits the relative pronoun and copula (that is intended ..). This kind of noun group can be very problematic for language learners.

He invented a rudimentary binary data-transmission system intended to be operable over distances of more than 10 meters.

Table no. (4-8) and figure no.(4-7) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(7) Explicit teaching of grammar is needed to help with understanding written texts.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	16	17.8
Agree	48	53.3
Not sure	18	20.0
Disagree	7	7.8
Strongly disagree	1	1.1
Total	90	100.0
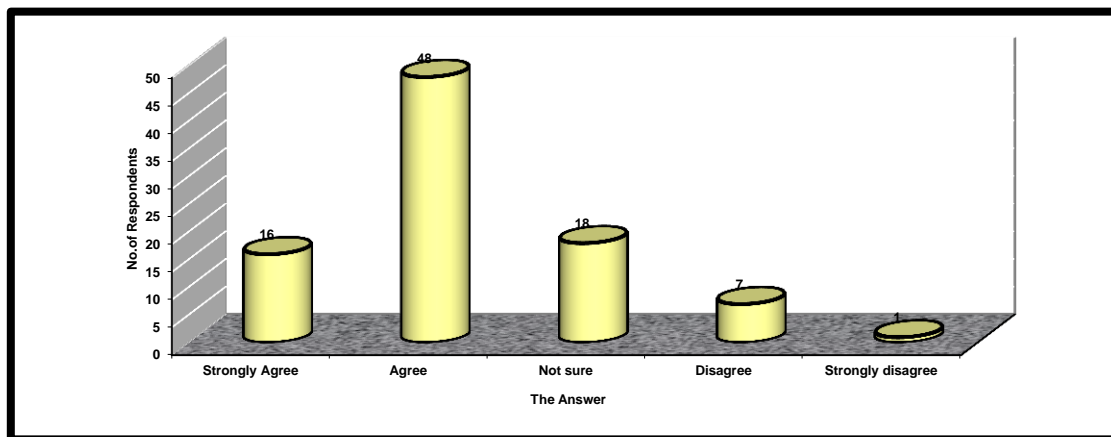
It is clear from table no.(4-8) and figure (4-7) that there are (16) answers with percentage (17.8%) were strongly agreed about all questions that related to the third hypothesis, (48) answers with percentage (53.3%) were agreed on that, (18) answers with percentage (20.0%) were not sure about that, while (7) answers with percentage (7.8%) were disagreed; also only one answer with percentage (1.1%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (73.00) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-3), this indicates that, there are statistically significant

differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with the third hypothesis. All in all, explicit teaching of grammar is needed to help learners understand written texts.

Table no. (4-9) and figure no.(4-8) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(8) Some students need to be taught that adverbs modify verbs to help them not to confuse adjectives for adverbs.

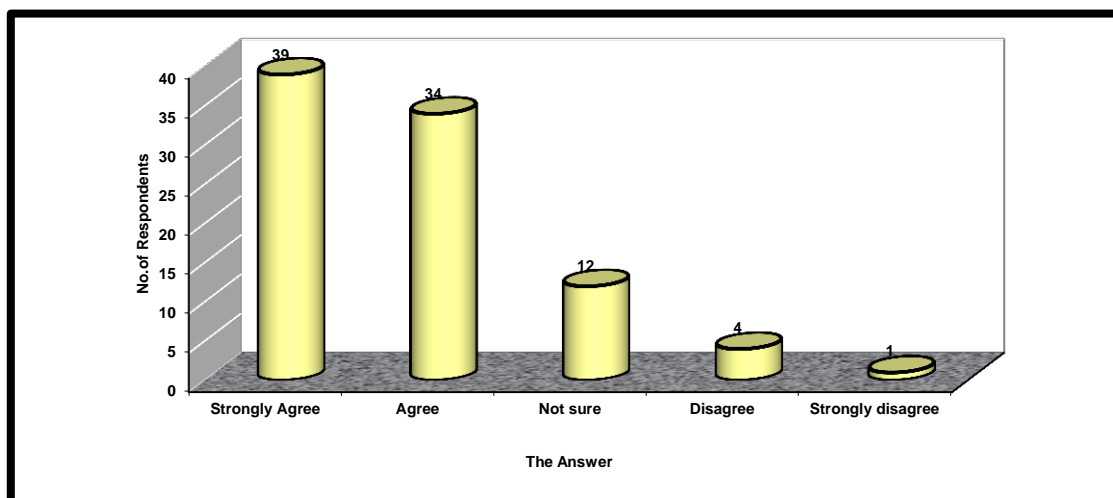| Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	39	43.3
Agree	34	37.8
Not sure	12	13.3
Disagree	4	4.4
Strongly disagree	1	1.1
Total	90	100.0

