The Effect of Explicit Teaching of The English Simple Sentence Groups
On Developing Sudanese EFL University Students' Performance:
A Case Study of Dalanj University, Sudan

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Date of Examination: / Jan /2014
DEDICATION

I dedicate this research to my dear teacher
Kabbashi Omer Saboon.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank the University of Gezira administration for giving me the opportunity to do my study under their umbrella. Thanks are also sent to the University of Dalanj administration represented in the secretary of academic affairs that allowed me the chance to qualify myself by doing this research. I extend my deep gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Ahmed Gism el Seed who accepted without hesitation to supervise this work, my great and warm thanks for his kindness and patience and for his encouragement and valuable pieces of advice throughout this project. I am greatly indebted to Dr. Mohammed Adam Hussein, My teacher and my co-supervisor, who has really been an amazing supervisor throughout the years of my study always exerting more effort than he should. It was a true pleasure working with the Teachers College students who participated in this study. I thank them for their patience in attending the instructional program of the research and doing the tasks and the tests. Thanks are also due to the dean of Teachers College who has always encouraged me to accomplish this project. The support I received from my dear teacher, Kabbashi Omer Saboon was instrumental in accomplishing this work, my great thanks for his encouragement, advice and support throughout the years of my research. My appreciations extend to all my colleagues and friends for their continuous encouragement and support. My dear wife stood by my side and encouraged me throughout this experience. Thank you for being my essence and strong tool to accomplish my dream. Thank you for your understanding and patience when I needed long hours to proceed in my work and my deep thanks for taking care of the children during my absence.
The Effect of Explicit Teaching of the English Simple Sentence groups on Developing Sudanese EFL University Students' Performance:
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Abstract

Understanding the English sentence structure is very important for EFL students. An awareness of the constituents of the sentence contributes greatly to successful reading; therefore, emphasis on them may pave the way towards successful learning of the English language. This study was designated to investigate the effect of an explicit teaching programme, mainly English sentence structure on EFL university students' performance. The study aimed at measuring the effect of explicit teaching of the English sentence structure on developing teachers' college students' performance. By implementing the experiment of teaching the English sentence groups, the study also aimed at arriving at the most effective ways for raising the university students' awareness about the English sentence structure and exploring this awareness in developing their reading skill. The samples chosen for the study are (45) teachers' college students, at the university of Dalanj who are doing English as major subject. The study used the SPSS programme for analyzing the data collected. The study used the experimental analytical method to discuss the obtained data from a pretest and a posttest that the samples have received. The findings of the study indicate that the experiment applied has a positive effect on the students' performance in understanding and identifying the sentence groups. Another finding is that the students' performance in reading texts has progressed greatly. Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommended that this study can be replicated by using a series of test with different question types in both grammar and reading texts and the use of grammar content that is not restricted to the structures involved in this research for gaining more benefits. The researcher also recommends that other researchers that involve students at other levels are needed to see whether teaching the English sentence structure can develop their performance as in the case with university students.
أثر التدريس المباشر لعناصر الجملة البسيطة في اللغة الإنجليزية علي أداء طلاب الجامعات الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية:
دراسة حالة جامعة الدلمج
صالح موسي سليمان آدم

ملخص البحث
يعتبر فهم بناء الجملة في اللغة الإنجليزية مهماً جداً للطلاب الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. إدراك عناصر الجملة يساهم كثيراً في القراءة الجيدة، لذلك فإن التركيز على فهم عناصر الجملة قد يؤدي إلى تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. تناولت هذه الدراسة أثر تدريس الجملة في اللغة الإنجليزية على أداء طلاب كلية المعلمين. بتطبيق تجربة التدريس، وهدفت الدراسة إلى التعرف على أكثر الطرق فعالية في تنمية إدراك الطلاب الجامعات حول بناء الجملة والإستفادة منها في تطوير مهارة القراءة. تتكون عينة الدراسة من (45) طالب من كلية المعلمين بجامعة الدلمج الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كخُصص رئيس. استخدمت الدراسة نظام (SPSS) لتحليل البيانات التي جمعت من اختبارات الطلاب. استخدمت الدراسة المنهج التجريبي والتحليلي لتحليل البيانات. تشير نتائج الدراسة إلى أن تجربة تدريس عناصر الجملة في اللغة الإنجليزية التي طبقت في الدراسة لها أثر إيجابي على أداء الطلاب في فهم وتحليل عناصر الجملة. تشير النتائج كذلك إلى أن أداء الطلاب في القراءة قد تطور كثيراً نتيجة لتدريبهم على بناء الجملة في البرنامج التدريبي الذي تلقونه. بناءً على نتائج هذه الدراسة أوصي الباحث بضرورة إعادة تطبيق هذه التجربة بتنوع الأسئلة في اختبارات النحو والقراءة على أن يكون الاختيار أكثر من مرة مع تغيير المحتوى المستخدم في هذه الدراسة لتعزيز الفائدة. أوصي الباحث كذلك بأجراء بحوث أخرى تطبق على طلاب من مستويات مختلفة لمعرفة ما إذا كان أثر تدريس الجملة على هؤلاء الطلاب فعالًا مثل ما كان مع طلاب الجامعات ام لا.
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1.1 Background

