#### بسم الله الرحمن **الرحيم**

#### Sudan University of Science& Technology

College of Post Graduate Studies



#### Research on:

Investigating the difficulties of Sudanese secondary schools students in building English Language Sentences

)A case study of the third class in Sudanese secondary schools in Gezira State)

تقصي الصعوبات التى تواجه طلاب المدارس الثانوية السودانية فى بناء الجملة فى اللغة الإنجليزية

دراسة حالة طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية السودانيين بالصف) (الثالث في المرحلة الثانوية في ولاية الجزيرة

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By:

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### بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

قال تعالى: ((ربَنَّا وَ ابْعَثْ فِيهم رَسُولاً مِنْهُمْ يَتْلُوا عَلَيْهِمْ آيَاتِكَ وَيُعَلِّمُهُمُ الكِتَابَ والحِكْمَةَ وَيُزَكِّهِم إِنَّكَ أَنتَ العَزِيزَ آيَاتِكَ وَيُعَلِّمُهُمُ الكِتَابَ والحِكْمَةَ وَيُزَكِّهِم إِنَّكَ أَنتَ العَزِيزَ اللهَ العظيم الحَكِيمُ )) . صدق الله العظيم

(سورة البقرة الآية 128)

## **Dedication**

To my parents , wife , daughters , supervisor, and my

dear friend Dr. Imad Ahmed Ali .

# Acknowledgement

I would like to thank deeply all who helped me in conducting this study specially my supervisor Dr. Alshafa Abdelgadir Hassan.

My thanks are also due to Dr. Imad Ahmed Ali and Azhari Khatim for his effort in typing the thesis.

#### **Abstract**

This study aims at investigating the problems facing the Sudanese secondary school students as relates to writing English sentences. The researcher used the descriptive method of research. The tools used to gather the data were a test and a questionnaire. After testing the validity and reliability of the tool and using statistical analysis to analyze the data, the researcher reached up to the following results:-

- 1. Most of the Sudanese secondary school students of English language in Gezira State are not acquainted with parts of language speech.
- 2. The periods allocated for writing skills are very few.
- 3. Teachers seldom encourage their students to develop their writing skills .
- 4. Teachers do not explain to their students how to write correct English structures.
- 5. The students linguistic mistakes are not discussed in class.

Thus the study recommended that: there should be a sort of modification in the Sudanese secondary schools syllabus through introducing a lot of lessons related to English structure besides

focusing on literature lessons, as it is the main source of vocabulary, which is very important in constructing English sentences.

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#### مستخلص

هدفت هذه الدراسة لبحث المشاكل التي تواجه الطلاب السودانيين في المدارس الثانوية والمتعلقة بكتابة الجمل في اللغة الإنجليزية ، استخدم الباحث المنهج الوصفي . الأدوات المستخدمة في جمع المعلومات كانت عبارة عن الاستبيان والاختبار

بعد اختبار معامل الصدق والثبات للأدوات المستخدمة في التحليل الإحصائي لتحليل المعلومات توصل الباحث للنتائج التالية :

- معظم الطلاب السودانيين في المدارس الثانوية في ولاية -1 الجزيرة غير ملمين بأجزاء الكلام .
- . الحصص المخصصة لمهارات الكتابة قليلة جداً -2
- الأساتذة قلما يشجعون الطلاب في تطوير مهاراتهم بالنسبة -3 . للكتابة
- الأساتذة لا يشرحون لطلابهم كيفية كتابة تراكيب إنجليزية -4 محيحة .

أخطاء الطلاب اللغوية المتعلقة لا يتم مناقشتها داخل الصف -5 .

أوصت الدراسة بتعديلات في مقرر اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الثانوية وذلك بإدخال كثير من الحصص المتعلقة بالتركيب اللغوي بالإضافة إلى التركيز على الأدب الإنجليزي باعتبارها المصدر الرئيسي للمفردات ، التي تعتبر مهمة جداً في بناء الجملة في اللغة الإنجليزية .

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## **Chapter One**

# In The Name of Allah , Most Gracious , most Merciful

# The general framework of the research Introduction

Languages generally have an important function in terms of communication and exchange of ideas and interests among people. It can be seen that many necessary and inevitable things depend on language . Therefore whether language is written or spoken it should be clear and straightforward .

No doubt most official issues depend on written language such as treaties ,matters of trade and other things of paramount impotence. Therefore the more there is stress and core for language especially English language which is a world language , the more people particularly students will make much progress and development in this field.

Unfortunately much ambiguity will occur when students of English language express themselves in structurally wrong sentences. This ambiguity may lead to a sort of misunderstanding between the writer and the reader . Therefore the message will be lost between the ignorance of the writer and perplexity of the reader.

Moreover wrong written sentences may lead to a sort of misinterpretation for the massage they convey . Since this topic is extremely academic the researcher attempts to choose a topic with the title of : Difficulties of building English sentences in writing skill.

#### 1.1 Research problem :-

The researcher will try to investigate and identify the actual problems facing Sudanese secondary school students in learning English language and especially in building English sentences. Moreover, he will try to find out why

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students have such problems, analyze accurately the difficulties that our students have in learning each pattern, as well as discover remedies for these problems and suggest solutions.

#### 1.2 Aims of the research:

- 1. To investigate the nature of the problem of sentence writing .
- 2. To explore the difficulties facing Sudanese students in writing English sentences .
- 3. To find solutions for these difficulties of writing English sentences .
- 4. To solve the syntactic problems confront students in secondary schools in learning the target language .
- 5. To help students in terms of inflection .

#### 1.3 Research Questions:-

1/ What are the actual problems that face Sudanese secondary schools students in writing English language sentences?

- 2/ What are the structural problems facing Sudanese secondary schools students in writing sentences?
- 3/ To what extent do the teachers encourage students to write correct sentences?
- 4/ To what extent does the existing English language

  2

syllabus help the students to write correct English sentences and solve the syntactic problems that face them?

5/ To what extent does failure to discuss and explain the mistakes make the students unable to write correct English sentences?

#### 1.4 Research hypotheses:-

- 1/ Sudanese secondary schools students experience difficulties in writing English language sentences .
- 2 / Sudanese secondary school students in particular face structural problems in writing correct English sentences.
- 3 / Teachers do not encourage students to write correct English language sentences.
- 4/ English language syllabus supports writing sentences so as to provide syntactic problems.

5/ The absence of discussing mistakes affect in writing English language sentences

#### 1.5 Research limits:-

Theme limit: to cover three schools.Time limit: from 2010 to 2012-08-09

- Location limit: Gezira State North Medani

- Human limit: students + teachers

The application of results of this research is limited to the performance of the Sudanese secondary school students of English language in the Gezira State

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#### **Chapter Two**

#### **Literature Review**

#### 2.1 Writing skills:

Heaton(1998:135) explains that writing skills are complex and sometimes difficult to teach ,requiring mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also of conceptual and judge mental elements. The following analysis attempts to group the many and varied skills necessary for writing good prose into five general components or main areas.

- Language use: the ability to write correct and appropriate sentences,
- Mechanical skills : the ability to use correctly those conventions peculiar to the written language e.g. punctuation, spelling .

- Treatment of content: the ability to think creatively and develop thought, excluding all irrelevant information.
- Stylistic skills: the ability to manipulate sentences and paragraphs, and use language effectively.
- Judgment skills : the ability to write in an appropriate manner for a particular purpose with a particular audience in mind, together with an ability to select, organize and order relevant information.

#### 2.2 Word description:

Huddleston (1988:1) mentions that the term "word" has been used in many meanings. For instance, (tooth & teeth) are different words, pronounced and spelt differently they differ in meaning and they occur in different positions in

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sentences ,so that we could not ,for example, replace tooth by teeth :-

#### This tooth is loose.

#### These teeth are loose.

They are also traditionally said to be different forms of the same word .Specifically, it can be observed that (tooth) is singular and (teeth) is plural so the difference between these two words is an inflectional property. Therefore these properties are relevant to both the morphological and syntactic components of the grammar

#### 2.3 Definition of sentence:-

What exactly is a sentence?

Longknife and sullivan (2002:1) mention that (a sentence is means of communication . A sentence expresses a complete thought and contains at least one subject -verb combination .It may express emotions , give orders make statements , or ask questions In every case , sentences are used to communicate .

Sometimes , a sentence may be a single word :

What? Nonsense! Jump.

" What " and " nonsense !" communicate a complete thought.

"Jump" however , has an unspoken " you " as the subject .

Most sentences however have two parts: a subject which is a noun or pronoun, and a verb. These two parts follow a basic pattern:

Subject + Verb

(1) Let us break up some very simple sentences into their two parts using vertical lines to separate the different parts.

#### Fish swim

#### Koalas eat.

John(1982: 31-32) illustrates that all languages are spoken or written in sentences .The sentences are the mould into which all our thinking is run .Hence when we come to write , we are compelled to write in sentences .

General rules: Since our purpose in writing is to be easily and quickly understood, it is plain that there must be a few general rules to guide our practice. These rules are (i)The sentence should not to be overcrowded either with words or with ideas; (ii) The right words must be used; (iii) Let the sentence have a pleasant rhythm.

- (i) Another common rule very usually given is: 'The sentence must have unity.' This means that we should speak or write of only one person or thing in the sentence; that we should not wander off to other subjects; and that the principal clause in the sentence should dominate and keep in their proper places all the subordinate clauses.
- (ii) It is often necessary to ask the opinion of a friend as to whether this or that sentence is overcrowded . The writer already knows the meaning; to him it is all plain, and immediately plain; but the reader or hearer does not know what is coming, and has 'to take it in.' The hearer will be able to tell us, after he has heard our sentences, whether we have given to each the feeling of unity.

Crystal(2000: 277) maintains that, the sentence is the largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized. Innumerable definitions of the sentence exists, ranging from the vague characterizations of traditional grammar

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( such as the expressions of a complete thought ,) to the detailed structural descriptions of contemporary Linguistic analysis . Most linguistic definitions of the sentence show the influence of the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield , who pointed to the structural autonomy or Independence of the notion of sentence : it is not Included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form.