It is clear from table no.(4-9) and figure (4-8) that there are (39) responses with percentage (43.3%) who were strongly agreed about all questions that related to

question no.8 (Some students need to be taught that adverbs modify verbs to help them not to confuse adjectives for adverb.) (34) answers with percentage (37.8%) were agreed on that, (12) answers with percentage (13.3%) were fairly agreed about that, while (4) answers with percentage (4.4%) were disagreed; also only one answer with percentage (1.1%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (67.67) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-6), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have strongly agreed with the second hypothesis.

Consequently, it is clear from the analysis above as based on the generated responses that some students need to be taught that adverbs modify verbs to help them not to confuse adjectives for adverbs.

Table no. (4-10) and figure no.(4-9) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(10) Giving consideration to teaching of cohesive devices help improve students' understanding of written texts.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	24	26.7
Agree	45	50.0
Not sure	14	15.6
Disagree	6	6.7
Strongly disagree	1	1.1
Total	90	100.0
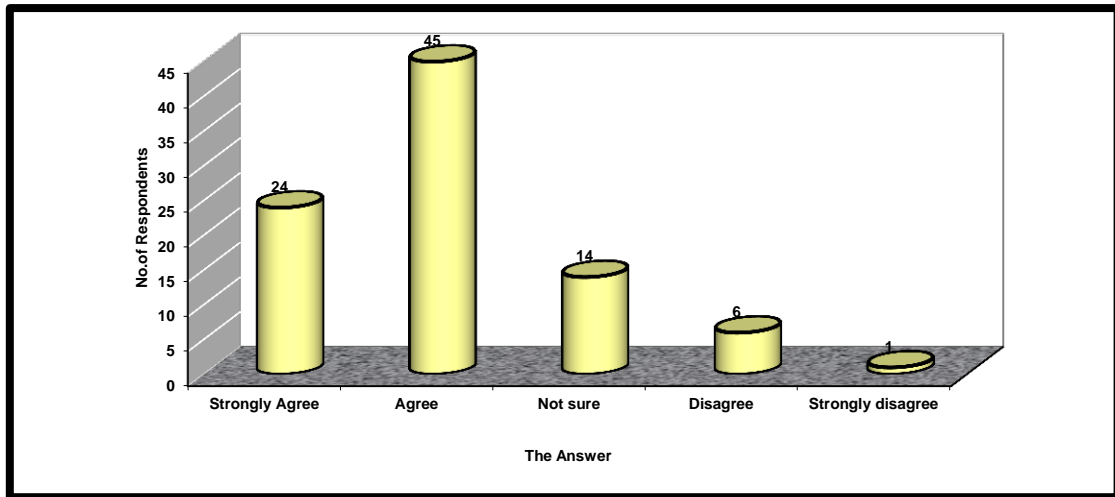
Judging by table no.(4-10) and figure (4-9) that there are (24) answers with percentage (26.7%) were strongly agreed about all questions that related to the question (giving consideration to teaching of cohesive devices help improve students' understanding of written texts). (45) answers with percentage (50.0%) were agreed on that, (14) answers with percentage (15.6%) were not sure agreed about that, while (6) answers with percentage (6.7%) were disagreed; also only one answers with percentage (1.1%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (67.44) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-9), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed about the question.

Hence, the teaching of cohesive devices is as important as teaching syntactic structures should students have a better grasp of the written texts in English.

Table no. (4-11) and figure no.(4-10) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(11) Depth and size of the students' knowledge of vocabulary is not sufficient for understanding written texts.