The sentence is briefly defined as a sequence of words that gives meaning. The sequence of words often depends on the relationship that exists between the words. The network of relations between words of a sentence is called sentence structure.

According to the transformational grammar, it deals with the idea that a sentence has a syntactic structure. The first important point deals with the idea that the evidence for claiming that sentences have a syntactic structure in language comes from the native speakers intuition about the structure of sentences in his language. These structural intuitions which native speakers have about the syntax of their languages are two types:
1-The constituents: They are about how sound sequences in sentences are structured into larger structural units.
2-Categories: They are intuitions about whether structural units belong to the same category or not. The following example will illustrate this fact:
-This pupil must seem incredibly intelligent to that teacher.

To analyze the concept of sentence the following analysis can be done: Words are grouped into lower constituents. For example, incredibly modifies intelligent, so the sequence (incredibly intelligent) is a phrasal constituent of the sentence. Going forward with the analysis, this modifies pupil, so the sequence (this pupil) forms a single structural unit, a constituent of the sentence. The same applies to (that teacher). Moreover, the sequence (to that teacher) is another constituent.

Regarding the concept of constituents, if the constituents of a sentence are considered as individual linguistic units and they are often so, this leads to speak about the concept of phrases.
These constituents or phrases can be regarded as elements that play a role in larger structures. All the constituents work together to form the sentence. For example, in the sentence:

*Their grandmother takes the train*, it is clear that all the constituents serve to form the sentence and they can be grouped as *(their grandmother) (takes) (the train)*. This grouping leads to the identification of different types of phrases, noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases.

This discussion about the sentence guides to the point that sentences are not just unstructured sequence of sounds, rather they have a hierarchical constituent structure in which sounds are grouped together into words, words into phrases, and phrases into sentences.

Sentence structure knowledge helps a reader to see relations among each part of the components of the sentence and to see relations between ideas in order to have a better analysis of sentences and texts and hence a better understanding of them. When students are taught how to identify structures and make use of this knowledge in reading they are often expected to have a good understanding of sentences.

Of particular interest in the present study is the comprehension of the different groups that make up the English sentence and another dimension of the study is the explicit teaching of grammar namely sentence groups and their functions for the subjects of the study on the purpose of investigating whether such a program can improve awareness of sentence structure which is considered as an important factor in promoting the reading skill.

Unlike L1 readers who normally have some tacit grammatical knowledge of their language, L2 students need explicit learning of grammar to help them in reading and understanding sentences and texts. Adams (1990:71) comments on the difficulty that EFL students have in realizing that they can not correctly recognize a syntactic structure while they generally know that they can not correctly recognize a word.
Also agreeing with Bernhard's (1991:22) assumption that learners progress through a series of stages and competences it can be said that the stronger control over syntactic structures leads to a greater reading improvement.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

English is undoubtedly a major international language. To be able to take part and succeed in academic or any other field one needs to be proficient in English. Most people all over the world in non-English speaking countries take English as a foreign language to develop their proficiency in English. This is the case with Sudanese university students.

Learning to read sentences is a great challenge for university students. These students need to be able to understand the instruction of content being learned through the language. To achieve successive reading, knowledge of sentence structure is regarded as a crucial factor without which this aim cannot be fulfilled.

Alderson (2000:37) refers to the importance of knowledge of particular syntactic structures, or the ability to process them, to some aspect of second language reading and states that the ability to parse sentences into their correct syntactic structures appears to be an important element in understanding sentences and texts as a whole.