Recent research has attempted to discover larger grammatical units ( of discourse ,or text )but so far little has been uncovered comparable to the sentence . Whose constituent structure is stateable in formal , distributional terms .

Linguistic discussion of the sentence has focused on problems of identification ,classification and generation. Identifying sentences is relatively straightforward in the written language , but is often problematic in speech ,where intonation and pause may give uncertain clues to whether a sentence boundary exists . Classification of sentence structure proceeds along many different lines .In generative grammar likewise , there are several models of analysis for sentence structure with competing views as to the direction in which a

sentence Derivation should proceed .Certain analytic problems are shared by all approaches, eg how to handle ELLIPTICAL sentences (or' sentence fragments').

Fries (2001 9-15) comments that there are more than two hundred different definitions of the sentence confront the worker who undertakes to deal with the structure of English utterances. The common school grammarians continue to repeat the familiar definition, (a sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought,) although this ancient definition (which antedates Priscian c.500 A.D) quite evidently does not furnish a

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workable set of criteria by which to recognize sentences .

In actual practice we often ignore the definition with it's "complete thought" as a criterion. If for example, a reader attempts to count the number of sentences that occur on this or any other page of print, he usually does not stop to decide whether each group counted expresses "a complete thought".

In fact he may not read a single word of the material nor even attempt to discover what the discourse about . Another practical definition used to count the number of sentences in any written material would thus be phrased as follows :

A sentence is a word or a group of words standing between an initial capital letter and a mark of end punctuation or between two marks of end of punctuation .

Fries asserts that (( a sentence is an utterance which makes just as long a communication as the speaker has intended to make before giving himself a rest )) . (Ibid)

#### 2.4: Components of sentence:-

(phrases and clauses ) :-

#### 2.4.1 Phrases :-

Radford (2010: 39-49) explains that to put our discussion on a concrete footing , let's consider how an elementary two-word phrases such as the italicized response produced by speaker B in the following mini-dialogue is formed :

(1) Speaker A: What are you trying to do?

Speaker B: Help you

As speaker B's utterance illustrates, the simplest way of forming a phrase is by merging (a technical term meaning 'combining') two words together :for example by merging the word help with the word

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you in (1), we form the phrase help you. The resulting phrase help you seems to have verb-like rather than pronoun –like properties, as we see from the fact that it can occupy the same range of

positions as the simple verb help, and hence e.g. occur after the infinitive particle to.

- (2) (a) We are trying to help.
  - (b) We are trying to help you.

By contrast, the phrase help you cannot occupy the same kind of position as a pronoun such as you, as we see from (3) below:

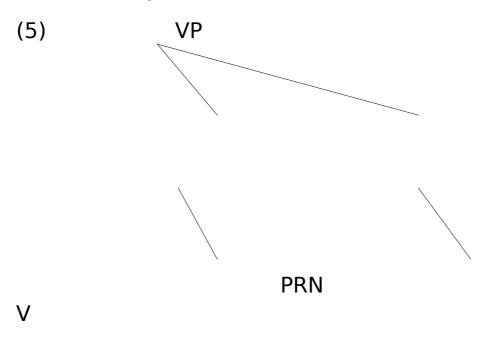
- (3) (a) You are very difficult
  - (b) \* Help you are very difficult

So it seems clear that the grammatical properties of a phrase like help you are determined by the verb help, and not by the pronoun you. Much the same can be said about the semantic properties of expression, since the phrase help you describes an act of help, not a kind of person. Using the appropriate technical terminology, we can say that the verb help is the head of the phrase help you, and hence that help you is a Verb Phrase: and in the same way as we abbreviate category labels

like **verb** to **V** , so too we can abbreviate the category label **Verb Phrase** to **VP** , If we use traditional labeled bracketing technique to represent the category of the overall verb phrase help you and of its constituent words ( the verb help and the pronoun you) we can represent the structure of the resulting phrase as in (4) below :-

(4){VP{V help}{PRN you } }

An alternative (equivalent ) way of representing the structure of phrases like help you is via labeled tree diagram such as( 5)below (Which is a bit like family tree diagram – albeit a small family):



You

Help

What the tree diagram in (5) tell us is the that the overall phrase help you is a Verb Phrase (VP), and that its two constituents are the verb (V) help and the (PRN) you. The verb help is the **head** of overall phrase ( and so is the key word which determines the grammatical and semantic properties of the phrase help you ).

Introducing another technical term at this point, we can say that ,conversely , the VP help you is a **projection** of the verb help , in the sense that the verb help is projected into a larger structure by

merging it with another constituent of an appropriate kind in this case , the constituent which is merged with the verb help is the pronoun you , which has the grammatical function of being the ( direct object ) **complement** of the verb help . The head of the projection /phrase determines grammatical properties of its complement : in this instance, since help is a **transitive** verb , it requires a complement with accusative case (e.g. a pronoun like me/us/him/them), and this requirement is satisfied here since you can function as an accusative form .The tree diagram in (5) is entirely equivalent to the labeled bracketing .

In (4) in the sense that the two provide us with precisely the same information about the structure of the phrase help you .

The differences between a labeled bracketing like (4) and a tree diagram like (5) are purely national :each category is represented by a single labeled **node** in a tree diagram .

Since our goal is developing a theory of Universal grammar is to un cover general structural principles governing the formation of phrases and sentences.

Let us generalize our discussion of (5) this point hypothesize that all phrases are formed in essentially the same way as the phrase in (5), namely by a **binary** (i.e. pair wise) merger operation which combines two constituents

together to form a larger constituent. In the case of (5), the resulting phrase help you is formed by merging two words. However, not all phrases contain only two words –as we see if we look at the structure of the italicized phrase produced by speaker B in (6) below:

Speaker A: What was your intention?

Speaker B: To help you

The phrase in (6b) is formed by merging the infinitive particle to with the verb phrase help you . What is the head of the resulting phrase to help you ? A responsible guess would be that the head is the infinitival tense particle /T to, so that the resulting expression to help you is an infinitival TP .

#### 2.4.2 Clauses :-

Having considered how phrases are formed, let's now turn to look at how clauses and sentences are formed. By way of illustration, suppose that speaker B had used the simple

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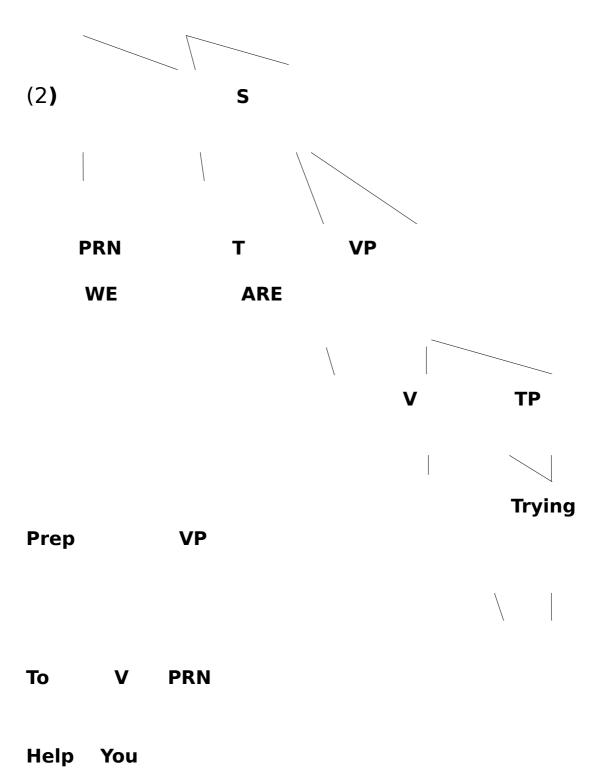
(single-clause) sentence italicized in (1) below to reply to speaker A rather than the phrase used by the speaker B (1).

Speaker A: What are you doing?

Speaker B: "We are trying to help you"

What is the structure of the italicized clause produced by speaker B in (1), clause were

generally taken to belong to the category S (Sentence / Clause) , and the sentence produced by B in (1) would have been taken to have structure along the following lines :



However a structure as (2) violates the two constituent structure principles which we posited in (2) above . More particularly , the S analysis of clauses in (2) violates **Headedness Principle** in that the S We are trying to help you is

A structure which has no head of any kind .

Leech and Slortvick (1987:211-212) assert that clauses are the principal structure of which sentences are composed. A sentence may consist of one or more than one clause, there are three

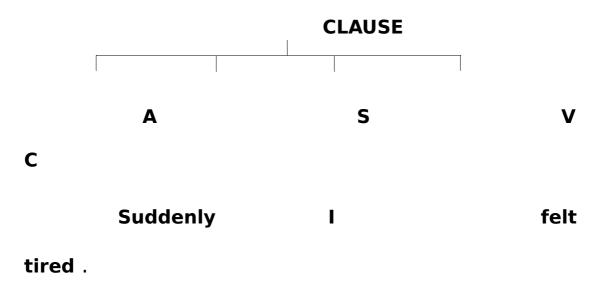
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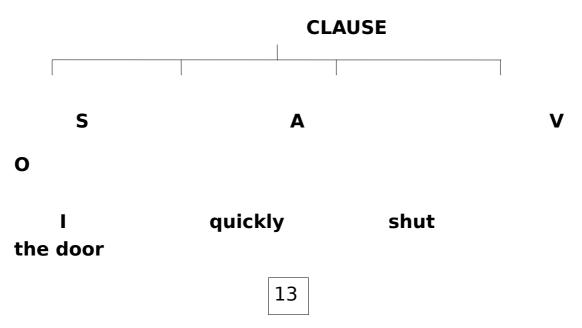
important ways in which clauses maybe described and classified :-

- (a) In terms of the Clause Elements (subject, verb, etc) from which they are constructed, and the verb patterns which are formed from these elements.
- (b) In terms of the amount of use which a clause makes of verb phrase structure on this ground , we distinguish between FINITE CLAUSE , NON FINITE-CLAUSES .
- (C) In terms of clause function, ie the function a clause performs in a sentence; eg whether it is ANOMINAL CLAUSE (acting as a noun phrase), an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE (acting as adverbial element) we shall deal with each of these in turn.

