



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**College of Graduate Studies**

**College of Education**



**“Enhancing Undergraduate Students Linguistic Competence”**

(A case study of 3<sup>rd</sup> year, Faculty of Education, Sinnar University)

تعزيز الكفاءات اللغوية لدى الطلاب الجامعيين (دراسة حالة طلاب السنة الثالثة - كلية التربية - جامعة سنار)

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## **Dedication**

To the soul of my mother

To my father

To my wife and beloved children .

## **Acknowledgements**

Praise is due to Allah the Almighty for enabling me to achieve this academic task. Great appreciation and gratitude are due to the main supervisor Dr. Ahmed Mukhtar Almardi Osman for his terse guidance throughout the period of achieving this thesis. Lots of thanks and appreciation are extended to the co-supervisor: Dr. Alsadig Osman Mohammed Abaker for his close follow up. Thanks and gratitude are due to the jury committee: Dr. Salih Musa Suliman , D.Ahmed Farag , Dr.Mohammed Marajan and D. Hafith Babiker for judging and validating the questionnaire and the test as tools of data collection. Thanks are also extended to the participant teachers of English language who rated the questionnaire as a tool of collecting data from teachers . Finally, the researcher extends his thanks to the participant students for their patience and commitment that helped the researcher did the experiment on them for collecting the relevant data.

## **Abstract**

This study aimed at Investigating the barriers encountered by undergraduate students in dealing with linguistic competence .The researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method . A questionnaire and test were used as a tool for collecting data from the participants in the University .The test was administered to the 70 third year students at Sinnar University – Faculty of education . Also 30 English language teachers from Sinnar , Jazira and El Quran Elkareem Universities were participated in the questionnaire .The data was analyzed using Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS).The results of the study showed that, Grammatical items are the most linguistic barriers for undergraduate students . Using different aids develop University students competence, productive skills are more problematic for University students than receptive skills. The study recommended that : University teachers should encourage their students to know grammatical rules of English language, communicative activities must designed well to raise students' communicative competence, teaching productive skills need great effort from University teachers and University students should practice linguistic items to develop their competence. And The study is concluded by some suggestions for further studies .

## ( المستخلص )

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى تقصي المعوقات التي يواجهها الطلاب الجامعيون في التعامل مع الكفاءة اللغوية . استخدم الباحث المنهج الوصفي التحليلي . استخدمت الإستبانة والاختبار كوسيلة لجمع المعلومات . اجري الاختبار علي 70 من طلاب المستوي الثالث بجامعة سنار – كلية التربية . كذلك 30 أستاذ لغة انجليزية من جامعة سنار ، الجزيرة و القرآن الكريم شاركوا في الاستبيان . تم تحليل البيانات بواسطة برنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS) . أظهرت الدراسة أن عناصر قواعد اللغة هي من أكثر المعوقات للطلاب الجامعيين ، استخدام الوسائل المتنوعة يؤدي إلي تطوير مقدرة الطلاب الجامعيين ، تعتبر مهارات الكتابة والتحدث أكثر صعوبة من مهارات الاستماع والقراءة بالنسبة للطلاب الجامعيين . أوصت الدراسة بالآتي : يجب علي أساتذة الجامعة تشجيع طلابهم علي معرفة قواعد اللغة الإنجليزية ، يجب الاهتمام بتصميم أنشطة التواصل وذلك لرفع مقدرة الطلاب التواصلية ، مهارات الكتابة والتحدث تجتاح إلي مجهود أوفر من أساتذة الجامعة كما يجب غلي الطلاب الجامعيين ممارسة العناصر اللغوية حني يطوروا مقدراتهم . وقد ختمت الدراسة ببعض المقترحات لدراسات لاحقة .

## Table of contents

Item/s	Page/s
Dedication	I
Acknowledgements	II
Abstract	III
Abstract (Arabic version)	IV
<b>Chapter One : Introduction</b>	
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	2
1.3 Questions of the study	2
1.4 Hypotheses of the Study	2
1,5 Objectives of the Study	3
Significance of the study	3
1.7 Methodology of the study	3
1.8 Delimitation of the study	4
<b>Chapter Two : Literature Review and Previous Studies</b>	
2.1 Introduction	5
2.2 Overview	5
2.3 Linguistic competence	6
2.3.1 Competence	8
2.3.2 Sociolinguistic competence	10
2.3.3 Discourse competence	10
2.4 Problems in linguistic competence	11

2.5 Competence and performance	11
2.6 Competence pursues performance	12
2.7 Cultural and linguistic competence	13
2.8 Barriers	13
2.8.1 Definition of barriers	14
2.8.2 What is linguistic barriers ?	14
2.8.3 Barriers in general communication	14
2.8.4 Barriers in interpersonal communication	15
2.8.5 Barriers in written communication	15
2.9 Definition of culture	16
2.10 Levels of language	17
2.11 Hierarchy of language	17
2.12 Vocabulary	18
2.12.1 Definition of vocabulary	19
2.12.2 The importance of learning vocabulary	20
2.12.3 How to teach vocabulary	21
2.12.4 Some characteristics of effective vocabulary instruction	21
2.12.5 Ways to improve and acquire vocabulary	22
2.13 Grammar	28
2.13.1 Various definition of grammar	29
2.13.2 Grammatical word classes	30
2.13.3 Spelling and grammar communication barriers	32
2.13.4 Grammar and the language learners	33
2.13.5 Learners difficulties in grammar	35

2.14 Speaking skill	36
2.14.1 Some general features of spoken English	40
2.14.2 How to improve English speaking ?	43
2.15 Factors influencing learner's speaking competence	45
2.15.1 Cognitive factors	45
2.15.2 Linguistic factors	46
2.15.3 Affective factors	46
2.16 Writing skills	47
2.16.1 Various definitions of writing	47
2.16.2 The role of writing	48
2.16.3 The writing process	48
2.16.4 Characteristics of a good writing	49
2.16.5 Steps of writing process	50
2.16.6 The role of grammar and mechanics in writing process	50
2.17 Parts of speech	53
2.18 Sentence	56
2.18.1 Types of sentence	57
2.18.2 The four sentence structures	58
2.18.3 Why should I care about sentences ?	61
2.19 Phrase	64
2.20 Lexical verbs vs auxiliaries	66
2.21 Types of tenses	67
2.22 Prefixes and suffixes	71
2.23 Gerunds	72



2.24 Passive and active voice	73
2.24.1 What's the difference between active and passive voice?	74
2.24.2 When to use active and passive voice?	75
2.25 Phrasal verbs	75
2.25.1 Definition of phrasal verbs	76
2.25.2 How to learn phrasal verb?	77
2.25.3 How to use phrasal verb in English?	77
2.26 Idioms and fixed expressions	80
2.27 Previous studies	81
<b>Chapter Three : Methodology of the study</b>	
3.0 Introduction	86
3.1 Study method	86
3.2 Population and sampling of the study	86
3.3 Instrument of data collection	88
3.3.1 Students test	88
Teachers questionnaire	88
3,4 Data analysis and interpretation	88
3.5 Validity and reliability	88
3.5.1 Validity	88
3.5.2 Reliability	89
3.6 Summary	89
<b>Chapter Four : Data analysis , Results and Discussions</b>	
4. 1 Introduction	90
4.2 The test analysis	90

4.3 The questionnaire analysis	93
<b>Chapter Five : Main findings, Conclusions , Recommendations and Suggestion for further studies</b>	
5.0 Introduction	106
5.1 Main findings	106
5.2 Conclusion	107
5.3 Recommendations	108
5.4 Suggestion for further studies	108

## List of Abbreviations

<b>The word/s</b>	<b>The Abbreviation/s</b>
Second Language Acquisition	(S. L.A)
Generative Grammar	(G.G)
Universal Grammar	(U.G)
Noun Phrase	( N. P )
English as Second Language	(E .S . L)
Linguistic Competence	( L . C )
Operating System	( O . S )
Discourse Competence	( D . C )
English as Foreign Language	(E .F .L)
Verb Phrase	( V . P )

## **Definition/s of Term/s**

<b>The Term/s</b>	<b>The Definition/s</b>
Homogeneous	Consisting of things that are all the same or all at the same type .
Barriers	An object like a fence that prevents people from moving forward from one place to another .
Epistemological	Relating to the part of philosophy that deals with knowledge .
Exhaustively	In a very careful or complete way .
Schemata	An attempt to reduce complex economic theory to a simple schema .

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

# Chapter One

## Introduction

This chapter involves overview ,statement of the study ,questions of the study , hypotheses of the study , objectives of the study , significance , methodology of the study , and limitation of the study .

### 1.1 Overview

In the recent decades English language becomes the most important language in the world; it has been used in a wider range. So learning English becomes an obligatory task for every person want to go ahead and make a progress in his/ her life to meet the different demands in the big world.

The failure of some Sudanese University students in using linguistics competence is seen obviously in Sudanese Universities when the students need to practice a language in different situation, they always unable to use the language perfectly. Beside this problem, we observed some of them unable to use the language for purpose of developing communication. Also, most of Sudanese university are not aware of using different cultures while communication

On the other hand, some students do not use the suitable words to express their ideas; this may due to the lack of vocabulary, hence lead them to the mistakes and misunderstanding of their message.

Linguistics competence is the system linguistics knowledge possessed by native speaker of a language. It is distinguish from linguistics performance, which is the way of a language system in used in communication. Noam Chomsky introduced this concept in his elaboration of ‘generative grammar’ where it has been widely adopted and the competence is the only level of language that is studied.

According to Chomsky, competence is the ideal language system that enables speakers to produce and understand and distinguish grammatical sentences from ungrammatical sentences. In Chomsky views, competence can be studied independently of language use, which falls under “performance”.

## **1.2 Statement of the Studyproblem**

The researcher has been observing that the EFL undergraduate students encounter many problems in dealing with linguistics competence, although they are communicate while learning process, but many of them do not have linguistics competence. Some students make grammatical errors, some of them face difficulties in using vocabulary and others do not aware of using different culture while communication. So the researcher will conduct this study to investigate the barriers encountered by undergraduate students in dealing with linguistic competence.

## **1.3 Questions of the Study**

The following questions will be answered by this study:

1. To what extent do undergraduate students use grammatical structure correctly?
2. To what extent can undergraduate students use vocabulary appropriately?
3. To what extent are undergraduate students aware of different cultures while communication?

## **1.4 Hypotheses of the Study**

This research attempts to test the following hypotheses:

1. Undergraduate students do not use grammatical structure in discussion.
2. Undergraduate students do not use appropriate vocabulary.

3. Undergraduate students are not aware of using different culture while communication.

### **1.5 Objectives of the Study**

1. To discover whether undergraduate students use grammatical structure in discussion or not.
2. To identify how undergraduate students can use appropriate vocabulary or not.
3. To explore whether undergraduate students are aware of using different cultures while communication or not.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The significance of the study is derived from the importance of investigating the Barriers encountered by undergraduate students in using linguistic competence. This study will cover the area of linguistics competence It supposed to help students to be aware of developing linguistics competence. So the researcher hopes that the results of this study will be useful for English teachers so as to help EFL learners in learning process.

### **1.7 Methodology of the Study**

The researcher will use the descriptive analytical method to conduct this study. A questionnaire and test will be used as a tool for gathering data. The questionnaire will be distributed to the English language teachers from different Sudanese university to see their opinions and view about the research topic. The test also will given to the 3<sup>rd</sup> year students , Sinnar University : Faculty of education . After thatthe researcher will analyze data for bothquestionnaire and test so as to reach the main findings.



## **1.8 Delimitations of the Study**

This study is delimited to investigating the Barriers encountered by undergraduate students in dealing with linguistic competence. It will be conducted in the year (2018 / 2019), in Sinnar University, Faculty of Education. The sample will be selected from different Sudanese University teachers and the 3<sup>rd</sup> year EFL undergraduate students from Sinnar University – faculty of education .

# **Chapter Two**

## **Literature Review and Previous Studies**

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review and previous studies**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews literature and involves contents under some sub titles. It also gives general background about the present study.

#### **2.2 Overview**

Research and studies concerning the Scientists notion and scope of the term 'competence' have been one of the major within linguistic studies since the 1960s. Research on this subject liberated linguistic studies from structural boundaries and helped linguistics to become nourished especially by psychology, multidisciplinary sociology and cultural studies. The study of the competence types in linguistics not only paved the way to a better understanding of how language is produced and perceived by language users, but also increased the language users' awareness to become more knowledgeable in cross-cultural interactions and their underlying theories.

This research is particularly interested in pragmatic competence as the utmost point of related studies since the development of pragmatic competence embodies the skills and abilities to utilize the cognition and perception of the language user even in unforeseen discourses.

Competence perhaps one of the most debatable terms ever coined in the history of linguistics. Competence can be accepted as a kind of subconscious schemata that exists within the minds of individuals. It is a kind of underlying organizational pattern, a structure, a conceptual framework that enables the self to carry out her everyday actions. Competence in our minds acts in quite the same way as the operating system in a computer – for example, the intricate Windows operating system of Microsoft or Apple's IOS. It knows everything, performs actions systematically within frameworks, is mindful of its capabilities

and skills, ready for the unexpected, and able to produce solutions that involve complex infrastructures *Dergisi(2017)*.

Thus, today, the definition of competence cannot be limited by what Chomsky Structured in his 1965 'Aspects of the theory of syntax' book. For him, "linguistic

Theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely Homogeneous speech community, who knows the language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts language.

## **2.3Linguistic competence**

### **2.3.1Various Definitions of linguistic competence :**

**Chomsky (1965)**, defined linguistic competence (L.C) as the system of linguistic knowledge possessed by native speakers of a language. It is in contrast to the concept of Linguistic performance, the way the language system is used in communication. The concept was first introduced by Noam Chomsky as part of the foundations for his Generative grammar (G.G), but it has since been adopted and developed by other linguists, particularly those working in the generativist tradition. In the generativist tradition competence is the only level of language that is studied, because this level gives insights into the Universal Grammar (U.G) that generativists see as underlying all human language systems. Functional theories of grammar tend to dismiss the sharp distinction between competence and performance, and particularly the primacy given to the study of competence. According to Chomsky, competence is the 'ideal' language system that makes it possible for speakers to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences in their language, and to distinguish grammatical sentences from ungrammatical sentences. This is unaffected by "grammatically irrelevant conditions" such as speech errors.

Linguistic competence is the ability of language users to comprehend and produce English sounds, words, as well as to arrange words to produce and understand well-formed sentences or utterances.

According to **Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1995: 17)** linguistic competence comprises sentence patterns, constituent structures, morphological inflectional, vocabulary, phonology as well as orthographic system of writing. In other words, to enhance students' knowledge in linguistics, teachers should focus on sound systems, word formations, structures of sentences as well as the writing systems.

In Sudanese colleges, it seems that all the above elements of linguistic are taught, however, we hardly get competent students in linguistics. So far, we need to investigate the barriers encountered undergraduate students in dealing with linguistic competence.

Grammar is taught either inductively or deductively in the initial semesters in the B.A. program. However, students may understand the abstract formula of English tenses or using the passive voice, they just do that in writing. For better grammar teaching, and actual developments of students' enhancement in linguistics, teachers should spend time to use the rules in communication whether in group work or pair work or even in drilling at initial periods. After an overall acquisition of any rule, teachers should focus on students' automaticity in using grammar rules in production as well as in perception. Teachers should also check students' selections from the rules they just studied to suit the situations. For more enhancement, teachers should focus on such structures when they teach listening tasks or activities. Bringing native speakers recordings or videos can train students on how to spot out the contracted forms as well as the weak or functional words.

Few years later, Chomsky presented the notion of linguistic competence (**Tienson 1983**). **Chomsky** argued that "an ideal speaker-listener" has complete mastery of the language spoken in his or her speech community, and according

to him, “every speaker of a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar” that shows their knowledge of that particular language. (**Chomsky 1965, pp. 3-8**).

Chomsky makes a clear distinction between the notions of competence and performance. Competence refers to the native speakers’ (ideal speaker-listeners’) knowledge of the linguistic system (grammar) of their language (**Canale&Swain 1980**), while performance is seen as the actual language use (Chomsky 2006). However, he asserts that a number of different factors need to be taken into account in order to study the real language performance.

One of these factors is the native speakers’ competence (Chomsky 1965, p. 4). Therefore, Chomsky argues that the purpose of the linguistic theory is to explain the mental processes underlying the language use, and by this he means that the study of linguistics should be concerned with competence, not performance (**Barman 2014**).

As can be understood, Chomsky focuses solely on linguistic competence (Jordan 2004) that allows native speakers of a language to create well-formed sentence structures. However, linguistic competence cannot be seen as the only goal of language learning since the process of communication goes beyond the mere knowledge of creating well-structured sentences (**Thornbury 2006**).

### **2.3.2 Competence**

Competence Perhaps one of the most debatable terms ever coined in the History of linguistics. Competence can be accepted as a kind of subconscious schemata that exists within the minds of individuals. It is a kind of underlying organizational pattern, a structure, a conceptual framework that enables the self to carry out her everyday actions. Competence in our minds acts in quite the same way as the operating system in a computer – for example, the intricate Windows operating system (O.S) of Microsoft or Apple's IOS. It knows everything, performs actions systematically within frameworks, is mindful of its

capabilities and skills, ready for the unexpected, and able to produce solutions that involve complex infrastructures. **Ismail Dergisi (2017: 157-170).**

Thus, today, the definition of competence cannot be limited by what Chomsky Structured in his 1965 'Aspects of the theory of syntax' book. For him, "linguistic

Theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely Homogeneous speech community, who knows the language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of language.

In Sudanese University colleges, it seems that all the above elements of linguistic elements are taught, however, we hardly get competent students in linguistics. So far, we need to investigate barriers Encountered undergraduate Students in dealing with linguistic competence. Teachers of listening and speaking listed the phonetic sounds on the board and pronounced them by themselves for some times .It must be a more benefitable if teachers bring a voice recorder or videos for native speakers to the class. It would be amazing for students to listen to the native audio for the sounds and then if videos of the phonetic sound brought to class, students can imitate the articulation of such sounds made by native speakers.

Grammar is taught either inductively or deductively in the initial semesters in the B.A.program. However, students may understand the abstract formula of English tenses or using the passive voice, they just do that in writing. For better grammar teaching, and actual developments of students' enhancement in linguistics, teachers should spend time to use the rules in communication whether in group work or pair work or even in drilling at initial

Periods. After an overall acquisition of any rule, teachers should focus on students' automaticity in using grammar rules in production as well as in

perception. Teachers should also check students' selections from the rules they just studied to suit the situations. For more enhancement, teachers should focus on such structures when they teach listening tasks or activities. Bringing native speakers recordings or videos can train students on how to spot out the contracted forms as well as the weak or functional words.

### **2.3.3 Sociolinguistic Competence**

It is the ability to use language perfectly, not only paying attention to the rules of grammar, but also according to what **Hymes (1972: 60)** says "rules of [language] use". Because classroom is the only situation where English is sometimes practiced, teachers should invent situations to motivate students to use language over the grammatical barriers. As students have strong ability to learn, teachers should suggest some websites to them where they can find partners and practice language naturally with them. Moreover, for better enhancement of Students' knowledge in sociolinguistics, students need to know about the English cultures, as some researchers ranked culture as the fifth language skill (see **Vernier & Barbuzza, 2008**). Students need to be made accustomed with verities of English as well as to know about registers.

