



Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

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**Investigating Writing Difficulties Encountered by Sudanese
EFL Learners at Grade Eight – Gabal Awlia Locality**

تقصي صعوبات الكتابة التي تواجه دارسي اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية بالصف
الثامن – محلية جبل أولياء

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for
the Degree of M.A in Linguistics**

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my family.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I thank Allah for giving me knowledge and ability to complete this study.

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Abstract

This research attempts to investigate writing difficulties encountered by Sudanese EFL learners at basic schools in Khartoum State. The researcher has used two types of tools to meet the hypotheses mentioned in chapter one, questionnaire papers for (20) teachers of English and writing task for (30) learners of class 8 at Algoba Algorania School for Boys in Jabal Awlia Locality to find students' abilities on writing. The researcher has used the descriptive analytical method to analyze the collected data. The study found that the learners suffer from many types of difficulties such as: grammatical difficulties, spelling and difficulties in organizing paragraphs, that is why there is weakness in students' writing generally. The researcher recommends that students' writing should be revised to address these problems of writing. Teachers should be aware of developing good writing paragraphs in English. Teachers should consciously and constantly remind the students of the need for cohesive devices while writing. Writing approach will be very helpful if the learners will be given multiple opportunities for working on their drafts.

Abstract (Arabic version)

المستخلص

سعى البحث إلى تقصي صعوبات الكتابة التي تواجه دارسي اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية بالمدارس الأساسية في ولاية الخرطوم. استخدم الباحث نوعين من أدوات البحث للتحقق من صحة الفروض الواردة في الفصل الأول للدراسة وهما استبانة لمعلمي اللغة الانجليزية بالتركيز على مهارة الكتابة، حيث وزعت الاستبانة إلى (20) من معلمي اللغة الانجليزية بمحلية جبل أولياء، واختبار إلى (30) من تلاميذ وزع لتلاميذ الصف الثامن بمدرسة القبة القرآنية الأساسية الواقعة في المحلية نفسها حيث هدف الاختبار إلى التعرف على قدرات التلاميذ في الكتابة. كما استخدم الباحث المنهج الوصفي التحليلي في تحليل بيانات الدراسة التي تم جمعها. وتوصلت الدراسة إلى نتائج منها، أن الدارسين يعانون من صعوبات مختلفة مثل: صعوبات نحوية، صعوبات إملائية، صعوبات في استخدام علامات الترقيم وصعوبات تتعلق بتنظيم وبناء الفقرة، وهذا ما يفسر ضعف الدارسين في الكتابة بشكل عام. يوصي الباحث بأن أداء الدارسين في الكتابة باللغة الانجليزية يجب أن يخضع للمراجعة والتصحيح باستمرار من أجل اكتشاف المشكلات ومعالجتها أولاً بأول ومن ثم معالجة ظاهرة مشكلة الكتابة في اللغة الانجليزية لدى الدارسين عموماً. وهذا يصبح ممكناً إذا ما أصبح تدريس اللغة الانجليزية فعالاً داخل الصف. ويوصي الباحث أيضاً معلمي اللغة الانجليزية بأنه يجب إدراك حقيقة أن مساعدة الدارسين يسهم في جعلهم قادرين على كتابة الفقرة باللغة الانجليزية بشكل جيد. ضرورة استخدام العبارات من أدوات الربط من أجل ربط وتوحيد الأفكار عند الكتابة، وأخيراً إن منهج الكتابة يمثل أداة مساعدة للدارسين على أن يعطى الدارسون المزيد من الفرص للتمرين على الكتابة في دفاترهم المخصصة لذلك.

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List of Abbreviations

EFL : English as foreign language

L1 : First language

L2 : Second language

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Acquiring a foreign language is a challenging process. The learners have to exert a lot of efforts in order to acquire a foreign or second language. Sudanese pupils at basic schools encounter many difficulties in learning English. These difficulties make them commit various types of linguistic errors, such as phonological, semantic and syntactic errors.

Writing is one of the most important skills in English language, such as listening, reading and speaking. Learners should practice writing, because it is an important skill which enables them to construct accurate sentences and paragraphs. This will lead the learners to write both free and guided topics. It is very important for the teacher to know the difficulties, problems and needs of his/her students in order to help and give them the best method of writing to help them to be creative.

Language teaching operation in the Sudanese primary schools is focusing on teaching of the four skills. But these skills are not equally taught. Writing skills receives very little time. At primary schools, much time is given to choring new language items at the expense of writing skills.

Writing is one of the hardest skills of English language. Trembley (1993) viewed writing as a hard and risky skill. Sudanese EFL learners at primary schools level face a lot of problems in writing English. There are grammatical errors in their writing. These grammatical errors make the pupils produce not well-structured sentences. In addition Sudanese primary school students are not aware of paragraph writing techniques. These factors

lead the pupils to produce a piece of writing which lacks sentence structure as well as paragraph unity and coherence.

This study aims to investigate writing problems facing Sudanese pupils at basic level schools. It targets developing writing skill. The researcher is going to present the types of writing in a logical way, starting from constructing sentences and going on to writing paragraphs.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Acquiring a foreign language is not an easy task. English occupies the position of foreign language in the Sudanese educational system. According to Brown (2000), in order to master English language, learners have to be adequately exposed to all of the four basic skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The researcher noticed that pupils at grade eighth encounter a lot of difficulties in writing English. This research tries to shed light on these writing problems and how to overcome them.

1.2 Research Questions

This study examines the following questions:

- 1- What types of grammatical errors Sudanese pupils of grade 8 make in their writing?
- 2- To what extent do pupils write the spelling and use punctuations correctly?
- 3- To what extent are pupils aware of writing well organized paragraphs?

1.3 Research Hypotheses

- 1- Sudanese pupils of grade eight at basic school make different types of grammatical errors.

2- Spelling and punctuation are some of the writing problems at grade (8) at basic level schools.

3- Pupils are not aware of how to organize paragraphs.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The present study has the following as its main objectives:

1- To investigate Sudanese pupils of grade 8 writing errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation, and paragraph organization.

2- To identify the magnitude of the writing errors made by pupils at primary schools.

3- To find out whether pupils are aware of writing well organized paragraphs or not.

1.5 Significance of the Study

EFL writing is considered as an important skill in teaching and learning. EFL writing is useful in two ways: first it motivates students' thinking, organizing ideas, developing their ability to summarize, analyze and criticize. Second, it strengthens students' learning, thinking and reflecting on the English language.

The present study is expected to be valuable for students, teachers and syllabus designers. As for students they would know the areas of difficulty that slow down the good learning of English language writing. The teachers would know the most problematic areas that need more attention. The syllabus designers would know how learners acquire the language.

1.6 Research Methodology

The researcher adopts the descriptive and analytical approach. The main focus is to find out and describe the writing errors made by students at 8th class, primary level. The population of the study is Algoba Algrania schools

for boys in Jabal Awlia Locality, Khartoum State. For collecting data, the researcher will use a test for students and questionnaire for the teachers.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

This study is limited to grade eight students performance in writing English at Algoba Algrania schools for boys in Jabal Awlia Locality, Khartoum State in the academic year (2017-2018).

Chapter Two

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.0 Introduction

This chapter contains the review of relevant literature and the previous studies in the area of writing and the difficulties encountered by the pupils in writing English.

2.1 Literature Review

The below study contains relevant literature of the study. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first one is on the conceptual framework of the study, starting with the definition of writing, importance of writing, difficulties of writing then going on to kinds of writing while the second will review some previous studies.

2.1.1 Definition of Writing

According to Byrne (1979, p. 1) writing is the act of forming symbols. The symbols have to be arranged to form words and words have to be in a particular order and linked together in certain ways, they form a coherent text.

According to Connor (1996) writing is “an opportunity to explore one’s inner feeling. It is a method which can help us express our ideas and believes.

Tim (1997) gives a brief accounting of writing “it is a continuing process of discovering how to find the most effective language for communicating one’s thought and feelings.”

Moreover, Millan (1989, p.77) states that writing can be defined both formally and functionally. Formally, it shows its physical representation as the “reading of human communication using signs of symbols to represent

the spoken word”. Functionally, writing is defined as “a communicative event” (i.e. any piece of writing is an attempt to communicate something that the writer has a goal or purpose in his mind.)

2.1.2 Why Writing is Important?

(<http://www.tru-link.org>,2018) reveals that writing is empowering, and not just because it’s fun to tap into that creative vein and be amazed by the riches there. Writing, in all its varied forms and purposes, is a complex process. It calls upon us to bring our left and right brain together to shape experience and feeling into something another person can read and understand. That need to feel understood, to know that what one thinks or feels matters, is universal.

Many people, children in particular, view the whole process as mysterious and inaccessible. The good view is: anyone can learn to write and every writer has their unique process. But there are many more ways in which writing empowers us, the writing process is rarely but does have distinct phases that all writers go through: planning, reflection, drafting and revision – though not necessarily in that order!

Writing can help children and adults alike to:

- Enhance their problem solving and critical thinking.
- Develop integration of process, content, and skills.
- Develop organizational strategies depending on the form of writing.
- Develop the skill of inquiry (which includes: collecting and evaluating information, comparing and contrasting, imagining situations from another perspective, building argument for a particular position or point of view, learning the importance of not only asking questions of others but of ourselves, of not only revising the information we receive but being willing to revise the questions).