#### 2.5 Clause Elements:-

A clause can be analyzed into five different types of clause elements : subject ,verb (or rather verb phrase ) complement ,object and adverbial .For example :-





We may broadly distinguish the 'main' elements of clause structure (subject ,verb , complement ,object ) and the modifying elements (adverbials) . Adverbials differ from the other types of clause elements in at least three respects :

(1) Adverbials are usually OPTIONAL, ie they may be omitted without making the clause unacceptable (optional elements are placed in brackets):

Suddenly I felt tired.

I quickly shut the

door.

But not \* I felt.

\* I shut.

(2) Adverbials are not RESTRICTED IN NUMBER .Where as a clause can only have one subject , one finite verb , one complement , and one or two objects , there may be in theory at least ,any number of adverbials ( but there are rarely more than three or four adverbials in one clause ). (compare , however ,coordinate clause elements) .

SV: The children played.

SV(A) The children played (by the lake ).

SV (A) (A) The children played (all day) (by the lake).

- (A)SV(A)(A): Sometimes the children played (all day) (by the lake).
- (3) Adverbials are often MOBILE, ie they can occur at different places in the clause:

S(A)V(A): The children (sometimes) played (by the

14

lake).

SV(A)(A): The children played (by the lake) (sometimes).

### 2.6 Adverbial clause:-

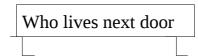
Etherton and Thornley (1974:17) point out that this type of clause usually starts with so that ,in order that , in case or for fear (that) and tell us the purpose or motive which governs the action of the verb . It tell us that something is done deliberately , and it suggests looking forward to some other action .

- (a) He shut the door so that the snake could not escape.
- (b) He came here in order that he might talk to you .
- (c) I came early in case you wanted to go out.
- (d) He did not go near the snake for fear that it might be poisonous .

In phrase of purpose, in order to or a plain infinitive are very common. Notice that there is no finite verb.

- (e) He shut the door to stop the snake from escaping.
- (f) He came here in order to see you .

Relative clauses (1) – clauses with who/that/which a) Study this example :



The man is very friendly.

relative clause

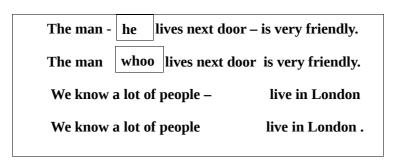
Murphy (1993:176-178) regards that , a clause is a part of a sentence .A relative clause tells us which person or things ( or what kind of person or thing) the speaker means:

-The man who lives next door ..(who lives next door tells us which man )

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- people who live in London .. (who live in London tells us what kind of people )

We use who in a relative clause when we are talking about people . We use who instead of he/she/they.



thevo

An architect is someone who design buildings.

- What was the name of the man who lent you the money?
- The girl who was injured in the accident is now in hospital
- Anyone who wants to do the examination must enter before next Friday .

It is also possible to use that instead of who:

- The man lives next door is very friendly. But sometimes you must use who for people – see unit 91.
- b) when we are talking about things, we use that (not who) in a relative clause .we use that instead of it/they.



thato

- I don" like stories that have unhappy endings.
- Gerry works for a company that makes typewriters.
- Everything that happened was my fault.

- The window that was broken has now been repaired.

You can also use which for things (but not for people):

- Where are the eggs which were in the fridge? That is more usual than which in the sentences in this unit . But sometimes you must use which.
- c) remember that we use who/that/which instead of he 16 /she/they/it:
- do you know the man who lives next door? ) not'... who he lives...')

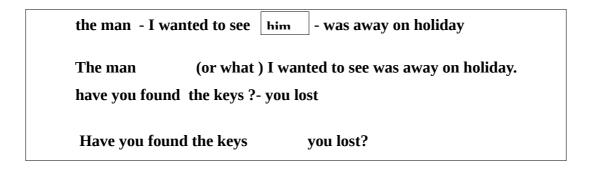
Now study the next unit for more information about relative clause .

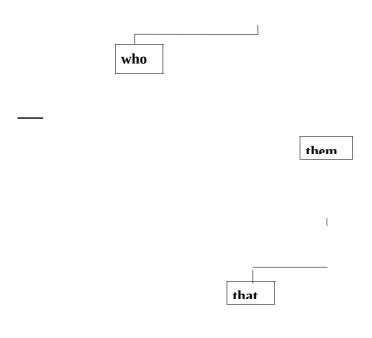
## 2.7 Relative clause (2) clauses with or without Who /that :-

- a) look again at these examples from unit:
- The man who lives next door is very friendly . ( or 'that lives' )
- where are the eggs that were in the fridge?(or 'which were')

In these sentences who and that are subjects of the verbs in the relative clauses: the man lives next door, the egg were in the fridge. you can not leave out who or that in these sentences.

Sometimes who and that are objects of the verbs :





When who or that are objects of the verb in the relative clause ,you can leave them out :

- The man I wanted to see was away on holiday.
   (but not 'The man I wanted to see him was away on holiday.')
- Have you found the keys you lost ? (but not 'Have you found the keys you lost them ')
- The dress Ann bought doesn't fit her very well. (=the dress that Ann bought)

The girl Gerry is going to marry is American .(= the girl who/that Gerry is going to marry)

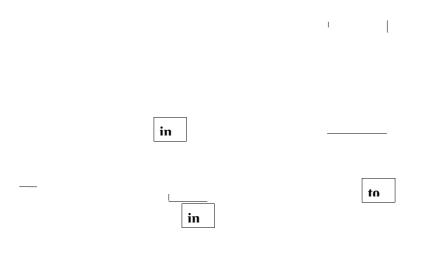
- Is there anything I can do? (= is there anything that I can do?)
- b) There are often prepositions (in/at/with etc.) in relative clauses .Study the position of the preposition in these sentences :

do you know the girl? – Tom is talking her

Do you know the girl (who/that) Tom is talking ?

the bed - I slept it last night wasn't very comfortable.

The bed (that) I slept last night wasn't very comfortable.



- The man (who/what/whom ) I sat next to on the plane talked all the time.
- Are these the books (that) you have been looking for?
- The girl (who/what ) he fell in love with left him after a few weeks.

- c) You cannot use what instead of that:
- Everything (that) he said was true .(not 'everything what he said ')
- I gave her all the money (that) I had .(not' all ... what I had')

What = the thing(s) that:

- -Did you hear what I said ?(=the words that I said)
- I won't tell anyone what happened. (= the thing that happened).

## 2.8 Relative clauses with like and dislike :-

Ur (1988:268) shows that we can use relative clauses to define nouns: composing sentences based on set pattern; writing an oral interaction.

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Procedure : Give the class the Introductory cues
I like people who
I dislike people who

And ask everyone to complete the sentence in writing according to their own opinions and preferences. Then ask them to tell you what they have written, and write up the results on the board: you then have a profile of the class's favourite - and un favourite -people!

Variations: Give the students similar beginnings, but with different nouns, using a variety of type of relatives: days when ......,'lessons in which .....,'films which .....,'teachers who .....,' places where .....,'

Instead of pooling the students 'sentence in the full class they can do the same in groups : or each student can go round trying to find someone else with the same likes and dislikes as him or herself.

## 2.9 Adjective clauses with subject relative pronouns:-

Fuchs and Bonner(2000:193-195) confirm that the adjective clause can work also with subject relative pronouns like the following examples in the following table:-

**EXAMPLES:-**

1.Use adjective clauses (also called relative clauses) to identify or give additional information about nouns (people ,places ,or things)

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Adjective clauses can also identify or describe <u>indefinite</u> <u>pronouns</u> such as <u>someone</u>, <u>somebody</u>, <u>something</u>,

- I know the woman who lives across the street. (The clause who lives across the street identifies the women we are talking about .)
- Boston ,which is my hometown ,is still my favorite city. ( The clause which is my hometown gives additional information about Boston.)
- I'd like to meet some one who speaks Spanish .

another ,and other(s).	
In most cases the adjective clause <u>directly follows the noun</u> (or pronoun)it is identifying or describing	
2. Sentences with adjective clauses Can be seen as a combination of two sentences.	shop=
3. Adjective clauses are introduced by relative pronouns .Relative pronouns that can be the subject of the clause are who, that ,which, and whose. a. Use who or that to refer to people .	<ul> <li>I have a friend who lives in Mexico         OR</li> <li>I have a friend that lives in Maxico</li> </ul>
b. Use which or that to refer to places or things.  Usage NOTE: That is less formal than who and which.	<ul> <li>New York is a city which attracts a lot of tourists .         OR</li> <li>New York is a city that attracts a lot of tourists .</li> </ul>
C. Use <i>whose</i> to refer to	<ul> <li>He's the man whose dog</li> </ul>

## people's possession

BE CAREFUL! Do not use a subject pronoun (I,you, he,

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 Scott is someone who never forgets a friend's birthday.

barks at night.

she ,it we, they) and a subject relative pronoun in the same adjective clause.

Not Scott is someone who he never forgets friend's а birthday.

- same form whether they refer to singular or plural nouns or masculine or feminine to nouns.
- 4. Relative pronouns have the \* That's the man who lives next door.
  - \* That's the woman who lives next door.
  - \* Those are the people who live next door
- 5. The verb in the adjective singular if the clause is subject relative pronoun refers to a singular noun .It is plural if it refers to a plural noun.
- Ben is my friend who lives in Boston.
- · Al and Ed are my friends who live in Boston.
- BE CAREFUL! When whose + noun is the subject of an Not Maria is a person whose adjective clause ,the verb agrees with the subject of the adjective clause.
- Maria is a person whose friends are important to her.

friends is important to her.

- 6. There are two kinds of adjective clauses, identifying and non identifying.
- a. Use an identifying adjective clause
- I have a lot of friends .My friend who lives

(also called a restrictive or defining clause) to identify which member of a group the sentence talks about.

b. Use a non identifying adjective clause (also called a nonrestrictive or non defining

clause) to give additional information about the noun it refers to. The information is not necessary to identify the noun.

Notice that commas are used to separate a none identifying clause from the rest of the sentence.