Ulijin (1981:54) claims, on the basis of his research, that foreign language reading requires some ability in syntactic processing. On the other hand, in his work on the English language Testing Service, Alderson (1993) found high correlations between a grammar test and tests of academic reading. Similarly, research by (Bernhardts: 1991) suggests that syntax plays a significant role in second language reading ability.

Alderson (ibid) produced evidence of a strong connection between grammar and reading. During the development of the IELTS test, it was found that there were very high correlations between the grammar test and different
tests of reading. The results, then, appear to show that a vaguely defined generalized grammatical ability is an important component in reading in a foreign language. Reading for full comprehension of sentences and texts as a whole is a special type of reading that needs a lot of emphasis and investigation. Sentence structure knowledge helps a reader to see relations among each part of the components of a sentence in order to have a better analysis of the sentences and texts and, thus a better understanding of them.

According to Mandler and Johnson (1997) foreign language students who have been taught to identify sentence and text structure and use this knowledge to guide their reading process have shown better comprehension than readers lacking such knowledge.

Following these facts the present study attempts to examine the effect of explicit teaching and practice of sentence groups and their functions on promoting the Teachers’ College students' ability in identifying and understanding the English sentence structure and making use of this knowledge in understanding texts.

1.3 Objective of the Study

It cannot be denied that in the academic field students often seek to obtain a great amount of knowledge that can enable them to achieve whatever purposes they are intending to fulfill. Knowledge in language must always be quite sufficient in order to achieve proficiency. If the matter is concerned with Teachers’ College students, it could be stated that they need to arrive at a good level of proficiency that can help them to succeed in their expected career that of teaching.

Because of this the objective of the present study is to conduct a case study to examine and measure the effect of explicit teaching of the English sentence groups and functions on the improvement of Teachers’ College students' ability to identify and understand sentence structure and texts. This is done for the purpose of arriving at effective ways for developing the
students' awareness of sentence structure and consequently developing their reading proficiency.

1.4 Hypotheses of the study

The present study attempts to test the following two hypotheses:

1-If the Teachers' College students who are doing English as a major subject receive explicit instruction and practice of the English sentence groups and their functions; they can improve their competence in identifying and understanding sentences and their structures.

2-The students' improvement in their ability to identify and understand sentences may contribute in raising their ability to understand texts.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Teachers College students who are doing English as a major subject suffer from an acute weakness in their knowledge of the English sentence structure. The teaching and practice of sentence structure and its role on the improvement of the students' ability to interpret sentences properly has not been discussed intensively in FL research particularly in Sudan.

Therefore, the study of the effect of teaching and processing English sentences may provide more insight into the ability to understand sentences and text comprehension effectively. The importance of this study is that it may contribute in informing the teachers and attract their attention about what pedagogical considerations need to be taken into consideration when developing instruction to improve the students' knowledge in English sentence structure and reading comprehension. Eventually this study could help EFL students to become more aware and proficient readers in English. Moreover, the results and the discussion of the theoretical and practical implications from this study may contribute to the body of research knowledge in the field of English language learning for EFL learners and also in the field of teaching.
1.6 Delimitation of the study

This study involves 45 EFL university students. These students are enrolled in the University of Dalanj, Teachers’ College. They are in their third year of English language specialization. This number involved in the study represents the whole students in the department of English language. What is common among these students is the fact that they have received the same courses during their university study which reflects their similar standards.

The present study is restricted to the investigation of the effect of understanding the English sentence groups and functions on identifying and understanding sentences and consequently reading comprehension texts.
2.1 Introduction

This chapter is a review of literature. It incorporates the major and most important views and concepts that are often associated with the structure of the English sentence. The first item included in this chapter is an account of how English language is taught and learned. It also investigates one of the early theories of grammar, which is tradition grammar. This grammar has formed the basis of the other theories that emerged throughout the history of grammar. Views about parts of speech are given some attention because of their great significance in the structure of the English sentence. These parts of speech function as the major head words in the sentence constituent. So, recognizing them play a vital role in understanding sentences.

The simple sentence, as the main type of sentences which is investigated in this research, is discussed in details. The discussion includes its basic elements and their characteristics. Since the structure of the English sentence can sometimes be complex, an account of the possible number of elements in one sentence is explained. The chapter also touches on arguments and the thematic roles that are related to them. In addition to that the different grammatical functions and the semantic roles that they play are given a good consideration.

The different forms that the sentence elements can have are illustrated to help in correlating between these forms and their functions.