- Increase decision making abilities.
- Developing a healthy skepticism which leads to exploration of ideas, an enlarged world view and a confident imagination

2.1.3 Difficulties of Writing

Cimcoz (1999, p. 3) states that traditionally writing considered to be the least favourite fields of study for many students if not all. It has been noticed that not only foreign learners feel hatred towards writing, but also, on many occasions, even L1 professional writers too. Brown (1994) states “writing often a difficult activity for many people, both in the mother tongue and a foreign language. And if the teachers want to make writing easier for students, they must understand the reason for the difficulty and give appropriate guidance and help”. Byrne (1979) states that writing commonly is a difficult activity for the most people, in both mother tongue and L2 and live under these headings:

A- Linguistic problems

Oral communication is sustained through interaction of all the participants' help to keep it going. In writing, we need to organize our sentence structure or connect our sentences together and that the text we produce can be interpreted on its own. (ibid)

B- Cognitive problems

We speak without much conscious effort or thought, and generally we talk because writing is learnt together with the written form of the language, learn certain structures and also how to organize our ideas in such a way that can be understood by the reader. So the writer must move from one step to another, giving resource and examples. (ibid)

2.1.4 Kinds of Writing

According to Kane (2000, pp 6, 7), the various effects a writer may wish to have on his or her readers – to inform, to persuade, to entertain – result in different kinds of prose. The most common is prose that informs, which depending on what it is about, is called exposition, description or narration.

To start with, exposition explains how things work – an internal combustion engine, ideas, a theory of economics and facts of everyday life. But whatever its subject, exposition reveals what a particular mind thinks or knows or believes. Exposition is constructed logically. It organizes around cause/effect, true/false, less/more, positive/negative, general/particular, assertion/denial. Its movement is signaled by connectives like therefore, however and so on, besides, but, not only, more important, in fact, for example.

Description deals with perception – most commonly visual perception. Its central problem is to arrange what we see into a significant pattern. Unlike the logic of exposition, the pattern is spatial: above/below, before/behind, right/left, and so on.

As for the subject of narration, it is a series of related events – a story. Its problem is two folds: to arrange the events in a sequence of time and to reveal their significance.

Finally, persuasion seeks to alter how readers think or believe. It is usually about controversial topics and often appeal to reason in the form of argument, offering evidence or logical proof. Another form of persuasion is satire, which ridicules folly or evil, sometimes subtly, sometimes crudely and coarsely. Persuasion may be in the form of eloquence, appealing to ideals and noble sentiments.

2.1.5 Writing Theories

Jozsef, (2001) argues that for decades, the most influential paradigm of writing was contrastive rhetoric, proposed by Kaplan (1983). The contrastive rhetoric tradition focused on the product of writing and established prescriptive approach to the teaching of writing. Kaplan claimed that, in English, writers tended to develop thoughts in linear fashion, advancing a thesis, forward sub. Supporting evidence in sequentially presented topic sentences, developed in unified paragraphs.

The aim of writing pedagogy was to compare and contrast the text organizing patterns in L1 and L2 and thus facilitates acknowledgement of evidence. The primary technique in the classroom was imitating paragraphs so that the patterns were practiced.

Raimes, (1991) noted that, this tradition was the dominant approach up to the mid-70s, when the focus shifted to the writer and the context of writing, and thus to a more process-oriented analysis of writing and writing pedagogy. The latter trend also coincided with greater emphasis on language as communication, focusing teachers' attention away from as prescribed by controlled-traditional rhetoric to collaboration between teacher and student and among the students themselves.

Particularly influential was the work of Hayes and Flower (1980) and Flower and Hayes, (1981) who developed a cognitive theory of writing process, eliciting information directly from writers via think-aloud protocols and observations.

(Grabe and Kaplan, 1996) proposed a model that was based on three tents:-
- Process of writing, such as planning, organizing, reviewing and evaluating, often interact with each other.

- Writing follows a goal the writer is aware of; processes are performed differently by experienced and inexperienced writers. The theory identified a task environment (made up by a rhetorical problem and text produced), the three major components of the writing process (generating, translating and reviewing), each of which is controlled by a monitor. In proposing this model, Flower and Hayes also generated much needed empirical research. One result of this research was that the use of protocols came under heavy criticism: it was argued that the ability of the model that relied on writers aiming to explain what they were doing while they were engaged in writing was limited. In response to the need for theory building and for validating theory in research, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) offered a new perspective: instead of bringing together factors characteristic of novice and expert writers, they suggested that different models can describe different levels and context. Basically, their two-process theory aimed to explain how and why differences occur in inexperienced and experienced writers' performance. Two models make up the theory. The first is called "knowledge-telling", which involves the process of inexperienced writers, and the second is "knowledge-transforming". In both, the writer considers three main factors: knowledge of content, knowledge of discourse, and ideas of writing assignment. However, the first is primarily a step by step operation that is engaged as the writer collects materials and lexis, whereas the second includes the writer's identification of a unique problem and goal so that the writer becomes essentially a process to solve the rhetorical problem. The first model describes the less experienced writer, whereas the second the expert writer. How one proceeds from one level to another, however, was not shown explicitly.

According to Silva (1990) the development and pedagogical application of these cognitive models meant a decreasing concern with error in English as second language. The emerging paradigm of the process approach called for much more positive and encouraging setting, a workshop like environment. as Leki noted (1991), contrastive rhetoric still has much to offer to language teachers. The information contrastive analysis reveals of L1 and L2 text structures can contribute to what teachers and students regard as successful communication.

In the nineties, one could witness a wide variety of writing pedagogy and research, applying and critiquing both major traditions. As noted by Raimes (1991), the field had come to acknowledge the complexity of the composing process, with individual research projects focusing on the central issues of form, the writer, content, and the reader: an ethnography of writing was being produced. This recognition has a number of implications for theory and practice: the field had to gather more data on novice and expert students writers' performance on the writing process applied in various classroom settings, both L1 and L2, on social contexts of pedagogy, and on how teachers themselves may initiate research into their practice.

2.1.6 Definition of Error

According to J. Richard et al, (2002), an error is the use of a word, speech act or grammatical items in such a way it seems imperfect and significant of an incomplete learning. It is considered by Norrish (1987, p. 7) as a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something, and consistently gets it wrong. Cunnings Worth (1987, p. 87) states that errors are systematic deviations from the norms of language being learned.

According to Corder (1976, p. 163), errors are significant of three things, first to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he or she undertakes a systematic

analysis, how far towards that goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide the researcher with evidence of how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Third, they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. The occurrence of errors is merely signs of "the present inadequacy of our teaching methods"

There have been two schools of thought when it comes to error analysis and philosophy, the first one according to Corder (1976) linked the errors commitment with the teaching method, arguing that if the teaching method was adequate, the errors would not be committed. The second school believe that we live in an imperfect world and that errors correction is something real and applied linguist cannot do without it no matter what teaching approach they may use.

The researcher adopted the second school.

2.1.7 Errors Vs Mistakes

Researchers differentiate between errors and mistakes. According to Norrish (1987, p. 8) a mistake is an inconsistent deviation, which means something the learner gets it right but sometimes gets it wrong. Richards (1984, p. 95) states that a mistake is made by a learner when writing or speaking which is caused by a lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or the aspects of performance. According to J. Richard et al (2002) people may have the competence to produce an infinitely long sentence but when they actually attempt to use this knowledge (to "perform") there are many reasons why they restrict the number of adjectives, adverbs and clauses in any one sentence.

Corder (1976) mentioned that mistakes are of no significance to “the process of language learning”.

2.1.8 Types of Errors

Linguists have always been attempting to describe the types of errors committed by the language learners, and that is exactly the best ways to start with, as it helps the applied linguist to identify where the problem lies.

According to Dulay et al (1982) errors take place when the learner changes the surface structure in a particularly systematic manner, thus, the error, no matter what form and type it is, represent damage at the level of the target language production.

Errors have been classified by J. Richard et al (2002) into two categories. The interlingual error and the intralingual error, those two elements refer respectively to the negative influence of both the speaker’s native language, and the target language.

Interlingual error is caused by the interference of the native language L1, whereby the learner tends to use their linguistic knowledge of L1 on some linguistic features in the target language, however, it often leads to making errors.

Intralingual error is an error that takes place due to a particular misuse of a particular rule of the target language, it is, in fact, quite the opposite of interlingual errors. It puts the target language into focus. The target language in this perspective is thought of as an error cause.

Furthermore, J. Richard, et al (2002) considered it as one which results from “faulty or partial” learning of the target language. The intralingual error is classified as follows:

2.1.8.1 Overgeneralization:

In linguistic, overgeneralizations errors occur when the speaker applies a grammatical rule in cases where it doesn't apply. Richard et al (2002) mentioned that they are caused "by extension of target language rules to inappropriate context". This kind of errors has been committed while dealing with regular and irregular verbs, as well as the application of plural forms. E.g. (Tooth = Tooths rather than teeth) and (he goes = he goed rather than went).

2.1.8.2 Simplifications:

They are resulting from learners producing simpler linguistic forms than those found in the target language. In other words, learners attempt to be linguistically creative and produce their own poetic sentences/utterances. They may actually be successful in doing it, but it is not necessary the case. (Corder, 1976) mentioned that learners do not have the complex system which they could simplify. This kind of errors is committed through both omission and addition of some linguistic elements at the level of either the spelling or grammar.

2.1.8.3 Developmental Errors:

This kind of errors is somehow part of the overgeneralizations. D.E are results of normal pattern of development, such as (come = comed) and (break = breaked). D.E indicates that the learner has developed their linguistic knowledge and failed to reproduce the rules they have lately been exposed to in target language learning. (ibid)

Induced errors: as known as transfer of training, errors caused by misleading teaching examples. Teacher sometimes, unconditionally, explain a rule

without highlighting the exception or the intended message they would want to convey. (ibid)

2.1.8.4 Errors of Avoidance:

These errors occur when the learner fails to apply certain target language rules just because they are thought of to be too difficult. (ibid)

2.1.8.5 Errors of Overproduction:

In the early stages of language learning, learners are supposed to have not yet acquired and accumulated a satisfied linguistic knowledge which can enable them to use the finite rules of the target language in order to produce infinite structures. Most of the time, beginners overproduce, in such a way, they frequently repeat a particular structure. (ibid)

2.1.9 Avoiding Faulty Sentences

Complete sentences (also called independent clause):

I left an hour earlier than usual.