### **2.3.4 Discourse Competence**

Discourse competence (D.C) is the ability of language learners to organize a cohesive as well as coherence text or utterance. Language is not separate sentences occurring in the vacuum .Language consists of functional expressions used in meaningful ways to transfer ideas or give opinions, etc. Teachers can enhance students' competence in discourse whenever they teach them the four language skills. In reading or listening lectures, teachers should analyze the use of references, conjunctions, substitutions or ellipses, as well as parallel structures and let students spot them up whenever they listen to a recording. Teachers should also motivate students to use the previously mentioned elements of discourse cohesion whenever they participate in a conversation or when they write paragraph or texts. In addition to using the knowledge of



cohesion, teachers should focus on the linkage of sentences according to their meanings. Teachers should train students to determine the topic sentence in each paragraph.

#### **2.4 Problems in linguistic Competence**

The problem of linguistics competence consists in describing the knowledge of speakers to speak. This type of knowledge can be summarized in the activity of speaking. Since speaking is speaking in a particular language, the description of linguistic competence is the description of the means used to express their ideas, purposes and aims. Speaking involves speaking and understanding. Speaking, saying and knowing, a mental activity developed by individual subjects. Because of this linguistic competence involves four problems:

- A. The identification of speaking, what is linguistic competence? What does linguistic competence consists in?
- B. The contents of speaking :what does linguistic competence consist of?
- C. The nature of speaking: what is the character of linguistic competence?
- D. The configuration of speaking :is linguistic competence structured?

These problems will be studied separately. **Coseriu (1986).**

#### **2.5 Competence and Performance**

Linguistic competence is an epistemological ability enjoyed by the individual speaking any language. This ability originates from two sources: language innateness and language experience. Man by his very nature, is created with the innate linguistic ability. However, innateness cannot function by itself if the child is not exposed to adequate linguistic experiences. Innateness alone is not enough and experience alone is not enough. It is the two combined together that create linguistic competence.

Linguistic competence is the actual language units stored in the brain in the form of phonemes , syllables , morphemes , words , meanings , phonetics , rules , morphological rules , syntactic rules , semantic rules , proverbs , poetry , and information . Competence is made possible through the innate ability planted by

God in the human nature, this ability which makes language as such a unique human behavior and not an animal behavior. However, innateness should be supplemented by linguistic exposure so as to secure the essential linguistic input, which later extends and grows through the creative mental operations of the individual, whose brain cannot but analyze, synthesize, conclude, exclude, generalize, and build rules, systems and subsystem.

When linguistic competence is mature enough, performance begins to materialize in the form of speech, writing, listening, and reading. While competence is mentally latent, performance, by definition, is explicit. The only way to measure and reveal competence is to channel it into performance.

**Mohammed (1998).**

## **2.6 Competence pursues performance**

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows it's (the speech community's) language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of this language in actual performance. Chomsky, 1965(page 3)

Chomsky differentiates competence, which is an idealized capacity, from performance being the production of actual utterances. According to him, competence is the ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of his or her language and it is the 'mental reality' which is responsible for all those aspects of language use which can be characterized as 'linguistic'. Chomsky argues that only under an idealized situation whereby the speaker-hearer is unaffected by grammatically irrelevant conditions such as memory limitations and distractions will performance be a direct reflection of competence. A sample of natural speech consisting of numerous false starts and other deviations will not provide such

data. Therefore, he claims that a fundamental distinction has to be made between the competence and performance.

Chomsky dismissed criticisms of delimiting the study of performance in favor of the study of underlying competence, as unwarranted and completely misdirected. He claims that the descriptivist limitation-in-principle to classifying and organizing data, the practice of "extracting patterns" from a corpus of observed speech, and the describing of "speech habits" are core factors precluding the development of a theory of actual performance.

## **2.7 Cultural and linguistic Competence**

A set of congruent behaviors ,attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or amongst professionals and allows that system, agency, or those professionals to work effectively in cross-cultural situations.

-The word culture is used because it implies the integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communication, actions ,customs ,beliefs ,values, and institutions of a racial, ethnic, religious, or social group.

-The word competence is used because it implies having the capacity to function effectively.

## **2.8 Barriers:**

### **2.81 Definition of Barrier**

Barrier is something such as a rule, law or policy that makes it difficult or impossible for something to happen or be achieved. It is the problem that prevents two people or groups from agreeing communicating, or working with each other.

Example:

- There is no reason why love shouldn't cross the age barrier.
- She had been waiting for Simon to break down the barrier between them.

- When you get involved in sports and athletes, a lot of the racial barriers are broken down.

### **2.8.2 What is linguistic Barriers?**

Obstacle like the lack of knowledge of a specific language that obstructs communication. It is the snag, the difficulty that people may have when they are somewhere without speaking the local language.

For example, imagine that a monolingual American goes to a little nice village in the north of Mexico, going there he will have a lot of difficulties talking with locals and interacting with them. That's because there is a linguistic barrier between him and his interlocutors.

Linguistic barriers exist for people who are not proficient in English. It resulting in lack of access to care, less than adequate care, poor treatment adherence, increased problematic incidents, and increased costs.

### **2.8.3 Barriers in general communication**

**One of the main barriers for general communication would be 'lack of concentration'.**

**-Lack of concentration –**

There are many ways that someone could lose concentrations such as using mobile phones, this would include texting, and listening to music and social networking it can easily distract them and make them lose concentration. Not being interested in the subject is also a major way of the lacks of concentration because if they don't like it they are not going to want to hear it. There are also other ways to be distracted to make the audience lose concentration, Emotional distraction is also a major way, this can be caused with stress or distress some people might not be able to help it as it can be a condition. Finally physical distraction is another way as it more than likely happens majority of the time,

this would involve not feeling well and the distraction of other people around the room.

#### **2.8.4 Barriers in interpersonal communication**

##### **-Body language –**

There are many barriers in interpersonal communication, there are barriers such as bad body language, background noise, negative emotions, distraction, use of negative language, lack of concentration etc. This is similar to general communication, one of the main barriers in interpersonal communication would be Body language, this can happen a lot when it comes to communicating, sometimes people might not think that you are showing bad body language when you are. Bad body language can be when you are not sitting properly, when you have your arms crossed, it can also be displayed for when you are talking to closely too someone they might not like it, this can also be for when you are constantly moving and can't sit quietly, always looking around you, not giving eye contact to the person you are speaking with. This can cause the person you are speaking to, to think that there is something wrong with you or that you are not interested.

#### **2.8.5 Barriers in written communication**

##### **-Spelling and Grammar**

There are also many barriers in written communication, the common barriers in written communication would be the small things such as spelling mistakes, bad grammar. When you receive an email that has lots of spelling mistakes and lots of grammar error therefore some people might not be able to read it or understand it, if the grammar is really bad it can cause the readers to not understand what you are trying to say, maybe one person might read it and understand it in a different way than another so you need to make sure you are meeting what you are talking about so people won't understand it differently, with spelling mistake can show that the writer did not care about what they were writing or that they have very bad English skills. It can also cause that the

reader cannot read the message or cannot understand it. With bad grammar it can also show that the document is unprofessional and can also affect the ability to communicate with someone in writing, for example, emails, letters, social networking etc.

## **2.9 Definition of culture**

Culture is the characteristics and knowledge of a particular group of people, encompassing language, religion, cuisine, social habits, music and arts.

The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition goes a step further, defining culture as shared patterns of behaviors and interactions, cognitive constructs and understanding that are learned by socialization. Thus, it can be seen as the growth of a group identity fostered by social patterns unique to the group.

"Culture encompasses religion, food, what we wear, how we wear it, our language, marriage, music, what we believe is right or wrong, how we sit at the table, how we greet visitors, how we behave with loved ones, and a million other things," .

The word "culture" derives from a French term, which in turn derives from the Latin "colere," which means to tend to the earth and grow, or cultivation and nurture. "It shares its etymology with a number of other words related to actively fostering growth," De Rossi said.

-Culture is everything we have learned: the meaning of things, the values we have, the information we received as to what is normal behavior, moreover, culture is transmitted to us by our family, community, and society. It influences and impacts feelings and doing. It has strong relationship to worldviews.

## **2.10 Levels of Language**

Language manifests itself in several levels in hierarchy; the phonemic level, morphological level, lexical level, and syntactic level.

1. Phonemic level. Here we use phoneme, the smallest linguistic units, such as /s/, /b/, /k/, and /l/. Language is similar to matter; if we analyze matter, we

get molecules, which if further analyzed give atoms, which is further analyzed give electrons, protons, and neutrons. The lowest level in language is the phonemic level.

2. Morphological level. When phonemes get together, they make morphemes ,i.e., the smallest meaningful units. For example, *book* is a morpheme ,and so is *dis-* , *in-* , *ion-* , *ity-* , or *ness*.
3. Lexical level. When morphemes are combined together, they make words ,i.e., lexemes. The words continuous, discourage, encouragement, and improbability are made of two morphemes or more each.
4. Syntactic level. When words get together, they form a sentence at the syntactic level.

The phonemic level is discussed by phonetics and phonemics. The morphological level is discussed by morphology. The lexical level is discussed by morphology, syntax, and semantics. Finally, the syntactic level is discussed by syntax.

## **2.11 Hierarchy of Language**

Language is a hierarchical system graded from the smallest units up to largest ones.

1. Phonemes. The phoneme is the smallest linguistics unit. Nothing in language is smaller than phonemes such as /p/, /s/, /k/, and /t/.
2. Syllable. Phonemes combine together to build up a syllable, e.g., *syn + tax*, *win + Dow*, *mor + pho + lo +gi +call*, *sen + tence*. A syllable may be a morpheme and maybe not.
3. Morpheme. Syllables combine to build up a morpheme, although some morphemes consist of one syllable only, e.g., *this*, *second*.
4. Word. Morphemes combine to build up a word although some words consist of one morpheme only, e.g., *geological*, *philosophical*, *nationalization*, *come*.

5. Sentence. Words string together horizontally in a certain order to form a sentence.
6. Paragraph. Sentences combine together in a certain meaningful order to make a unified coherent paragraph.
7. Essay. Paragraphs follow one another in a certain logical order to make an essay.

In all previous levels, lower units concatenate to make higher units in obedience to certain rules within the phonemic, syllabic, morphological, lexical, sentential, paragraph, and essay system, respectively. Any violation of these rules will render the output incorrect and unacceptable.

## **2.12 Vocabulary**

Learning a foreign or second language at different levels of proficiency involves the acquisition of a great number of words. Language learners look for effective ways to increase opportunities for retaining new words in long term – term memory, but forgetting is a common problem. Language learners often complain that they forget new words soon. The importance of vocabulary learning also poses some challenges for teachers. They like to know in what ways instructional programs might foster the acquisition of so many words. Students face some barriers when they try to assign the vocabularies to their long term memories.

Vocabulary is generally considered as the basic communication tool, and often labeled as the most problematic area by language teachers (**Celik&Topaz,2010**). Even though learners master all grammatical areas in the language, the communication stops when they do not know the necessary word. Strategies used for vocabulary learning have been examined by many researchers, scholars, linguists and language teachers for over the past decades (**Levenston,1979**).



### 2.12.1 Definition of Vocabulary

For many people, the word vocabulary is primarily associated with the number of words that a person knows; one either has a large or a small vocabulary. But the word has many shades of meaning and is nicely representative of the nuanced and multi-hued nature of so much of the English lexicon.

Vocabulary may indeed refer to the collection of words known by an individual or by a large group of people. It may also signify the body of specialized terms in a field of study or activity (“the vocabulary of science”). It may designate a physical object, such as a book, in which a collection of (usually alphabetized) words is defined or explained. And it may name things other than words, such as “a list or collection of terms or codes available for use,” “a set or list of nonverbal symbols” (such as marine alphabet flag signals), and “a set of expressive forms used in an art” (as in “the vocabulary of dance”).

**Neuwmann & Dwyer ( 2009 – P 385 )** defined vocabulary as words we must know to communicate effectively , words in speaking ( expressive vocabulary ) and words in listening ( receptive vocabulary . However anew item of vocabulary may be more than just a single words for example: pot office and mother in law, which are made up of two or three words but express single idea. A useful conversation to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary items rather than words , in addition **Burns ( 1972 )** define vocabulary as stock of words which are used by a person , class or profession. Furthermore **Diamond and Qutlohn (2006)** stated that vocabulary is knowledge of words and word meaning.

From the definition above, it can be concluded that vocabulary is the total number of words that are heeded to communicate ideas and express the speakers meaning.

### **2.12.2The importance of Learning Vocabulary**

Vocabulary knowledge is often viewed as a critical tool for second language learners because a limited vocabulary in second language impedes successful communication.

Underscoring the importance of vocabulary acquisition, **Schmitt (2000)** emphasizes that “lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language”.

**Nation (2001)** further describes the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language use as complementary : knowledge of vocabulary enables language use and conversely is by far the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language whether a foreign or one’s mother tongue , because of tens of thousands of different meanings despite these differences , that language learners face in L2 vocabulary they still have to deal with it in their examinations as vocabulary has traditionally been one of the language components measured in language tests .

Furthermore many learners see second language acquisition (S.L.A). As essentially a matter of learning vocabulary and therefore they spend a great deal of time on memorizing lists of L2 words and rely on their bilingual dictionary as basic communicative resource . As a result, language teachers and applied linguists now generally recognize the importance of vocabulary learning. On the other hand, vocabulary has been acknowledged as L2 learners, greatest single source of problems (**Meara,1980**).

This remark may possibly reflect that the open – endedness of a vocabulary system is perceived to be cause of difficulty by learners.

### **2.12.3How to teach vocabulary**

As everyone knows that vocabulary is very important in all languages, so a large amount of vocabulary in the student’s brain helps them to know about each and every thing. Recent research indicates that teaching vocabulary may be problematic because many teachers are not confident about the best

practice in vocabulary teaching and at the same time do not know where to begin to form an instruction emphasis on word learning .

**Blachwicz, (2008)** claims that teaching words is a crucial aspect in learning, a language are based on words.

**Stuarwebb, (2009)** classified vocabulary into two parts: receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary is words that learners recognize and understand when they are used in context, but which they cannot produce. It is vocabulary that learners recognize when they see or meet in reading text

Productive vocabulary is the words that the learners understand, produce and use constructively in speaking and writing. It involves what is needed for or write at the appropriate time.

So the teacher should be concerned that teaching vocabulary need strategies and great effort, and to take into account that teaching young learners is different from teaching adults. Moreover, teachers need to prepare a good techniques and suitable material in order to gain the target language teaching.

#### **2.12.4 Some characteristics of effective vocabulary Instruction:**

1. Effective vocabulary Instruction does not rely on definition.
2. Students must represent their knowledge of words in linguistic and nonlinguistic ways.
3. Effective vocabulary instruction involves the gradual shopping of word meanings through shopping the word meaning through multiple exposures.
4. Teaching words part enhances students understanding of terms.
5. Different types of words requires different types of instruction.
6. Students should discuss the terms they are learning.
7. Students should play with the words.
8. Instruction should focus on terms that have a high probability of enhancing academic success.

### **2.12.5 Ways to Improve and Acquire Vocabulary:**

A great vocabulary is just one essential tool in a writer's toolbox, along with punctuation, grammar, and many others. Vocabulary can make your writing more powerful and more effective and help you say exactly what you mean. This indispensable tool will help you choose the best word for every job and avoid vague words that do not give your readers a good sense of your meaning. Building your vocabulary is one of the easiest ways to improve the power of your writing and make any writing task that much easier, as you will have several synonyms in your repertoire to pull from every time. Developing your vocabulary need not be difficult or painful. Here are 25 ways you can improve your writing vocabulary every day:

#### **1. Use New Words**

Use a word immediately after you learn it. Try to make a game out of using a new word as soon as you learn it. Every day, try to slip in a new word into the conversation, a journal entry, an assignment or an email to a friend. Do this as often as possible, and repeat the word to yourself.

#### **2. Read Every Day**

Once you're out of school or university, word drills and assigned reading become things of the past. While these were tools for building your vocabulary repertoire while you were young, it doesn't mean you should abandon reading. Try to read a well-written and edited essay, magazine article, book or news article every day. Nonfiction and technical books will quickly teach you new ways to think and speak with words you may be unfamiliar with, but any type of reading will help you along.

#### **3. Learn Roots**

Learn the roots of words. Most words in the English language are built from a common root, prefix, and suffix, usually with an origin in the Greek or Latin language. Once you learn a root, you'll begin to understand more words that use

the same root. For example, -duck- (Latin root word) means to lead or to make, such as in the words produce or deduce.

#### **4. Use a Thesaurus**

Keep a thesaurus handy. As you write, keep a thesaurus handy and use it when you find yourself using a word too often, or using a word that you know doesn't quite convey the right meaning. This will help you better express yourself, and you'll also learn a new word in the process.

#### **5. Develop Practical Vocabulary**

This means you should start by learning words that express what's important to you for the task at hand. A good example of this is learning trade language or words you use often in a hobby or vocation. Rather than immediately turning to clichés or jargon that's tossed around, look for clearer words to express to peers what you're writing about.

#### **6. Learn New Words Every Day**

To improve your vocabulary quickly, make an effort to learn at least one new word every single day. There are plenty of ways to do this, such as a Word of the Day calendar or email list, or simply picking a word from a thesaurus or dictionary.

#### **7. Look up Words You Don't Know**

How often do you come across words that are unfamiliar as you read? Don't just gloss over them; take the time to look them up, and if you don't have the time right then, write them down and look them up later.

#### **8. Keep a Journal**

Journaling won't just help you develop your writing style, it will also help you improve your vocabulary. Try to use new or interesting words you've learned recently into a journal entry for the day or the week.

#### **9. Identify Empty Words**

You're probably familiar with empty words in your speech (such as "uh" or "um"), but your writing probably has empty words as well. Look for these

empty words in your writing that do not offer any substance to your reader and replace them with something more appropriate. The same principle applies to phrases and sentences, so make sure that you haven't used six or seven phrases to say something that could be better communicated in one sentence filled with carefully-chosen words.

### **10. Diversify Your Reading List**

If you tend to read the same sort of things day in and day out, you may not be exposing yourself to a wide enough range of vocabulary. Diversify the topics you read to include natural science, Shakespeare, contemporary literature, politics, history, philosophy or any other topics you think you may enjoy.

### **11. Do Word Puzzles**

Word puzzles in the newspaper or a magazine aren't just a fun way to fill time, they're also perfect for boosting your working vocabulary. Crossword puzzles are a challenge that get your brain working hard to search your memory for words you do know but don't use, and this can help you move words from your memory banks into your working set of vocabulary which will come across in your writing.

### **12. Try Word Board Games**

There are plenty of word games on the market designed to improve vocabulary and language skills without being a bore. Some of these games you may have played as a child, so it's time to break them out again and get to "work." If you have a friend who could also use some help — or someone with a great vocabulary you think will challenge you — invite them over for a game night.