BE CARFUL! Do not use that to introduce none identifying adjective clauses .Use who for people and which for places and things .

7. In writing ,a none identifying adjective clause is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

In speaking , a none

- Chicago visits me once a year. ( The adjective clause is necessary to identify which friend is meant)
- I have a lot of friends .My best friend ,who lives in Chicago ,visits me once a year.
- The friend has already been dentified as the speaker's best friend. The adjective clause gives additional information ,but it isn't needed to identify the friend.
  - Marielle ,who introduced us at the party ,called me last night.

Not Marielle that introduced us at the party ,called me last night.

 Miami ,which reminds me home ,is my favorite vacation spot.

Not Miami, that remind me of home, is my favorite vacation

None identifying adjective clause

### spot

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- My sister ,who lives in Seattle ,came to visit me this year.
- My sister (pause)who lives in Seattle

identifying adjective clause is separated from the rest of the sentence by brief pauses. (pause)came to visit me this year.

(I have only one sister .She

None identifying adjective clause

Without commas or pauses the same sentence has a very different meaning

lives in Seattle.)

 My sister who lives in Seattle came to visit me this year.

(I have several sisters ,This one lives in Seattle.)

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## 2.10 Adjective clauses: function:-

Chaplen (1983:44-45) explains that nouns and pronouns can be modified by adjective clauses .

For example :-

(a) The rains that fell in spring evaporated quickly.

Note that the clause that fell in spring has the same function as the adjective spring in the following sentence:

(b) The spring rains evaporated quickly.

Note ,too ,that an adjectival clause usually follows the noun or pronoun that it modifies .

## 2.11 Relative pronouns and clauses:

Thomson and Martinet (1987:81-83) say that , here are three kinds of relative clauses : defining ,none defining and connective.

## 2.12 Defining relative clauses :-

These describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to have a clear understanding of the noun. In the sentence:

The man who told me this refused to give me his name

Who told me this is the relative clause .If we omit this ,it is not clear what man we are talking about . Notice that there is no comma between a noun and a defining relative clause.

Defining relative clauses usually follow the + noun but they can also be used with a/an + noun, plural nouns without the ,and the pronouns all ,none, anybody ,somebody ,etc. and those clauses following a/an + n0un ,plural nouns without the

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and somebody, someone, something, sometimes define their noun/pronoun only indirectly. The noun/pronoun in these cases is usually the object of a verb or preposition:

I met someone who said he knew you.
The book is about a girl who falls in love with......
Sometimes these clauses are separated from their noun/pronoun by a word or phrase:

There's a man here who wants.

I saw something in the paper which would interest you.

But normally relative clauses should be placed directly after their noun or pronoun:

The noise that he made woke everybody up.

She was annoyed by something that I had said. Relative pronouns used in defining relative clauses The form s areas follows:

	subject	Object	Possessive
For persons	who	Whom/who	Whose
	that	That	
For things	which	Which	Whose/of
			which
	that	That	

## 2.13 Defining relative clauses : persons

(A) Subject : who or that

Who is normally used:

The man who robbed you has been arrested.

The girls who serve in the shop are the owner's daughters.

Only those who had booked in advance were allowed in.

Would anyone who saw the accident get in touch with the police.

But that is a possible alternative after all ,everyone ,everybody, one , nobody and those.

Everyone who/that knew him liked him

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Nobody who /that watched the match will ever forget it .

(B) Object of a verb: whom or who or that :-

The object from is whom ,but this is considered very formal . In English we normally use who or that ( that being more usual than who) ,and it is still more common to omit the object pronoun altogether .

The man whom I saw told me to come back today or

The man who I saw ..... or The man that I saw ... or The man

I saw .....(relative pronoun omitted).

The girls whom he employed are always complaining about their

The girls who he employs..... or The girls that he employs ....

The girls he employs.....

### (C) With a preposition: whom or that

In formal English the preposition is placed before the relative pronoun which must then be put into the form whom:

#### The man to whom I spoke

In informal speech ,however, it is more usual to move the proposition to the end of the clause .

Whom then is often replaced by that but still more common to omit the relative altogether .

The man who /whom I spoke to or The man that I spoke to or the man I spoke to Similarly:

The man from whom I bought it told me to oil it or

The man who/that I bought it from ...... Or The man I bought it from......

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The friend with whom I was travelling spoke French or

The friend who/that I was travelling with .....or

The friend I was travelling with....

#### (D) Possessive

Whose is the only possible form:

The people whose rent have been raised can appeal

The film is about a spy whose wife betrays him

# 2.14 Defining relative clauses: things 2.14.1 Subject:

Either which or that .Which is the more formal:

This is the picture which/that caused such a sensation.

The stairs which/that lead to the cellar are rather slippery

(see also B below)

Object of a verb

Which or that, or no relative at all:

The car which /that I hired broke down or the car I hired .... Which is hardly ever used after all , everything ,little much ,none ,no and compounds of no, or after superlative .Instead we used that ,or omit the relative altogether, if it is the object of a verb:

All the apples that fall are eaten by the pigs

This is the best hotel (that) I know.

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## 2.15 Object of a preposition:-

The formal construction is preposition + which ,but it is more usual to move the preposition to the end of the clause ,using which or that or omitting the relative altogether:

The ladder on which I was standing began to slip or

The ladder on which/that I was standing began to slip or

The ladder I was standing on began to slip

#### **2.15.1 Possessive :-**

Whose + clause is possible but with + a phrase is more usual:

A house whose walls were made of glass a house with glass walls

#### 2.15.2 Relative adverbs: when, where, why

Note that when can replace in/on which (used of time)

The year when (=in which) he was born

The day when (=on which) they arrived.

Where can replace in/at which (used of place)

The hotel where (= in /at which) they were staying

Why can replace for which : the reason why he refused ....

When ,where and why used in this way are called relative adverbs.

Sentences with : it +be +noun /pronoun=defining relative clause

It was Tom who helped us .( not Bill OR Jack)

It was Ann that I saw .( not Mary)

When the object is a proper noun ,as above ,that is more usual than who .With all other objects ,that is the correct form :

It's the manager that we want to see
It was wine that we ordered .( not beer)
That is usual for non- personal subjects:
It 's speed that causes accidents ,not bad

roads

## 2.16 Clause type:-

Clause type and illocutionary:-

Huddleston (1988 obcit: 350-354) illustrates that, the major terms in the system of clause type were introduced below:-

(1)

- (I) you made a good job of it. Declarative
- (ii) Did you make a good job of it? Interrogative
- (iii) What a good job you make of it! Exclamative
- (iv) Make a good job of it Imperative

The system is usually discussed under the heading sentence type rather than clause type, I have preferred the later in order to make the terminology consistent with the way I am differentiating between sentence and clause for it is clear that the system applies in the first instance to what I am calling clauses. Thus a sentence may consist of a sequence of clauses as in (2)

(2) Come with us by all means but you may find it hard work .

It is separated clauses that are classified for type: come with us by all means is imperative and but you may find it hard work declarative – the sentence as a whole cannot be assigned to any of the four types .Moreover, the system applies to certain kinds of subordinate clause as can be seen in (3) , where the un bracketed parts – which clearly , are not themselves sentences – are classified as shown:

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(3)

- (i) { They did not tell me } that you made a good job of it . (Declarative ) .
- (ii) {They did not tell me } whether you make a good job of it . (Interrogative).
- (iii) { They did not tell me } what a good gob you made of it .( Exclamative )

#### 2.17 Classification of sentences:

#### 2.17.1 Declarative sentence and word order:-

Swick (2009: 1+2+12+13+32) comments that a declarative sentence in English consists of a subject and predicate. The verb in the predicate is conjugated appropriately for the subject and in specific tense:

Subject + predicate

Mary + speaks English.

Lets look at some examples that can illustrate this point. Declarative sentences can have singular or plural nouns as their subjects and can be followed by a verb in any tense and by the complement of the sentence.

Gohn repairs the car.

The boys ran into the forest.

Other declarative sentences use a pronoun as their subject , and again the tense of the sentence can vary .

- 1. She has never been to England . (Singular pronoun subject, present perfect tense verb).
- 2. We shall visit him soon . ( plural pronoun subject , future –tense verb ) .

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Since English verbs can show an incomplete action or one in progress ( he is going ) or a completed or habitual action ( he goes ) , when changing tenses you have to conform to the type of action of the verb .For example :-

He is going , he was going ,he has been going He goes , he went ,he has gone

The conjugation of English verbs is , with few exceptions , a relatively simple matter , but using the proper tense of verbs is something else . It is particularly important to understand the tense differences between verbs

that describe an action in progress and verbs that describe a complete or habitual action .

#### 2.18 Interrogative sentences :-

There are two types of interrogatives, and both types ask questions. The first type can be called a yes-no question, because the a answer to such a question will begin with the affirmative word yes or the negative word no. Most questions of this type begin with a form of the auxiliary verb do.

Auxiliary + Subject + verb + predicate + ?

Do + you + have + the books + ?

## 2.18.1 Yes -No questions :-

If the verb in a yes -no question is the verb to be or the verb to have, the is formed simply by placing the verb before the subject of the sentence.

To be / to have + subject + predicate +?

Is + she + the new student +?

This occur in 30 any tense . In the case of the perfect tenses or the future tenses , it is the auxiliary of the verbs to be and to have that precede the subject . For example :-

1. Is she aware of the problem? (Present)

- 2. Was there enough time to finish the exam? (Past).
- 3. Have you been here before? ( Present perfect ).
- 4. Will you come back a gain? (Future).

#### 2.18.2 Auxiliaries :-

This kind of question structure, In which the verb precedes the subject, also occurs with numerous auxiliaries, such as the following:-

Be able to ought to

Can shall/ will

Could should

Have would

Must

Auxiliary + subject + verb form + predicate + ?

Should + we + help + them +?

let's look at some example sentence:-

Are you able to make out her signature?

Have you worked here for very long? Ought she to have said that to her mother?

Notice in each example that the sentence contains a second verb.