Since the sentences are constructed out of the linguistic units, these units are explained as a preparation for the illustration of the different types of units used in the English sentence. Moreover, the chapter investigates the different types of groups or phrases that act as a cornerstone in all English sentences without which elements and boundaries between the chunks of sentences cannot be realized.
Because the study focuses on raising the students' ability to identify sentence groups and functions, some important guidelines of how sentences are analyzed are illustrated.

In addition to the review of the relevant literature, some investigations about previous studies that relate to the present study are illustrated.

2.2 Some Preliminaries about Grammar Teaching and Learning

Because of the importance of learning the English language sentence structure, it is of great value to investigate the significant concepts about how teaching and learning take place.

2.2.1 Historical Background of Grammar and Grammar Teaching

Hinkel, (2002:99) maintains that grammar teaching holds a crucial role in English as a foreign language teaching, because without good command of grammatical structures, the language use will be constrained. Teaching grammar is basically teaching the sentence patterns which are essential to cope with meaning and use.

In spite of the early debate about teaching grammar, the language users now agree that grammar is too good to be abandoned. Language within a good grammar is required in certain social contexts especially the academic ones. Since then, the issue of whether to teach grammar or not shifts to how grammar should be taught rather than neglecting it.

Further, the most current issue in grammar teaching mentions that the main issues of grammar and grammar teaching cover three major problems which are: beginning with those that conceptualized teaching in terms of methods with focus on grammar, continuing later as types of exposure to meaningful communication, and emerging more recently as a set of instructional options with a focus on both grammar and meaning.

Ellis, (2006) points out that in traditional setting, grammar teaching is seen as the representation of and practice of discrete grammatical structures.
More comprehensively, he defines grammar teaching as the act of involving any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and process it in comprehension or production so that they can internalize it.

Further Ellis (2006) points out some key concepts in teaching grammar. First, some grammar lessons might consist of presentation by themselves (i.e. without any practice), while others might entail only practice (i.e. no presentation). Second, grammar teaching can involve learners in discovering grammatical rules for themselves (i.e. no presentation and no practice). Third, grammar teaching can be conducted simply by exposing learners to input contrived to provide multiple exemplars of the target structure. Finally, grammar teaching can be conducted by means of corrective feedback on learners’ errors.

### 2.2.3 The Need for Teaching Grammar

The English language has structural features that are complicated and hard to learn. For EFL learners to master them, adequate experience, understanding and use of these features are necessary. This can only be brought about with the help of pedagogical intervention: explicit teaching and systematic practice informed by a programme of known problems such as the problem of understanding the English sentence structure. This is especially important because the most significant reason for teaching any point of grammar is comprehension. If a point of grammar is taught successfully, learners will understand better.

The notion that grammar should be carried out in instruction are explained by the following four reasons as declared by Nassaji and Fotos (2004) in their research on teaching grammar.
1-The 1980s hypothesis that language can be learned without some degree of consciousness has been found theoretically problematic. "Noticing" is necessary in language learning to understand the forms.

2-Second language learners pass through developmental sequences. This suggests that it needs a teaching process to facilitate and scaffold these sequences.

3-A large body of research pointing to the inadequacies of teaching approaches where the focus is primarily on meaning-focused communication without addressing grammar. In this case, learners could produce meaningful understandable language but lack of accuracy.

4-Evidence for the positive effects of grammar instruction has been stated. In some researches grammar teaching improves accuracy rate and ultimate levels of second language learning.

These four reasons introduced so far, suggest that grammar teaching is essential and should be given good consideration in foreign language teaching and learning.

Other interesting reasons for the need of teaching grammar came from Hinkel, E(2002) who claims that a case for teaching grammar can be mounted from different perspectives; acquisition theory, the learner, and language pedagogy. These three perspectives taken together, provide a compelling argument in favour of teaching grammar. Investigation of these perspectives is necessary to provide evidence that assures the need for grammar teaching.

1-The acquisition theory

In a research in second language learning investigating adults, it has been proved that second language learners particularly adults fail to achieve high levels of grammatical competence even if they have ample opportunity to learn the language naturally. The learners' failure to achieve high levels of grammatical competence is due to the following reasons;

1-Age: once learners have passed a critical period, the acquisition of full grammatical competence is no longer possible.
2-Communicative sufficiency: learners may be able to satisfy their communicative needs without acquiring target language norms.

3-Limited opportunities for pushed output: it is demonstrated that the linguistic environment to which learners are exposed may be limited in quite significant ways.