### **13. Practice New Words in Divergent Ways**

It takes between 10 and 20 repetitions to make a new word a part of your vocabulary. To help the word settle into your mind and memory, write it down (both the definition and a sentence you make up using the word), use it in conversation, and include it in an email or any other way you can think of.

#### **14. Make up Associations**

Start by saying the new word aloud, then relate it to a word you already know. A good example of this is gargantuan, which means “very large” or “gigantic.” Say a sequence aloud: small, medium, large, very large, and gargantuan. Then list things you think are gargantuan.

#### **15. Use Mnemonics**

Mnemonic techniques are memory tricks you can use to remember new words. You may remember a word by sounding it out and thinking of a funny sentence that matches the meaning, such as turning egregious (extremely bad) into “Don’t let that smelly rotten egg reach us!”

#### **16. Visualize New Words**

Research shows that visualization is a great way to remember new words and their meanings. A good example of this is the word stratovolcano, which is a high, pointed mountain with a violent explosion. One way to remember this meaning is the fact that the prefix “strato” sounds like “straight-oh,” which may make you think of a straight ruler or a “straight-o-volcano,” which describes the word’s definition.

#### **17. Make Your Own Vocabulary Tests**

Keep a list of the new words you learn each week and incorporate into writing and conversation. At the end of each week, make yourself a quiz using the words to cement them in your memory.

#### **18. Make Synonym Word Lists**

Do you find yourself turning to the same word again and again in your writing? Grab a piece of paper and write it at the top. Next, brainstorm or use a thesaurus to generate a list of ten to twenty new words you can use instead. You can keep these lists in a vocabulary notebook and add to them whenever you learn a new synonym.

#### **19. Take a Writing Course**

There are plenty of online courses as well as in-person classes you can attend to boost your writing vocabulary and learn how to use new words correctly. Try to find a self-paced course that uses assignments and quizzes to help you increase

fluency and brush up on your writing skills. Some classes are aimed at essay writing or creative writing, so you can find a class that will help you improve the style you need the most help with.

### **20. Edit Your Own Writing**

After you finish writing, be your own editor and go through the piece with a fine-toothed comb to identify overused and nondescript words with something more precise or colorful. Editing is an important process for spotting writing errors, but it's also great for improving the tone, style, and clarity of your writing. It might help to read the sentences aloud, then note any lack of precision. Search through your memory for more descriptive words, or consult a thesaurus if you need to.

As you replace words, remember that using a large number of complex words won't necessarily clarify the meaning, and it may just make your writing more pompous. Ask yourself, "Do I know a better word to use instead?" You may replace "use" with "acquire" or "obtain," or "do" with "perform."

### **21. Move Words from Comprehensive to Expressive Vocabulary**

You actually have two types of vocabulary: one is a much larger set of words you understand, even if only vaguely, and the other is a smaller set of words you actually use to express yourself. Moving words from your comprehensive, but passive vocabulary, to your active, expressive vocabulary is easier than you think. To do this, you'll need to know how to define, pronounce and spell the words. Say them out loud and use them at every opportunity to move them into your active set.

### **22. Ask for Feedback**

Do you think your writing could use some help? If you're struggling with your written vocabulary, try asking someone else for help. A second set of eyes can offer a great deal of insight and spot problems you may not notice yourself, including poor word choice. Don't be afraid to ask a friend, teacher, co-worker or someone online to review your writing for feedback on your vocabulary.



### **23. Carry a Dictionary and Thesaurus with You**

How often do you find yourself with free time and nothing to do? Carry a pocket thesaurus or dictionary with you and you'll find time to beef up your vocabulary while you're waiting for an appointment, commuting to work or waiting for a bus. Whenever you have a few minutes to spare, read a page or two and learn a new word to add to your writing. It's also a great idea to look up obscure words you don't quite grasp that come to you on the fly as you go about your day. You can also use the dictionary or thesaurus to look up unfamiliar words you come across in your daily life.

### **24. Use College Preparation Tests**

College prep tests that use SAT and ACT-type words are a great way to take your writing to the next level. This form of advanced study will challenge your mind and give you a new set of words to use that are practical and offer your writing the clarity it needs. You'll also get the chance to brush up on the most important Latin and Greek roots and get a new set of words with activities to help move them into your active vocabulary set.

### **25. Play Games**

There are tons of non-board games that will help you improve your writing vocabulary while you have fun. Try downloading fun word games onto your phone or computer so you can get some practice while you unwind after a busy day. Some games are designed to build vocabulary skills, but there are plenty of others that will help you practice spelling, phonics, and even typing skills. There are even some designed for college students to prepare for testing and vocabulary-rich exams.

Hopefully, this list has given you an excellent place to start to build your vocabulary a bit at a time. If you think about it, there are opportunities all around you to develop this important skill, so spend time every day reading and listening to take in new words and then develop a system to incorporate these new words in your writing and speech. Before long, you'll find your vocabulary

has grown to a new level and your writing has gained the clarity you need with an ease you didn't think possible.

## **2.13 Grammar**

The first attempts at producing a grammar of English were made when there were less than ten million speakers of English in the world, almost all of them living within 100 miles or so of London. Grammars of English have gone on being written during the intervening 400 years reflecting a variety (and growing complexity) of needs, while speakers of English have multiplied several hundredfold and dispersed themselves so that the language has achieved a uniquely wide spread throughout the world and, with that, a unique importance. We make no apology for adding one more to the succession of English grammars. In the first place, though fairly brief synopses are common enough, there have been very few attempts at so comprehensive a coverage as is offered in the present work. Fewer still in terms of synchronic description. And none at all so comprehensive or in such depth has been produced within an English-speaking country. Moreover, our Grammar aims at this comprehensiveness and depth in treating English irrespective of frontiers: our field is no less than the grammar of educated English current in the second half of the twentieth century in the world's major English-speaking communities. Only where a feature belongs specifically to British usage or American usage, to informal conversation or to the dignity of formal writing, are 'labels' introduced in the description to show that we are no longer discussing the 'common core' of educated English. S, Jan (1992).

### **2.13.1 Various Definitions of Grammar**

In linguistics, grammar (from Ancient Greek γραμματική) is the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases and words in a natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules and this field includes phonology, morphology and syntax, often complemented by phonetics semantics and pragmatics

Fluent speakers of a language variety have a set of internalized rules which constitutes its grammar. The vast majority of the information in the grammar is – at least in the case of one's native language – acquired not by conscious study or instruction but by hearing other speakers. Much of this work is done during early childhood; learning a language later in life usually involves more explicit instruction. Thus, grammar is the cognitive information underlying language use.

The term "grammar" can also describe the rules which govern the linguistic behavior of a group of speakers. For example, the term "English grammar" may refer to the whole of English grammar; that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language, in which case the term encompasses a great deal of variation. Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common to the grammars of all or most English speakers (such as subject–verb–object word order in simple declarative sentences). It may also refer to the rules of one relatively well-defined form of English (such as Standard English for a region).

A description, study, or analysis of such rules may also be referred to as a grammar. A [reference book](#) describing the grammar of a language is called a "reference grammar" or simply "a grammar" (see [History of English grammars](#)). A fully explicit grammar which exhaustively describes the [grammatical](#) constructions of a particular speech variety is called a descriptive grammar. This kind of [linguistic description](#) contrasts with [linguistic prescription](#), an attempt to actively discourage or suppress some grammatical constructions, while [codifying](#) and promoting others, either in an absolute sense or in reference to a [standard variety](#). [Prepositions trending](#) occurs widely in [Germanic languages](#). It has a long history in English, and it is generally considered standard usage. [John Dryden \(13 April 1668 – January 1688\)](#) objected to it (without explanation), leading other English speakers to avoid the construction and discourage its use.

Outside linguistics, the term *grammar* is often used in a rather different sense. It may be used more broadly to include conventions of [spelling and punctuation](#), which linguists would not typically consider as part of grammar but rather as part of [orthography](#), the [conventions](#) used for writing a language. It may also be used more narrowly to refer to a set of [prescriptive norms](#) only, excluding those aspects of a language's grammar which are not subject to [variation](#) or debate on

their normative acceptability. Jeremy Butterfield claimed that, for non-linguists, "Grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to."

### 2.13.2 Grammatical Word classes

The distinction between grammatical and lexical word classes was described earlier. To recap, the lexical word classes are open-ended and very large, while the grammatical word classes are small and very rarely change their membership. The grammatical word classes are sometimes described as closed systems, in contrast with the open class of the lexical words. This is because the members of grammatical classes are intertwined semantically, so that the addition of a new member or loss of an existing one would radically alter the meaning of some or all of the other members of the class. Take for example the loss of *thou*, *thee*, *thy* and *thin* in the relatively recent history of English. When they were in common usage, they were more or less equivalent to *tu* in Contemporary Spanish and French, and were used to address family members and those of lower status than the speaker (for example younger). Once they had been lost in English the words *you* and *your* had to take over all the second person references they had previously not covered. Instead of *you*, *your* and *yours* being respectful, distancing and plural second person pronouns they became general purpose and referred to all second person **referents**.

We can envisage changes in the pronoun system because some have happened relatively recently, and there have also been discussions amongst feminists about whether a gender-neutral pronoun might be invented to cover *he* and *she* and avoid the use of odd combinations such like *s/he*, or to use the masculine pronoun for all individuals, as was common in the past.

It is not so easy to envisage changes in the other systems that form grammatical classes. The three coordinating conjunctions in English (*and*, *but*, *or*) seem to cover all the logical options, and this is precisely the point. Because they do cover the options, but cut up the possible options in a particular way, we find it

hard to imagine another way of doing it. This is very interesting to linguists who study the interaction between language and thought, as it appears that, at least to some extent, the world's languages dictate the kinds of reality their speakers perceive, and make it hard for them to see things differently.

It is worth pointing out that although the grammatical classes tend to have less obvious semantic meaning when out of context (for example, what does the word *this* mean?), they are not devoid of meaning and some have more definable meanings than others. The most significant aspect of their meaning is perhaps the fact that they relate other (lexical) words to each other in particular ways. If you take the following sentence, for example, and take out all the underlined (grammatical) words, the result will be a list of lexical words with no clear links:

*All the children will enjoy my party if they arrive on time children enjoy party arrive time*

We may be able to work out that *children* forms the subject of the predicator (Verb) *enjoy*, that *party* is the object, that there is another clause with the verb *arrive* and probably some kind of adverbial containing *time*. However there is no evidence of how the two clauses relate to each other – that is, by the **conditional subordinator** *if* – and no information on how many children (all of them) or whose party it is.

Grammatical words, then, have a very important function in English: to make explicit the links between the lexical words and to create the context in which the lexical words can operate successfully.

### **2.13.3 Spelling and Grammar Communication Barriers**

Spelling mistakes are misspelt words such as “howse” instead of “house”. Grammar mistakes are missing punctuation such as not putting a full stop at the end of a sentence and using a comma where a semi-colon should have been used. Grammar mistakes are also miss use of words such as “their” and “there”. Both sound the same but are used in different contexts.

Grammar mistakes can be communication barriers. For example, if an employee at Apple was sent a letter from their boss instructing them to “Fill out the forms under no circumstances put the forms in the bin.” he wouldn’t know what to do. This is because if you use punctuation the letter reads two different ways. If you included a comma after “forms” the letter would read, “Fill out the forms, and under no circumstances put the forms in the bin.” This is instructing and employee to fill out the forms and not put them in the bin. If you were to add a comma after “circumstances” the letter would read, “Fill out the forms under no circumstances, and put the forms in the bin.” This is now instructing the employee to not fill out the forms and put them in the bin, therefore, you can see how this would prevent effective communication as the employee has no idea what to do. If his boss had included proper punctuation this problem could have been avoided. To overcome this communication barrier, Apple could train all of their staff how to use punctuation properly. This way a problem like the one with the letter could be avoided and effective, clear communication can be achieved.

Spelling can also act as a barrier to communication. For example, if you were sent a document via email, a letter or any piece of text which had lots of spelling mistakes, it would be very hard to understand. You wouldn’t be able to understand what the text was telling you as the spelling mistakes would make it hard to make out what certain words meant. This could lead to the person reading it interpreting the information incorrectly. To overcome this barrier to communication a company could teach all of their staff how to spell properly. This will ensure clear communication via written or typed text.

#### **2.13.4 Grammar and the Language Learner/s**

The worries about the usefulness and effectiveness of grammar in language teaching and learning, we’re only due to the identification of grammar with pedagogical rules, a misconception about what really grammar is and what rules are, this view existed for long time. The use of pedagogical rules present three

major problems. Establishing the nature and the extent of the regularity or generalization regards these rules as static, it explains that they do not allow for change, yet language is changing all the time. The generalization that rules capture are rarely broad enough. There are always exceptions, on the other hand grammar is exquisitely flexible , allowing for the expression of new meanings gives the following example “ I am loving every minute of my class” , the rule in English says that the – ing of the progressive aspect cannot be attached of a stative verb such as love .

However, native speaker would agree on that arguing that it has “the special effect of identifying the emotion expressed by the verb” it is conversationally acceptable and meaningful in English view grammar from functional perspective.

Regarding grammar as being a prescriptive enterprise represents another difficulty, it is common belief to view grammar as a matter of listing and specifying the grammatical rules required for correct speech. They explain that rules such as don't end sentence with preposition and be consistent in the use of tense throughout a sentence are prescriptive rules that many students often are against with English grammar , in addition many teachers and students often are against decreitive grammar to prescriptive grammar .

This opposition is not appropriate because both are conscious verbalizations , prescriptive grammar is prescribe how people are supposed to speak or to write according to the rules of grammar , whereas descriptive grammar describe how people actually do speak and write concerning terminology , the majority of grammarians consider that some of the mistakes are undoubtedly caused by teacher sometimes by failure to understand fully the nature of the tense he /she is teaching where the pitfalls are , how it differs from the mother tongue , why an English speaker selects one tense rather than another and how to choose examples and illustration which help rather than hinder understanding .

English teacher has to understand the subconscious context of different verb tenses in order to be able to understand and to explain them to his students. A simple rule for the use of the present continuous says that, it is used “for an action performed at the time of speaking close illustrates the rule as follows :now we are going to the university , if the statement were made while we were actually on our way there however, the previous rule does not apply for this example: John is already eighteen: he is going to the university how when that information was implanted at a moment when john was at home oversleeping after late night.

Another problem with the present continuous is related to the unnatural examples : some teachers give their learners , such as “ I’m opening my book , how I’m closing it , I’m switching on the light, I’m putting my pen on the desk” which he/she considers as unnatural illustrations of what is happening , how they belief” could only be seen in a progressive state if performed very slowly , clause proposes that , to explain the present progressive “ it would be more realistic to choose a verb referring to an activity having duration as in : please be quiet for minute or two , I’m writing important letter , or a verb referring to a series of momentary acts , as in hurry up or well be shut in. Opinion that it is one of the major difficulties teachers and students meet in grammar instruction.

It is confirmed that the difficulty lies the fact that there is no standard terminology for grammar, suggests the example of tenses in some grammar books, the term “refers to all types of English tenses including “aspect” for instance, like the progressive, while in others the term “tense” often distinguished for “aspect” for instance the present simple is a tense whereas the present continuous is an “aspect” of the present. The explanations they give often confuse both teachers and students.

The explanation that since the rules written by applied linguists are principally intended for teachers and learners , the choice of what terms are to be used to formulate the rule can become problematic mainly because of the users



repertoire recommends that new terminology should be introduced sparingly and complex opaque terms from scientific grammar should be avoided”.

### **2.13.5 Learners’ Difficulties in grammar:**

Native language (L1) in difference represent the principal difficulty learner’s face in grammar learning. Some errors are caused by mother tongue interference: the native language behaves in way which are not applicable to English, but the learner treats them as equivalents, this often happens in areas such as grammar and writing. L1 interference is related to the rhetorical and grammatical differences between the L1 of the learners and TL.

### **2.14 Speaking Skill**

What is speaking?"Speaking" is the delivery of language through the mouth. To speak, we create sounds using many parts of our body, including the lungs, vocal tract, vocal chords, tongue, teeth and lips. Speaking is the second of the four, which are: 1-Listening 2-Speaking 3-Reading 4- Writing skill that we learn. This vocalized form of language usually requires at least one listener. When two or more people speak or talk to each other, the conversation is called a "dialogue". Speech can flow naturally from one person to another in the form of dialogue. It can also be planned and rehearsed, as in the delivery of a speech or presentation.

Of course, some people talk to themselves! In fact, some English learners practice speaking standing alone in front of a mirror. Speaking can be formal or informal:

- (i) **Informal speaking** is typically used with family and friends, or people you know well.
- (ii) **Formal speaking** occurs in business or academic situations, or when meeting people for the first time.

Speaking is probably the language skill that most language learners wish to perfect as soon as possible. It used to be the only language skill that was difficult to practice online. This is no longer the case. English learners can

practice speaking online using voice or video chat. They can also record and upload their voice for other people to listen to.

Although the aim of teaching English in Sudan is to help students to acquire a language as well as enable them to communicate with English speakers who use oral and written skills. However, such students fail to express themselves properly in speaking, despite the fact that they have a good repertoire of vocabulary. Teachers still use traditional methods of teaching and give more emphasis to reading and writing, while listening and speaking are almost neglected. Therefore, anxiety is a real phenomenon which has always had a major negative impact on Sudanese universities.

No doubt, one of the most common but highly complex activities necessary to be considered when teaching the English language especially because we —live at a time where the ability to speak English fluently has become a must, especially who want to advance in certain fields of human endeavor|| **(AlSibai,2004, p.3).**

The focus of teaching speaking, of course, is to improve the oral production of the students. Therefore, language teaching activities in the classroom should aim at maximizing individual language use **(Haozhang, 1997)**. In the past, oral communication instruction was neglected because of the misconception that oral communication competence develops naturally over time and that the cognitive skills involved in writing automatically transfer to analogous oral communication skills **(Chaney, 1998)**.

This indicates that using a language is more important than just knowing about it, because there is no point knowing a lot about language if you can't use it **(Scrivener, 2005, p.146)**.

Oral language acquisition is a natural process for children. It occurs almost without effort. The ability to speak grows with age, but it does not mean that such growth will automatically lead to perfection. To speak in more effective ways requires particular attention and constant practice **(Zhang et al., 1995)**.

Speaking fluency appears to develop with increased exposure to second language (L2) input (**Al-Sibai, 2004**).

Input refers to the language data which the learner is exposed to (**Zhang, 2009**). Although it is widely recognized that input is very essential for language acquisition, it is not sufficient if not followed by interaction and output (the language a learner produces) because the processing of comprehension is different from the processing of production, and the ability to understand the meaning conveyed by sentences differs from the ability to use a linguistic system to express meaning. When input is negotiated and learners produce output in interaction, they selectively take portions of comprehensible input and choose a correct linguistic form to express themselves. This process makes it possible for the learners to internalize what they have learned and experienced (**Swain, 1985**, as cited in **Zhang, 2009**).