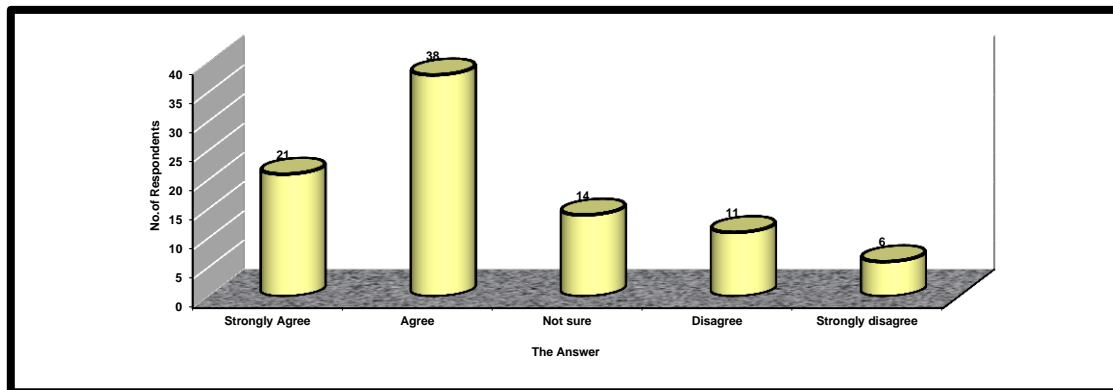| Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	21	23.3
Agree	38	42.2
Not sure	14	15.6
Disagree	11	12.2
Strongly disagree	6	6.7
Total	90	100.0

It is evident from the table no.(4-11) and figure (4-10) that there are (21) answers with percentage (23.3%) were strongly agreed about all question (depth and size of the students' knowledge of vocabulary is not sufficient for understanding written texts), (38) answers with percentage (42.2%) were agreed on that, (14) answers with percentage (15.6%) were not sure agreed about that, while (11) answers with percentage (12.2%) were disagreed; also (6) answers with percentage (6.7%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differences among these answers was (67.44)

which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-9), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with the question.

Therefore, apart from vocabulary knowledge, there are other factors which influence understanding of the written texts in English.

Table no. (4-12) and figure no.(4-11) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(12) Students Know that any number of adjectives can precede a noun provided the they are compatible .

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	16	17.8
Agree	48	53.3
Not sure	18	20.0
Disagree	7	7.8
Strongly disagree	1	1.1
Total	90	100.0

It is quite evident from table no.(4-12) and figure (4-11) that there are (16) answers with percentage (17.8%) were strongly agreed about all questions that related to the question 12 (48) answers with percentage (53.3%) were agreed on that, (18) answers with percentage (20.0%) were not sure about that, while (7) answers with percentage (7.8%) were disagreed; also only one answer with percentage (1.1%) were strongly disagreed about that. The value of chi-square test for the significant differenc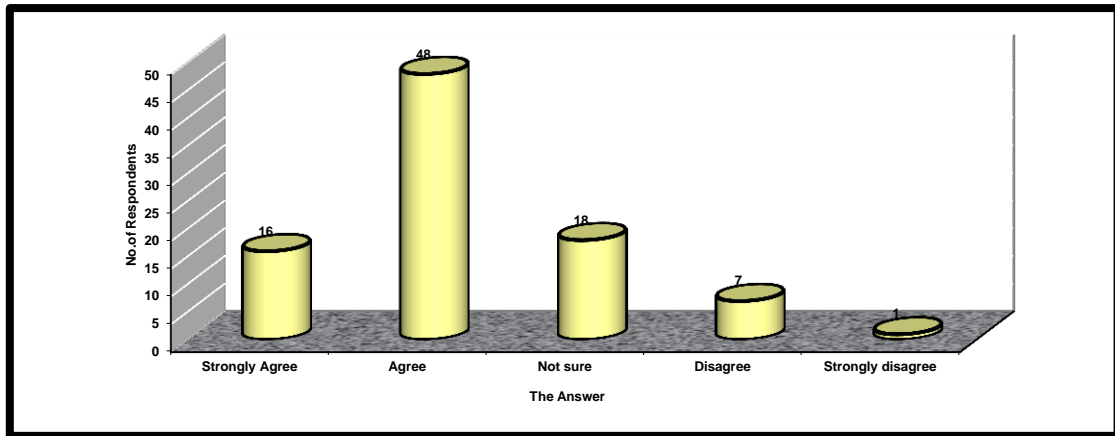es among these answers was (73.00) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (1%) which was (13.28). According to what mentioned in table no.(4-3), this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (1%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with the first hypothesis.