Our team **finished** its year-end evaluation.

Roger tried to explain his position.

2.1.9.1 Sentence fragments (also called dependent clause):

If left an hour earlier than usual.

When our **team finished** its year-end evaluation.

Whenever **Roger tried** to explain his position.

Olson (2009, p. 29) states that in the last set of examples, the fragment is longer than the similar complete sentence. The group of words are otherwise the same, except the fragment have an extra word at the beginning. These words are called subordinating conjunctions. If a group of words that would normally be a complete sentence is preceded by a subordinating conjunction, you need something more to complete the thought. These subordinate or

dependent clauses need something more to complete their meaning; therefore, they depend on an independent clause, a group of words that by itself could form a complete sentence. Examine how the fragments have been rewritten here to express a complete thought.

If I left an hour earlier than usual, I would be able to avoid the rush hour.

When our team finished its year-end evaluation, we all took the next day off.

Whenever Roger tried to explain his position, he misquoted the facts.

These words can be used as subordinating conjunctions:

after	once	until
although	since	when
as	than	whenever
because	that	where
before	though	wherever
if	unless	while (ibid)

2.1.9.2 Run-on Sentences:

Olson (2009) states that, an independent clause is a group of words that could be a complete sentence all by itself. A run-on sentence is one in which dependent clauses have been run together without punctuation (a period, semicolon, or comma).

Examples:

Lynn moved from Minneapolis her job was transferred.

The concert seemed unending it lasted almost until midnight.

We got some gas then we headed off to Omaha.

When her job was transferred, Lynn moved from Minneapolis.

Since the concert lasted almost until midnight, it seemed unending.

The concert seemed unending because it lasted until almost midnight.

After we got some gas, we headed off to Omaha.

We headed off to Omaha after we got some gas.

2.1.9.3 Comma Splices

According to Olson (2009, p. 33), a comma splice is a special type of run-on sentence in which a comma is used in place of a semicolon to join two dependent clauses without a conjunction.

A comma splice can be corrected by putting a semicolon in place of the comma or by adding a conjunction after the comma.

Wrong:

Henry lives across the street, he has been there for 25 years.

Correct:

Henry lives across the street; he has been there for 25 years.

Wrong:

Mary heads the search committee, John is the recorder.

Correct:

Mary heads the search committee; John is the recorder.

Mary heads the search committee, and John is the recorder.

Wrong:

Sid gave demonstration all summer long, he returned in the fall.

Correct:

Sid gave demonstrations all summer long; he returned in the fall.

2.1.10 Punctuation Marks

Seaton (2007, pp. 150-152) states that, punctuation marks are signs such as periods, commas and question marks. You put them in sentences to make meaning clear. (Seaton, 2007) **Period (.)** You put a period at the end of a sentence. Examples: The bird is sitting on a branch. **Comma (,)** Use a comma between nouns and noun phrases in a list. Examples: I bought two

apples, three oranges and some grapes. **Exclamation Point (!)** An exclamation point is often used after a command, an interjection, or a word that shows surprise or anger. Examples: Sit down ! **Question Mark (?)**

Use a question mark after a question. Examples: What's your name?

Apostrophe (') Use an apostrophe with an s ('s) to show who owns something. Examples: The's is added after singular nouns or names.

2.1.11 Spelling

Field (2009, pp. 53-57) argues that, English spelling is not easy to be learned. There are some rules but often there are many exceptions to the rule. Some spelling appear to be illogical. It is therefore important that certain spellings are learnt.

2.1.11.1 Creating Words

There are twenty-six letters in English alphabet, five are vowels and the rest are consonants. The vowels are A, E, I, O, U. All words have to contain at least one vowel. ('Y' is considered to be a vowel in words like 'rhythm' and 'psychology'). Consonants are all the other letters that are not vowels. So that a word can be pronounced easily, vowels are placed between consonants. No more than three consonants can be placed together. (ibid)

2.1.11.2 Forming Plurals

To form a plural word an 's' is usually added to a noun. But there are some exceptions. (ibid)

2.1.11.3 Changing 'y' to 'i'

If a noun ends in 'y', and there is a consonant before it, a plural is formed by changing the 'y' into an 'i' and adding '-es':

berry berries

company companies

lady ladies

If the 'y' is preceded by another vowel, an 's' only is added:

convey conveys

monkey monkeys

donkey donkeys (ibid)

2.1.11.4 Adding 'es' or 's'

If a noun ends in 'o' and a consonant precedes the 'o', '-es' is added to form the plural:

hero heroes

potato potatoes

tomato tomatoes

If there is a vowel before the 'o', an 's' only is added:

patio patios

studio studios

zoo zoos

(Field, 2009) states that it would be difficult to add an 's' only to some words because it would be impossible to pronounce them. These are words that end in 'ch', 'sh', 's', 'x' and 'z'. In this case 'e' has to be added before the 's':

brush brushes

buzz buzzes

church churches

fox foxes

2.1.11.5 Changing the Form of a Verb

(Field, 2009) states that when a verb ends in 'y' and it is necessary to change the tense by adding other letters, the 'y' is changed into an 'i' and '-es' or 'ed' is added.

He will marry her tomorrow.

He was married yesterday.

A dog likes to bury his bone.

A dog always buries his bone.

2.1.11.6 Using 'long' vowels and 'short' vowels

There is often a silent 'e' at the end of the word if the vowel is 'long':

bite, date, dupe, hope, late.

Each of these words consists of one syllable (one unit of sound).

If another syllable is added the 'e' is removed.

bite biting

date dating

hope hoping

If there is no 'e' at the end of a word, the vowel is usually 'short':

hit, hop, let

If a second syllable is added to these words the consonant is usually doubled:

bit bitten

hope hopping

let letting

There are some exceptions. If the 'e' is preceded by a 'g' or a 'c', the 'e' is usually retained. To remove it would produce a 'hard' sound instead of a 'soft' one:

age ageing
marriage marriageable
service serviceable (ibid)

2.1.11.7 Adding ‘-ly’ to adjectives:

(Field, 2009) states that when forming an adjective, ‘ly’ (not ‘ley’) is added. If there is a ‘y’ at the end of the adjective, it must be changed to an ‘i’:

adjective	adverb
beautiful	beautifully
happy	happily
quick	quickly
slow	slowly

If a word ends in ‘ic’, ‘-ally’ is added to it:

enthusiastic enthusiastically

2.1.11.8 ‘i’ before ‘e’ except after ‘c’:

This rule seems to have been made to be broken. Some words keep to it but others break it. Here are some that follow the rule.

All of them are pronounced ‘ee’ – as in ‘seed’.

no ‘c’ in front	after ‘c’
grief	ceiling
niece	deceive
piece	receive

Exceptions to this rule are:

either, neighbour, vein, neither, seize, weird (ibid)

2.1.11.9 Avoiding Common Spelling Mistakes

(Field, 2009, pp. 57-58) states that, because some words do not follow any rules, there are many words in the English language that are frequently

misspelled. These words have to be learnt. Following is a list of the most common:

absence	abysmal	acquaint	acquire
accept	across	address	advertisement
aggravate	already	alleluia	ancient
annual	appearance	archeology	arrangement
auxiliary	awkward	because	beginning
believe	beautiful	business	character
carcass	centre	Ceiling	cemetery
cellar	chameleon	Choose	collar
committee	computer	condemn	conscious
daily	deceive	definitely	demonstrative
description	desperate	develop	diarrhea
difference	dining	disappear	disappoint
discipline	desperate	dissatisfied	doctor
doubt	eerie	Eight	eighth
embarrass	empty	encyclopedia	envelope
exaggerate	exceed	Except	exercise
excitement	exhaust	exhibition	existence
familiar	February	Fierce	first
foreigner	forty	fortunately	frightening
fulfill	government	glamorous	gradually
grammar	grief	Guard	hemorrhage
hemorrhoids	harass	Height	honorary
humorous	idea	Idle	idol
immediately	independent	Island	jewellery

journey	khaki	knowledge	lable
laboratory	labyrinth	lacquer	language
league	leisure	Liaison	lightning
lonely	lovely	maintenance	massacre
metaphor	miniature	miscellaneous	mischievous
miserably	misspell	museum	necessary
neighbour	nether	Niece	ninth
noticeable	occasion	Occur	occurred
occurrence	omit	opportunity	opposite
paid	paraffin	parallel	particularly
playwright	possess	precede	precious
preparation	procedure	preferred	privilege
probably	profession	professor	pronunciation
pursue	questionnaire	Queue	receipt
receive	recognize	restaurant	rhyme
rhythm	said	schedule	science
scissors	secretary	separate	sergeant
similar	simile	sincerely	skilful
spaghetti	smoky	strength	subtle
succeed	surprise	suppress	temporary
thief	though	tragedy	tired
truly	unnecessary	Until	usage
usual	vacuum	vehicle	vigorous
vicious	wavy	Wednesday	watch
weird	woolen	Womb	yield

2.1.12 Grammar

According to Kane (2000, p. 13), grammar means the rules which structure our language. The sentence “She dresses beautifully” is grammatical. These variations are not:

Her dresses beautifully.

Dresses beautifully she.

The first breaks the rule that a pronoun must be in the subjective case when it is the subject of a verb. The second violates the conventional order of the English sentence: subject – verb – object.

Grammatical rules are not the pronouncement of teacher, editors, or other authorities. They are simply the way people speak and write differently, the rules change.