Oral Language Learning For language learning to take place, there are four conditions that should exist, and they are the exposure, opportunities to use the language, motivation, and instruction. Learners need chances to say what they think or feel and to experiment in a supportive atmosphere using language they have heard or seen without feeling threatened (Willis, 1996, p.7). A fact that is highlighted by second language research is that progress does not occur when people make a conscious effort to learn. Progress occurs as a result of spontaneous, subconscious mechanisms, which are activated when learners are involved in communication with the second language. The subconscious element demands a new range of activities, where learners are focused not on the language itself but on the communication of meaning (**Little wood, 1984**). **Harmer (1982)** also argued that in a communicative task, the students' attention should be focused on the content of what they are saying, rather than the form. They should use a wide variety of language.

According to **Ellis (2003)**, this can be done by involving learners in performing two types of communicative tasks: focused communicative tasks

and unfocused communicative tasks. Both of these tasks seek to engage learners in using language pragmatically rather than displaying language. They seek to develop language proficiency through communication. Through communication learners can integrate separate structures into a creative system for expressing meaning (Littlewood, 1984, p.91). Factors that Cause Speaking difficulties to EFL Learners Zhang (2009) argued that speaking remains the most difficult skill to master for the majority of English learners, and they are still incompetent in communicating orally in English. According to Ur (1996), there are many factors that cause difficulty in speaking, and they are as follows:

- 1. Inhibition.** Students are worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism, or simply shy.
- 2. Nothing to say.** Students have no motive to express themselves.
- 3. Low or uneven participation.** Only one participant can talk at a time because of large classes and the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.
- 4. Mother-tongue use.** Learners who share the same mother tongue tend to use it because it is easier and because learners feel less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue.

In addition, Rababa'h (2005) pointed out that there are many factors that cause difficulties in speaking English among EFL learners. Some of these factors are related to the learners themselves, the teaching strategies, the curriculum, and the environment. For example, many learners lack the necessary vocabulary to get their meaning across, and consequently, they cannot keep the interaction going. Inadequate strategic competence and communication competence can be another reason as well for not being able to keep the interaction going. Some learners also lack the motivation to speak English. They do not see a real need to learn or speak English.

Actually motivation is the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks in a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he preserves it (Littlewood, 1984, p.53). The development of communicative skills can only take place if learners have the motivation and opportunity to express their own identity and relate with the people around them (Littlewood, 1981). Teaching strategies also contribute to this problem as they are inadequate, and they do not put emphasis on speaking, which results in a meager development of this skill. Besides, vocabulary items are taught in isolation, and listening materials are not used by the majority of schoolteachers because of the large number of teachers compared with the number of cassettes available. Teacher-training programs were found to be not very successful in changing the teachers' methodology (Rababa'ah, 2005). Furthermore, all the other subjects are in Arabic, and English is seen as an academic subject only, which means exposure to the English language is insufficient.

The lack of a target language environment can be considered another problem, which of course results in a lack of involvement in real-life situations. Not allowing learners to participate in discourse can be another reason for speaking difficulties. Children need both to participate in discourse and to build up knowledge and skills for participation in order to learn discourse skills (Cameron, 2001, p.36). Furthermore, —language is best learned when the learners' attention is focused on understanding, saying and doing something with language, and not when their attention is focused explicitly on linguistic features (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.27).

### **2.14.1 Some general features of spoken English**

#### **a. Backchannels:**

Listeners may show the speaker that they are listening and understanding by saying mmm or little words like yeah, usually skillfully placed at the end of a clause. These are called **backchannels** or, sometimes, **minimal responses**.

#### **B. Clause combining:**

When they are speaking spontaneously people do not usually have time to combine their clauses in the varied ways that they might use in writing (when they might have many subordinate clauses introduced by a range of conjunctions such as *however*, *therefore* or *since*). The most frequent conjunction in spoken English is *so* and *but* are also frequent, but less so since they have more specific meanings (*so* suggests that what follows is the result of what has just been said, and *but* suggests a contrast).

**c. Deixis:**

When they are speaking people often refer to things that are in the immediate context. The pronouns *I* and *you* are very frequent, referring to the speaker and the listener, and so are words such as *here* and *now*. *This* and *that* are used to ‘point’ to things that are present or that have just been mentioned. **Indefinite *this*** is often used metaphorically, to introduce something that is new to the discourse as if it was actually present. Like the conversational historic present tense, using indefinite *this* involves the listener and helps to make the discourse more vivid.

**d. Discourse markers:**

These include *well*, *oh*, *like*, *of course*, *yeah*, *right*, *oh*, and many more.

Discourse markers are important features of spoken language with many different functions. They usually perform several functions at the same time. Their overall function is to show the listener how to interpret what the speaker is saying (so they don’t affect the literal meaning of what is being said). The discourse markers in the extracts illustrate some of their most typical functions:

- marking the beginning or end of a turn
- marking grammatical structure by being placed at the beginning or end of a clause, or at the start of reported speech
- marking information that is new to the discourse or marking the start of a new topic

- showing how the speaker feels about what they are about to say or about what they have already said
- checking that the listener is following
- creating solidarity with the listener
- appealing to the listener for understanding

Like intensifiers, there are often striking differences between the discourse markers that younger speakers like to use and those that older speakers use.

**e. Hedges:**

These are words that down tone the meaning of the following word (e.g. *that's a bit odd*) or add a note of intentional vagueness to what someone is saying (e.g. *she's about thirty years old; I may come along later*).

**f. Intensifiers:**

These are words like *very* or *really* that occur before an adjective or an adverb and boost the strength of its meaning (*very fast, really delicious, well funny*). Young people often choose intensifiers that are different from those used by older generations, so intensifiers tend to fall in and out of fashion in spoken language.

**g. Non-fluency features:**

*These include:*

- Silent pauses
- filled pauses (*er* and *erm* – spelt *uh* and *um* in American English)
- Repetition
- False starts (like crossings out in writing)

They have many functions in spoken language, including dramatic effect, highlighting what is coming next, and showing that the speaker is planning what to say next but doesn't yet want to give up their turn at speaking. Individual speakers vary in the frequency with which they use these features.

*Er* and *erm* tend to occur either at the beginning of a clause or before a new topic is introduced. They also occur when speakers are searching for a word.

Unfilled (silent) pauses are often used in the same way. These are all planning points in spoken language.

Repetition of a single word is often at the start of a clause or a noun phrase, showing that the speaker has mapped out the rough grammatical outline of what they want to say but have not yet produced the detail (e.g. *I I I'll go out soon; I'd like a aa large vanilla ice cream*). In these cases the repetition is usually of a **function** word. Sometimes speakers repeat a word but add something extra (e.g. *that's lovely really lovely*). Here the repeated word is more likely to be a **content** word. Like false starts, repetitions allow listeners to hear speakers' corrections. This is very different from writing, where in a final draft there is no trace of revisions.

Note: **Content words** provide the main information (what the speaker is talking about): **function words** have grammatical functions or relate parts of the clause together. So in *the cat sat on the mat* the content words are *cat, sat* and *mat* and the function words are *the* and *on*.

#### **h. Slang:**

For linguists, 'slang' refers to the vocabulary typically used by a particular social group (for example, army slang or Cockney rhyming slang). In the extracts young people sometimes use words or phrases that are typical of Multicultural London English (for example, Angela in her story about Street Trouble).

#### **2.14.2 How to improve English Speaking?**

Many students master the fine points of English grammar but find themselves at a loss when it comes to actually having a conversation with native speakers. In reality, the only way to develop fluency in speaking is by huge amounts of listening, and then practicing. The following are a few tips for improving English speaking skills. Don't forget that listening is the foundation for speaking! When you also want to practice speaking, here are some suggestions for how to improve English speaking skills.



### ***Listen a lot***

It means more than one hour a day, just about every day. Search for content, find items that interest you and download them. Transfer them to your phone or MP3 player and study on the go, wherever you are, and whenever you have the time. [Just listen and listen.](#)

### ***Read a lot***

Reading and especially saving words and phrases from your reading is the best way to increase your vocabulary. To express yourself you need words. To communicate you need to understand what the other person is saying, and this requires even more words.

### **Imitate**

[Listening when combined with reading will fill your brain with phrases you recognize and will eventually be able to use.](#) You may want to imitate out loud the odd word or phrase, even as you are listening. This is sometimes referred to as shadowing.

### **Write**

[Writing is a great way to start producing the language.](#) You may not really feel like writing much at first. The main thing, however, is to write to get used to expressing things in the language, without the pressure of speaking with someone.

### **Find an English-Speaking Conversation Partner**

First of all, it's important to find native speakers to practice with. Students who are living around many English speakers may getable informal opportunities to chat with neighbors and local business people.

### **Record your Conversation Practice**

Recording is a great way to get the maximum benefit from a conversation with a native speaker. When you listen again, you can evaluate your own pronunciation and notice areas where you need to improve.

## **Surround Yourself with the English Language**

Another way to improve your English speaking skills is to immerse yourself in English as much as possible. Watch movies or TV in English, with subtitles if you need them, and watch the same programs over and over

### **Practice with Music and Movies**

Listen to music in English and sing along. Music is one of the best tools for learning intonation pronunciation. Listening to and singing songs might also help you remember vocabulary and phrases (if the song is easy to understand), and it will help you learn to pronounce English rhythm in a more natural way.

### **Read Aloud**

Reading out loud is a great way to practice speaking when there are no conversation partners available. Reading aloud gives you a chance to focus on pronunciation and pacing without worrying about coming up with words.

## **2.15 Factors Influencing Learner's Speaking Competence**

### **2.15.1 Cognitive Factors**

According to **Levelt (1989)** illustrates that speaking processes include conceptualization, formation, and articulation. Conceptualization pertains to what information can be opted to express the meaning. Formulation refers to the ability of the speaker to decide what proper words to use in appropriate grammatical structures. And articulation requires the speaker to articulate the speech with his articulatory organs. Since all the three processes happen at concurrently, it is contingent that learners make mistakes especially in face-to-face communication. Therefore, **Hughes (2002)** argues that their speaking is filled with hesitation, false-starts, 22 grammatical inaccuracies, and as well as limited vocabulary. Besides, **McLaughlin & Heredia (1996:214)** assert that since human's mind is a "limited capacity processor", it is not easy to concentrate on everything simultaneously. Putting too much emphasis on accuracy may cause the lack of fluency, and too much stress on fluency may lead to the lack of accuracy (Skehan & Foster, 1999).

### **2.15.2 Linguistic Factors**

The appropriate use of language forms is important for learner's oral proficiency (Saunders & O'Brien, 2006). Linguistic factors include several features like pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. It is believed that pronunciation plays a vital role in intelligibility. In addition, grammar acts as an essential role in learning the structure of English, but the implementation of correct use of grammar in one's speech is more important than learning the accurate use of grammar. Larsen-Freeman (2001) cites that it seems difficult for EFL learners to transfer the appropriate grammar to their speaking. Vocabulary is essential for EFL learners since it is the building block of every language. If the receptive vocabulary is rather limited, learners can seldom put the "receptive vocabulary knowledge into productive use" (Nation, 2001, p. 129); therefore, it is necessary for EFL learners to keep a lot of vocabulary in their long-term memory. Furthermore, the ability to pick up words from one's mind may cover the speaking fluency (Carter, 2001; Levelt, 1989).

### **2.15.3 Affective Factors**

Brown (2001: 269) assumed that anxiety and self-restriction have an influence on learner's oral proficiency. Anxiety is the affective factor that most dominantly blocks the learning process. Worrying about being "wrong, stupid, or incomprehensible" completely influences learners' speaking performance. Most of EFL learners are stressed out in class especially when they are called on to speak in class without any preparation. Shumin (2002) accentuates that if learners are too much nervous, they become tongue-tied or lost for words which per se completely affects their achievement in foreign language classroom. Because the ability to take risks is regarded as an essence for "successful learning of a second language", EFL learners need to be encouraged to speak bravely so as to promote their speaking competence gradually since motivation is believed to be the most significant factor that educators can target in order to facilitate learning . 2.10.4 Interactions Keys to improve EFL learners' speaking

abilities spoken language usually have two functions: interactional and transactional. The essential goal of the former is to keep social relationships, but that of the latter is to pass information and ideas. Because much of our daily communication is interactional, being able to interact is imperative. Thus, language instructors should facilitate learners" with meaningful communicative situations about proper topics by applying learner-learner interaction as the key to teach communicative language. Communication drives essentially from interaction. Classroom communication includes meaning-focused activity and learners can learn how to listen and talk to others, how to negotiate meaning in shared context both verbally and non-verbally with the help of teacher **(Richards & Renandya, 2002)**. **Nunan (1989)** expounds that in order to design activities; teachers need to take into consideration the integration of four language skills as they interact with each other in natural behavior, because in real life situations as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill.

## **2.16 Writing Skill/s**

### **2.16.1 Various Definitions of Writing**

\*Writing is a means of communication. It helps us to explore our own thoughts and feelings. Writing helps us to articulate our ideas, to discover what we really think about an issue. Writing lays out our ideas for examination, analysis, and thoughtful reaction. Thus, when we write, we (and the world at large) see what we are, and what we stand for much more clearly. Moreover, writing can provide a record of our thoughts that we may study and evaluate in a way that conversation cannot. In short, writing will enable us to see and know ourselves-our feelings, ideas and opinions **(Sara, 2006)**.

In more particular level, we need to write effectively to communicate with others, while some of our writing may be done for ourselves, the majority of it created for others to share. The role of writing as such is more important in communicating messages, views and ideas. It as a productive skill, reflects that

the students know about their language and the process of learning at the same time. Writing skill cannot be separated from the other important aspects of the English language (Wyrick, 2005).

\* Writing is the process of which thoughts are translated into words and words are fashioned into sentences and paragraphs, poems and composition. Writing is a way to explore materials inside the writer's mind.

\* Also writing is the skill of organizing and arranging information in a logical order and coherent sequence.

\* On the other hand, writing is described as the act of forming graphic symbols, letters or combination of letters that represent and sounds that people produce in speech.

### **2.16.2 The role of writing:**

The role of writing as such is more important in communicating messages, views and ideas. It as a productive skill, reflects what the students know about their language and the process of learning at the same time. Writing skill cannot be separated from the other important aspects of the English language.

### **2.16.3 The writing process:**

There are some kinds of writing process.

#### **(a) Pre writing:**

Prewriting is any activity that gets your brain moving on a writing task. How does prewriting help? Let's take a positive assignment:

Writing about an early childhood experience: your teacher gives you time to discuss memories of kindergarten with other classmates. As you talk, you recall cutting out pictures and playing on the jungle gym- memories rush to your brain as you talk and listen. That's one kind of prewriting activity. It gets you started thinking.

#### **(b) Writing:-**

Writing is the stage in which you form your ideas into sentences and paragraphs. Sometimes you don't know exactly what you want to say until you

begin writing sentences and paragraphs. You discover your thoughts as you write. When this happens, prewriting and writing are the same.

Good writers are not afraid to start without knowing exactly that they will say. They know that they can always change what they write.

**(c) Post writing:-**

The post writing involves revising (improving the content and organization of your writing) and proof reading (correcting errors in spelling, grammar, usage and mechanics. post writing also include sharing your writing.

**(d) Free writing:-**

The free writing is sometimes can really help you. You write about whatever you like. Of course you don't stop to fix errors or go back, you just write. You can write about what I just said, you can write about dogs, horses, birds etc. In this kind of writing is not being graded for grammar, spelling, neatness and so on.

**2.16.4 Characteristics of a good writing:**

The experiences reflect that good writing is that which contains no (bad) mistakes, no errors of grammar, punctuation, or spelling. But in fact good writing is much more than just correct writing.

It is writing that responds to the interests and needs of the reader. Briefly, here are the basic of good effective writing:

- (1)** It makes a clear points.
- (2)** It supports that points with specific information.
- (3)** The information is clearly connected and arranged.
- (4)** The words are well chosen, and the sentences are clear, concise, emphatic and correct.

So, a good writing is the result of much practice and hard work. This fact should encourage any writer, it means that the ability to write well Is not a gift some people are born with, if you willing to work, you can improve your writing.

Professional writers, the ones who make writing look easy, at the same time will be the ones who tell you that writing is not often easy at all.

### **2.16.5 Steps of writing process: (Definition & Explanation)**

**[1] Prewriting:** Is the step of getting started in writing. There are three prewriting activities:

**a) Free writing.** It means writing freely with no restraints.

**b) Brainstorming.** Listing words or phrases as they come to your mind.

**c) Talking.** Talking with other people to get information.

**[2] Organizing:** - means putting ideas into a clear logical order during writing process.

**[3] Drafting:** - The step of which directly write your paragraph.

**[4] Revising:** - The point of which you want to be sure that it is clear and flows smoothly.

**[5] Editing:** - To find and correct any mistakes and errors in mechanics and grammar, such as errors in spelling, punctuation, using of verbs and pronouns.

**[6] Formatting :** To use standard style to format your paper.

### **2.16.6 The role of grammar & mechanics in writing process:**

Grammar and mechanics (punctuation marks) play an important role in writing process. They help writers as well as readers in understanding any text.

(1) They identify and correct the use of clauses and phrases in a sentence.

(2) They enable readers how to understand any writing written work.

(3) Grammar helps the writer to form and arrange the sentence structure.

(4) It helps writers to use a certain time while he or she writing any written work. (e.g: past/ present/ future) and so on, when he uses or talks about the past time, he used the past tense and when he/ she talks about the future, he/ she will use the future tense.

(5) Moreover, grammar and punctuation help in organizing any written work by using sentence construction and proper paragraphing to enhance and develop your writing.

## **Mechanics of writing: (Punctuation marks)**

Punctuation marks is simply a devise for making it easy to read and understand written or printed matter. They do not exist, as one student recently complained, to make your life complicated. They are used to clarify your written thoughts so that the reader understands your meaning. Just as traffic signs and signals tell a driver to slow down, stop or go, so punctuation is intended to guide the reader through your prose or any kind of writing.

In speech, we can make a pause between word and phrase, we can use gestures, give emphasis to a word and raise or lower the voice to help the listener to understand our meaning; in writing much of that work is done by punctuation.

Example:

*\*My baby, sister, Salwa and I went to the Zoo.*

How many person went to the Zoo?

- If you use three commas, four persons went. (Baby, sister, Salwa, I)
- If you use two commas, three persons went. (Baby sister, Salwa, I).
- Or two persons went if the baby sister's name is Salwa.

So, Capitalization and the punctuation system, which characterize written English posses a major challenge to Arab learners of English.

### **The most Common Problematic Punctuation Marks:**

*(Comma, Full stop, Question mark, Exclamation mark, Colon, Semicolon)*

#### **(1)The Comma (,)**

Comma is the most frequently used punctuation mark. It likes all the other parts of punctuation, the comma functions to help readers understand readily what a sentence means. At various times comma may join enclose, or separate sentences.

*\*The role of comma in punctuation*

-To record a list of things, e.g. *\*At the party we had cake, chocolate, biscuits and dates.*



- To mark off direct speech, e.g. *\*He said, 'I heard it in the radio'.*
- To mark off sentences or clauses in reading. *\*If you help me, I will help you.*
- To mark off words used in addressing a person. *\*George, I hope you and Mary come to my invitation.*
- To mark off words or phrases like *however, of course, for instance, etc.*

Beside these roles, there are many roles that comma play in writing process.