So, it is clear that Students Know that any number of adjectives can precede a noun provided that they are compatible. Tutors should provide their students with multiple examples to reinforce such rules.

Table no. (4-13) and figure no.(4-12) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(13) Understanding Arabic syntax is necessary to understand English syntactic structures.

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	20.0
Agree	10	33.3
Not sure	8	26.7
Disagree	5	16.7
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0
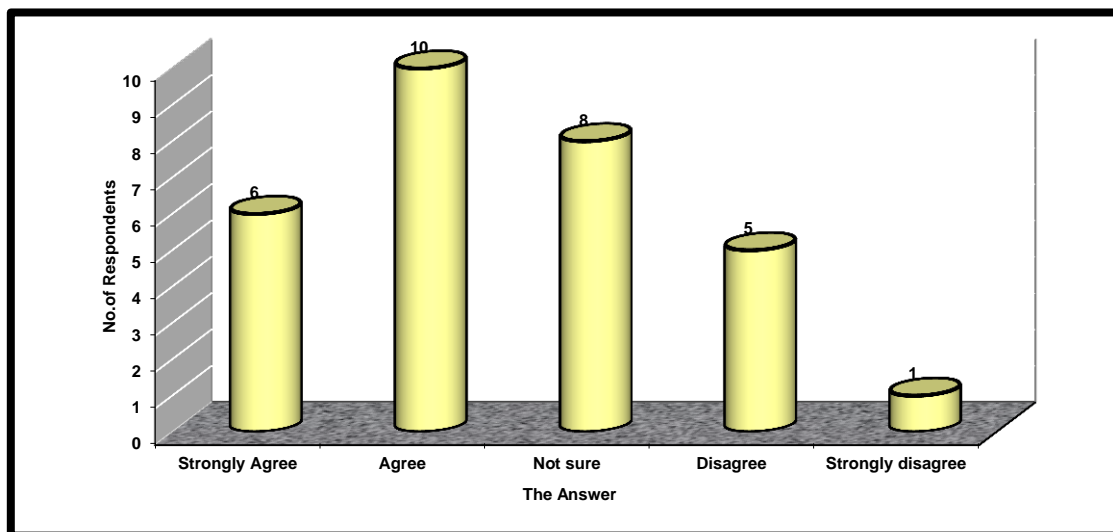
It is clear from table no.(3-15) and figure (3-13) that there are (6) persons in the study's sample with percentage (20.0%) have strongly agreed with question no.(13) "understanding Arabic syntax is necessary to understand English syntactic structures". There are (10) persons with percentage (33.3%) have agreed on that, and (8) persons with percentage (26.7%) have not sure about that, and (5) persons with percentage (16.7%) have disagree about that, while only one person with percentage (3.3%) have strongly disagree about that.

Therefore, judging by that binding result it is essential to give students a substantial dose of Arabic syntax focusing especially on technical terms and concepts to help them understand English syntax perfectly well. Some students have forsaken studying Arabic syntax since they were at the secondary level. So, they need to be reminded of certain portions of Arabic syntax particularly the parts of speech and their functions.

Table no. (4-14) and figure no.(4-13) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(14) Students Know that there are (post modifiers) invariably preceded by a preposition.