4-Lack of negative feedback: it has been suggested that some grammatical structures cannot be learned from positive input, which is all that is typically available to learners learning a foreign language.

2-The learners' perspective:

   It is important to teach grammar because many EFL learners expect it. Adult learners typically view grammar as the central component of language and are likely to make strenuous efforts to understand the features they notice.

3-A pedagogical perspective:

   The pedagogical perspective in grammar teaching is based on the idea that the only way to ensure a systematic coverage of the grammar of the foreign language is by means of a structural syllabus. Such a syllabus provides teachers and learners with a clear sense of progression which is missing from both notional and task-based syllabus.

   These reasons for learners' failure to achieve target language norms stress the need for teaching grammar in order to focus the learners' attention on grammatical forms and the meaning they realize through some kind of grammar teaching points. This will give the learners the chance to receive positive input and negative feedback that will help them in learning grammatical forms.

2.2.4 Grammar in Relation to Second Language Learning

Skehan et al (1996:54) indicate that in order to arrive at a rationale for grammar focused instruction in teaching, there are five stages for the learning process that must be distinguished. These stages include: input, intake, acquisition, access and output.

1-Input
Input refers to language sources that are used to initiate the language learning process. The language sources may include textbooks, commercial materials, teacher-made materials and teacher-initiated classroom discourse. For the present study the input refers to the teacher-made material which is designed for the experimental treatment for teaching the English sentence structure.

At the input stage in language learning, an attempt may be made to focus learners' attention on particular linguistic features of the input by such means as:

a-Simplification of input: this signifies that the language corpus the learners are exposed to contains a restricted set of structures whether via the material made or the teachers discourse.

b-Frequency of exposure: it means that a target form may occur frequently within a source text i.e. when presenting a particular element or a constituent of a sentence, the text must bring in several occurrences of them.

c-Explicit instruction: a target form may be presented formally together with information about how it is used and put together and this is followed by practice.

d-Implicit instruction: Students' attention may be drawn to a target form and they may have to induce the rule or the system underlying its use.

e-Conscious raising: activities are provided to make learners aware of certain linguistic features in the input, without necessarily requiring them to produce the features.

These approaches are to facilitate the intake stage in the learning process i.e. they act as leading steps towards making use of what is introduced in the intake.

Vanpatten (1996: 8) talks about input processing instruction. He defines the input-processing instruction as a type of grammar instruction whose purpose is to affect the ways in which learners attend to input data. He emphasizes that it does not mean that any old input activity is viable but
involves attempts to alter the way learners actually process input. In other words, Vanpatten pays attention to form in the input. Such training is intended to help students move from the default strategies that they typically employ and that give rise to the transitional constructions found in interlanguage. For example, learners typically operate a "first-noun strategy" according to which they assign the role of subject or agent to the first noun in an input string. Such a strategy leads to incorrect processing of strings in which the first noun is not the agent, as for example in passive sentences in English:

- The committee was given a prize by Marcia.

This suggests that as part from input processing instruction, students can be told to pay a careful attention to the first noun to see whether it is really functioning as subject and to look for linguistic clues to determine that.

Vanpatten (1996) suggests guidelines for developing input processing teaching materials by introducing the following principles:

1- Teach one thing at a time.
2- Keep meaning in focus.
3- Learners must do something with the input.
4- Use both oral and written input.
5- Move from short structures to long ones.

In order for these principles to be successful, the activities in input-processing instruction might be usefully sequenced to require first attention to meaning (i.e. learners are invited to comprehend the message content of the input), then noticing the target form and the meaning it conveys in the input and finally noticing the gap (i.e. spotting the kinds of typical errors that learners make when using the target structure).

From previous research, it is stated that input processing instruction in conjunction with explicit instruction leads to gains in learners' ability to comprehend the target structures as well as their ability to produce them.

2- Intake
Vanpatten (1993:436) defines intake as that subset of the input that is comprehended and attended to in some way. It contains the linguistic data that are prepared and designed for acquisition. Some factors are assumed to affect how items pass from input to intake which includes the following:

- Complexity: items should be at an appropriate level of difficulty.
- Saliency: items must be noticed or attended to in some way.
- Frequency: items must be experienced by the learners with sufficient frequency to enhance understanding.
- Need: the item must fulfill a communicative need.