## (2) Full stop (.)

When do we use full stop?

- To end a sentence .e.g.  
*\*Employees at that company are not allowed to go on coffee breaks. It takes too long to return them.*
- It uses after initials and many abbreviations e.g.  
*\* W.B Yeats, Dr., M.A, etc.*

## (3) The question mark (?)

Although question marks have different usage in writing skill, but the most clear use of question mark is after direct question. A direct question is one that is addressed directly to the reader. It is easy to understand why question marks are needed after the following sentences.

- 'shall I compare this with yours?
- "has anybody here seen Kelly?

## (4) Exclamation Mark (!)

The exclamation mark follows words, phrases, sentences to show strong feelings. I uses after an interjection, an exclamatory sentences e.g.

- \*Hello! I didn't expect to see you.*
- \*What a wonderful day that was!*
- \*Fire! Call the rescue squall*

## (5) Colon (:)

The colon has an important role in writing process. Writers used for many purposes in their writing, and the most important usage are:

- To separate two sentences of which the second explains more fully the meaning of the first e.g.

*\*He is not going to join our firm: we couldn't offer him a big enough salary.*

(6) The semicolon (;)

The semicolon is one of the punctuation marks which writers used when they need a long pause than is indicated by a comma, but when they do not want to break the line of thought. e.g.

*\* Kate and her mother do not have to begin a journey; they still preparing for it.*

### **2.17Parts of Speech:**

Every sentence you write or speak in English includes words that fall into some of the nine parts of speech. These include nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, articles/determiners, and interjections. (Some sources include only eight parts of speech and leave interjections in their own category.)

Learning the names of the parts of speech probably won't make you witty, healthy, wealthy, or wise. In fact, learning just the names of the parts of speech won't even make you a better writer. However, you will gain a [basic understanding of sentence structure](#) and the [English language](#) by familiarizing yourself with these labels.

### **Open and Closed Word Classes:**

The parts of speech are commonly divided into [open classes](#) (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) and [closed classes](#) (pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles/determiners, and interjections). The idea is that open classes can be altered and added to as language develops and closed classes are pretty much set in stone. For example, new nouns are created every day, but conjunctions never change.

In contemporary [linguistics](#), the label *part of speech* has generally been discarded in favor of the term [word class](#) or *syntactic category*. These terms

make words easier to qualify objectively based on word construction rather than context. Within word classes, there is the lexical or open class and the function or closed class.

### **1. Noun**

[Nouns](#) are a person, place, thing, or idea. They can take on a myriad of roles in a sentence, from the subject of it all to the object of an action. They are capitalized when they're the official name of something or someone, called *proper nouns* in these cases. Examples: *pirate, Caribbean, ship, freedom, Captain Jack Sparrow.*

### **2. Pronoun**

[Pronouns](#) stand in for nouns in a sentence. They are more generic versions of nouns that refer only to people. Examples: *I, you, he, she, it, ours, them, who, which, anybody, ourselves.*

### **3. Verb**

[Verbs](#) are action words that tell what happens in a sentence. They can also show a sentence subject's state of being (*is, was*). Verbs change form based on tense (present, past) and count distinction (singular or plural). Examples: *sing, dance, believes, seemed, finish, eat, drink, be, became*

### **4. Adjective**

[Adjectives](#) describe nouns and pronouns. They specify which one, how much, what kind, and more. Adjectives allow readers and listeners to use their senses to imagine something more clearly. Examples: *hot, lazy, funny, unique, bright, beautiful, poor, smooth.*

### **5. Adverb**

[Adverbs](#) describe verbs, adjectives, and even other adverbs. They specify when, where, how, and why something happened and to what extent or how often. Examples: *softly, lazily, often, only, hopefully, softly, sometimes.*

## 5. Preposition

6. [Prepositions](#) show special, temporal, and role relations between a noun or pronoun and the other words in a sentence. They come at the start of a [prepositional phrase](#), which contains a preposition and its object. Examples: *up, over, against, by, for, into, close to, out of, apart from*.

## 7. Conjunction

[Conjunctions](#) join words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence. There are coordinating, subordinating, and correlative conjunctions. Examples: *and, but, or, so, yet, with*.

## 8. Articles and Determiners

[Articles and determiners](#) function like adjectives by modifying nouns, but they are different than adjectives in that they are necessary for a sentence to have proper syntax. Articles and determiners specify and identify nouns, and there are indefinite and definite articles. Examples: articles: *a, an, the*; determiners: *these, that, those, enough, much, few, which, what*.

Some traditional grammars have treated [articles](#) as a distinct part of speech. Modern grammars, however, more often include articles in the category of [determiners](#), which identify or quantify a noun. Even though they modify nouns like adjectives, articles are different in that they are essential to the proper syntax of a sentence, just as determiners are necessary to convey the meaning of a sentence, while adjectives are optional.

## 9. Interjection

[Interjections](#) are expressions that can stand on their own or be contained within sentences. These words and phrases often carry strong emotions and convey reactions. Examples: *ah, whoops, ouch, yabba dabba do*

## 2.18 Sentence

A sentence is a linguistic unit that can be used as an independent utterance. It is a clause or a combination of clauses that does not function as a constituent of a larger syntactic construction and can therefore be fully analyzed syntactically

without reference to what precedes or follows. In speech, a sentence is normally delimited by pauses and marked by a falling or rising tone at the end. The following examples illustrate this definition:

Bill hasn't arrived yet. (*Pronounced with falling tone*)

[Because it was getting late] she wondered whether her son hadn't missed the train.

(*Pronounced with falling tone at the end*)

What did you say you wanted? (*Pronounced with rising tone*).

Although the prototypical sentence is made up of one or more clauses, which means it prototypically contains one or more verb phrases, verbless utterances are often treated as 'verbless sentences'.

If a sentence consists of two or more clauses, all but the head clause may be introduced by a conjunction, such as *because* and *whether*. A conjunction forms part of the overall sentence, but not of the clause which it introduces.

**A sentence is complex** if it consists of a 'head clause' (also known as 'Superordinate clause') and at least one 'subclause' (also known as 'subordinate clause', 'dependent clause' or 'embedded clause'). The head clause is the clause on which a given subclause is syntactically and semantically dependent.

A head clause may be a clause that does not syntactically depend on any other clause, but it may also be a subclause of another head clause. If it is a syntactically

independent clause, it can also be referred to as the matrix, i.e. the

highest clause in the inverted tree structure representing the syntactic structure of a sentence. Thus, in

- *I know that he was at home when the accident happened.*

The clause *that he was at home* is at the same time the head clause of *when the accident happened* and the subclause depending on the head clause *I know*, which is the matrix clause of the entire complex sentence.

A subclause is a clause that is a syntactic constituent of, or depends on, another clause (and can therefore seldom be used on its own). Most sub clauses have a function that is typically associated with a noun (phrase), an adjective (phrase) or an adverb (phrase). We speak of nominal clauses (or noun clauses), adjectival clauses and adverbial clauses accordingly.

- The man *who lives next door* is looking at our house. (*adjectival clause*)
- I don't know *if I can believe that* [because my sister denies it]. (*nominal clause*)
- I'll help you *if I have time*. (*adverbial clause*)

Subordinate clauses ( \_ subclauses) are normally introduced by such connectors *As after, although, as, as if, as soon as, because, before, if, once, provided (that), since, that, though, unless, when, where, in case (that), in order that, etc.* We call them subordinating conjunctions. Before a nominal clause, the conjunction *that* is often dropped (e. g. *I said you could trust me*). In that case we speak of a zero-conjunction.

### **2.18.1 Types of sentence:**

(Declarative- Interrogative- Exclamatory- Imperative)

A sentence can convey a statement, a question, an exclamation, or a command. There are four types of sentence:

**1. Declarative Sentence.** Is a sentence which make statement? It ends with period.

Example: *They wrote their research.*

**2. Interrogative Sentence** – An interrogative sentence is a sentence which asks a question. It ends with a question mark.

Example: *Where did you find your child?*

**3. Exclamatory Sentence** – An exclamatory sentence is a sentence which shows a strong feeling. It ends with exclamation mark.

Example: *The lion is attacking!*

**4. Imperative Sentence** – An imperative sentence is a sentence which gives a command.

Example: *John, try the other door.*

Sometimes the subject of an imperative (you) is understood.

Example: *Look on the board. (You, look on the board).*

The Subject Could Be Implied.

In an imperative sentence (an order) or an interrogative sentence (a question), the subject or verb is often implied.

- Run!
- Go.  
(This is the shortest sentence in English.)
- Why?

The shortest sentence without an implied subject or verb is "I am" or "I go."

### **2.18.2 The Four Sentence Structures**

A sentence can consist of a single [clause](#) or several clauses. When a sentence is a single clause, it is called a simple sentence (and the clause is called an [independent clause](#)). A sentence must contain at least one independent clause. Below are the four types of sentence structure (with their independent clauses shaded):

#### **1. Simple Sentence.**

The most basic type of sentence is the *simple sentence*, which contains only one clause. It has a subject as well as a predicate which include modifiers. A simple sentence can be as short as one word. All of the following are simple sentences, because each of them contains only one clause.

- *Run!*
- *Canada is a rich country.*
- *The ice melt quickly.*
- *She travels.*

The most natural sentence structure is the simple sentence: it is the first kind which children learn to speak, and it remains by far the most common sentence in the spoken language of people of all ages. In written work, simple sentences can be very effective for grabbing a reader's attention or for summing up an argument.

## 2. Compound Sentence.

- It consists of two or more independent clauses (or simple sentences) join by coordinating conjunctions like: (and, but, or).

*\*Simple*

*-Canada is a rich country.*

*\*Simple*

*- Still, it has many people.*

*\* Compound*

*- Canada is a rich country, **but** still it has many poor people.*

Compound sentences are very natural for English speakers...small children learn to use them early to connect their ideas and to avoid pausing. A compound sentence is most effective when you use it to create a sense of balance or contrast between two (or more) equally- important pieces of information.

## 3. Complex Sentence.

It contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. For example:

*- Although my friend invited me to a party, I do not want to go.*

A complex sentence is very different from a simple sentence or a compound sentence because it makes clear which ideas are most important.

## **4. Compound-Complex Sentence.**

A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. For example:

*- Although my friend invited me to a party, I do not want to go because I am ill.*



## Key Points.

- You can't write a sentence, put a comma, and then write another sentence. That's an error called a run-on sentence or comma splice.
- If you have a fronted adverbial, use a comma.
- Don't use a comma if your adverbial is at the back.
- Use a comma before a conjunction (e.g., *and*, *or*, *but*) that joins two independent clauses.

I like tea but hate coffee.

I like tea, but I hate coffee.

- Be careful when using *myself* in an imperative sentence.
  - If you're approached by any journalists, send them to myself.
- Don't be tempted to put a question mark at the end of a declarative sentence that contains an indirect question.
  - I wonder if John will win.

(This should end in a period (full stop). It's not a question.)

### 2.18.3 Why Should I Care about Sentences?

There are four great reasons to understand sentence structures and the types of the sentence.

#### **(Reason 1) Avoid the run-on sentence.**

By far the most common mistake made by people with otherwise sound writing skills is the [run-on sentence](#). Typically, this error is caused by writing a sentence, putting a comma, and then writing another sentence.

- I love the mountains, they remind me of home.
- Love is so short, forgetting is so long.

You cannot end a sentence with a comma. These should both be two sentences (or rewritten to punctuate them correctly). Remember that a sentence contains a subject and a verb and gives a complete thought. The criteria for what constitutes a sentence are satisfied twice in each example.

The run-on sentence usually occurs because writers feel a period (full stop) is too much of a speed bump between their closely related sentences. The jolt of a period can be smoothed with other punctuation (but not a comma). Here are some options:

- Don't play hide and seek; no one would look for you.  
(You can smooth the jolt of a period by merging your two sentences into one with a [semicolon](#).)
- I like a woman with a head on her shoulders – I hate necks. (Actor Steve Martin)  
(You can smooth the jolt of a period by merging your two sentences into one with a [dash](#). A dash looks quite stark, and it looks a little informal.)
- My friend is a procrastinator...he's afraid of Saturday the 14th.  
(You can smooth the jolt of a period by merging your two sentences into one with [three dots \(or ellipses\)](#). Using three dots creates a pause for effect, and it looks informal.)

## **(Reason 2) Punctuate your sentences correctly.**

Understanding the four sentence structures assists with deciding how to punctuate sentences. More specifically, it assists with the following two common decisions:

### **(1) Deciding whether to use a comma with the subordinate clause in a complex sentence.**

A [complex sentence](#) comprises an [independent clause](#) (shaded) and at least one [subordinate clause](#). When the subordinate clause is at the front and acts like an adverb – typically stating a time (e.g., *When I was six*), a place (e.g., *Where I live*), or a condition (e.g., *If I were you*) – then it is a common practice to offset it with a comma. When such a clause appears at the back, it is usually not offset with a comma. Here are some examples:

- **When I was six**, I had a wind-up Evil Knievel motorbike.
- I had a wind-up Evil Knievel motorbike **when I was six**.

- **When you're on the internet, nobody** knows you're a dog. (Cartoonist Peter Steiner)
- Nobody knows you're a dog **when you're on the internet**.

Read more about [adverbial phrases](#) and [adverbial clauses](#).

## (2) Deciding whether to put a comma before a conjunction.

A [compound sentence](#) has at least two independent clauses (highlighted), which are usually joined with a [conjunction](#) (e.g., *and*, *or*, *but*). A conjunction (bolded) that joins two things is not normally preceded with a comma, but a conjunction that joins two independent clauses in a compound sentence is.

- Lee likes pies **and** cakes.  
(There is no comma before *and*. This is a simple sentence.)
- Lee likes pies, **and** he likes cakes.  
(This time, there is a comma before *and*. This is a compound sentence.)
- Go, **and** never darken my towels again.  
(Remember that *Go* is the shortest sentence in English.)

Let's examine this point a little more. Look at these two examples:

- I would say, "I'm alone, **but** I'm not lonely." (  
(Here, *but* is preceded with a comma because it's joining two independent clauses.)
- I would say, "I'm alone **but** not lonely."  
(Here, *but* is not preceded with a comma because it's joining two adjectives (*alone* and *not lonely*) not two independent clauses.)

Here's a tip: Look carefully for the subject and verb in the text after your conjunction to confirm the text is an independent clause. If it is, whack a comma in. If it isn't, don't use a comma.

- Non-rabid wolves have attacked **and** killed people (mainly children), **but** this is rare. They live away from people **and** have developed a fear of humans from hunters **and** shepherds.

- They live away from people, **and** they have developed a fear of humans from hunters **and** shepherds.

(Compare this compound sentence with the simple sentence (the last one) in the example above. When you add the word *they* after the second half becomes an independent clause, and a comma is then required.)

Be aware that a compound sentence can have more than two independent clauses.

- Some men are born mediocre, some men achieve mediocrity, **and** some men have mediocrity thrust upon them.

(This is a compound sentence with three independent clauses. The first independent clause ends with just a comma. This is an occasion when that's allowable.)

- "Veni, vidi, vici" [I came, I saw, I conquered.]

(This is another occasion when you have to say it's acceptable to use just a comma to separate independent clauses (an error known as a [run-on sentence or comma splice](#)). Grammarians hate the comma splice so much, you will often see "Veni, vidi, vici" translated "As I came; I saw; I conquered" and even "I came, I saw, **and** I conquered.")

Read more about [commas with conjunctions](#).

**(Reason 3) As the subject of an imperative sentence is "you," you can't use "myself."**

- If you have any questions, email **myself** or your line manager.
- Please write to **myself** with any suggestions.

The subject of an [imperative sentence](#) is "you," which is usually implied (i.e., not said or written). This means you cannot use "myself," which requires the subject to be "I." Writers often use "myself," believing it sounds more highbrow.                      It's                      wrong.                      It should be "me."

This is also covered in the entry on [reflexive pronouns](#).

**(Reason 4)** Don't use a question mark with a declarative sentence that includes an indirect question.

- She asked whether I loved her.
- I wonder if other dogs think poodles are members of a weird religious cult. (Comedian Rita Rudner)

The bolded texts are indirect questions. These are declarative sentences (i.e., statements) not questions. They should end in periods (full stops).

## 2.19 Phrase

A phrase is a group of words forming a unit and consisting of a head or 'nucleus' together with other words or word groups clustering around it. If the head of the phrase is a noun, we speak of a noun phrase (NP) (e. g. *all those beautiful houses built in the sixties*). If the head is a verb, the phrase is a verb phrase (VP). In the following sentence the VP is in italics and the verb head is underlined:

-Jill *prepared us a couple of sandwiches*.

A phrase is only potentially complex. In other words, the term is also used to refer to 'one-word phrases', i. e. phrases that consist of a head only. Thus the sentence *Jill smokes* is a combination of a noun phrase and a verb phrase.

### Clause, predicate

Leaving aside nonfinite clauses (i. e. infinitival, participial and gerundival Clauses), a prototypical clause is a combination of a 'subject' — typically a noun phrase — and a 'predicate'. The predicate — sometimes called predicate Constituent to distinguish it from 'verb phrase' — minimally contains the verb phrase. Thus, in *Jill prepared us a couple of sandwiches*, the VP *prepared us a couple of sandwiches* functions as 'predicate', as does *smokes* in *Jill smokes*. The predicate of a clause can be roughly defined as 'what is said (or asked) about the subject'. In other words, the predicate constituent comprises all the constituents of a clause except the subject. A clause, then, is a linguistic unit made up of, minimally, a noun phrase and a verb phrase. In this basic clause,

the noun phrase functions as subject (and thus, for example, in English controls the feature of number on the verb) and the verb phrase (VP) functions as predicate. However, the predicate constituent may contain other elements in addition to the VP. These constituents' \_ usually prepositional phrases or adverbial phrases \_ express optional rather than necessary information (see below). Thus, in *Tim killed three spiders last night*, the adverbial *last night* belongs to the predicate constituent but not to the VP, unless it gives important new information. Out of context, the sentence can be paraphrased 'Tim killed three spiders. He did so last night.'

## 2.20 Lexical Verbs vs auxiliaries

Verbs can be classified in many different ways. The first distinction is between those verbs that have a full set of forms and those that do not. This distinction coincides roughly with the distinction between lexical verbs (or full verbs) and auxiliaries (or auxiliary verbs). These two groups show differences on various levels (formal, semantic and syntactic). The following offer some illustrations: (*lexical verbs*) type, look for, cost, develop, begin, stand (*auxiliaries*) must, should, can, might, be [V-ing], be [V-en], ought to

Lexical verbs, as their name suggests, have a lexical meaning, that is, a meaning that is denotational (extra linguistic) rather than grammatical (intralinguistic). They are verbs like *burst*, *run*, *change* and *contain*, which refer to situations types of different kinds (events, actions, processes or states \_ see

Lexical verbs are sometimes called 'full verbs', a term which is used to indicate that they are syntactically 'fully-fledged' verbs (e. g. they can combine with auxiliaries but can also do without them), that they have a full system of verb forms (called 'conjugation' \_ e. g. *walk*, *walks*, *walked*, *walking*) and that they are semantically rich in that they evoke a set of concepts of things, persons and circumstances which are needed for a correct understanding of the verb.