The initial verb is an auxiliary , and it is followed by an infinitive ( such as to work ) or by an elliptical infinitive , which omits the particle word ( to ) ; for example :-

Are you able to make , will try . With most auxiliaries , it

is the tense of the auxiliary that determines the " time " of the action ; for example : present ( can he speak ) and past ( could he speak) with the auxiliary have , however , it is tense conjugation

combined with a past participle (and not an infinitive) identifies the tense as either present perfect, past perfect, or future perfect:

Present perfect

has he

spoken

Past perfect spoken

had he

Future perfect spoken

will he have

The auxiliaries shall and will identify the future tense and are followed by elliptical infinitives:-

Shall I get you something for dinner?

Will you be staying the night?

In declarative sentences, most English speakers use will, although technically, shall should be used with singular and plural pronouns in the first person, and will should be used with the second and third persons. In questions, the rule is applied more strictly: (shall).

With first person singular and plural, and will with second and third persons singular and plural.

Singular

Plural

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First Shall I turn on the TV? go to the

Shall we

mov

ie tonight?

Second Tom , will you help me Boys will you please stop

this arguing?

Third Will she like this dress? Will they be able to spend some time with us?

It is important to be knowledgeable about the other auxiliaries and how they function in the various tenses. Let's focus on two that can be conjugated like other verbs and form questions by placing the conjugated verb or its auxiliaries before the subject:

Present Is she able to

stand alone?

Past Was she able to

stand alone ?

Present perfect Has she been able to

stand alone ?

Future Will she be able to

stand alone?

Compare to be able to and have with the following auxiliaries and what occurs with them in the various tenses:

- Can changes to to be able to :-

Present Can Victor understand

the problem?

Past Could Victor understand

the problem?

Present perfect Has Victor done the

problem?

## 2.19: Types of sentences :-

#### 2.19.1 Sentence structure :-

Maclin (2000:301-304) demonstrates that sentence structure can be simple ,compound ,complex, or compound complex according to the kinds of clause in the sentence .

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A simple sentence has one independent or main clause (one subject -main verb combination ).

We were sorry.

The car stopped.

A simple sentence can be expanded into a very long sentence, but adding modifiers does not change its basic structure.

e.g. :-

Feeling the disappointment of our friends at our early departure ,we were sorry to leave before meeting all the guests .

In the sentence above ,feeling to leave ,and meeting are verbal's not finite or main verbs . Although the sentence is long it still has the structure of simple sentence : one subject and one main verb or verb phrase .A simple sentence can have a compound subject (two or more subjects joined by a coordinating conjunction )

Frances and Chris were sorry.

Frances, Chris , and Joe were sorry .

A simple sentence can have a compound verb (two or more subjects joined by coordinating conjunction ).

Frances ate peanuts and drank coffee .

A simple sentence can have a compound subject and compound verb .

Frances and Chris ate peanuts and drank coffee

(Both parts of the subject performed the action in both parts of the verb )

The verb in one clause (a simple sentence) can be a verb phrase (more than one word). Verb phrases from most English tenses

Present tense: Frances eats peanuts often.

Verb phrase

Future tense: Frances will eat peanuts tomorrow.

Present perfect tense: Verb phrase

Frances has been eating

peanuts today.

## 2.19.2 Simple sentence :-

Murcia and Freeman (1983:280-283) state that they have decided to treat together sentences with none referential it and there subjects .One reason for this decision is that both of these none referential words function syntactically as a subject in English i.e. their behavior in Yes –No questions and tag questions Indicates that they undergo subject /auxiliary inversion .

It's a nice day . Is it a nice day ?

It's a nice day, is not it?

There is a book on the table . Is there a book on the table?

There is a book on the table, is it not there?

Although the it and there subjects in these sentences express no referential meaning we know that in other contexts ,these same words can indeed have a referential function :

where is the book? It is on the table .(it refers to the book)

Let's go out to the garden .It is cooler there (there refers to in the garden).

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Here we are interested in none referential uses of it and there when they occur in subject position in simple sentences .

Murcia and Freeman have suggested several reasons for the existence of such none referential subjects in English .

In the case of none referential it , one reason is that every none elliptical English sentence other than an imperative requires a surface subject .Languages like Spanish and Italian do not have this requirement, with the result that speakers of such languages \_ when speaking English may produce un grammatical sentences such as the following :-

## \* Is raining \* Is 10 o'clock .

(Sometimes a sentence may be a single word). "What "? and "nonsense" communicate a complete thought h an un spoken "you" as the subject. Most sentences however, have two parts: The subject which is a noun or a pronoun and the verb, these two parts follow a basic pattern:

## Subject

#### Verb

According to Wikipedia , the free encyclopedia sentence is a sentence structure that contains one Independent clause and no dependent clause .

#### Examples:-

1. The runner jumped.

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject (runner) and one predicate (jumped).

2. The singer bowed

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This sentence has one Independent clause which contains one subject (singer) and one predicate (bowed).

3. The baby cried

This simple sentence has one independent clause which contains one subject (baby) and one predicate (cried).

4. The girl ran into her bed room .

This simple sentence has one Independent clause which contains one subject (girl) and one predicate (ran into her bed room). This example is distinct

from the previous three in that its verb Phrase consists of more than one word .

5. In the back yard , the dog barked and howled at the cat .

This simple sentence has one Independent clause which contains one subject ( do) and one predicate (barked and howled at the cat ).

This predicate has two verbs known as a compound predicate .This compound verb should not be confused with a compound sentence.

(In the back yard and at the cat ) are prepositional phrases Quirk et tal (1985:724-729) introduce that the subject of the clause elements other than the verb , the subject is the most important in that (expect for the verb ) it is the element that is most often present . It is also the element for which we can find the greatest number of characteristic features . In characterizing the subject and the other clause elements ,we identify the four type of distinction :-

(a) The form , the subject is normally a noun phrase .

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(b) The position , the subject normally occurs before the verb in declarative clauses ,and

after the operator in yes-no interrogative clauses.

- (c) The syntactic function, in finite clauses the subject determines the number and persons.
- (d) In the semantic properties the subject is typically the theme (or topic) of the clause .

### 2.19.3 Compound sentence:-

What is compound sentence ?

Zandvourt (1965:212-214) observes that, a compound sentence has at least two main or independent clauses ,connected by coordinating conjunctions (( and , but , or not , for , so , yet )) . Each clause has its own subject and verb . This second clause should be separated from the first by comma in front of the coordinating conjunction .

## **Example:**

The man went to the store , and the sales clerk sold him some milk. The easiest way to expand this basic pattern is to join two simple sentences to make a compound sentence.

Compound sentence; semicolon, no conjunctions ((two short ,related sentences now joined)).

S + v ; S + V .

#### **Explanation:**

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This pattern can help us to join two short simple sentences having two closely related ideas. They need a semicolon instead of a conjunction and a comma. The illustration in the box and the examples show only two clauses you can actually three or more be sure to a void two pit falls of the compound sentence:

1. The fused or run -on sentence ( which has no punctuation between the two sentences that have been joined ) . Example:-

My cat lost her ball I do not know where.

2. The comma splice ( using a comma instead of a period , semicolon or colon to separate the two sentences you have joined

Example:-

The plant wilted , I forget to water it . You avoid the above two problems if you faithfully copy the following patterns for compound sentences , being careful to Imitate

the punctuation exactly. ( The art of styling sentence ).

As regards the structure of the members of the compound sentence it is to be observed that a main clause may take any of the structural forms of a simple sentence.

It follows from the definition given that a sub-clause always contain a subject and a finite verb . Sub-clauses are mostly , though not always , introduced by a conjunction or another connecting word , such as a relative pronoun ,

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we may distinguish sub-clauses into Attributive clauses, Predictive clauses and adverbial clauses. It will be seen how ever that this classification is not exhaustive, and that we have to add object clause, subject clause and predicate clause.

Attributive clauses qualify nouns the noun qualified being called the Antecedent of the attributive clause. (The antecedent may also be a pronoun ).

Attributive clauses may be introduced not only by relative pronouns, but also by what are usually called relative adverbs, though in this function they are really conjunctions: when, where, why. This is the case when the antecedents expresses a corresponding meaning, time, place, reason.

I was out of town (on) the day when it happened.

I remember the house where I was born .

We never really understood the reason why he left us.

Though these clauses are best looked upon as attributive, seeing that they qualify a noun in the main clause, there is no doubt that they also contain an adverbial element, which is especially prominent.

When the clause is continuative: In the old days, when I was a boy there.

That is similarly used after an antecedent denoting time. In this case it has to be regarded as a conjunction rather than as a relative. Note that the antecedent stands to the clause in the relation of an adverbial adjunct.

He fell ill the night that we went to France .

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Clauses Introduced by as , after an antecedent qualified by the same or such show the same partly attributive ,partly adverbial character .

I want a cake of bath -soap ,not scented . The same as you always have .

We had such grapes as you never saw.

In literary English a noun in a negative sentence may be defined by a clause introduced by but .

Not a day went by but brought us news of yet another calamity.

When abut clause has a subject of its own , it is purely adverbial

Not a day went by but some new calamity happened.

As we explained before attributive clauses may under certain conditions be joined to their antecedents without a connecting word. This is also applies to the type defined before.

He fell ill the night we went to France, and to a case like, I do not like the way she smiles.

Note also cases like the following:-

He turned pale the moment he saw her .

It is a disgrace the way he drinks.

A shifting is to be observed here : from being a noun – antecedents , the moment and the way become conjunctions ( or conjunctional phrases ) introducing an adverbial clause .

## 2.19.4 Complex Sentence:-

What is complex sentence?

A complex sentence has one main or independent clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses. Example:-

When an atom is split, it releases neutrons.

Dependent clauses can function in the sentence as a nouns ,adjective or adverbs .

#### 2.20 Noun clauses :-

Function as noun in the sentence and can be used as a subject , object , predicate nominatives and objects of preposition .

#### **Example:**

- **1-** What is the most Important to him is his family . (Subject)
- 2- That critic writes that Alpurday is the best poet in Canada (Object)
- 3- You are what you eat ( predicate nominative )
- 4- She is very suspicious about what he said (object of the preposition about ).