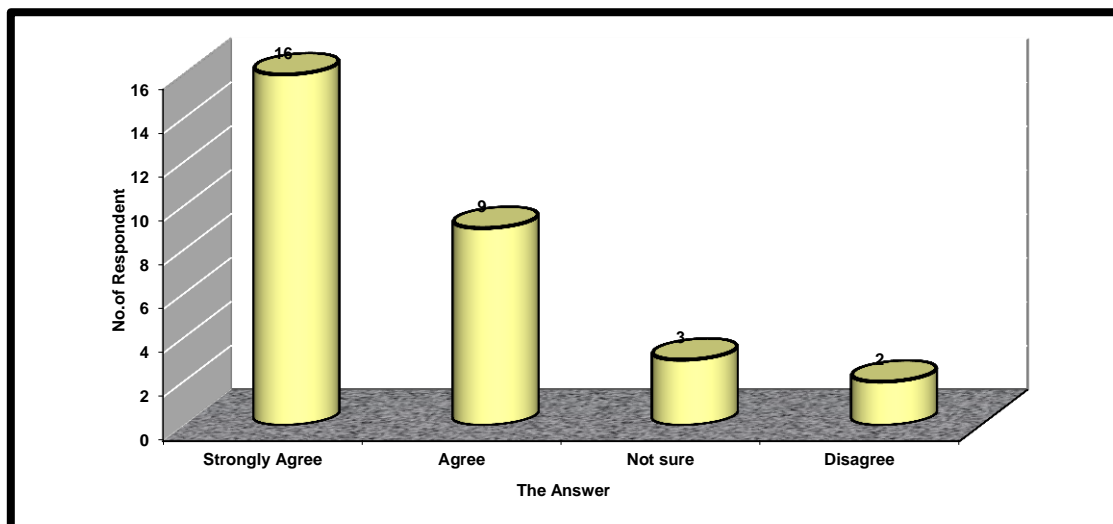| Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	30.0
Agree	10	33.3
Not sure	8	26.7
Strongly disagree	3	10.0
Total	30	100.0

It is clear from table no.(4-14) and figure (4-13) that there are (9) persons in the study's sample with percentage (30.0%) have strongly agreed with " students

Know that there are (post modifiers) invariably preceded by a preposition. ".
There are (10) persons with percentage (33.3%) have agreed on that , and (8)
persons with percentage (26.7%) have not been sure about that, and (3) persons
with percentage (10.0%) is disagree about that. Therefore, tutors should exert
efforts to clarify this essential rule of English syntax as its understanding is
much important and can contribute positively to understanding written texts.

**Table no. (4-15) and figure no.(4-14) shows the frequency distribution for
the study's respondents about question no.(14) Some students need to be
taught that adverbs modify verbs to help them not to confuse adjectives for
adverbs.**

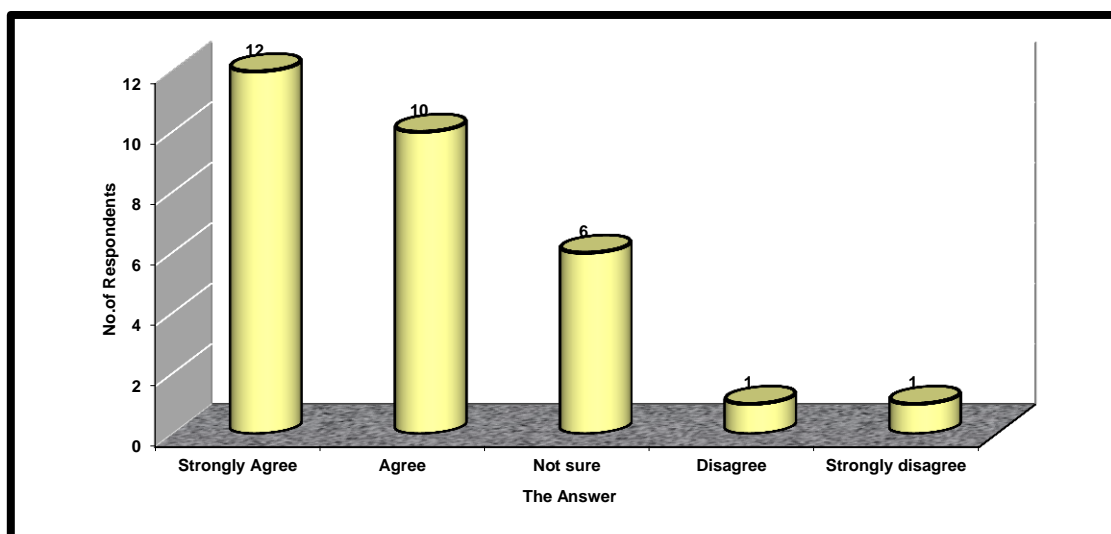| Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	40.0
Agree	10	33.3
Not sure	6	20.0
Disagree	1	3.3
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0

It is clear from table no (4.15) and figure (4.14), that there are (12) persons in
the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) have strongly agreed with " Some

106

students need to be taught that adverbs modify verbs to help them not to confuse adjectives for adverbs.". There are (10) persons with percentage (33.3%) have agreed on that, and (6) persons with percentage (20.0%) have not sure about that, and only one person with percentage (3.3%) have disagree about that, while only one person with percentage (3.3%) have strongly disagree about that. In order to have a better grasp of multiple post modifiers, students should be taught this aspect in grammar lessons quite explicitly.