2.1.13 Usage vs Use

Kane (2000, p. 14) states that, usage designates rules of a less basic and binding sort, concerning how we should use the language in certain situations. These sentences, for instance, violate formal usage:

She dresses beautiful.

She ain't got no dress.

Sentences like these are often heard in speech, but both break rules governing how educated people write. Formal usage dictates that when beautiful functions as an adverb, it takes an-ly ending, that ain't and a double negative like ain't got no, or haven't got no should be avoided.

2.1.14 Mechanics of Writing

Kane (2000, p. 15) mentions that, in composition, mechanics refers to the appearance of words, to show how they are read or arranged on paper. The

fact that the first word of a paragraph is usually indented, for example, is a matter of mechanics. These sentences violate other rules of mechanics:

She dresses beautifully

She dresses beautifully.

Conventions of writing require that a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with full-stop punctuation (period, question mark, or exclamation point). Conventions of spelling require that beautifully has two LS.

The rules gathered under the heading of mechanics attempt to make writing consistent and clear.

2.1.15 Subject-Verb Agreement

(Seaton, 2007, p. 123) states that, when you write a sentence you must make sure that the subject and the verb agree.

If the subject is a singular noun, or the pronoun he, she or it, you need a singular verb.

Examples:

The earth moves round the sun.

The zookeeper is feeding the animals.

She shares her books with her friends.

Use a plural verb if the subject is a plural noun, or the pronoun we, you or they.

Examples:

All birds lay eggs.

The stars shine brightly on a clear night.

The children are playing on the swing.

Collective nouns may be used with either singular or plural verbs. If the group members are all acting together as one, use a singular verb. If the members of the group are acting as individuals, use a plural verb.

Examples:

The audience are laughing.

The band is playing.

The family were giving their opinions.

Our team has won.

2.1.16 Prepositions

Seaton (2007, p. 132) states that, a preposition is a word that connects one thing with another, showing how they are related.

Some prepositions tell you about position or place.

Examples:

There's a big balloon **in** the sky.

There is a long mirror **on** the wall.

The school is **near** the park.

The books fell **off** the shelf.

Jane is jumping **into** the pool.

The horse jumped **over** the hurdle.

A preposition is usually followed by a noun or pronoun.

2.1.17 Conjunctions

Seaton (2007, p. 135) states that, a conjunction is a linking word such as and, or, but. Conjunctions are used to connect words or sentences.

Examples:

A doctor and a nurse.

A male or a female?

A conjunction may link two or more than two words or sentences.

The words before, after, as, when, while, until, since, are also conjunctions.

They tell when something happens, so they are called conjunctions of time.

2.1.18 The Grammatical Complete Sentence

Kane (2000, p. 152) states that, the grammatical complete sentence is independent, contains a subject and a predicate, and is properly constructed.

2.1.19 Grammatical Independence

According to Kane (2000, p. 152), grammatical independence simply means that the words constituting the sentence are not acting as a noun or modifier or verb in connection with any other word or words. For example, Harry was late is independent. Because Harry was late is not. Because turns the words into an adverb (more exactly an adverbial clause). The construction should modify another verb or clause as in the men were delayed in starting because Harry was late.

To take one more case. They failed to agree is a grammatical sentence. That they failed TO AGREE IS NOT. It is a noun clause and could function as the subject of a verb:

That they failed to agree was unfortunate.

Or as the object of one:

We know that they failed to agree.

2.1.20 Subject and Predicate

Kane (2000, p. 153) states that, the heart of a grammatical sentence is the subject and predicate. In a narrow sense the subject is the word or words identifying who or what the sentence is about, and the predicate is the verb, expressing something about the subject. In a broader sense the subject includes the subject word (s) plus all modifiers, and the predicate includes the verb together with all its objects and modifiers. For instance, the man who lives next door decided last week to sell his house. The narrow grammatical subject is man, and the narrow grammatical verb is decided.

The broad or notional subject is the man who lives next door, and the broad, or notional, predicate is decided last week to sell his house.

The verb in grammatical sentence must be finite, that is, limited with reference to time or person or number. English has several nonfinite verb forms called participles and infinitives (being, for example, and to be). These can refer to any interval of time and can be used with any person or with either number. But by convention these nonfinite forms cannot by themselves make a sentence. Thus, Harry was late is a grammatical sentence, but Harry being late isn't because it contains only the participle being instead of a finite form such as was.

2.1.21 Proper Construction

Kane (2000, p. 153) argues that, even though a group of words is grammatically independent and contains a subject and a finite verb, it will not qualify as a grammatical sentence unless it is put together according to the rules. "Rule" here does not mean regulations arbitrarily laid down by experts. It means how we, all of us use English. Thus "Harry late was" is not a good sentence. We simply do not arrange these words in that order.

Here is one other example of a nonsentence resulting from bad construction:
Harry was late, and although he was sorry.

And can only combine elements that are grammatically equal – two or more subjects of the same verb, for instance.

In this case and joins two unequal constructions – the independent clause Harry was late and the dependent (adverbial) clause although he was sorry. The construction can be turned into a legitimate grammatical sentence in either of two ways:

Harry was late, although he was sorry.

Harry was late, and he was sorry.

2.1.22 The Building Blocks

According to Kane (2000, pp. 154-157), the slots of a grammatical sentence – that is, the subject, verb, and object modifier – may be filled by any kinds of words, phrases and dependent clauses, the building blocks of sentences.

Phrases and dependent clauses are both functional word groups – two or more words acting collectively in a grammatical function, as a subject, for instance, or direct object or a verb. Functional word groups are enormously important. They enable us to treat ideas too complex to be expressed in single words as though they were grammatically only one word. Take these two sentences:

I know Susan.

I know that you won't like that movie.

“Susan is the direct object of “know”. So is “that you won't like the movie”. For purposes of grammar the six – word clause functions like the one – word proper noun. Being able to use the full range of functional word groups available in English is essential to writing well.

2.1.22.1 Phrases

A phrase is a functional word group that doesn't contain a subject – finite verb combination, although some phrases do use nonfinite verb forms. We can distinguish five kinds of phrases: verb, prepositional, participial, gerundive and infinitive. A verb phrase is a main verb plus any auxiliaries:

They have been calling all day. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition (in, of, to, and so on) plus an object, plus (often though not invariably) modifiers of the object: Three people were sitting on the beautiful green lawn. The chief function of prepositional phrase is to modify, either as adjective or as adverbs. The participle phrase is constructed around

a participle, usually in the present (running, for example) or past (run) participle form. It can act as an adjective: The man running down the street seemed suspicious. Here the participle phrase modifies man. A gerundive phrase also uses the present participle construction that functions as a noun. In the following example the gerundive phrase is the subject of the verb phrase can be: Running for political office can be very expensive. An infinitive phrase, finally, is built around one of the infinitives (usually the active present – for example, to run). Infinitive phrases may act either as nouns or modifiers. In this sentence the phrase is the direct object of the verb, a nounal function: They want me to medical school. Here it is an adjective modifying time: We had plenty of time to go there and back. (ibid)

2.1.22.2 Clauses

A clause is a functional word group that does contain a subject and a finite verb. There are two basic clauses – independent and dependent. An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence. In fact a simple sentence like ‘We saw you coming’ is an independent clause. But usually the term is reserved for such construction when it occurs as part of a larger sentence. The sentence below, for instance, consists of two independent clauses: We saw you coming and we were glad. A dependent clause cannot stand alone as a grammatically complete sentence. It serves as part of a sentence – a subject, object, adjective, or adverb. If we were to place “when” before the opening clause in the example above, we could turn it into a dependent (adverbial) clause modifying the second clause (which remains independent): When we saw you coming we were glad.

Dependent clauses may also act as nouns, either as subjects (as in the first of the following sentences) or as objects (as in the second): Why he went at all is a mystery to me. We knew that she would be pleased. As an adjective: The point that you're trying to make just isn't very clear. (ibid)

2.1.23 The Basic Types of Grammatical Sentences

According to Kane (2000, pp. 57-59), "Depending on the number and types of clauses they contain, grammatical sentences fall into three patterns: the simple, the compound and the complex. In addition, there are compound complex sentences, though they are not truly basic".

2.1.23.1 The Simple Sentence

Simple sentences consist of one subject – verb nexus (nexus means a grammatical connection between words as in the children laughed). Usually a simple sentence has only one subject and verb, but it may have – and may do – several of each and remains simple, providing that the various subjects and verbs comprise a single connection as in the sentence: The children and their parents laughed and were glad. (ibid)

2.1.23.2 The Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of at least two independent subject – verb nexuses: **The children laughed, and their parents were glad.** Compound sentences often have three independent clauses or even four or five. In theory, there is no limit. In practice, however, most compound sentences contain only two clauses. Stringing out of a number is likely to make awkward, rambling sentence. The two (or more) independent clauses comprising a compound sentence may be united in two ways. One is coordination, connecting clauses by a coordinating conjunction – and, but, for, nor, either And: The sea was dark and rough, and the wind was

strong from the east. The second method of joining clauses is parataxis, which is simply putting them together without a conjunction (conventionally they are punctuated by a semicolon): The sea was dark and rough; the wind was strong from the east. (ibid)

2.1.23.3 The Complex Sentence

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. Here are several examples: We saw that you were tired. I like the people who live next door. Because the day was cloudy, they put off the picnic. In a complex sentence, the independent clause is called the main clause, and the dependent clause – which always function as a noun or adverb, or adjective – is called the subordinate. A complex sentence may contain a number of subordinate clauses, but it can only have one main clause. This type of sentence is very important in composition. (ibid)

2.1.23.4 The Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence must have at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent: **We thought that we would go, but we decided not to.** (ibid)

2.1.24 Types of Sentences According to Use

Seaton (2007, pp. 140-141) gives examples of sentence according to use:

2.1.24.1 Declarative Sentence

A declarative Sentence makes a statement. The end punctuation is a full-stop. (ibid)

2.1.24.2 Interrogative Sentence

An interrogative sentence asks a question. The terminal punctuation is question mark.