Auxiliaries have little or no lexical meaning. They are ‘helper’ verbs, in the sense that they help to form complex verb forms. In doing so they express either a grammatical notion (like ‘passive’, ‘progressive’ or ‘tense’) or one or more modal ideas. This is not to say that auxiliaries are devoid of meaning, but their meanings are more schematic (i. e. more ‘skeletal’, more ‘abstract’, less ‘full’) than those of lexical verbs.

Within the auxiliaries we can make a distinction between two classes: grammatical auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries. The former, which are sometimes referred to as ‘primary auxiliaries’, have a purely grammatical function:

- (a) The ‘tense auxiliary’ *have*, which is used in forming perfect tense forms;
  - (b) The ‘aspect auxiliary’ *be*, which is used for building progressive verb forms;
  - (c) The ‘voice auxiliary’ *be*, which is used in the passive;
  - (d) The ‘periphrastic auxiliary’ *do*, which is used as a ‘dummy’ (pro-form) when a VP that does not contain an auxiliary (e. g. *love her*) is used in a Construction that requires one (e. g. *I don’t love her, do you love her? I do love her*, etc.)
- Next, there are the ‘modal auxiliaries’: *ought to*, *will*, and *would*. These auxiliaries express special shades of meaning, such as volition, possibility, permission, necessity, intention, obligation, expectation, inference, ability, determination, etc. The modal auxiliaries differ semantically from the first group in that they add lexical meaning rather than fulfill a grammatical function.

## **2.21 Types of tenses**

Tenses play a crucial role in the English language. It denotes the time an action takes place, whether sometime in the past, in the present or will take some time in the future.

### **Past Tense:**

#### **1) Simple Past Tense-**

Indicates an action took place before the present moment and that has no real connection with the present time.

*For example, "He danced in the function." (The action took place in the past, is finished and is completely unrelated to the present)*

"He flew to London yesterday."

### **Note**

a. [the verb 'flew'](#) is an irregular verb which does not take 'ed' in the past tense like regular verbs.

b. The form of [Simple Past Tense](#) is - verb + ed

### **2) Past Perfect Tense-**

Indicates an action in the past that had been completed before another time or event in the past.

*For example, "He had exercised before it started to rain."*

"He had slept before I came back from the market."

### **Note**

a. The form of [Past Perfect Tense](#) is- had + verb (past participle form or the 3rd form of the verb)

### **3) Past Continuous Tense-**

Indicates an action going on at some time in the past or an action in the past that is longer in duration than another action in the past.

*For example, "It was getting darker."*

"The light went out while they were reading."

### **Note**

a. The form of [Past Continuous Tense](#) is- was/were + verb + ing

### **4) Past Perfect Continuous Tense-**

Indicates an action in the past that took place before another time or event in the past and continued during the second event/time point in the past.

*For example, "At that time, he had been writing a novel for two months."*

"He had been exercising when I called."

### **Note**

a. The form of [Past Perfect Continuous Tense](#) is- had + been + verb + ing



## **Present Tense:**

### **1) Simple Present Tense-**

Indicates an action that is generally true or habitual. That is, it took place in the past, continue to take place in the present, and will take place in the future. This tense is used to denote

- a habitual action- *for instance*, "He walk to school."
- General truths- *for instance*, "The sun rises in the east", "Honesty is the best policy."
- a future event that is part of a fixed timetable- *for instance*, "The match starts at 9 9o' clock."

#### **Note**

a. The form of [Simple Present Tense](#) is- verb (infinitive without 'to' and agreeable with the subject)

### **2) Present Perfect Tense-**

Indicates an action that has been completed sometime before the present moment, with a result that affects the present situation.

*For example*, "He has finished the work."

"He has slept."

#### **Note**

a. The form of [Present Perfect Tense](#) is- has/have + verb (past participle form or 3rd form of the verb)

### **3) Present Continuous Tense-**

Indicates an action that is taking place at the moment of speaking.

*For example*, "She is walking."

"I am studying."

#### **Note**

a. the form of [Present Continuous Tense](#) is- is/am/are + verb + ing

### **4) Present Perfect Continuous Tense-**

Indicates an action that started in the past and is continuing at the present time.

*For example*, "He has been sleeping for an hour."

## Note

a. The form of [Present Perfect Continuous Tense](#) is- has/have + been + verb + ing

## Future Tense:

### 1) Simple Future Tense-

Indicates an action that will take place after the present time and that has no real connection with the present time.

*For example, "She will visit her ailing grandmother soon."*

*"He will walk home."*

## Note

a. the form of [Simple Future Tense](#) is- will/shall + verb

### 2) Future Perfect Tense-

Indicates an action in the future that will have been completed before another time or event in the future.

*For example, "By the time we arrive, he will have studied."*

## Note

a. The form of [Future Perfect Tense](#) is- will/shall have + verb (past participle form or 3rd form of the verb)

### 3) Future Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action in the future that is longer in duration than another action in the future.

*For example, "He will be walking when it starts to rain."*

## Note

a. The form of [Future Continuous Tense](#) is-will/shall be + verb + ing

### 4) Future Perfect Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action in the future that will have been continuing until another time or event in the future.

*For example, "He will have been exercising an hour at 2:00."*

## Note

a. The form of [Future Perfect Continuous Tense](#) is- will/shall have been + verb + ing.

## 2.22 The Affixation/s

### 22.1 Definition/s of Affixation/s:

Affixation is bound morphemes added before or after a word .If it is added before a root of word , it is called prefix but if it is added after a word , it is called suffix .

### First : The prefixes/s

A prefix is a group of letters (or an *affix*) that's added to the beginning of a word, e.g: enrich ,disconnect ,impossible. Prefixes modify the meaning of a word. They can make a word negative, show repetition, or indicate opinion.

### Some Common Prefixes

Some of the most common prefixes in the English language are *dis-*, *in-*, and *un-*, which make words negative. For instance, adding the prefix *un-* to the word *kind* creates the word *unkind*, meaning *not kind*.

Another common prefix, *re-*, indicates repetition. For example, adding *re-* to the word *build* means “to build again.”

Other prefixes can indicate position: *Sub* (meaning *under* or *below*) is found in common words like *subway* and *submarine*. *Supra-* (which means *above*) often appears in medical terminology, such as *supraclavicular nerves*, which lie on top of veins and bones?

### Rules for Adding Prefixes

When you add a prefix to a word, you shouldn't change the spelling of the original word or the prefix. The words *disappear* (a combination of *dis-* and *appear*), *unhappy*, and *undo* all illustrate this guideline. Follow this rule even if the spelling results in double consonants, such as in the words *misspell*, *irredeemable* and *cooperation*.

You should use a hyphen when joining a prefix to a proper noun, as in *pro-American*. There should always be a hyphen after the prefix *self-* (as in *self-esteem*), and after the prefix *ex-* when it means *former* (as in *ex-husband*). Hyphens can also prevent misreading, mispronunciation, or confusion with other words. For example, you should hyphenate *re-cover* (*to cover again*) to avoid confusing it with *recover* (*to regain or repair*).

### **Secondly : Suffixes**

Suffixes is an affix that's added to the end of a word , e.g : happiness , careful , quickly . Some suffixes add to or change a word's meaning. Others can signal the word's part of speech or indicate verb tense.)

#### **Some Common Suffixes**

Some common suffixes are *-ed*, *-ing*, and *-ly*. The suffix *-ed* changes verbs to the past tense. In the sentence "Sandy shoveled the snow," the *-ed* suffix creates the past tense of the verb *to shovel*. The *-ing* suffix makes the verb take place in the present, as in the following sentence: "Sandy is shoveling the snow."

The suffix *-ly* is commonly added onto adjectives to form *adverbs* (words that describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs). Examples of adverbs with the *-ly* suffix include *joyfully*, *quickly*, and *loudly*. The suffixes *-s* and *-es* make words plural, as in *foxes*, *lamps*, and *chairs*.

#### **Rules for Adding Suffixes**

When you add a suffix to a word, the original word usually keeps its original spelling. However, there are some exceptions to this rule: If the original word is one syllable and ends with a single consonant, double the last letter. For example, *tip* becomes *tipping* or *tipped*, and *run* becomes *running*. If the word ends in multiple consonants, as in the word *Bank*, last letter doesn't get doubled.

### **2.23 Gerunds , the( ing form/s) :**

What are Gerunds?

Although the term might sound foreign, the gerund is a common part of speech that most of us use every day, whether we know it or not. Here, above are

several examples of gerunds so you'll feel comfortable using them in your writing, and so that you will be able to recognize them when you see them.

Gerunds are words that are formed with verbs but act as nouns. They're very easy to spot, since every gerund is a verb with ing tacked to its tail. There are no exceptions to this rule.

Like all things grammar, gerunds do take a tiny bit of detective work to spot. The problem here is that present participles also end with the letters ing. Besides being able to spot gerunds, you should be able to tell the difference between a gerund and a present participle.

Let's go back to the definition of a gerund for a moment. Remember that gerunds are words that are formed with verbs but act as nouns. Present participles do not act as nouns. Instead, they act as modifiers or complete progressive verbs. To find gerunds in sentences, just look for a verb + ing that is used as a noun. It's that simple.

### ***Examples of Gerunds:***

As you read these examples of gerunds, notice the verbs they contain, and notice that every single one of them ends in ing. By the end of this quick lesson, you'll have no problem recognizing gerunds when you see them.

1. Swimming in the ocean has been Sharon's passion since she was five years old.
2. Let's go dancing at the club tonight.
3. I delayed telling Jerry the bad news.
4. Holly decided that flying above the clouds was the most incredible experience she'd ever had.
5. Bill avoided doing his math assignment because the World Series was on.

### **2.24 Passive and Active Voice**

**Active voice** means that a sentence has a subject that acts upon its verb. **Passive voice** means that a subject is a recipient of a verb's action. You

may have learned that the passive voice is weak and incorrect, but it isn't that simple. When used correctly and in moderation, the passive voice is fine.

In English grammar, verbs have five properties: voice, mood, tense, person, and number; here, we are concerned with voice. The two grammatical voices are **active and passive**.

### 2.24.1 What's the difference between active and passive voice?

#### -Active voice

When the subject of a sentence performs the verb's action, we say that the sentence is in the *active voice*. Sentences in the active voice have a strong, direct, and clear tone. Here are some short and straightforward examples of active voice.

#### **Active voice examples**

*Monkeys adore bananas.*

*The cashier counted the money.*

*The dog chased the squirrel.*

All three sentences have a basic active voice construction: subject, verb, and object. The subject *monkey* performs the action described by *adore*. The subject *the cashier* performs the action described by *counted*. The subject *the dog* performs the action described by *chased*. The subjects are doing, doing, doing—they *take action* in their sentences. The active voice reminds us of the popular Nike slogan, "Just Do It."

#### -Passive voice

A sentence is in the [passive voice](#), on the other hand, when the subject is acted on by the verb. The passive voice is always constructed with a conjugated form of *to be* plus the verb's past participle. Doing this usually generates a preposition as well. That sounds much more complicated than it is—passive voice is actually quite easy to detect. For these examples of passive voice, we will transform the three active sentences above to illustrate the difference.

#### **Passive voice examples**

*Bananas are adored by monkeys.*

*The money was counted by the cashier.*

*The squirrel was chased by the dog.*

Let's take a closer look at the first pair of sentences, "Monkeys adore bananas" and "Bananas are adored by monkeys." The active sentence consists of *monkeys* (subject) + *adore* (verb) + *bananas* (object). The passive sentence consists of *bananas* (object) + *are adored* (a form of *to be* plus the past participle *adored*) + *by* (preposition) + *monkeys* (subject). Making the sentence passive flipped the structure and necessitated the preposition *by*. In fact, all three of the transformed sentences above required the addition of *by*.

### **2.24.2 When to use active and passive voice ?**

Using the active voice conveys a strong, clear tone and the passive voice is subtler and weaker. Here's some good advice: don't use the passive voice just because you think it sounds a bit fancier than the active voice.

That said, there are times the passive voice is useful and called for. Take "The squirrel was chased by the dog," for example. That sentence construction would be helpful if the squirrel were the focus of your writing and not the dog.

A good rule of thumb is to try to put the majority of your sentences in the active voice, unless you truly can't write your sentence in any other way.

## **2.25 Phrasal Verbs**

### **2.25.1 Definition of phrasal verb:**

A phrasal verb is a phrase that's made up of a verb and another word or two, usually a prepositions but sometimes an adverbs.

So before we talk about phrasal verbs, it's important to understand what verbs, prepositions and adverbs are.

In English a **phrasal verb** is the combining of two or three words from different grammatical categories—a [verb](#) and a [particle](#), such as an [adverb](#) or a [preposition](#) — to form a single semantic unit on a lexical or syntactic level. Examples: *turn down*, *run into*, and *sit up*. There are tens of thousands of

them, and they are in everyday, constant use. These semantic units cannot be understood based upon the meanings of the individual parts but must be taken as a whole. In other words, the meaning is non-[compositional](#) and thus unpredictable. Phrasal verbs that include a preposition are known as **prepositional verbs** and phrasal verbs that include a particle are also known as **particle verbs**. Additional alternative terms for *phrasal verb* are [compound verb](#), *verb-adverb combination*, *verb-particle construction*, *two-part word/verb* or *three-part word/verb* (depending on the number of particles) and [multi-word verb](#).

Phrasal verbs are differentiated from other classifications of [multi-word verbs](#) and free combinations by criteria based on idiomaticity, replacement by a single-word verb, wh-question formation and particle movement.

- **A verb** is action word. It describes something happening ( i.e. hearing , seeing ) , a state of being ( i.e. to live , to sleep ) , or an action being done ( i.e. to read , to sing ) .
- **A preposition** is a word that describes the relationship between two words. For example, the bees are above the table or under the table, but not inside the table (hopefully). Prepositions mainly deal with location or direction (i.e. on, though, around) and time (i.e. “by” or “around” a certain time).
- **An adverb** is a word that describes a verb. For example, you can run quickly or slowly and arrive to class early or late.

Now that you know what verbs and prepositions are, you're ready to start putting them together into phrasal verbs.

Phrasal verbs work by changing the verb's meaning based on the preposition that follows them.

### **2.25.2 How to learn phrasal verbs?**

English phrasal verbs are everywhere, so one of the best ways to learn them is to try to listen for them. These phrases are commonly used, and would not be



unusual to hear in a conversation. If you're not sure whether a phrase is a phrasal verb or just a verb that happened to be spoken with a preposition, try looking it up. Most dictionaries have entries for phrasal verbs,

So look up the phrase to be sure. You can also look up the phrase in the English page phrasal dictionary which is an excellent resources.

Some phrasal verb meanings are obvious – like “fall down” – but some are almost like idioms since they can't be literary translated – like “come on”. to make them easier to learn , you can try grouping phrasal verbs into categories like time of day ( i.e. wake up , lie down ) or positive ( i.e. cheer up ) and negative ( i.e. give up ).

There are so many phrasal verbs that it might seem difficult to learn all, but many of these phrases become natural after a while – by repetition and practice.

### **2.25.3 How to use phrasal verbs in English?**

Phrasal verbs are used just like verbs – anywhere they make sense.

Usually, the verb and preposition in a phrasal verb need to be said together, like in the phrase “fall down.” In some cases, though, you can separate the verb and the preposition by putting other words between them.

For example: the phrase “turn off” can be used just like that, or it can be interrupted by stating what you're turning off. In other words, you can say “turn off the TV.” and you can also say “turn the TV off.” Both are correct.

Another thing to keep in your mind about phrasal verbs is that they are still verbs that means the verb which is the part of the phrase can be changed depending on the tense of the sentence. So “turn off” can also be “turned off” or “turning off”.

### **2.25.4 Some of the Most Common Phrasal Verbs in English:**

Below are some of the most common phrasal verbs in the English language. They arranged alphabetically, so they are easy to find and understand their meaning.

- **Bring up**-To mention something. (Note: the two parts of this phrasal verb can be separated.)

*“Mark was sick and had to miss the party, so please don’t **bring it up**, I don’t want him to feel bad for missing it.”*

- **Bring on** – To cause something to happen, usually something negative,(the two parts of this phrasal verb can be separated by what’s happening.)

*“His lung cancer was **brought on** by years of smoking.”*

- **Brink it on** – To accept a challenge with confidence.

*“You want to have a race,**bring it on**.”*

- **Call on** – This can mean either to visit someone, or to use someone’s or something’s knowledge.

To visit someone: *“I’ll call on you this evening to see how you are feeling”*

To use someone’s knowledge: *“I may need to call on the University’s excellent professors in order to answer your question.”*

- **Call off** – To cancel something.

*“The picnic was called off because of the rain.”*

- **Cheer on** – To support someone by giving him /her words of encouragement. (Can be separated by the name or pronoun of the person being cheered on).

*“Even though Samantha was in the last place, her brother **cheered her on** through the entire race”.*

- **Cheer up** – This phrase can either be used as a phrase of encouragement said to someone who seems sad (just saying “cheer up” to him), or it can mean to try to make someone happier.

*“Andrew was having a bad day, so his girlfriend cheered him up by taking him out for ice cream”.*

- **Come up** – (with something) – to think of an idea.

*“I came up with this idea for a TV show about a woman living with her best friend and daughter. I call it ‘two and a half Women”*

**Come up** – To bring up a topic, or when something happens unexpectedly.

To bring up a topic: *“I want to tell her that I got a new job but the chance never came up”*.

Unexpected occurrence: *“I was going to meet my friends for dinner, but something came up so I had to cancel”*.

**-Cut off** – This phrase can be used in several ways, but its general meaning is “to interrupt or stop something. (Can be separated)

While driving, to get in front of another car suddenly: *“That red car just cut me off and I almost crashed into it”*.

- **Drop off** – To leave something or someone in their destination. (Can be separated by the object being dropped off).

*“I can give you ride and drop you off at work.”*

- **Get up** – To stand up, or to wake up.

*“I have so much trouble getting up in the morning that I have to set three alarms”*

- **Give out** – This phrase can mean to break down or stop working, or to hand out or distribute something.

To stop working: *“The city had to rebuild the bridge completely, because it is about to give out and fall down”*.

To distribute: *“He had a lot of contacts because he gives out his business card to everyone he meets”*.

- Give up – To stop trying.

*“After two weeks of trying to build my own table, I give up and just bought one”*.

**-Go ahead** – To go in front of someone, or to give permission to do or to say something.

- **Hold on** – To hold something tightly. This phrase can also be away of asking someone to wait for a moment.