4.3 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the analyzed data of the study which consisted of: analysis of experiment, teachers' questionnaire through tabulation of frequencies and percentages, and pre and post tests.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary and Conclusions

This study sets out to explore reading or understanding difficulty as pose by syntactic structures. It also surveyed teachers' views on the explicit teaching of English syntax along with that of Arabic, to facilitate the learning of English syntactic structures. To achieve its intended goals, the study posed the following questions which were in turn changed into hypothetical statements.

(a) Complex syntactic structures found in written texts can pose hurdles to understanding.

(b)Explicit teaching of grammar can help remove difficulties caused by complex syntactic structures, hence improves understanding of a written text.

(c)Attaining full grasp of syntactic structures is required for adequate understanding of a written text.

To achieve the set objectives, the study adopted a blended- method approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. This allowed the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, and a pre and post tests were conducted.   The (SPSS) program version (20) was used for data analysis.

30 tutors gave their responses to the questionnaire while 103 students sat for the re and post tests. The study came up to the conclusion that syntactic structures particularly sentences with multiple adjectives as pre and post modifiers do pose the greatest challenge for the students to understand the written English tests.

Consequently, tutors and all stakeholders are advised to adopt new classroom strategies to face this aggravating phenomenon which will eventually stops students from reading altogether as inhibit by the fact of lack of understanding.

Tutors, responding to the questionnaire, expressed variety of views over the teaching of English syntax. Some believe that the problem owes its origin to the secondary schools and even basic schools where bad teaching can result in such sad realities. Some do agree that understanding of Arabic syntax is a prerequisite to understanding English syntactic structures. They further claimed that as strong dose of Arabic syntax should be administered along that of English.

All tutors agreed that it is not only good grasp of vocabulary or rather it is not the size of vocabulary which determined the understanding of written texts. There are other crucial factors which are also responsible for understanding written texts in English. Some of these factors are the cohesive devices which tie sentences together and lexical relations such paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations. Teaching of collocation and other types of figurative language should not be ignored. The latter aspect forms a voluminous part of every written English text. A written message may be difficult to understand because it contains many words that are unknown to the student. Tutors should interfere to help students with such unintelligible words.

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations are forward on basis of the findings of the present study:

English syntax has to be reintroduced or revisited, every now and then, to explain those technical aspects of it

Arabic syntax should not be ignored. A kind of comparative study or handling should be adopted in presenting English as well as Arabic syntax

Other aspects of language such as collocation and pragmatics should be dealt with effectively

Though vocabulary is not the only important element in understanding, it should not be ignored

Tutors should be trained to handle the job well.

Tutors have to avoid the way Arabic syntax is dealt with when handling English syntactic structures.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies

The following are suggestions forwarded for future researchers in the area in question:

Future study in this area should be carried out in large scale as regards the sample

This type of study can be much effective if handled in a contrastive manner, where the aspects of each language is ironed out and dealt with efficiently.

A rigorous scientific research on this area should be conducted with a sample taken from secondary schools to help incorporate general education along with higher studies.

References

Littlewoods, W. 1981. Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

little wood, W. 1992. Teaching Oral Communication: A Methodological Framework. Oxford: Blackwell.

Cheng, Y-Y. 1998. "Adapted Whole Language Teaching in an English Class in Junior High School." Master Dissertation. Department of English. National Kaoshiung Normal University, Kaohsiung.

Cunnings worth, A. 1995. Choosing Your Course book. Oxford: Heinemann.

Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, C. 1983. The Functional-Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice. New York: Oxford University Press.

Grant, N. 1987. Making the Most of Your Textbook. New York: Longman.

Howatt, A.P. R. 1984. A History of English Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Huang, H-l. 1999. "A Comparative Study of the Junior-high English Curriculum Standards and Textbook in Taiwan and Japan." Master Dissertation. Graduate Institute of Comparative Education. National Chi Nan University, Nantou.

Lee, A., Roberts, L. and Chew, M. 2002. English Form 4. Johor Bahru: PGI Cipta Sdn. Bhd.