Are you going shopping today?

Where are the twins? (ibid)

2.1.24.3 An Exclamatory Sentence

An exclamatory sentence expresses strong emotion. The terminal punctuation is an exclamation mark.

What a lovely weather !

The silly girl ! (ibid)

2.1.24.4 Imperative Sentence

An imperative sentence gives an order. The terminal punctuation may be either an exclamation mark or a period.

Please sit down.

Come back.

Tell me the truth.

Use the base form of a verb to give commands or make direct requests. This use of the verb is called the imperatives:

e.g stand, everyone !

Tidy your bedroom immediately !

Imperatives are a very direct way of telling to do something. Use do or please before an imperative is more polite.

Do sit down.

Please help yourself to some food. (ibid)

2.1.25 Features of Effective Writing

Composing a piece of written composition demand an understanding of the content knowledge of the audience, context and the ability to use appropriate conventions for that audience and context. The teacher can play an important role to help his/her students to be effective writers. He/she should organize their instruction around the focus, organization, support and elaboration,

style and conventions. These features are not just criteria for assessing writing; they also help students with a framework for reading and improving their own writing. The below features are the features of effective writing:

2.1.25.1 Focus:

(Cali and Bowen, 2003) state that the writer establishes a focus, which is the topic of the subject, in response to the writing task. It is considered as one of the most important elements of effective writing. It is like a photographer who needs to focus on a particular subject to produce a clear picture. A writer needs to focus on a single topic or main idea in order to produce an effective piece of writing. If the reader confused about the subject matter, the writer had not effectively established a focus. if the reader is engaged and does not confused, the writer probably has been effective in establishing a focus.

Without clear focus students' writing degenerates into lists of loosely related events or facts with no central idea to hold them together.

Focus is also the critical feature that derives all the other features. It determines what choices the writer has about everything from organizational structure to elaborate details to word choice, sentence length and punctuation. At the same time, effective writers take advantage of the appropriate supporting features to strengthen the focus of their writing.

2.1.25.2 Organization:

(Cali and Bowen, 2003) state that, focus is the foundation for constructing a piece of writing, organization is the structural frame work for that writing. Organization is important to effective writing because it provides readers with a frame work to help them fulfill their expectations for the text. Organization is the logical progression and completeness of ideas in a text.

Instruction in organization focuses on two areas: text structures specific to the particular genre and the cohesive elements which tie clauses, sentences and paragraphs together into a cohesive whole. A text structure is the framework of a text's beginning, middle, and end. Different narrative and compository genres have different audiences, and so they require different text structures. Beginnings and endings help link the text into a cohesive whole. The organization of the middle of a piece of writing depends on the genre. The basic organizational structures are: sequence, description, cause and effect, compare and contrast, problem and solution.

Sequence uses time, numerical, or spatial order as the organizing structure.

Description is used to describe the characteristic features and events of a specific subject. Cause and effect structure is used to show causal relationship between events. Comparison and contrast structure is used to explain how two or more objects, events or positions in an argument are similar or different. Problem and solution requires writers to state a problem and come up with a solution. The type of ending and author choices depends on his or her purpose. When the purpose is to entertain, ending may be happy or tragic and so on. Strong endings can summarize the highlights, restate the main points or end with a final statement to drive home the main points to the audience.

If narrative and expository structures are the framework, cohesive elements such as transitions are the glue that held these structural elements together. Transition words show the relationship between different sentences and ideas.

2.1.25.3 Support and Elaboration:

According to (Cali and Bowen, 2003), support and elaboration consists of the specific details and information writers use to develop their topic. There

are two important concepts in support and elaboration which are sufficiency and relatedness sufficiency refers to the amount of detail to comprehend what they have written. However, sufficiency is not enough. The power of your information is determined less by the quantity of details that will support their focus, deleting irrelevant information.

2.1.25.4 Style:

(Cali and Bowen, 2003) state that style is the way writing is dressed up or down to fit the specific context, purpose or audience. Word choice, sentence fluency, and the writer's voice contribute to the style of a piece of writing. How a writer chooses words and structures sentences to achieve a certain effect is also an element of style. It is not a matter of right and wrong but of what is appropriate for a particular setting and audience.

2.1.25.4.0 Elements of Style:

2.1.25.4.1 Word Choice:

Good writers are concise and precise, weeding out unnecessary words and choosing the exact word to convey meaning. Precise words help the readers visualize the sentence. Good writers also choose words that contribute to the flow of a sentence. (ibid)

2.1.25.4.2 Sentence Fluency:

Sentence fluency is the flow and rhythm of phrases and sentences. Good writers use a variety of sentence with different lengths and rhythms to achieve different effects. They use a parallel structure within sentences and paragraphs to reflect parallel ideas, but also know how to avoid monotony by varying their sentence structures. (ibid)

2.1.25.4.3 Voice:

It is an essential element of style that reveals the writers personality. A writer's voice can be impersonal or charity, authoritative or reflective, objective or passionate, serious or funny. (ibid)

2.1.25.4.4 Conventions:

According to (Cali and Bowen, 2003), conventions are the surface features of writing, mechanics, usage, and sentence formation. They are the courtesy the reader, making writing easier to read by putting it in a form that the reader expects and is comfortable with.

Mechanics:

Mechanics are the conventions of print that do not exist in oral language, including spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphs.

Students have to consciously learn how mechanics function, because that does not exist in oral language.

Usage:

Usage refers to conventions of both written and spoken language that include word order, verb tense, and subject verb agreement. Usage may be easier than mechanics to teach, because children enter school with a basic knowledge of how to use language to communicate.

Sentence Formation:

Sentence formation refers to the structure of sentences, the way that phrases and clauses are used to form simple and complex sentences. In oral language words and sentences can not be changed once they have been spoken. But the physical nature of writing allows writers to craft their sentences, combining and rearranging related ideas into a single more depth at

expressing their ideas in written language, their sentences become longer and more complex.

2.1.26. Sentence Components:

(<http://www.grammarinenglish.com>,2018) reveals that there are five important components in a sentence. e.g.: Subject (S), Verb (V), Object (O), Complement (C), and Adverbial (A)

SUBJECT (S): Definition: To get 'S' ask the question 'who?' before the verb. e.g.: Nancy danced well. (Here "Nancy" – subject). The child broke the glass. (Here "the child" – subject). Subject consists of nouns or pronouns occur before a verb. (ibid)

VERB (V): Definition: In every sentence the most important word is the verb. A verb shows action or activity or work done. e.g.: He **is** a doctor. ("Be" form verb). James **wrote** a letter. (Main verb) The baby **is crying**. (auxiliary verb + main verb) Verb consists of (a) auxiliaries (b) finite verbs. (a) Auxiliaries: e.g.: am, is, are, was, were, has, have, had, does, do, did

Modals: can, could; will, would; shall, should; may, might; must

Semi-modals: dare to; need to; used to; ought to

(b) Finite verbs – denote action e.g.: Talk, sing, write, make, dance, play, cook, leave, teach, sleep: Verbs occur after the subject. Verbs occur before the object. (ibid)

OBJECT (O) Definition: To get the object 'O' ask the question 'What' or 'Whome'. 'What' is for things and 'Whome' is for persons. Persons may be nouns or pronouns. e.g.: He bought a **pen**. (a pen = object) He handles the **computer**. (computer = object) I saw **him**. (him = object) Object consists of nouns or noun phrases or noun clauses. (a) direct object. Answers the question 'what'. e.g.: SVO I like animals.

(b) IO - Indirect object. Answers the question 'whome'. e.g.: S V

10 (whom). I gave Rosy a pen. (ibid)

COMPLEMENT (C): Definition: The words required to complete the meaning of a sentence are called complement of the sentence. e.g.: SVC

He is a dentist. She became a journalist. It grew dark.

Complement (C) – from the word 'complete'. Complete the meaning in the sentence. Without it, the meaning is incomplete. Without it the meaning changes. Occurs in two patterns. (i) SVC pattern (ii) SVOC pattern

(i) In SVC pattern, the complement C complements the subjects. Without it the meaning changes. Without C, the sentence is incomplete or the sentence changes its meaning use to be forms, grew, become, seems for verbs.

e.g.: They are players. She was angry. It seems absurd. (ii) In SVOC pattern: The complement tells about the object. The complement and object are of the same person or thing. e.g.: SVOC They called David a genius. I found her crying. They elected Michel leader. (ibid)

Types of Complement:

1- Subject Complement:

Definition: The complement which expresses the quality or identity or condition of the subject is called **Subject Complement**. e.g.: She is a **doctor**. She looks **sad**.

2- Object Complement: Definition: The complement which expresses the quality or identity or condition of an object is called **Object Complement**.

e.g.: They made her **angry**. She called him **a liar**. (ibid)

Adjunct or Adverbial:

Definition: To get 'A' ask the question why, when, where or how. The use of adverbial is optional whereas the complement is essential. It has adverb phrase, adverbial clause, noun-phrase and prepositional phrase. e.g.: Why? (reason). When? (time). Where? (place). How? (manner). Due to cold. Now,

later, Here, there, by bus/bicycle. Through floods. After 2 years. Everywhere Through efforts. Under compulsion. When young. In the sky. By making. Carefully. In the morning. At home by hard work. Adjunct A answers the question where? when? how? why? Examples of Adjunct in Sentence: e.g.: SVA She comes every day. Sit here. (ibid)

2.1.27 Definition of a Paragraph

Kane (2000), defines that “the term paragraph has no a single definition. Occasionally a single sentence or even a word may serve as emphatic paragraph. Conventionally in composition, however, a paragraph is a group of sentences developing a common idea, called the topic.