*“You would better hold on to your hat, it is windy out there”*

**-Hold back** – To stop yourself from doing or saying something.

*“Amy has a great voice but whenever she is singing in public she feels shy and holds back”*

## **2.26 Idioms and Fixed Expressions:**

An idiom is a group of words with a meaning that is different from its individual words. Sometimes the meaning is easy to understand, sometimes is difficult to understand from the individual words. The following are some examples:

1. She was **tickled pink** by the good news.
  - *Made very happy.*
2. You were **hands down** the best player on the team.
  - *There was no competition.*
3. I've been feeling pretty **down in the dumps** lately.
  - \* *Sad or depressed.*
4. I've been feeling **under the weather**.
  - \* *Not well*
5. **Rise and shine!**
  - \* *Wake up and be happy!*
6. I could play outside **till the cows come home**.
  - \* *For a very long time*
7. No, I was just **pulling your leg**.
  - \* *Just joking*
8. **It's Greek to me!**
  - \* *I don't understand.*
9. **Hold your horses**.
  - \* *Be patient.*
10. **Keep your chin up**.
  - \* *Be happy.*

## **B. Previous Studies:**

### **B.1. Local Studies:**

Suleiman (2017) conducted study entitled “ Investigating the use of vocabulary learning strategies among English majors at University of Al Fashir , particularly , those who major in English from the first year at the faculty of art. The sample involved (80) male and female students . Questionnaire and pre- and post test were used as tools for collecting data . Findings revealed that , students tend to use meta cognitive strategies (75%) as the most frequently used strategy . Also there was positive correlation between vocabulary learning strategies and students’ vocabulary development . The study recommended that students should be taught vocabulary learning strategies from the very beginning at University level , teachers should be aware of the importance of vocabulary learning strategies .

Tahani Ahmed (2016), Investigating the vocabulary learning strategies in enhancing undergraduate students at college of education in the Sudan University of Science and Technology . Questionnaire designed as tool for (50) Sudanese University teachers . A test also was designed for (50) University students . The findings of the study showed that , the students did not know how to use and get meaning of words by checking English dictionary, they did not read literature to enrich their vocabulary. Also students do not interact with themselves to build self -confidence in term of vocabulary revision and they did not practice speaking to check their language competence . The study recommended that : students should be trained in how they can transcribe words effectively , they should be trained in how they can produce words correctly by using dictionary.

Khalda , M ,(April 2017)+ wrote on “Investigating Strategies for Understanding the Meaning of Specialist English Vocabulary in the Faculty of Medicine;” University of Khartoum; Sudan. This study investigated strategies for

understanding specialist meaning of medical vocabulary. The data were collected by using four research tools, two questionnaires; the researcher with 10 experienced teachers in English Language and medical field conducted one for 30 teachers and the other for 100 3rd year medical students, an interview. Finally, a vocabulary test was done with the same medical students. The findings of the study revealed that medical students are encountered by different difficulties in understanding medical English vocabulary, words roots and frequent use of prefixes and suffixes. Moreover, 62% of medical students mentioned that the English courses were irrelevant to the medical field. In addition, 70% of the teachers stated that the English courses should be EAP for medical students, besides, the textbooks and teaching materials were not available, and the time for covering the syllabus is not sufficient.

### **B.2.Regional Studies:**

Dina & Ghadeer (2014) since speaking well in English is crucial for English language literature undergraduates, this study is conducted under the title 'An Investigation of the Barriers Faced by EFL Undergraduates Students in Speaking Skills. The study aimed at describing difficulties that may be encountered at an EFL setting. The sample was stratified random as drawn from six Jordanian public universities. Survey questionnaires as well as semi-structured interviews were constructed. 64 students were interviewed out of 566 students who responded to a survey questionnaire. The findings of the study exposed a perceived failure of EFL students' speaking skill in English was reported together with reasons that explain such perceived difficulty. The results of the study showed a "low" speaking proficiency level among EFL undergraduates along with negligible instruction of the speaking skill at university courses' level. More highlighted difficulties by this study were as these of: communication in L1, large classes, and lack of time.

Diana Al-Aghbari, (2016), investigates "Pragmatic Competence in Teaching English to the Students of Medicine at Taiz University. A PhD Thesis submitted

to the University of Strasbourg in France. This study is intended to investigate the area of pragmatics to highlight the reasons for communication breakdown (mutual misunderstanding) when communicating in a Foreign Language context. The researcher employed a mixed method approach; a questionnaire was used as a tool for data collection on the quantitative side of the research, and an interview as a qualitative instrument for data collection and analysis. The main findings of the study were: Low level of pragmatics among the learners is revealed and the influence of L1 culture is clear. Positive tendency was shown among graduate students towards developing Pragmatic Competence although they show reluctance at first. The most teaching practices are devoted to developing Linguistic Competence while the area of Pragmatics is neglected.

### **B.3.International Studies:**

Gonzalez, Vivaldo y Castillo (2004).The following study examines Linguistic Competence in English Language (LCE) as a general indicator of Communicative Competence. A test and a questionnaire were administered to 1838 undergraduate freshmen from five major institutes of higher education in Aguascalientes, Mexico. Point out an unacceptable situation: majority of freshmen do not satisfy a basic level of LCE. The type of previous institutions was identified as the main factor associated with LCE: Students who attended public schools observe disadvantages in comparison to students who accomplished previous levels at private schools. As there is a pattern of continuity in the type of schools, the students who enrolled in a private higher education institute got significant CLE scores than those who attended a public one. The results show that English language teaching and learning, not only in public schools but also in private ones, requires urgently dealing with aspects of quality, more than those related to quantity.

Sandra &Ellis (1991), providing learners with grammar barriers , they must solve interactively integrates grammar instruction with opportunities for meaningful communication. This study reports the results of an exploratory

study of the use of a communicative, grammar-based task in the college EFL classroom. The two research questions addressed are whether the task successfully promoted L2 linguistic knowledge of a specific grammar point and whether it produced the kind of negotiated interaction which has been assumed to facilitate L2 acquisition. The limited results of this investigation suggest that the grammar task encouraged communication about grammar and enabled EFL learners to increase their knowledge of a difficult Language.

Zhengdong Gan (2012) This paper reports the result of a study that aimed to identify the problems with oral English skills of ESL (English as a second language) students at a tertiary teacher training institution in Hong Kong. The study, by way of semi-structured interview, addresses the gap in our understanding of the difficulties ESL students encountered in their oral English development in the context of a Bachelor of Education (English Language) program. Insufficient opportunities to speak English in lectures and tutorials, lack of a focus on language improvement in the curriculum, and the input-poor environment for spoken communication in English outside class apparently contributed to a range of problems that closely related to the Sociocultural, institutional and interpersonal contexts in which individual ESL students found themselves. The results of the study lead us to question the effectiveness of the knowledge- and pedagogy-based ESL teacher training curriculum. They also point to a need to incorporate a sufficiently intensive language improvement component in the current teacher preparation program.

Doan Linh Chi (2011) This study deals with Guidance for Learners' Improvement of Speaking Skills. Practice is considered an important part of language learning. Students are always encouraged to practice as much and as often as possible. However, some students do not know how to practice well and feel disappointed as practice does not always help them make much progress in their studies. Thus, as teachers, we should give them guidance on



effective practice. This paper reports what and how guidance for practice should be provided for effective improvement of students' speaking skills. Encouraging preliminary results show that a set of appropriate activities to practice speaking and good management of group work can enhance students' speaking skills and increase their autonomy.

**Summary:**

This chapter has covered the theoretical frame work and previous studies. Regarding the theoretical framework, it handled in details very important topics in relation with barriers that effect undergraduate student's linguistic competence; linguistic competence and its definitions, discourse competence, different barriers in linguistic competence, communication barriers, factors which hindered student's competence, communication strategies . Finally it exhibited some important previous studies which were been conducted in different EFL contexts: local, regional and international studies .

# **Chapter Three**

## **Methodology of the study**

## **Chapter Three**

### **Methodology of the Study**

#### **3.0 Introduction:**

This chapter presents research methods, instruments for data collection, population, sampling, data analysis, and variables, issues of validity and reliability and summary of the chapter.

#### **3.1. Study Method:**

The researcher used descriptive analytical method to conduct this study. A questionnaire and test will be used as a tool for gathering data. The questionnaire will be distributed to the English language teachers from different Sudanese university to see their opinions and view about the research topic. The test also will given to the 3<sup>rd</sup> year students , Sinnar University : Faculty of education . After that the researcher will analyze data for both questionnaire and test so as to reach the main findings.

#### **3.2. Population and Sampling of the Study:**

##### **Population:**

The population of this study composed of 70 students as well as the teachers of Universities .

The researcher choose 70 third year students because those students reflected the real standard .

The researcher also selected English language teachers from different Universities to give their perception about the potential problems that face undergraduate students in linguistic competence .

##### **Sampling:**

The sample of this study was 100 subjects: 70 3<sup>rd</sup> year students from Sinnar University , faculty of education . They selected randomly from the third class , they were chosen because they were expected to have better knowledge about linguistic competence .

30 teachers of English language from different Sudanese Universities was participated in this study . They are ( 20 male and 10 female ) with PhD and MA qualifications , their experience ranged between 1 to 20 years in teaching English . Also with different experience to rate the questionnaire. They were chosen

from different Universities, as shown in the table (3-1) below:

**Table (3-1)**

**Participant Teachers` Description.**

No	Name of University	No . teachers	PhD	MA	Male	Female
1	Sinnar University	15	10	5	12	3
2	University of Jazira	10	7	3	8	2
3	El Quran Elkareem University	5	3	2	5	0

**Table (3-2) shows participant teachers` experience as they revealed in the questionnaire.**

Years of experience	( 1 - 10 )	(10 – 15)	(15 –20 )	Over (20 )
No of teachers	04	10	11	05
Percentage	13.4%	33.4%	36.6%	16.6%

**3.3. Instruments of Data Collection:**

**3.3.1. Students Test:**

The researcher conducted test for the 3<sup>rd</sup> year students in order to identify and discover the students` abilities .The test consist of (three questions ) , question

one concern with vocabulary , question two concern with grammar and question three concern with writing skills .

The students did the test and the researcher analyzed and scored it later.

### **3.3.2. Teachers` Questionnaire:**

The researcher also administered a questionnaire for teachers of English language in different Sudanese Universities. The questionnaire composed of 20 items that were distributed to PhD and MA male and female English language teachers , from different Sudanese Universities .

the researcher analyzed and scored it later.

### **3.4. Data Analysis and Interpretation:**

The researcher used the Statistical Package of Social sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data that have been collected for this study by students Test and teachers` questionnaire.

### **3.5. Validity and Reliability:**

#### **3.5.1. Validity:**

The researcher designed the test and questionnaire and had been revised by his main supervisor . Then, he submitted them to 4 experts before conducting them in order to enhance the validity.

For the face validity of the test and teachers` questionnaire, 4 experts were asked to add or remove or do any possible modification and rewording of the statements that resulted in the attached test and questionnaire in the appendices. Therefore, the following table shows the Jury committee:

**Table (3-3) Jury committee**

No	Name	Educational foundation	Qualification	Specialist	Phone
1	Salih Musa Suliman	Sinnar University	PhD	Applied Linguistics	0123557442

No	Name	Educational foundation	Qualification	Specialist	Phone
2	Mohammed Marajan Awad	Sinnar University	PhD	Applied Linguistics	0966743131
3	Ahmed Faraj Saad	Sinnar University	PhD	Literature	0917775023
4	Hafith Babiker Suliman	Sinnar University	PhD	ELT	0905037708

### 3.5.2. Reliability:

For the reliability, the researcher conducted the test himself since he is a teacher of English language. Then, he explained it to the students so as to reinforce students understanding and enable them to answer the test . Furthermore, the tests were scored by the researcher and inter-rater who is an expert in ELT so; there should be average of scores.

**Table ( 3 – 4 )Shows testreliability statistics**

Cranach's Alpha	N of Items
.964	7

**Table ( 3 – 5 )Shows questionnaire reliability statistics**

Cranach's Alpha	N of Items
.989	20

### 3.6. Summary

This chapter illustrated the methodology of the study, description of the participants, sampling, instruments of data collection, data Analysis and interpretation, validity and reliability of the tools of the study.

# **Chapter Four**

## **Data Analysis and Discussion**



## Chapter Four

### Data Analysis , Results and Discussion

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the interpretation of the test in light of the test results . It also presents the results obtained from teachers' questionnaire

#### 4.2 The Test Analysis

Students' test includes three questions : question one is about (vocabulary) , question two concerned with (Grammar) and question three tests ( writing ) . They administered to the 3<sup>rd</sup> year University students . The following table present the percentages of the students performance .

**Table ( 4 – 1 )** Students' responses to the test questions

S N	Component	Items	Description	Excellent	Very good	Good	Weak	Very weak
70	Vocabulary	Filling Gabs	Frequency	04	00	10	20	36
			Percentages	5.07%	00%	14.03%	28.06%	51.42%
		Matching	Frequency	02	04	08	22	34
			Percentages	2.09%	5.07%	11.42%	31.42%	48.06%
	Grammar	Tenses	Frequency	00	00	06	23	41
			Percentages	00%	00%	8.06%	32.09%	58.06%
		Suffix and Prefix	Frequency	05	05	12	18	30
			Percentages	7.14%	7.14%	17.14%	25.71%	42.09%
		Phrasal verbs	Frequency	00	00	01	23	46
			Percentages	00%	00%	1.42%	32.09%	65.71%

		Passive & active	Frequency	00	00	04	12	54
			Percentages	00%	00%	5.07%	17.14%	77.14%
	<b>Writing</b>	Free composition	Frequency	00	01	17	20	32
			Percentages	00%	1.42%	24.03%	28.06%	45.71%

## 1. Vocabulary

**a. Filling gabs :** 04 students 5.07 were excellent , no a student found very good, 10 students 14.3 were good , 20 students 28.06 were weak and 36 students 51.42 were very weak .

**b. Matching :** 02 students 2.09% were excellent , 04 students 5.07% were very good, 08students 11.42% were good , 22 students 31.42% were weak and 34 students 48.06% were very weak .

According to the results in the table ( 4 – 1 ) , it is clear observed that there are real problems in vocabulary acquisition for undergraduate students , the above results emphasis the hypothesis that undergraduate students do not use appropriate vocabulary .

## 2. Grammar

**a. Correct form of the verbs :** There was no a student found excellent or very good, but found 6 students 8.06% were good , 23 students 32.09 % were weak and 41 students 58.06% were very weak .

**b. Suffix and Prefix :** 05 students 07.14% were excellent , 05 students 07.14% were very good, 12 students 17.14% were good , 18 students 25.71% were weak and 30 students 42.09% were very weak .

c. Phrasal verbs : There was no a student found excellent or very good, but found 01a students 1.42% was good , 23 students 32.09 % were weak and 46students 65.71% were very weak .

d. Passive & active : There was no a student found excellent or very good, but found 04 students 5.07% were good , 12 students 17.14 % were weak and 54students 77.14% were very weak .

Concerning grammar , there were also difficulties for undergraduate students in dealing with grammar rules . This is clear from the results in using grammar rules , more than 80% of the students were very weak and weak in using correct form of the verbs . In using suffix and prefix , more than 55% of the students were not able to use suffix and prefix . In using phrasal verbs , more than 90% of undergraduate students were not know how to use and understand phrasal verbs . Moreover , there were more than 90% of undergraduate students were not able to use the passive and active voice .

So the above results reflects and emphasis the hypothesis undergraduate students do not able to use grammatical structure .

## **Writing**

Free composition : There was no a student found excellent, 01a student 1.42% was very good ,17 students 24.03% were good , 20 students 28.06 % were weak and 32students 45.71% were very weak .

In writing skills , also it is clear observed that undergraduate students face problems in writing composition . The results of the test show that more than 70% of the students were very weak and weak in writing skills .

**Table ( 4 – 2 ) Shows Descriptive Statistics for the test**

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Gab Filling	70	4.2000	.12805	1.07137
Matching	70	4.1714	.12373	1.03520
Tenses	70	4.5000	.07815	.65386
Suffixes	70	3.9000	.14835	1.24120
Phrasal v	70	4.6429	.06117	.51177
Passive v	70	4.7143	.06793	.56831
Composition	70	4.1714	.10762	.90043

**Table ( 4 – 3 ) Shows One-Sample Statistics for the test**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gab Filling	70	4.2000	1.07137	.12805
Matching	70	4.1714	1.03520	.12373
Tenses	70	4.5000	.65386	.07815
Suffixes	70	3.9000	1.24120	.14835
Phrasal v	70	4.6429	.51177	.06117
Passive v	70	4.7143	.56831	.06793
Composition	70	4.1714	.90043	.10762

**Table ( 4 – 4 ) Shows One-Sample Test**

	Test Value = 0					
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Gab Filling	32.799	69	.000	4.20000	3.9445	4.4555
Matching	33.714	69	.000	4.17143	3.9246	4.4183
Tenses	57.580	69	.000	4.50000	4.3441	4.6559
Suffixes	26.289	69	.000	3.90000	3.6040	4.1960
Phrasal v	75.904	69	.000	4.64286	4.5208	4.7649
Passive v	69.403	69	.000	4.71429	4.5788	4.8498
composition	38.760	69	.000	4.17143	3.9567	4.3861

### 4.3 Questionnaire analysis

**Table ( 4 - 5 )** The participant teachers reflected varied opinions about barriers encountered by undergraduate students in dealing with linguistic competence.

No	Statement	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning	Frequency	08	13	02	07	00
		Percentage	40%	65%	10%	35%	00%
2	Shyness to practice English language inside the classroom affect to some	Frequency	16	13	01	00	00
		Percentage	80%	65%	05%	00%	00%

No	Statement	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	extent students' abilities.						
3	There is little exposure to English language in the learners' environments, so they do not hear or practice the language naturally outside the classroom.	Frequency	15	12	03	00	00
		Percentage	75%	60%	15%	00%	00%
4	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students do not care for practicing linguistic items.	Frequency	15	10	03	02	00
		Percentage	75%	50%	15%	10%	00%
5	The weakness of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English university students in speaking English is due to the lack of laboratories .	Frequency	11	11	02	03	03
		Percentage	55%	55%	10%	15%	15%
6	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students suffer from weakness of vocabulary knowledge.	Frequency	08	19	01	01	01
		Percentage	40%	95%	05%	05%	05%

No	Statement	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7	To enhance English language ,English teachers should use different techniques .	Frequency	15	14	01	00	00
		Percentage	75%	70%	05%	00%	00%
8	Teachers should encourage students to use English language to express and overcome their weakness.	Frequency	14	13	02	00	01
		Percentage	70%	65%	10%	00%	05%
9	Communication problems among English University students are due to the techniques and methods of teaching .	Frequency	10	12	03	04	01
		Percentage	50%	60%	15%	20%	05%
10	Some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum.	Frequency	10	12	05	02	01
		Percentage	50%	60%	25%	10%	05%
11	The culture of L1 affects on L2 acquisition .	Frequency	14	12	01	03	00
		Percentage	70%	60%	05%	15%	00%
12	All communicative activities are not	Frequency	05	13	05	07	00

No	Statement	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	designed to develop learners' communicative competence .	Percentage	50%	65%	50%	35%	00%
13	here is lack of authentic materials in the universities , such as videos , magazines , etc .	Frequency	17	11	02	00	00
		Percentage	85%	55%	10%	00%	00%
14	The activities in the current syllabus do not contain communicative activities , they only focus on grammar and long reading texts .	Frequency	09	13	03	04	01
		Percentage	45%	65%	15%	20%	05%
15	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students need to be taught by different aids so as to develop themselves .	Frequency	15	12	02	00	01
		Percentage	75%	60%	10%	00%	05%
16	Productive skills are more problematic for the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students than receptive skills .	Frequency	11	17	01	01	00
		Percentage	55%	85%	05%	05%	00%



No	Statement	Description	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17	Grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students .	Frequency	08	15	03	03	01
		Percentage	40%	75%	15%	15%	05%
18	Linguistic competence development mainly depends on developing the four skills .	Frequency	14	13	02	01	00
		Percentage	70%	65%	10	05	00%
19	lack of linguistic competence among the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students is due to the lack of methodology teaching.	Frequency	05	17	04	03	01
		Percentage	25%	85%	20%	15%	05%
20	Mother tongue interference affects English language acquisition .	Frequency	13	15	01	01	00
		Percentage	65%	75%	05%	05%	00%

1. Most of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning : 08 teachers 40% were strongly agree , 13 teachers 65% were agree , 02 teachers 10% were not

sure ,07 teachers 35% were disagree and 0 teachers 00% were strongly disagree .