Lee, A., Roberts, L. and Chew, M. 2003. English Form 5. Johor Bahru: PGI Cipta Sdn. Bhd.

Maley, A. 1986. "Xanadu- 'A Miracle of Rare Device': The Teaching of English in China."

ed. by Valdes, J. M. Cultural Bound: Bridging the Cultural Gap in Language Teaching.

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ministry of Education. 1992. Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran Bahasa Inggeris Tingkatan IV. Kuala Lumpur: Ministry of Education.

Nan-I High School Editing Committee. 1999. Senior High School English Book 1. Tai-Nan: Nan-I.

Nan-I High School Editing Committee. 1999. Senior High School English Book 2. Tai-Nan: Nan-I.

Noor Azlina Yunus and Angeline Spykerman. 1996. KBSM English Form Four. Shah Alam: Fajar Bakti.

Richards, J.C. and Rodgers, T. 1986. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shih, Y-H, Lin, M-S and Brooks, S. (1999). Far East English Reader for Senior High Schools, Book One. The Far East Book Company.

Shih, Y-H, Lin, M-S and Brooks, S. 1999. Far East English Reader for Senior High Schools, Book Three. The Far East Book Company.

Spaventa, L. (ed.) 1980. Towards the Creative Teaching of English. London: Allen and Unwin.

Ur, P. 1988. Grammar Practice Activities: A Practical Guide for Teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yalden J. 1987. Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching. NJ: Prentice Hall. Littlewoods, W. 1992. Teaching Oral Communication: A Methodological Framework. Oxford: Blackwell.

Maley, A. 1986. "Xanadu- 'A Miracle of Rare Device': The Teaching of English in China."

ed. by Valdes, J. M. Cultural Bound: Bridging the Cultural Gap in Language Teaching.

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ministry of Education. 1992. Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran Bahasa Inggeris Tingkatan IV. Kuala Lumpur: Ministry of Education.

Nan-I High School Editing Committee. 1999. Senior High School English Book 1. Tai-Nan: Nan-I.

Nan-I High School Editing Committee. 1999. Senior High School English Book 2. Tai-Nan: Nan-I.

Noor Azlina Yunus and Angeline Spykerman. 1996. KBSM English Form Four. Shah Alam: Fajar Bakti.

Richards, J.C. and Rodgers, T. 1986. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shih, Y-H, Lin, M-S and Brooks, S. (1999). Far East English Reader for Senior High Schools, Book One. The Far East Book Company.

Shih, Y-H, Lin, M-S and Brooks, S. 1999. Far East English Reader for Senior High Schools, Book Three. The Far East Book Company.

Spaventa, L. (ed.) 1980. Towards the Creative Teaching of English. London: Allen and Unwin.

Ur, P. 1988. Grammar Practice Activities: A Practical Guide for Teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yalden J. 1987. Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching. NJ: Prentice Hall. **Feez, S., and H. Joyce** (1998). *Text-Based Syllabus Design.* Australia: Macquarie University

Krahnke, K. (1987). *Approaches to Syllabus design for Foreign Language Teaching.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Littlejohn, A., and D. Hicks (1996). *Cambridge English for Schools.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Littlewoods, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second Language Pedagogy.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, Jack C., and Theodore Rodgers (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching.* Second Edition. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C., and Charles Sandy (1998). *Passages.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Skehan, P. (1996). Second language acquisition research and task-based instruction. In J. Willis and D. Willis (Eds). *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching.* Oxford: Heinemann.

Van Ek, J., and L. G. Alexander (1980). *Threshold Level English.* Oxford: Pergamon. Allen, H. W., & Maxim, H. H. (Eds.). (2011). *Educating the future foreign language professoriate for the 21st century*. Boston: Heinle Cengage.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: a review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81–109.

Brown, H. D. (2006). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Burns, A. (1992). Teacher beliefs and their influence on classroom practice. *Prospect, 7*(3), 56–65.

Brockhart, S. M., & Freeman, D. J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(1), 37–60.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown university round table on languages and linguistics: Language, communication, and social meaning* (pp. 223–237). Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University Press.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second-language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 1–47.

Celce-Murcia, M. (1991). Language and communication: A time for equilibrium and integration. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics* (pp. 223–237). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (1986). *Bilingualism in education: Aspects of theory, research and practice*. London: Longman.