Dorothy and Lisa (2009) mention “a paragraph is a group of sentences about a single topic. Together, the sentences of a paragraph explain the writer’s main idea (most important idea) about the topic. In academic writing, a paragraph is often between five and ten sentences long, but it can be longer or shorter, depending on the topic. The first sentence in a paragraph is usually indented (moved in) a few spaces”.

2.1.27.1 Paragraph Writing

A paragraph is a group of sentences that develop one topic or idea. The first is the topic sentence. It is called the topic sentence because it states the topic or the subject of the paragraph. The second main part is the supporting sentences. The supporting sentences develop the topic. This means that they explain the topic sentence in detail. The last part is the concluding sentence. The concluding sentence summarizes the paragraph and/or adds a final comment. A clear academic paragraph requires all of these parts.

(<http://www.yabancidiller.koaeli.tr>>duyurudosya.com, 2017)

2.1.27.2 The Topic

A topic is the general idea of a paragraph. It is what gives the answer to the question “what is the paragraph about?”

For example, Biochemistry, Physiology, and Anatomy are all examples of the topic medical subjects. (ibid)

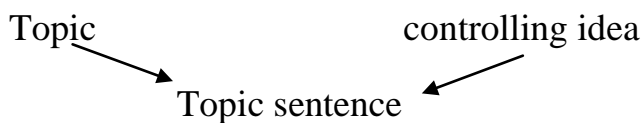
2.1.27.3 The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of a paragraph. It contains the main idea which is developed in the rest of the paragraph. A topic sentence must be a complete sentence, a statement of intent, opinion or a mixture of both. It should be neither too broad (Football is very popular in the world) nor too narrow (Gold is very valuable). The topic tells us the subject (what the paragraph is about) and the controlling idea makes a specific comment about the topic (what the paragraph is going to say about the topic/the writer’s attitude or idea about the topic). In other words, the controlling idea shows the reader what the rest of the paragraph will say about the topic; it limits the topic to a specific area to be discussed in a single paragraph. (ibid)

A topic sentence has two main parts: topic and the controlling idea.

The topic sentence = topic + controlling idea

Caffein has several harmful effects on health.



In this example the topic is “Caffein”. A special comment is then made about the topic: “it has several harmful effects on health”. From this topic sentence, the reader immediately knows that the supporting sentences will explain or prove how harmful caffeine can be.

e.g. Students who are studying abroad may face many difficulties.

Topic

controlling idea

e.g There are two main advantages of working at home.

controlling idea

Topic

<http://www.yabancidiller.koaeli.tr>>duyurudosya.com

The controlling idea can be found:

- At the beginning of the topic sentence.

There are two main advantages of working at home.

controlling idea

Topic

- At the beginning and at the end of the topic sentence separated by the topic.

The two main advantages of working at home its flexible hours and comfort.

Controlling idea

topic

controlling idea

- At the end of the topic sentence.

Working at home is advantageous because of its flexible hours and comfort.

Topic

controlling idea

2.1.27.4 Supporting Sentences:

The supporting sentences in a paragraph explain or develop the topic. The supporting part can be narrative, details, facts, examples, explanations, or statistics. All the supporting sentences relate to the main idea stated in the topic sentence and show why it is true. (ibid)

2.1.27.4.1 The Concluding Sentence:

The conclusion of a paragraph signals the end of the paragraph, summarizes the main point of the paragraph and relates them to the topic sentence; gives

a final comment on the topic and leaves the reader with the most important ideas to think about; can make a suggestion or a prediction.

A concluding is not absolutely necessary, but it is very helpful to the reader since it signals the end of the paragraph and reminds the reader of the important points. The concluding sentence often closes the paragraph by returning the main idea of it. They do this by repeating a keyword or phrase from the topic sentence. (ibid)

e.g.:

Topic sentence: There are many good reasons why people live in the country but not the cities.

Conclusion: In conclusion, living in the country is much better than living in the city.

Topic sentence: Forests are important for life on earth.

Conclusion: To sum up, if there were no forests, there would be no life on the planet.

Topic sentence: There are some important qualities of a good boss.

Conclusion: All in all, a qualified boss should be fair, should be a good leader and should act with consistency. (ibid)

2.1.27.5 Unity:

If the sentences in a paragraph are about a single idea, and the sentences are closely related, the paragraph will be unified. (For instance, if your paragraph is about the advantages of higher education, you should only discuss that and you shouldn't include any sentence that is about the

disadvantages of higher education) any sentence that doesn't support the topic sentence is irrelevant. (ibid)

2.1.27.6 Coherence:

In order to have coherence in writing, the movement from one sentence to another must be logical and smooth. There must be no sudden jumps. That is, the reader should understand when a supporting sentence starts and which sentence are the details that support it; or which sentence concludes the paragraph.

Generally, there are two basic ways to achieve coherence: To make a simple outline and to use transitions to show how one idea is related to the next.

In addition to transition signals, we can achieve coherence by combined use of keywords (those nouns and phrases that represent the topic of the paragraph) and reference words (pronouns, determiners, such as "this" or synonyms). Keywords are very important, for they represent the topic; however, the overuse of the key words in the paragraph makes it boring, impairing the flow of ideas, and therefore, making the paragraph less coherent. In order to avoid this problem, you should sometimes replace the key words with determiners, pronouns, or synonyms. (ibid)

2.1.28 Writing Assessment:

There are several ways to assess writing. The most common method is to use some sort of rubric. Items on the rubric range from statemandated writing standards to individual items specific to an assignment. Other forms of writing assessment use checklists or rating scales.

a teacher isn't the only one who can assess a writing sample. Students can assess their own writing by working in pairs or small groups. Small groups

of students can bring a piece to exchange and have reviewed. As with any good assessment, the purpose should drive the procedure.

6+1 Trait Writing – developed by Education Northwest.

The 6+1 Trait Writing Model of Instruction and Assessment is based on common characteristics of good writing. The model uses common language and scoring guides to identify what "good" writing looks like. The 6+1 traits within the model are: ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, conventions, and presentation – Student Self-assessment of Writing. Many teachers ask students to read over what they've written before it's considered finished, it is often helpful to provide students with a basic checklist to use as they review their work. This student checklist is based on the 6-Trait writing. Peer editing – students can work together in pairs or small groups during the editing and reviewing stages of the writing process. This peer editing can help students learn about parts of their writing that was unclear, discover which parts an audience found exciting, and get some suggestions for other things to add. Read Write Think offers a series of lessons that teach students how to peer edit using three steps: compliments, suggestions and corrections. www.readingrockets.org, 2018

2.2 Previous Studies

2.2.1 The first study

This study was carried out in 2008, by Sumia Yahia Salim. The researcher investigated English writing problems faced by Sudanese pupil, the case study of 8th class basic level pupils Jabal Awlia Locality, Elfarooq School for Girls. The study was carried out at Sudan University of Science and Technology. The researcher examined via two tools, the first is a

questionnaire to experienced teachers from Sudan University, and the second is a test on writing a composition was given to pupils.

The researcher came up with results that writing skills is difficult and the number of English periods are not enough to carry writing and other communication tasks. Through this study the researcher recommended and suggested that teachers at different levels must have especial techniques so as to improve the English language and writing skills, pupils should practice their writing at different levels by writing more activities.

2.2.2 The second study

This study was carried out in 2008 by Abdelrahman Ahmed Jamaa. The researcher investigated the problematic area in writing skill. It submitted partial fulfillment of the requirement of M.A degree in ELT, in Sudan University of Science and Technology. The researcher used two data collections in order to analyze the information, questionnaire for teachers and test for students. He came up with the results that most secondary school students have problems in writing English, particularly in grammar, punctuation marks, spelling and vocabulary, also their mother tongue interference in writing English. The researcher recommended that students should be provided with suitable learning materials and adequate practices to promote their abilities of writing, spelling should be given more time to be taught in the school schedules.

2.2.3 The third study

This study was carried out in 2011 by Yassiin Ahmed Abdallah. The researcher investigated the effect of pre writing discussion of EFL learners

writing quality. A case study of third year Sudanese secondary school pupils at Jabal Awlia Locality. This study was carried out in Sudan University of Science and Technology. The researcher collected his data by a test and a questionnaire. He came up with the result that pre writing discussion helps to use correct grammatical structure, provide students with new vocabulary items, and facilitates spelling of words. The researcher recommended that:

Teachers are strongly advised to adopt pre writing discussion technique in their class. EFL learners are encouraged to discuss their topics when they are engaged in writing. Syllabus designers are also advised to put into consideration this technique (pre writing discussion) when designing language syllabus uses.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the methodology through which the researcher carried out his research. The researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method to conduct the research. It includes: the tools, the population, the sample, the validity and the reliability.

3.1 Methodology of the research

The descriptive method is adopted in this research because it the most suitable method to deal with such kind of research.

3.2 Research Population and Sample

The population of the current study are Sudanese learners at basic schools. The sample of the population are pupils of grade eight, at Algoba Algorania school for boys in Khartoum State, Jabal Awlia Locality. The researcher has chosen a random sample of (30) pupils and (20) teachers of English to represent the population of the study.

3.3 Data Collection Instruments:

The researcher has used two types of tools to collect the data for the study intended; questionnaire for twenty English language teachers at basic schools and writing test papers for pupils at grade eight, at Algoba Algorania school for boys.

3.4 Procedures:

The researcher distributed the questionnaire to the subjects in hand. It was distributed to them in their place of work (schools). They were given a chance to read it carefully and put a tick under (strongly agree – agree –

neutral – disagree – strongly disagree) for the statements which represent his/her opinion. The information was collected to be analyzed by SPSS.