2. Shyness to practice English language inside the classroom affect to some extent students' abilities : 16 teachers 80% were strongly agree , 13 teachers 65% were agree , 01 teachers 05% were not sure ,00 teachers 00% were disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree .
3. There is little exposure to English language in the learners' environments, so they do not hear or practice the language naturally outside the classroom : 15 teachers 75% were strongly agree , 12 teachers 60% were agree , 03 teachers 15% were not sure ,00 teachers 00% were disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree .
4. The 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students do not care for practicing linguistic items : 15 teachers 75% were strongly agree , 10 teachers 50% were agree , 03 teachers 15% were not sure ,02 teachers 10% were disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree .
5. The weakness of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English university students in speaking English is due to the lack of laboratories : 11 teachers 55% were strongly agree , 11 teachers 55% were agree , 02 teachers 10% were not sure ,03teachers 15% were disagree and 03 teachers 15% were strongly disagree .
6. Most of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students suffer from weakness of vocabulary knowledge: 08 teachers 40% were strongly agree , 19 teachers 95% were agree , 01 teacher 05% was not sure ,01teacher 05% was disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree .
7. To enhance English language ,English teachers should use different techniques : 15 teachers 75% were strongly agree , 14 teachers 70 % were agree , 01 teacher 05% was not sure ,00 teacher 00% was disagree and 00 teacher 00% was strongly disagree .

8. Teachers should encourage students to use English language to express and overcome their weakness :14 teachers 70% were strongly agree , 13 teachers 65% were agree , 02 teacher 10% was not sure ,00 teacher 00% was disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree .
9. Communication problems among English University students are due to the techniques and methods of teaching : 10 teachers 50% were strongly agree , 12 teachers 60% were agree , 03 teacher 15% were not sure ,04 teacher 20% were disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree .
10. Some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum : 10 teachers 50% were strongly agree , 12 teachers 60% were agree , 05 teacher 25% were not sure ,02 teachers 20% were disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree .
11. The culture of L1 affects on E L2 acquisition : 14 teachers 70% were strongly agree , 12 teachers 60% were agree , 01 teacher 05% was not sure ,00 teachers 00% were disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree.
12. All communicative activities are not designed to develop learners' communicative competence : 05 teachers 50% were strongly agree , 13 teachers 65% were agree , 05 teacher 50% were not sure ,07 teachers 35% were disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree.
13. There is lack of authentic materials in the universities , such as videos , magazines , etc :17 teachers 85% were strongly agree , 11 teachers 55% were agree , 02 teacher 10% were not sure ,00 teachers 00% were disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree.
14. The activities in the current syllabus do not contain communicative activities , they only focus on grammar and long reading texts : 09 teachers 45% were strongly agree , 13 teachers 65% were agree , 03 teacher 15% were not sure ,04 teachers 20% were disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree.

15. The 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students need to be taught by different aids so as to develop themselves : 15 teachers 75% were strongly agree , 12 teachers 60% were agree , 02 teacher 10% were not sure , 00 teacher 00% was disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree.
16. Productive skills are more problematic for the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students than receptive skills : 11 teachers 55% were strongly agree , 17 teachers 85% were agree , 01 teacher 05% was not sure , 01 teacher 05% was disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree.
17. Grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students : 08 teachers 40% were strongly agree , 15 teachers 75% were agree , 03 teachers 15% were not sure , 03 teachers 05% were disagree and 01 teacher 05% was strongly disagree.
18. Linguistic competence development mainly depends on developing the four skills : 14 teachers 70% were strongly agree , 13 teachers 65% were agree , 02 teachers 10% were not sure , 01 teachers 05% was disagree and 00 teachers 00% were strongly disagree.
19. Lack of linguistic competence among the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students is due to the lack of methodology teaching : 05 teachers 25% were strongly agree , 17 teachers 85% were agree , 04 teachers 20% were not sure , 03 teachers 15% were disagree and 01 teachers 05% was strongly disagree.
20. Mother tongue interference affects English language acquisition : 13 teachers 65% were strongly agree , 15 teachers 75% were agree , 01 teacher 05 % was not sure , 01 teachers 05% was disagree and 00 teachers 00% was strongly disagree.

According to the table ( 4 – 5 ) which concern with questionnaire that designed to the University teachers , there were several results which reflect the problems of linguistic competence for undergraduate students . Most of the university teachers agreed that there were real problems . The results

show that 21 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that most of undergraduate students have negative attitudes towards English language learning , 29 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that shyness to practice English inside the classroom affect to some extent students abilities , 27 of the university teachers strongly agree and agree that undergraduate students do not hear or practice the language naturally outside the classroom , 25 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English university students do not care for practicing linguistic items , 22 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that the weakness of the university students in speaking English is due to the lack of laboratories , 27 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that most of undergraduate students suffer from the weakness of vocabulary knowledge , 29 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that different techniques enhance English language , 27 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that encouragement from the teachers of the university to their students , overcome their weakness in English language , 22 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that communication problems among English university students are due to the techniques and methods of teaching ,22 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum . 26 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that the culture of L1 affects on L2 acquisition , 18 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that all communicative activities are not designed to develop learner's communicative competence ,28 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that there is lack of authentic materials in the universities , such as videos , magazines , etc . 22 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that the activities in the current syllabus do not contain communicative activities , they only focus on grammar and long

reading text , 27 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that undergraduate students need to be taught by different aids so as to develop themselves , 28 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that productive skills are more problematic for the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English university students than receptive skills ,23 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face undergraduate students , 27 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that linguistic competence development mainly depends on developing the four skills , 28 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that mother tongue interference affects English language acquisition , 22 of the university teachers were strongly agree and agree that lack of linguistic competence among the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English university students is due to the lack of methodology .

**Table ( 4 - 6 )** Shows questionnaire One-Sample statistics

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning	2.2667	1.11211	.20304
2	Shyness to practice English language inside the classroom affect to some extent students' abilities.	1.5000	.57235	.10450
3	There is little exposure to English language in the learners' environments, so they do not hear or practice the language naturally outside the classroom.	1.6000	.67466	.12318

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
4	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students do not care for practicing linguistic items.	1.7333	.90719	.16563
5	The weakness of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English university students in speaking English is due to the lack of laboratories .	2.2000	1.32353	.24164
6	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students suffer from weakness of vocabulary knowledge.	1.9333	.86834	.15854
7	To enhance English language ,English teachers should use different techniques .	1.5333	.57135	.10431
8	Teachers should encourage students to use English language to express and overcome their weakness.	1.7000	.87691	.16010
9	Communication problems among English University students are due to the techniques and methods of teaching .	2.1333	1.13664	.20752
10	Some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum.	2.0667	1.04826	.19139
11	The culture of L1 affects on E L2 acquisition .	1.7667	.93526	.17075
12	All communicative activities are not designed to develop learners' communicative competence .	2.4667	1.04166	.19018

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
13	There is lack of authentic materials in the universities , such as videos , magazines , etc .	1.5000	.62972	.11497
14	The activities in the current syllabus do not contain communicative activities , they only focus on grammar and long reading texts .	2.1667	1.11675	.20389
15	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students need to be taught by different aids so as to develop themselves .	1.6667	.88409	.16141
16	Productive skills are more problematic for the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students than receptive skills .	1.7333	.69149	.12625
17	Grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students .	2.1333	1.04166	.19018
18	Linguistic competence development mainly depends on developing the four skills .	1.6667	.75810	.13841
19	lack of linguistic competence among the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students is due to the lack of methodology teaching.	2.2667	.98027	.17897
20	Mother tongue interference affects English language acquisition .	1.6667	.71116	.12984

**Table ( 4 - 7 )** Shows questionnaire One-Sample test



No	One-Sample Test						
		Test Value = 0					
		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
1	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning	11.164	29	.000	2.26667	1.8514	2.6819
2	Shyness to practice English language inside the classroom affect to some extent students' abilities.	14.355	29	.000	1.50000	1.2863	1.7137
3	There is little exposure to English language in the learners' environments, so they do not hear or practice the language naturally outside the classroom.	12.990	29	.000	1.60000	1.3481	1.8519
4	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students do not care for practicing linguistic items.	10.465	29	.000	1.73333	1.3946	2.0721
5	The weakness of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English university students in speaking English is due to the lack of laboratories .	9.104	29	.000	2.20000	1.7058	2.6942
6	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students suffer from weakness of vocabulary knowledge.	12.195	29	.000	1.93333	1.6091	2.2576
7	To enhance English language ,English teachers should use different techniques .	14.699	29	.000	1.53333	1.3200	1.7467

No	One-Sample Test						
		Test Value = 0					
		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
8	Teachers should encourage students to use English language to express and overcome their weakness.	10.618	29	.000	1.70000	1.3726	2.0274
9	Communication problems among English University students are due to the techniques and methods of teaching .	10.280	29	.000	2.13333	1.7089	2.5578
10	Some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum.	10.798	29	.000	2.06667	1.6752	2.4581
11	The culture of L1 affects on E L2 acquisition .	10.346	29	.000	1.76667	1.4174	2.1159
12	All communicative activities are not designed to develop learners' communicative competence .	12.970	29	.000	2.46667	2.0777	2.8556
13	There is lack of authentic materials in the universities , such as videos , magazines , etc .	13.047	29	.000	1.50000	1.2649	1.7351
14	The activities in the current syllabus do not contain communicative activities , they only focus on grammar and long reading texts .	10.627	29	.000	2.16667	1.7497	2.5837
15	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students need to be taught by different aids so as to develop themselves .	10.326	29	.000	1.66667	1.3365	1.9968

No	One-Sample Test						
		Test Value = 0					
		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
16	Productive skills are more problematic for the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students than receptive skills .	13.730	29	.000	1.73333	1.4751	1.9915
17	Grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students .	11.217	29	.000	2.13333	1.7444	2.5223
18	Linguistic competence development mainly depends on developing the four skills .	12.042	29	.000	1.66667	581.3836	1.9497
19	lack of linguistic competence among the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students is due to the lack of methodology teaching.	12.665	29	.000	2.26667	1.9006	2.6327
20	Mother tongue interference affects English language acquisition .	12.836	29	.000	1.66667	1.4011	1.9322

# **Chapter Five**

## **Findings , Conclusion , and Recommendations**

## Chapter Five

### Main Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

#### 5.0. Introduction

This chapter includes the main findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

#### 5.1. The Main Findings

According to the results of the test discussed in chapter four, it is obvious that the students are very weak in the vocabulary and grammar. In vocabulary, they suffer badly from problems in understanding the meaning of the words and how they used them. For instance, the students have shortage in vocabulary so they are unable to understand the meaning of more words and use them in the passage or sentences. In grammar, the students are not able to use tenses correctly, moreover students are unable to use grammatical structures properly. In addition, the students have real problems in some grammatical items such as: suffixes and prefixes, passive and active, phrasal verbs. For instance, the students do not able to change active into passive and also they can't able to understand the meaning of the phrasal verbs

Concerning writing skill as one of the linguistic competence, it is clear observed that the students are not able to write composition properly. For instance, the students have various problems such as: new words and their usage, construction and building of a sentence, paragraphing and organizing, mechanics of writing and expression.

2- Based on the contents of table (4-1) which shows the difference in students' scores, there are weakness for the majority of the students concerning vocabulary, grammar and writing skill.

3-The results of teachers' questionnaire in table (4-02) showed that a

considerable number of teachers were strongly agree that Most of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning .For instance, no one of the participant teachers disagree that Most of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning .

Moreover, 85% of the participant teachers were agree that lack of linguistic competence among the 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students is due to the lack of methodology teaching .75% of the participant teachers were agree that grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face 3<sup>rd</sup> year English University students . in addition to 60% of the participant teachers were agree that Some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum .

## **5.2. Conclusions**

Referring to the findings of the study, the researcher concludes that using of different methodology teaching , helps students to develop their linguistic competence . Also encouraging students from their teachers participate and help them to use English language to express and overcome their weakness .It also uses different kinds of communicative activities such as: conversations, role play, problem solving, stimulation, , songs, music, videos etc that stimulate students and prompt them to use the language naturally in the classroom and cover students weakness .

Teachers` awareness about importance of motivation help the students to practice and develop English language . syllabus and curriculum should provide the students with the required linguistic inputs that help them to develop and enrich their vocabulary, grammar , writing and improve their pronunciation, comprehension and fluency by exposing them to the different types of communication strategies. Moreover ,designing of communicative activities raise and develop learners` communicative competence .

### **5.3. Recommendations**

According to the findings of the study the researcher recommends the following:

- 1- University teachers of English language should be trained well on teaching methodology so as to improve students` abilities for acquiring the language .
- 2- The syllabus should be supplemented to satisfy and provide university students with enough input to improve students `ability.
- 3- There should be language laboratories in Universities so as to enrich linguistic environment for students .
- 4- Work conditions for teachers should be improved so that they will dedicate their efforts to improve their students` language skills.
- 5- University students should aware of and practicing English language inside and outside the classroom .

### **5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies**

Based on the results of the study, the researcher suggests the following studies to be done in an attempt to solve the current problems in the future:

- 1- Investigating the use of technology in enriching the linguistic competence to EFL learners to improve their ability .
- 2- Teaching language skills through different techniques should be taken into account.
- 3- The impact of effective teaching on students` achievement in English Language should be taken into account.
- 4- The significance of curriculum in providing linguistic input to EFL learners.
- 5- The impact of EFL teachers` training to upgrade their performance and enhancing learning.

### **Summary**

This chapter addressed in details the main findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

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# Appendices

## Appendices

### Appendix (1)

#### Student's Test

*Answer all the questions.*

**Question One** :(Vocabulary )

(A) Use the words in brackets to complete the following sentences.

[ immediately – associate – vast – resistance – peacefully -

1. The asleep children lay .....in their bed .
2. Many citizens of the world.....With English language.
3. China is a .....country in the world.
4. The Indian language find.....in the southern States of India.
- 5- Some adjectives can be used .....after a noun .

(B) Match the words in the column (A) with their meanings in the column (B).

Signs - A tiny organism – Annually - Anopheles - Differ - Maternity

A	B
Every year	.....
A female mosquito	.....
Varies	.....
Pregnancy	.....
Parasite	.....
Symptoms	.....

**Question Two :(Grammar )**

**A- Put the verbs between bracket in their correct forms , for each sentence.**

1. We frequently ..... the shimmer of the evening light on the waves. (watch)
- 2- She can't afford..... out tonight . She is too tired. ( go)
- 3-Just after I .....( left ) University , I..... (meet ) an old friend
- 4- The boy's father admitted.....the window. ( break )
- 5- Within a few minutes, she ..... asleep. (fall )
- 6-John lives in Berlin now. He likes .....there. ( live )
- 7- He was tougher than he ..... . (look )
- 8-'Does Sarah know about the meeting?' 'No, I forgot.....her. ( tell )
- 9-I've enjoyed.....you. I hope .....you again soon. ( meet, see )
- 10- Why do you keep.....me questions? Can't you leave me alone? ( ask )

**B. Use a suitable prefix to give the opposite meaning of the following words.**

- 1- ..... happy    2.....patient    3- .....correct    4.....regular    5- .....agree
- 6-.....possible    7 .....legible    8- .....friendly    9- ....visible    10- .....formal

**C. Draw a circle round the letter of the correct meaning for the underlined expressions .**

**1- Rise and shine!**

- |                         |                          |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| a- Wake up and be happy | b- Wake up and be normal |
| c- Wake up and go away  | d- Wake up to eat        |

**2- The exam is a piece of cake.**

a- Very difficult

b- Very funny

c- Very easy

d- Very cheap

**3- Hold your horses.**

a- Be patient

b- Be lazy

c- Be happy

d- Be kind

**4- It is Greek to me!**

a- I don't understand

b- I don't believe

c- I don't see

d- I don't meet

**5- Look! This shirt costs an arm and a leg.**

a- Extremely cheap

b- Extremely fine

c- Extremely important

d- Extremely expensive

**D. *Change the following sentences to the passive voice.***

1- Several important people have written books about this subject.

2- The policemen are investigating the thief.

3- They will open a new restaurant next week .

4-The driver has made a number of attempts to stop the car.

5- You have broken the door.

**Question Three :( Writing)**

*According to the characteristics of a good meaningful writing , choose one of the following topics and write a proper composition.*

1.University life

2. Mass media

.....

.....

.....

.....





## Appendix( 2 )

### Teachers` Questionnaire:

**Dear teachers :**

This questionnaire is designed as a data collecting tool for PhD thesis entitled **(Investigating the Barriers Encountered by Undergraduate Students in Dealing with Linguistic Competence** . Please , tick ( / ) in front of your choice , use only one option.

**Gender :**      male (      )      female (      )

**The degree :**    M A (      )      PhD (      )

**Years of experience :** 1. 1 – 10 (      ) 2. 10 – 15 (      ) 3. 15 – 20 (      ) 4. over 20 (      )

No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year majoring English University students have negative attitudes towards English language learning					
2	Shyness to practice English language inside the classroom affect to some extent students' abilities.					
3	There is little exposure to English language in the learners' environments, so they do not hear or practice the language naturally outside the classroom.					
4	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students do not care for practicing linguistic items.					
5	The weakness of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English university students in speaking English is due to the lack of laboratories .					
6	Most of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students suffer					

No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	from weakness of vocabulary knowledge.					
7	To enhance English language ,English teachers should use different techniques .					
8	Teachers should encourage students to use English language to express and overcome their weakness.					
9	Communication problems among English University students are due to the techniques and methods of teaching .					
10	Some linguistic barriers are due to the insufficient materials in the curriculum.					
11	The culture of L1 affects on E L2 acquisition .					
12	All communicative activities are not designed to develop learners' communicative competence .					
13	There is lack of authentic materials in the universities , such as videos , magazines , etc .					
14	The activities in the current syllabus do not contain communicative activities , they only focus on grammar and long reading texts .					
15	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students need to be taught by different aids so as to develop themselves .					
16	Productive skills are more problematic for the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students than receptive skills .					
17	Grammatical items are the most problematic linguistic barriers that face 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students .					

No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18	Linguistic competence development mainly depends on developing the four skills .					
19	lack of linguistic competence among the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year English University students is due to the lack of methodology teaching.					
20	Mother tongue interference affects English language acquisition .					