## 2.20.1 Adjective Clauses :-

Start with a relative pronoun such as who , which or that and function as adjectives . The noun refers to a noun that usually precedes it directly .

#### **Example:**

1-The women who bought the red dress is my aunt **2-That dress**, **which is** 

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my favourite, was expensive.

3- The problem that he solved was a difficult one. Note: Use commas around the adjective clause to Indicate that the Information there is not essential to the sentence is not needed to Identify the subject (( The fast facts hand out Improving your punctuation )). Absence of commas , on the other hand , Indicates the Information is essential to the sentence.

#### **Example:**

1- The bull that is in the pasture belongs to Joe . ( suggest that of all the other bulls on the farm , the one in the pasture is being identified as belonging to Joe ).

#### Note:

The word that is used to introduce an essential clause (( without commas )), whereas which is used to Introduce a non essential clause ( with commas ). Some grammar text books suggest that which can be used for either essential or non essential clauses where as other recommended using which only for non essential clauses.

#### Note:

A pronoun (( such as which ,that )) must always refer specifically to one noun . The word which is often used incorrectly.

## 2.21 Paragraph development:

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Sheal:(1991 – 1-5) States that the most common methods of developing a paragraph involve the following: (often a combination of these methods is used) a. adding details to the opining or topic –sentence.

- b. showing in successive sentence more and more precisely what the opening sentence means . this may involve definition of an idea or terms.
- c. producing proof or evidence in support of what the opening sentence states .
- d. giving examples.
- e. showing various viewpoints in turn when the opining sentence indicates that various viewpoints are possible.
- f. answering a question that the opining sentence asks (a rhetorical question).

## 2.21.1 The logical order:-

At the beginning of this unit we noted the importance of he opening or topic – sentence of a paragraph .This sentence express the subject , theme or main idea of the paragraph. We looked at the different methods that can be used to develop a paragraph from its opening sentence.

## 2.21.2 Paragraph division:-

One of the common faults of student writing is the use of brief underdevelopment paragraph .We have seen in this unit how paragraphs can be developed .Another problem however is the combination or

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confusion of two or more paragraphs into one long one . One topic , or part of a topic , is mixed up

with another and this leads to a lack of clarity, a disorganized essay.

#### 2.22 Punctuation:

Longknife (1993 obcit: 146-151) points out that punctuations are very important signals for clarification of the meaning of the sentences .Examples of these signals are the following:

#### 2.22.1 Brackets:

- 1.To enclose additions, correction, or other changes made in original quoted material.
- "Henery's traffic ticket in London cost him fifteen pounds [\$30]," Molly had written in her diary.
- 2. To alert the reader to an error in quoted material . Use brackets around the Latin term *sic* ( meaning "so" or "thus" ) to indicate the error in the quoted passage ,such as an incorrect name , date or spelling.
- " Because Meryl was trying to loose weight ,she was too ill to go to the wedding," Jim wrote in his letter.

#### 2.22.2 Colon: to call attention to what follows

1.Before a list that follows a complete statement

Sara bought several items for her upcoming cruise: a bikini, a cocktail dress, and two pairs of metallic sandals.

2.Before an independent clause that restates , in different form , the idea of the preceding independent clause (in compound sentence)

A lizard never worries about losing its tail: it can

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always grow another.

## 2.22.3 Commas: to separate main sentence elements

1. Between independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions .

( For ,and ,nor ,but , or ,yet, so only for clarity)

- I. Escaped from the burning house but I lost many dear treasures from the past. (needs no comma)
- 2. Between elements of a series.

The produce counter had several varieties of lettuce, such as butter, romaine, red tip and iceberg. (The comma after the last item in the series before the conjunction – red tip is now considered optional in journalistic and business writing.) But –

He used sage, chicken stock, cornbread and bread crumbs, and onions in the turkey stuffing (with two "and" here, the reader may get confused, so you need the comma after the last item in the series before the conjunction – crumbs.)

#### 2.22.4 Commas: a pair to enclose

1. Any interrupting construction between subject and verb, verb and object or complement, or any other two elements not normally separated.

The weight of the prize -winning marlin, give or take a few ounces, was about 126 pounds.

#### 2. A short appositive

The largest California vintner , the Gallo

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Company , has begun producing a new boutique wine , a Cabernet.

#### 2.22.5 Dash: to separate sentence elements

1. Before a summary word to separate an introductory series of appositives from the independent clause.

Catwoman ,Superman, Frankenstein's monster- all of these characters wore unusual costumes.

2. Before an emphatic appositive at the end of a sentence

The kangaroo carries its own nest – its pouch.

## 2.22.6 Dash: a pair to enclose

#### 1. An internal series

The basic fencing moves - the advance , the retread, the lunge- demand careful balance by both fencers.

2. An abrupt change in thought or pronounced sentence interrupter .

There's great website – I can't remember the URLto help you solve that problem.

## 2.22.7 Exclamation point

- 1. After a phrase or sentence expressing intense emotion
- "So what!" Eric yelled contemptuously.
- 2. After a strong interjection .

I just won \$ 10,000!

#### 2.22.8 Question mark

1. At the end of a direct question.

Did you see that tattoo on Tommy's arm?

2. After each question in a series .

Where are the jewels? The crown? the rings? The tiaras?

#### 2.22.9 Quotation marks

1. Always after period and commas.

"I am not European," she said indignantly ."I am a U.S. citizen."

2. Always before colons and semicolons.

Read James Joyce's short story "Araby"; learn what it's like to be disappointed in love.

Semicolon : to separate important sentence elements

1. Between independent clauses in a compound sentence without a conjunction .

You'd better read this e-mail; I think you need to answer it now.

2. Between independent clauses in a compound sentence with a conjunction when there are commas in one or both clauses .

Sara has received an invitation to the Spanish ambassador's reception; she looks forward to dancing, but she will be disappointed if she can't try out the salsa ,flamenco ,or meringue.

#### 2.23 Motivation:

Jones (1984:10-12) explains that of all the reasons for using simulations in language teaching, motivation is one of the most important, and is probably the most interesting.

Motivation is inherent in a simulation .It is an integral part. It is not something that is added on by students; it is part of the structure of the simulation. Motive arises out of the function ,the duties ,the responsibilities and the circumstances in which the participants find themselves .It is self -generated and usually grows and develops as the interaction develops. lt feed itself upon and reinforcing strengthening behavior and language.

In this sense, motivation is not a matter of getting the students interested. It depends only on the participants accepting the reality of their functions. If they accept their function and conscientiously try to do their best, then motivation is inevitable.

The strength of the motivation depends on the simulation (is it a good ,well –designed simulation or a poor one ?) and its suitability for the particular students ,and on whether the teacher's briefing

has been adequate and satisfactory . This sort of motivation is quite different from that of students who perform a classroom task in order to complete the course ,pass the examination, please the teacher ,or even please themselves . Suppose , that in a committee simulation a participant jots down notes of those points on which he is in agreement or disagreement with other committee members . The motivation is not to please the teacher or himself ,or in order to learn language or communication skills . There is no question of the participant thinking ' Do I have to do this writing ?' The activity is voluntary and spontaneous . The motivation is empirical . The aim is entirely practical , relating to functional efficiency .

In this ,and a thousand other examples , the motive is inherent in the circumstance of the event , and it applies to all forms of behavior . The participant may be thinking ,writing ,speaking ,stating a case ,interviewing ,listening ,organizing ,debating ,and yet the motivation for these actions is the same: acceptance of the duties and the desire to function effectively.

Motivation from function and duty is an essential ingredient in a simulation .It would not , by definition , be a simulation if this motivation were absent. But it is not only type of motivation experienced by the participants. If the simulation is well designed ,fully participative ,stimulating and

provocative, then there is likely to be a large measure of emotional satisfaction, which can have a strong motivational effect. Some authors refer to it as 'fun', but this is not a good description. More appropriate words might be 'enjoyment' 'pleasure' or 'satisfaction'. It includes the emotional satisfaction of a job well done (or interesting done), the pleasure of power, the self –esteem of responsible decision making, and the delight of interactive excitement. Participants 'own' the simulation; and there is pride in ownership. This double motivation, from within the action and because of it, can result in experiences of high quality, which can be remembered very clearly weeks, months and even years after the event.

The functional nature of the motivation affects different people differently , depending on their personalities . The behavour of an extrovert an a simulation may be little different from his normal behavour .But the entroverts , the shy and the self -conscious students often find simulation are a form of behavioral therapy . Duty begets bravery ; responsibility results in action ,communication and language. After a simulation it is not uncommon for the teacher to say , or think 'I was amazed at the behavour of students A and B .They did really well. I never thought they could do that .' And this amazement is often not restricted to the teacher ;

it can surprise the students themselves, who had undervalued their own abilities, and can be a talking point after-wards in the coffee shops.

One of the main reasons why teachers of foreign languages find simulations so useful is that they destroy the teacher- student orientation , and kick the teacher out of the classroom .Inhibitions and fears tend to diminish and may vanish altogether because the participants are talking to each other ,not to the teacher. And their talk is not

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casual chat ,but related to duties .

The confidence gained through simulation is also based on practice .It is not the 'I' ve read it , so now I know it' type of confidence .It is the 'I' ve done it, so I can do it 'confidence. It is based on experience of success , not merely the expectation of success .

Shyness is not the only barrier which can be broken down through motivation and simulations. Random Allocation of functions and roles breaks up cliques, and brings together students who otherwise would say little to each other.

The motivation can overcome differences of race ,colour ,sex, creed and status . It shakes up the

pecking order in a class . Motivation in a simulation tends to equalize power and equalize opportunities , and can thus produce some surprising results.

From the point of view of Educational Psychology and leaning theory , the motivation arising from simulations provides a fruitful source of study .And creating from the viewpoint of the practicing language teacher, the motivation in a good simulation has considerable and diverse benefits .

## 2.24 Previous Studies:-

#### 2.24.1 Local studies:

1. Ammar Musa (Gezira University) in his thesis titled (Problems of writing English paragraphs) at secondary school levels: explain that the majority

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of the students have difficulties in writing well organized and developed English paragraphs.