For the test, the researcher chose (30) students from the population that was targeted by the study and used the method of random sample to represent the entire population. The students were asked to write a guided composition. The test was distributed to them in their class. They were allowed an hour to write the test. The researcher distributed and monitored the students himself. After that, the papers were collected, numbered and marked by the researcher and two other teachers.

The collected data will be statistically analyzed and discussed in chapter four, which will be the data analysis and discussion.

3.5 Validity of the Tool:

The tool that was used to collect data for this study was of two types; a set of twenty-one questionnaire statements and a test. To assure the validity of these tools, the researcher showed them to some expert instructors at Sudan University of Science and Technology in order to check them and to make sure that the tool are valid enough to fulfill its aims in measuring and evaluating what it intended to. Then the tools were taken back to the supervisor to check them and add his last comment. Some experts have made their modifications by deleting, adding and changing some elements in both the questionnaire and the test, their recommendation were taken under consideration.

3.6 Reliability of the Tools:

The tools which used to collect data for this study are a five scale questionnaire starts with strongly agree and ends with strongly disagree, and a test of three scales. Right and wrong use have been analyzed with (SPSS)

so as to give reliable measurement. Average and standard deviation are also calculated with (SPSS) so the results obtained proved that the tools are reliable.

Statistical Reliability

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

. Alpha-Cranbach coefficient.

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

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

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

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using Alpha-Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of questions
	.84	11

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed (20) questionnaires to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient; the results have been shown in the following table:

Hypotheses	Reliability	Validity
First	0.84	0.92
Second	0.83	0.93
Third	0.81	0.89
Overall	0.83	0.93

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2017

It is noticed from the results of the above table that all reliability and validity coefficients for the sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), some of them are nearest to one. This indicates the high validity and reliability of the responses, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, and Discussion of the Results

4.0 Introduction:

This chapter will provide data analysis for the study and test its hypotheses. The three hypotheses will be discussed in isolation. All statements are analyzed referring to the hypotheses they represent.

4.1 Analysis of the First Tool: Teachers' Questionnaire:

After the step of checking questionnaire's reliability and validity, the researcher constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2, 1) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

Statistical Instruments:

In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, the following statistical instruments were used:

1. Frequency distribution.
2. Mean .
3. Non-parametric Chi-square test by using SPSS and EXSEL

Hypothesis One: pupils of basic schools make different type of grammatical errors

Statement (1): Pupils know the basic sentence structure correctly

Table No. (4.1) Knowing basic sentence

The 1st statement “Pupils know the basic sentence structure correctly”

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	5	25
Agree	9	45
Uncertain	2	10
Disagree	4	20
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.1) shows that (25%) of the respondents strongly agree with that " Pupils know the basic sentence structure correctly". (45%) agreed with that, and (0%) were not sure, and (20%) disagreed.

This shows that pupils know the basic structure.

Statement (2): Pupils know subject verb agreement

Table No. (4.2) Subject-verb agreement

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	5	25
Agree	11	55
Uncertain	1	5
Disagree	2	10
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No. (4.2) shows that (25%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils know subject verb agreement ." (55%) agreed with that, (5%) were not sure, (10%) disagreed, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that most of them agreed.

Statement (3): Pupils know the sequence of adjective and nouns properly

Table No. (4.3) sequence of adjective and noun

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	13	65
agree	6	30
uncertain	0	0
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.3) shows (65%) of the respondents in the study's sample strongly agreed with that "Pupils know the sequence of adjective and nouns properly". (30%) agreed with that, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

this shows that pupils know the sequence of adjectives and nouns properly.

Statement (4): Pupils use the articles (the) (an) (a) correctly

Table No. (4.4) using articles

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	9	45
agree	8	40
uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.4) shows that (45%) of the respondents strongly agreed with that " Pupils use the articles (the) (an) (a) correctly ." (40%) agreed with that, and (15%) disagreed. This shows that most of them agreed.

Statement (5): Pupils use the prepositions correctly

Table No. (4.5) Using prepositions

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	6	30
agree	5	25
uncertain	1	5
disagree	6	30
strongly disagree	2	10
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.5) shows that (30%) of the respondents strongly agreed with that " Pupils use the prepositions correctly." (25%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure, (30%) disagreed, and (10%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils know the use of prepositions correctly.

Statement (6): Pupils apply the use of conjunctions correctly

Table No. (4.6) Using conjunctions

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	7	35
agree	9	45
uncertain	0	0
disagree	2	10
strongly disagree	2	10
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.6) shows that (35%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils apply the use of conjunctions correctly." (45%) agreed with that, (10%) disagreed, and (10%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils apply the use of conjunctions correctly.

Statement (7): Pupils know how to use tenses

Table No. (4.7) Using tenses

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	8	40
agree	8	40
uncertain	1	5
disagree	2	10
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.7) shows that (40%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils know how to use tenses." (40%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure, (10%) disagreed, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils know the use of tenses.

Hypothesis two: spelling and punctuation are some of the writing problems at grade 8 at basic level school

Statement (8): Pupils differentiate between(p) and (b) while writing

Table No. (4.8) Differences between /p/ and /b/

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	5	25
agree	11	55
uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.8) shows that (25%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils differentiate between(p) and (b) while writing ." (55%) agreed with that, (15%) disagreed, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils know the difference between /p/ and /b/.

Statement (9): Pupils memorize spelling of irregular plural nouns

Table No. (4.9) Memorizing irregular plural nouns

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	7	35
agree	8	40
uncertain	1	5
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.9) shows (35%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils memorize spelling of irregular plural nouns." (40%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure, (15%) disagreed and (5%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils memorize irregular plural nouns.

Statement (10): Pupils memorize spelling of past of irregular verbs

Table No. (4.10) Memorizing irregular past

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	9	45
agree	6	30
uncertain	1	5
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	3	15
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.10) shows that (45%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils memorize spelling of past of irregular verbs " (30%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure, (5%) disagreed and (15%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (11): Pupils use full stop properly

Table No. (4.11) Using full-stop

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	12	60
agree	8	40
uncertain	0	0
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.11) shows that (60%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils use full stop properly ", and (40%) agreed with that pupils use full stop properly.

Statement (12): Pupils use the question mark correctly

Table No. (4.12) Using question mark

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	7	35
agree	6	30
uncertain	6	30
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.12) shows that (35%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils use the question mark correctly ." (30%) agreed with that, (30%) were not sure, and (5%) disagreed.

This shows that pupils use question mark correctly.

Statement (13): Pupils are aware of the use of comma

Table No. (4.13) Using comma

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	14	70
agree	5	25
uncertain	1	5
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.13) shows that (70%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils are aware of the use of comma ." (25%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure.

Statement (14): Pupils use apostrophe appropriately to show possession

Table No. (4.14) Using apostrophe

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	10	50
agree	7	35
uncertain	2	10
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.14) shows that (50%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils use apostrophe appropriately to show possession ." (35%) agreed with that, (10%) were not sure, and (5%) disagreed.

Hypothesis Three: Pupils are not aware of how to organize paragraphs:

Statement (15): Pupils can indent paragraphs

Table No.(4.15) Indent paragraph

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	7	35
agree	7	35
uncertain	3	15
disagree	2	10
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.15) shows that (35%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils can indent paragraphs ." (35%) agreed with that, (15%) were not sure, (10%) disagreed, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (16): Pupils can write a clear and complete topic sentence

Table No. (4.16) Using topic sentence

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	14	70
agree	5	10
uncertain	0	0
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	0	0
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.16) shows that (70%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils can write a clear and complete topic sentence ." (25%) agreed with that, and (5%) disagreed.

Statement (17): Pupils can write supporting sentence that can relate to the main idea

Table No. (4.17) Writing supporting sentences

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	3	15
agree	2	10
uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	12	60
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.17) shows that (15%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils can write supporting sentence that can relate to the main idea " (10%) agreed with that, (15%) disagreed, and (60%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils do not write supporting sentences.

Statement (18): Pupils can use transition words properly

Table No. (4.18) Using transition words

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	2	10
agree	2	10
uncertain	0	0
disagree	2	10
strongly disagree	14	70
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.18) shows that (10%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils can use transition words properly " (10%) agreed with that, (10%) disagreed, and (70%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils can not use transition words properly.

Statement (19): Pupils restate the topic sentence in the closing sentence

Table No. (4.19) Restating topic sentence

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	10	50
agree	6	30
uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.19) shows that (50%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils restate the topic sentence in the closing sentence." (30%) agreed with that, (15%) disagreed, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (20): Pupils can organize idea logically

Table No. (4.20) Organizing ideas

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	10	50
agree	7	35
uncertain	1	5
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.20) shows that (50%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils can organize idea logically ." (35%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure, (5%) disagreed, and (5%) strongly disagreed.

This shows that pupils can organize ideas logically.

Statement (21): Pupils can write a coherent and unified paragraph

Table No. (4.21) Writing coherently

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	4	20
agree	8	40
uncertain	1	5
disagree	4	20
strongly disagree	3	15
Total	20	100

The above table No.(4.21) shows that (20%) in the study's sample strongly agreed with that " Pupils can write a coherent and unified paragraph "(40%) agreed with that, (5%) was not sure, (20%) disagreed, and (15%) strongly disagreed.

Test of the Study's Hypotheses:

To answer the study questions and check its hypotheses, the mean and standard deviation will be computed for each statement from the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problems .To do that, the researcher will give five degrees for each response "strongly agree", four degrees for each response "agree", three degrees for each response" uncertain", two degrees with each response "disagree", and one degree for each response with "strongly disagree". This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, the non-parametric chi-square test will be used to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' responses about the study's hypotheses.