Doughty, C. (1991). L2 instruction does make difference evidence from an empirical study of L2 relativisation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*, 431–469.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in second language acquisition* (pp. 197–261). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Edilian, L. (2009). *A study of attitudes toward grammar instruction in an academic English program*. Saarbücken: VDM Verlag.

Ellis, N. (1993). Rules and instances in foreign language learning: Interactions of implicit and explicit knowledge. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology 5*, 289–319.

Farrell, T. S. C. (1999). The reflective assignment: Unlocking pre-service English teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. *RELC Journal, 30*(2), 1–17.

Farrell, T. S. C., & Lim, P. C. P. (2005). Conceptions of grammar teaching: A case study of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. *TESL-EJ, 9*(2), 1–13.

Feather, N. (1982). Human values and the prediction of action: An expectancy-valence analysis. In N. T. Feather (Ed.), *Expectancy and actions: Expectancy-value models in psychology* (pp. 263–289). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Feather, N. (1988). Values, valences, and course enrollment: Testing the role of personal values within an expectancy-value framework. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80*, 381–391.

Foto, S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness raising tasks. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*(2), 323–351.

Fox, C. A. (1993). Communicative competence and beliefs about language among graduate teaching assistants in French. *Modern Language Journal, 77*, 313–324.

Golombek, P. R, (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 447–464.

Hall, J. K. (2001). *Methods for teaching foreign languages*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Harley, B., & Swain, M. (1984). The interlanguage of immersion students and its implication for L2 teaching. In

A. Davies, C. Criper, & A. P. R. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage* (pp. 291–311). Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press. Hutchinson, G., & Buschner, C. (1996). Delayed-Entry undergraduates in physical education teacher education: Examining life experiences and career choice. *Journal of Teaching Physical Education*, *15*(2), 205–223. Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.). *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269– 293). Harmondsworth: Penguin. Hymes, D. (1974). *Foundations in sociolinguistics. An ethnographic approach*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. Johnson, K.E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language

teachers. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 10*(4), 439–452. Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon. Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.

APPENDIXIES

SUDAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COLLEGE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

COLLEGE OF LANGUAGES-ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIVERSITY TUTORS AT SUDANESE UNIVERSITIES

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire will gather data about *The Role of Syntactic Structures in Understanding Written Texts.* The analyzed data will help form a better insight about the nature, causes and how the problem can be addressed.

Part 1: Personal data:

1. Name: (optional)_____

2. Highest degree earned:

Bachelor's Degree   Master's Degree   PhD

☐   ☐   ☐

3 How many years have you been teaching English

1.year   2-5 years   2. 6-10 years   more than 10 year

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Part 2: General statements:

• Please choose only one answer for every question or statement.

Use the following scales:

Strongly agree: (If you strongly agree with the idea stated in the item).

Agree: (If you agree with the idea stated in the item).

Disagree: (If you disagree with the idea stated in the item).

Strongly disagree: (If you strongly disagree with the idea stated in the item).

No.	STATEMENTS	RESONSE			
		Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	Understanding textual syntactic structures is essential for comprehending the text.				
2.	Difficult syntactic structures can form real hurdles to understanding.				
3	Reading strategies can help students overcome difficulties posed by syntactic structures.				
4	Full grasp of syntactic structures is required for thorough understanding of the text.				
5.	Metaphorical and idiomatic expressions pose more difficulties to understanding than syntactic structures				
6.	Tutor attention should be drawn to the importance of this language component as syntax in order to explain it adequately				
7	Students Know that the noun in the adjective phrase can also be modified by other adjective. However complex syntax can cause difficulty of understanding				
8.	Many students don't know that adjectives modify nouns.				
9.	Explicit teaching of grammar is needed to help with understanding written texts.				
10	Some students need to be taught that adverbs modify verbs to help them not to confuse adjectives for adverbs.				
11	Depth and size of the students' knowledge of vocabulary is sufficient for understanding written texts.				
12	Giving consideration to teaching of cohesive				

	devices help improve students' abilities to understand written texts.				
13	Students Know that any number of adjectives can precede a noun provided that they are compatible.				
14	Understanding Arabic syntax is necessary to understand English syntactic structures.				
15	Students Know that they are (post modifiers) invariably preceded by a preposition				