His study recommended that teacher should put into the practice, the recommended techniques for teaching English paragraphs adequately.

2. Also Afraa Abedel Gadir (Gezira University) presents a study titled (Investigating EFL students' major problems in writing free composition) .The findings of the study have shown that the most problematic areas are the usage of prepositions .

The main recommendations of the study are the students need to enrich their vocabulary through both intensive and extensive reading besides teachers role in encouraging students to improve their writing skills.

3. Kamal Husseen (Gezira Univercity) presents a thesis titled ( Problems of teaching English composition in Salalah State in Oman with special focus on free composition writing) .One of the study aims is to solve the problems of writing correct English sentences. Because the students are very week in writing English sentences .The result is that they do not receive effective feedback on their compositions.

**2.24.2 Regional studies:** Ibrahim Abushihab and others in their thesis ( An analysis of written grammatical errors of Arab learners of English as a foreign language ) .

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They explain that this study was conducted in order to investigate and classify the grammatical errors in the writing skills . They discovered that there is a lot of grammatical errors in constructing English sentences . The problematic areas which

needed some treatment were respectively: morphological errors, articles, verbs, active and passive and tenses. On the basis of students results the researcher has included some pedagogical implications for teachers, syllabus designers, text book writers and text developers. So they recommended that teachers should be aware of the students errors and correct them immediately.

#### 2.24.3 International studies:

- 1. Erlenawati Sawir in his thesis titled (language difficulties of international students in Australia) at secondary school levels explain that many international students face difficulties in acquiring the writing skill. He recommended that English language should be taught in class rooms effectively by giving the students a lot of grammar lessons.
- 2. Susan Vincent in her thesis (Motivating the advanced learner to develop writing skill) explains advanced students of EFL often reach a plateau of Achievement and see little need for improvement .The teachers need to create a context for communication by finding out what is important to them , which then gives the students

the impetus and motivation for developing their writing skills in a meaningful way . She recommended that teachers should help students to produce fluent , accurate , and appropriate written English. So a successful writing course selects styles appropriate students needs and interest , and helps students correct their mistakes within the framework of the positive development of their writing skills.

## **Chapter Three**

## Methodology

#### 3.1 Introduction:

In this chapter the researcher describes the population ,sample the study and the tools need to collect the data which are a questionnaire and a test . He explains the tests of validity or reliability used to rationalize and validate the tools and also the statistical strategies used to analyze the data collected by the tools.

The researcher used (SPSS) (statistical package social science) to analyze the data.

#### 3.2 Method of research:-

In this chapter the researcher introduces the description of the study methodology, the researcher will describe the tools utilized for data collection which contains the population (subjects), the procedure and the statistical analysis which applied in this research.

He used (SPSS) which known as (statistical package social science) pogramme, to analyze this data.

To know the difficulties in building English sentence between Sudanese secondary school students the researcher followed some steps. So this chapter deals with procedure ,data collection form the population , the questionnaire and the test is very important tools for this process.

## 3.3 Population:-

#### Consist of :-

1- A group of thirty one teachers chosen from

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thirty one governmental schools in Gezra State -North Medani .

2- A group of twenty five students chosen from a governmental school in Gezira State ,North-Mdani

## 3.4 Sampling:-

In order to choose a sample for this study the target population is (31) teachers , this group is selected randomly.

The following table shows the study sample with regional to their sex ,qualifications and experience .

Table 3.1: The frequency and the percentage for the sample individual survey.

Gender	frequency	Percent
Male	21	67.74%
Female	10	32.26%
Total of sample	31	100.0%

Qualifications	frequency	percent
B.A. holders	17	54.84%
M.A. holders	14	45.16%

Total sample	31	100.0%
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Experience		frequency	percent
Less than	5	6	19.4%
years			
5-10 years		12	38.7%
More than	10	13	41.9%
years			
Total sample	e	31	100.0%

## 3.5 Discussion:-

The tables show the demographic distribution of the individuals of the study as questionnaire sample . It consists of 67.74% of male and 32.26% of female. As for qualifications, there is 54.85%

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B.A.holders and 45.16% M.A. holders . For experts it can be seen that the majority of the sample individuals 41.94% have experience of teaching which is more than 10 years.

#### 3.6 Tools:-

In this study, data is collected by a questionnaire beside a test. 31 secondary school English teachers at central State-North Medani answered the questionnaire.

## 3.7 The questionnaire design :-

The questionnaire was designed to collect information about the difficulties building English

sentence among Sudanese secondary schools students. The questionnaire consist of (20) statements , and it was designed on the scale of five lickers :

Agree - Strongly agree - Not sure - disagree - Strongly

(Appendix 1)

## 3.7.1 Validity:-

Five judges have given their opinion on the validity of the questionnaire questions . (Appendix 3)

#### 3.7.2 Reliability:-

The researcher has shown the characteristics of the sample individuals and their distribution .Therefore, the statistical divisions were as follows:

- (1) The frequencies and the percentage.
- (2) Degree of consistency and correlation.

#### 3.8 Test:-

The test consists of thirty questions .This test contains three parts each one is 10 questions .These questions are sentence completion ,answer the following questions and arrange these words correctly to compose sentences, is presented for 25 students .This test is designed to increase both the validity and the reliability of this research. (Appendix 2)

## 3.9 **Summary** :-

The researcher described the research tools which were used in this research, it included measuring instruments ,population , questionnaire , test , statistical analysis method and he distributed the subjects according to their genders ,pairs of experience and qualifications as it was shown above in the tables .

## Chapter Four Data analysis and discussion

#### **4.0** Introduction :-

This chapter contains statistical analysis of the data collected the questionnaire and the test, and the discussion of the results of the research.

# 4.1 Analysis of the collected by the questionnaire

**Figure 4.1.1**/ **Q 1:** The English syllabus at secondary schools focus only in reading skill.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 58.06% mentioned that, they were strongly agree, while 19.35% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 16.13% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 6.45 % was strongly disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the majority of teachers strongly agree that the English syllabus at secondary schools focus only in reading skill.

**Table 4.1**: Association between question (1) gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	2.170	3	0.538
education	5.113	3	0.164
experience	5.465	6	0.486

P - value > 0.05

There was no difference between:

- 1. Male /female in gender
- 2. Education level

As showed from the table above all variables were not associated with question one.

**Figure 4.1.2/Q2** The English syllabus at secondary school ignore the techniques of writing skills .

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 51.61% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 45.16% of them agree , finally a group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % was disagree. This clarified the fact that the majority of these samples was the sample of strongly agree which is 51.61% .

Therefore the English syllabus at secondary school ignore the techniques of writing skills

**Table 4.2** : Association 61 between question (2) and gender ,education and experience . **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	2.195	2	0.334
education	1.870	2	0.393
experience	6.355	4	0.174

P - value > 0.05

There was no difference between:

- 1. Male /female in gender
- 2. Education level

As shown from the table above all variables were not associated with question two.

**Figure 4.1.3/Q3** Most students at secondary school do not know parts of speech.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 32.26% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 51.61% of them agree , finally a group of teachers nearly about 16.13% was disagree. This clarified the fact that the majority of these samples was the sample of agree which was 51.61%. Therefore most students at secondary school do not know parts of speech.

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**Table 4.3:** Association between question (3) and gender ,education and experience . **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	2.856	2	0.240
education	0.313	2	0.855
experience	10.107	4	0.039

P - value > 0.05

The results above showed that there was a significant association between experience and question (3).

**Figure 4.4 /Q4** Most students of secondary schools have limited knowledge of vocabulary .

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 54.84% mentioned that, they were strongly agree, while 25.81% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 16.13% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % is strongly disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the majority of teachers strongly agree that the most students of secondary schools have limited knowledge of vocabulary.

**Table 4.4** :Association 63 between question (4) and gender ,education and experience . **(chi - square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	5.353	3	0.148
education	5.082	3	0.166
experience	4.524	6	0.606

P - value > 0.05

Also the results above showed that there was a significant association between experience and question (4).

**Figure 4.1.5/Q5** Writing exercise at secondary school are very rare

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 61.29% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 19.35% of them agree , finally a group of teachers nearly about 19.35% was disagree. This clarified the fact that the majority of these samples was the sample of strongly agree which is 61.29% . Hence writing exercise at secondary schools are very rare as statistically shown in the table .

**Table 4.5** :Association between question (5) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	64	df	p- value
gender	0.853		2	0.653
education	2.452		2	0.293
experience	2.305		4	0.644

P - value > 0.05

There were no association between gender ,education and experience in this table .

**Figure 4.1.6/Q6** Writing reports are not defined clearly in English syllabus at Sudan secondary schools.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 32.26% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 61.29% of them agree , finally a group of teachers nearly about 6.45 % was disagree.

This clarified the fact that the majority of these samples was the sample of agree which is 61.29%. This means writing reports were not defined clearly in English syllabus at Sudan secondary schools.

**Table 4.6 :** Association 65 between question (6) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	1.158	2	0.560
education	1.779	2	0.411
experience	4.504	4	0.342

P - value > 0.05

There were no association between gender ,education and experience in this table .

**Figure 4.1.7/Q7** Some teachers of English language do not encourage students to learn writing skills .

The results of the question indicates that:

A group of teachers about 54.84% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 29.03% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 12.90% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % was

strongly disagree. These results explain that the group of the strongly agree was the majority. This means that statistically most of the teachers at secondary schools do not encourage students in terms of writing skills.

**Table 4.7:** Association between question (7) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	$X^2$	df	p- value
gender	1.606	3	0.658
education	1.363	3	0.714
experience	10.655	6	0.100

P - value > 0.05

There were no association between gender ,education and experience in this table .

**Figure 4.1.8/Q8** Students lack motivation both at school and their homes in term of writing skills.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 22.58% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 71.97% of them agree, finally a group of teachers nearly about 6.45% was disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the group of agree was the majority which was 71.97%. Surely the group of agree shapes the majority. Thus it can be seen that students lack motivation at their homes and schools as 67 for writing skills.

**Table 4.8:** Association between question (8) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	2.741	2	0.254
education	2.054	2	0.358
experience	776	4	0.942

P - value > 0.05

Also there were no association between gender ,education and experience in this table .