Table (4.22) Chi –Square Test for Hypothesis One:

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Pupils know the basic sentence structure correctly	2.7	4.1	22	0.000
2	Pupils know subject verb agreement	2.6	0.5	19	0.000
3	Pupils know the sequence of adjective and nouns properly	2.5	0.9	31	0.000
4	Pupils use the articles (the) (an) (a) correctly	2.9	1.6	22	0.000
5	Pupils use the prepositions correctly	2.8	2.1	27	0.000
6	Pupils apply the use of conjunctions correctly	2.7	1.5	29	0.000
7	Pupils know how to use tenses	2.6	0.5	34	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 1st statement was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils know the basic sentence structure correctly."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 2nd statement was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils know subject verb agreement."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 3rd statement was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils know the sequence of adjective and nouns properly"

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 4th statement was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils use the articles (the) (an) (a) correctly ."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 1st statement was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils use the prepositions correctly."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 2nd statement was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils apply the use of conjunctions correctly ."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 3rd statement was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement Pupils know how to use tenses.

This reflects the teachers' point of view that they think their students know how to use grammar.

Table (4.23) Chi –Square Test for Hypothesis Two:

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1		2.8	3.4	25	0.000
2	Pupils differentiate between (p) and (b) while writing	2.5	1.5	19	0.000
3	Pupils memorize spelling of irregular plural nouns	2.4	0.9	31	0.000
4	Pupils memorize spelling of past of irregular verbs	2.9	1.6	25	0.000
5	Pupils use full stop properly	2.6	0.7	36	0.000
6	Pupils use the question mark correctly	2.6	2.4	23	0.00
7	Pupils are aware of the use of comma	2.4	1.6	27	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 1st statement was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils differentiate between (p) and (b) while writing."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 2nd statement was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than

the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement “Pupils memorize spelling of irregular plural nouns.”

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s responses in the 3rd statement was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement “Pupils memorize spelling of past of irregular verbs .”

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s responses in the 4th statement was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement “Pupils use full stop properly.”

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s responses in the 5th statement was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement “Pupils use the question mark correctly.”

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 6th statement was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils are aware of the use of comma."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 4th statement was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils use apostrophe appropriately to show possession."

This reflects the teachers' point of view about their students spelling and punctuation.

Table (4.24) Chi –Square Test for Hypothesis Three:

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Pupils can indent paragraphs	2.8	0.6	22	0.000
2	Pupils can write a clear and complete topic sentence	3.1	3.5	38	0.001
3	Pupils can write supporting sentence that can relate to the main idea	2.8	0.6	24	0.000
4	Pupils can use transition words properly	3.2	3.5	33	0.001
5	Pupils restate the topic sentence in the closing sentence	3.2	4	33	0.000
6	Pupils can organize idea logically	2.8	0.6	26	0.000
7	Pupils can write a coherent and unified paragraph	2.7	3.5	27	0.001

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 1st statement was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils can indent paragraphs."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 2nd statement was (38) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.1) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils can write a clear and complete topic sentence ."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 3rd statement was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils can write supporting sentence that can relate to the main idea."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 4th statement was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils can use transition words properly."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 5th statement was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Pupils restate the topic sentence in the closing sentence."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 6th statement was (26) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement “Pupils can organize idea logically.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s responses in the 7th statement was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement “Pupils can write a coherent and unified paragraph .”

This reflects the teachers’ point of view that they think their students can write coherent and unified paragraph.

4.2 Analysis of the Second Tool: Students’ Test:

Statistical Reliability and validity for students’ test

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

Grammar:

Table (4.25): Writing in terms of grammar

Points	1	2	3	4	Total: 4
Frequency	21	5	3	1	30
Percentage	70%	16.67%	10%	3.33%	100%

The above table No. (4.25) shows that there are (21) students in the study's sample with percentage (70%) got (1) point out of (4) points. they failed to pass the test. only one student got (4) points out of (4) points. they are very weak in grammar. This result leads to the rejection of hypothesis one.

Spelling and Punctuation:

Table (4.26): Writing in terms of spelling and punctuation

Points	1	2	3	4	Total: 4
Frequency	11	5	11	3	30
Percentage	36.67%	16.67%	36.67%	10%	100%

The above table No. (4.26) shows that (11) students with percentage (36.67%) got (1) point out of (4) points. (3) students with percentage (10%) got (4) points out of (4) points.

This result leads to the rejection of hypothesis two.

Organization:

Table (4.27): Writing well organized paragraph

Points	1	2	3	4	Total: 4
Frequency	23	6	1	0	30
Percentage	76.67%	20%	3.33%	0	100%

The above table No. (4.27) shows that (23) students with percentage (76.67%) got (1) point out of (4) points, and only one student got (3) points out of (4) points.

This result leads to the acceptance of hypothesis three.

Final Comment

The students were very weak in grammar. They committed grammatical errors in tenses, capitalization, prepositions and subject-verb agreement. The result of spelling and punctuation was better than the result of grammar. The errors were in writing the past of irregular verbs, the use of comma, apostrophe and full stop. Students did not know how to organize paragraphs. They wrote a piece of writing which lacks clear and complete topic sentence, supporting sentence that relate to the main idea, transition words, restating the topic sentence in the closing sentence, organization of ideas as well as coherence.

Chapter Five

Main Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

5.0. Introduction

This chapter includes the discussion of main findings gained when applying the tools and conclusions. Moreover, a brief recommendations and suggestions were given at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Main Findings:

From the tables displayed in the previous chapter, it is clear that pupils of grade 8 at Algora Algorania School do have real problems in many phases which concern English composition writing. These problems include grammatical errors, mechanical errors, spelling errors and errors in paragraph organization. They also show weakness in the process of writing. This weakness may be lack of training, or because of shortage of their knowledge in this area, may be this why the pupils' writing is not coherent enough.

5.2. Conclusion

In conclusion, Arab students in EFL writing classes should be given ample opportunities for practice in and outside the classroom in order to be acquainted with the style of English for writing paragraph appropriately using the right expressions, cohesively uniting their thoughts besides considering the audience. In addition, adopting techniques like contrastive and error analysis, different approaches as the process and the free writing approaches would help these learners overcome their difficulties in writing and start producing better writing samples.

5.3. Recommendations

This study has investigated EFL writing difficulties encountered by Sudanese learners at basic.

In the light of the results of the present study, the following recommendations are presented. Those seem to be relevant to EFL students, English teachers and university stakeholders:

1. Writing of English should be revised to address the problem of writing difficulties among the students. This should be done if English is to be an effective language in classroom.
2. Teachers should be aware of developing good writing paragraphs in English. Being acquainted with the problems that Arab learners have and the reasons behind them would help the writing instructors better understand the mistakes and find useful ways to deal with them.
3. Teachers should consciously and constantly remind the students of the need for depersonalizing their writing by trying to use the pronouns “I” and “we” less, similarly, inserting cohesive devices while writing. This should be done consciously and constantly. Students should be always reminded to do that through in and out class practice.
4. Writing approach will be very helpful if the learners will be given multiple opportunities for working on their drafts passing the seven recommended stages starting from selecting a topic and ending with sharing their writing with others.

5.4. Suggestions for further Studies

The present study presents the following suggestions for further research:

- 1- Investigating Difficulties Faced by EFL Students in Writing Composition.
- 2- Challenges Face Students in Writing Well-Developed Paragraph.
- 3- Exploring Difficulties of Building English Sentences in Writing.

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Appendix (1)

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

Teacher Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is part of M.A study. It is designed to collect data on Investigating Writing Difficulties Encountered by Sudanese EFL Learners at Basic Schools.

The researcher would be grateful if you just spare some of your valuable time to answer the questionnaire's statements honestly.

Teachers' Feedback Questionnaire:

This questionnaire is intended to collect data for a study on performance of learners of English in Basic Schools, grade eight. Please, choose the option that best describes your pupils.

Hypothesis One:

No.	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Pupils know basic sentence structure correctly.					
2	Pupils know subject-verb agreement.					
3	Pupils know sequence of adjectives and nouns properly.					
4	Pupils do not use the articles (the), (an) and (a) correctly.					
5	Pupils use the prepositions correctly.					
6	Pupils apply the use of conjunctions correctly.					
7	Pupils know how to use the tenses.					

Hypothesis Two:

No.	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Pupils differentiate between /p/ and /b/ while writing.					
2	Pupils memorize spelling of irregular plural nouns.					
3	Pupils memorize spelling of past of irregular verbs.					
4	Pupils use full stop properly.					
5	Pupils use question mark correctly.					
6	Pupils are clear about the use of comma.					
7	Pupils use apostrophe to show possession.					

Hypothesis Three:

No.	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Pupils can indent paragraphs.					
2	Pupils can write a clear and complete topic sentence.					
3	Pupils write supporting sentences that relate to the main idea.					
4	Pupils write transition words.					
5	Pupils restate the topic sentence in the closing sentence.					
6	Pupils organize ideas logically.					
7	Pupils do not write a coherent and unified paragraph.					

Appendix (2)

A composition Test

Name: Class: Eight Time Allowed: 1 hour

School:

- Write a composition of about (10-12) lines about your last holiday.
- Write two to three lines as an introduction, then the body.
- Write two to three lines as a conclusion.

You can use following questions and words to help you:

- a. What is a holiday? (Introduction)
- b. Do you like holidays?
- c. Where did you go to during the last holiday?
- d. How did you go there?
- e. Why did you go there?
- f. How long did the journey take?
- g. Did you visit any interesting places?
- h. Where did you stay?
- i. Whom did you meet there?
- j. How long did you stay there?
- k. When did you come back?
- l. have you enjoyed your holiday? (conclusion)