**Figure 4.1.9/Q9** The nature of Sudanese culture is mainly based on speaking not writing.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 35.48% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 32.26% of them agree, finally a group of teachers nearly about 32.27% was disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the group of strongly agree was the majority which was 35.48%.

Clearly it can be seen that there was a little difference among the 68 three groups. But the group of strongly agree was little bigger than the two groups of agree and disagree. But statistically the fact remained that the nature of Sudanese culture is based on speaking not writing.

**Table 4.9:** Association between question (9) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	7.911	2	0.019
education	2.552	2	0.279

experience 4.560	4	0.336
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P - value > 0.05

The results above showed that there was association between gender and the question in this table.

**Figure 4.10/Q10** The structure of English language is not sufficiently at secondary schools.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 32.26% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 58.06% of them agree, finally a group of teachers nearly about

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9.68 % was disagree. Thus statistically the group of agree shapes the majority of this sample, this indicates that the structure of English language is not sufficiently taught at secondary schools.

**Table 4.10:** Association between question (10) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	8.831	2	0.012
education	7.267	2	0.026
experience	2.665	4	0.615

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was association between gender and education .

**Figure 4.1.11/Q11** Teachers at Sudanese secondary schools are not encouraging students to learn punctuation.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 32.26% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 64.52% of them agree, finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % was disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the group of agree was the 70 majority which was 64.52%. This means that the group of agree is the majority. This indicates that teachers at Sudanese secondary schools are not encouraging students to learn punctuation.

**Table 4.11:** Association between question (11) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	2.856	2	0.240
education	0.918	2	0.632
experience	12.946	4	0.012

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was association between experience and the question .

**Figure 4.1.12/Q12** Teachers do not provide students with accuracy in writing skills

The results of the question indicated that : A group of teachers about 9.68% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 83.87% of them agree , finally a small group of teachers nearly about 6.45 % was disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the group of agree was the majority which was 83.87%. This indicates that teachers do not provide students with accuracy in writing skills .

**Table 4.12**: Association between question (12) and gender, education and experience. **(chi-square tests)** 

<u> </u>			
variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	2.252	2	0.324
education	0.199	2	0.905
experience	4.336	4	0.362

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was no association between variables and question (12).

**Figure 4.1.13 Q13:** Teachers are not aware of necessity of teaching competence.

The results of the question indicates that:

A group of teachers about 16.13% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 51.61% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 29.03% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % was strongly disagree

The statistical approach showed that the majority of 72 teachers are not aware of necessity of competence.

**Table 4.13:** Association between question (13) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	3.422	3	0.331
education	0.199	2	0.905

experience 4.336	4	0.362
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P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was no association between variables and question (13).

**Figure 4.1.14 / Q14** Students are often asked to read what they write.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 12.90% mentioned that, they were strongly agree, while 51.61% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 22.58% declared that they were disagree , also a group of about 9.68% of teachers choose strongly disagree, finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23% was not sure .

The statistical 73 approach showed that the group of agree was the majority which was 51.61%. Therefore statistically the majority was the second group .Therefore students are often asked to read what they write .

**Table 4 .14:** Association between question (14) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

<u> </u>			
variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	3.422	3	0.331
education	8.147	3	0.043
experience	4.336	4	0.362

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was association between education and question (12).

**Figure 4.1.15 Q 15** Sudanese students at secondary schools are acquainted with the components of English sentences .

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 6.45% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 12.90% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 70.97% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % was strongly disagree.

The statistical approach showed that the group of disagree was the majority which was 70.97%. Therefore Sudanese 74 students at secondary schools are not acquainted with the components of English sentence.

**Table 4.15:** Association between question (15) and gender ,education and experience. (chi –square tests)

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	5.300	4	0.258
education	1.449	4	0.836
experience	15.483	8	0.018

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was association between experience and question (15)

**Figure 4.1.16 : Q 16** Sudanese students at secondary schools receive a reasonable dose of lessons of English structure .

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 6.45% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 12.90% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 70.97%

declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 9.66 % was strongly disagree

The statistical approach showed that the group of disagree was the majority which was 70.97%. Therefore Sudanese students at secondary schools do not receive a reasonable dose of lessons of English structure.

**Table 4.16:** Association between question (16) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	8.254	3	0.041
education	5.633	3	0.131
experience	2.211	6	0.899

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was association between gender and question (16).

**Figure 4.1.17 Q17** Sudanese students at secondary schools have sufficient lessons in writing .

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 6.45% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 32.26% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 54.84% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 6.45 % was strongly disagree .

The statistical approach showed that the group of disagree was the majority which was 54.84%.

Therefore Sudanese students at secondary schools do not receive a reasonable dose of structure.

That means Sudanese students at secondary schools have no sufficient lessons in writing.

**Table 4.17:** Association between question (17) and gender ,education and experience . **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	1.178	3	0.758
education	1.457	3	0.692
experience	7.316	6	0.293

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was no association between variables and question (17)

**Figure 4.1.18 Q 18** Sudanese students at secondary schools have tend to write ideas in groups.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 3.23% mentioned that they were strongly agree, while 9.68% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 38.71% declared that they were disagree ,finally a small group of teachers nearly about 48.39 % was strongly disagree .

The statistical approach showed that the group of strongly disagree was 77 the majority which was 48.39%. This means that Sudanese students at secondary schools do not tend to write ideas in group.

**Table 4.18 :** Association between question (18) and gender ,education and 77 experience. **(chi - square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	6.085	4	0.193
education	6.324	4	0.176
experience	10.907	8	0.207

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was no association between variables and question (18).

**Figure 4.1.19 Q19** With Sudanese students' secondary schools mistakes are discussed individually.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 6.45% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 9.68% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 58.06% declared that they were disagree , also a group of about 19.35% of teachers choose strongly disagree, finally a small group of teachers nearly about 6.45 % was not sure .

The statistical approach 78 showed that the group of disagree was the majority which was 58.06%. Therefore statistically the majority was the third group which was disagree. Thus mistakes make by Sudanese students cannot be discussed individually.

**Table 4.19:** Association between question (19) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	6.477	4	0.166
education	1.651	4	0.800
experience	12.596	8	0.127

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was no association between variables and question (19).

**Figure 4.1.20 Q20** Teachers are satisfied with their students' standard in writing skills.

The results of the question indicated that:

A group of teachers about 19.35% mentioned that they are strongly agree, while 54.84% of them agree ,but a group of teachers about 16.13% declared that they were disagree , also a group of about 6.45% of teachers choose strongly disagree, finally a small group of teachers nearly about 3.23 % was not sure .

The statistical approach showed that the group of agree was the majority which was 54.84%. Statistically the majority was the second group

which was 54.84%. Thus it can be said that teachers are not satisfied with their students' standard in writing \_\_\_\_\_ skills.

**Table 4.20 :** 79 Association between question (20) and gender ,education and experience. **(chi -square tests)** 

variable	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p- value
gender	1.665	3	0.645
education	1.298	3	0.729
experience	11.593	6	0.072

P - value > 0.05

The results in the above table showed that there was no association between variables and question (20).

### 4.2 Analysis of the test

#### Introduction:

The researcher has designed a test, which consist of thirty questions for twenty five students.. This procedure has been done so as to increase the rate of validity and reliability beside the questionnaire inquires.

#### 4.3 Test analysis tables

**Paired Samples Statistics** 

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	pre	4.8000	25	2.90115	.58023
	post	21.0000	25	3.39116	.67823

**Paired Samples Correlations** 

Sig.	Correlation	N		
.262	.233	25	Pair 1	pre - post

**Paired Sample Test** 

			Paired Differences						
			95% Confidence Interval of		StdError	Std.			
			The D	ifference	Mean	Deviation	Mean		
Sig.(2-tailed)	df	t	Upper	Lower					
.000	24	-20.686-	-14.58365-	-17.81635-	.78316	3.91578	-16.20000-	Pair 1	pre - post

The following table shows the test results.

**Table: 4.4** 

20% of the students answered all the questions successfully to some extent

40% of the students could not answer any question.

20% of the students answered half of the questions.

20% of the students answered the third of the questions

Therefore the results of the test can be sorted out as follows:

1. 5 students out of 25 have succeeded in answering all test questions.

- 2. 10 students out of 25 could not answer any question.
- 3. 5 students out of 25 answered 15 questions only .

The analysis and the results of this test shows clearly the students weaknesses as for writing skill .This in turn is compatible with the questionnaire results .

# **Chapter Five**

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#### **Conclusion**

# Recommendations and suggestions for further studies

#### 5.1: Conclusion:

Sudanese secondary school students of English language find it hard to write correct English language sentences.

These difficulties are attributed to teaching and learning difficulties on the part of the teachers and learners and the content of the English language books taught which do not cater for the needs of the students

#### 5.2 : Results :-

- 1. Most of the Sudanese secondary school students of English language in Gezira State are not acquainted with parts of speech.
- 2. The periods allocated for writing skills are very few.

- 3. Teachers seldom encourage their students to develop their writing skills .
- 4. Teachers do not explain their students how to write correct English structures.
- 5. The students linguistic mistakes are not discussed in class.

#### 5.3 : Recommendations:

- 1. Establishing of English language societies may be useful to Sudanese secondary school students of English language as relates to developing their writing skills.
- 2. Putting more stress in the secondary school

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English language syllabus on the activities devoted to the development of the writing skills.

- 3.Introducing modern techniques as relates to developing the writing skills .
- 4. Encouraging Sudanese students of secondary school to write their own wall newspapers.
- 5. Avoiding the policy of large classes for they widen and deepen students academic problems .
- 6. There should be a sort of balance between reading and writing skills concerning Sudanese secondary school English syllabus.
- 7.Introducing the culture of writing diorites and daily activities as for Sudanese students of secondary schools.
- 8. Using modern technology in developing the students writing skills .

#### 5.4: suggestions:

The researcher advises other researchers who are interested in the area of writing skills to investigate the following points:

- 1. The problem of acquiring sufficient amount of vocabulary.
- 2. Making much use of literature as a main source of vocabulary.

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