3-Acquisition

Acquisition refers to the process by which the learner incorporates new learning items into his or her developing system. In order for this to take place, learners need to recognize the differences between forms they are using or having in mind and target-like forms. In addition, learning also involves identification of the grammatical variables that operate in the target language and account for the specific linguistic characteristics of that language such as the rules underlying the English language word order, clause patterns, nominal groups, phrase structures and so forth.

4-Access

Access refers to the learners' ability to draw on his interlanguage system when dealing with any piece of language. The context in which the learner is using the language may affect the extent to which the learner is successful in calling up aspects of the acquired system.

5-Output

Output refers to the observed results of the learners efforts. Swain, (1995:125) has suggested two major functions of output in second language learning. First, through their output, learners may notice their erroneous attempts in using the language; second, the output serves as a means to try out one's language to test various hypotheses that are forming.
2.2.5 Methodological Options in Grammar Teaching Materials

Ellis (2006: 84) presents pedagogical suggestions developed from a critical analysis of six EFL grammar practice materials. He examines three aspects of instructional methodology: the way the structures are presented, the nature of the examples used to illustrate the structures and the activities the students asked to perform. These suggestions refer to explicit teaching, data and operations respectively.

Explicit description refers to whether the materials either provide learners with an explanation of the point by a verbal or diagrammatic description or whether they require learners to develop their own explanation i.e. to discover.

The data options involve the provision of texts containing examples of the target structure. To account as data, this text must be independent of any text associated with operations.

The operations evident in the materials were classified according to whether they involve production (i.e. the students were required to produce sentences containing the target structure), reception (i.e. the students were required to perform some activity to demonstrate that they had understood sentences containing the target structure), or judgment (i.e. the students were required to identify whether sentences containing the target structure were correct or not).

The predominant theory of grammar teaching that emerges from these three options is a very traditional one. It is based on the concept that grammar constitutes a content that can be transmitted to students via explicit descriptions and a skill that is developed through controlled practice. However there are also signs that this predominant philosophy is being rethought by some authors. In particular, the need to encourage learners to discover structure rules for themselves, to provide them with data where they can notice how grammatical features are used, and to teach grammar through
input processing rather than through production practice are evident in some of the materials of grammar.

2.2.6 Awareness-focused Instruction

Rod (2006) declares that the approach of awareness is based on the fact that the focus of the instruction should be awareness rather than performance. There are two senses of awareness. First, learners can be made aware of the formal properties of the language as they process them in the input; that is, they can be made to consciously realize them. Second, learners can be made aware in the sense of forming some kind of explicit representation of a target form (i.e. developing explicit knowledge).

Such approach consists of five kinds of actions:

1-listening or reading to comprehend: Here students listen to sentences or texts that have been contrived to contain examples of the target structure.

2-Listening or reading to notice: In this activity listen or read the sentences or text a second time or more to identify the target structure.

3-Understanding the target structure: This activity is directed at helping learners develop explicit knowledge of the point i.e. to develop their awareness. They are helped to analyze the data provided by the sentences that they have completed and to discover the rules. Discovery approach to teaching explicit knowledge is favored on the grounds that it is more motivating and that it also serves a learner-training function. By completing such tasks, learners can develop the skills needed to analyze language data for themselves and so build their own explicit grammar of English.

4-Checking: The students are given a further text containing errors. They are asked to identify the errors and correct them. This kind grammatical judgement task is chosen because it lends itself to the use of explicit knowledge and fosters the skill of monitoring.

5-Trying it: Finally, there is an opportunity for students to try out their understanding of the target structure in a short production activity or a test.
Schmidt (1990: 34) comments that many teachers and researchers currently regard grammar instruction as consciousness raising in the sense that the awareness of a particular feature is developed by instruction even if the learners cannot use the feature at once. Such awareness is produced not only by instruction on specific forms but may also result from input enhancement, that is operations performed on meaning-focused input in such a way that the target features stand out to the learners.

In a study by Fotos and Ellis (1991), it was noted that instructed grammar learning can also serve as communicative input based on which learners can internalize grammar rules. This is seen as especially important for EFL situations. It was also found that knowledge of grammatical structures developed through formal instruction can make these structures more relevant and applicable for learners and thus easier to internalize.

It was concluded that input and interaction together with the learner's internal factors, particularly the noticing and continued awareness of structures, are of more significance in predicting successful learning.

This view involves the distinction between two types of grammatical knowledge: *explicit knowledge* which is conscious knowledge about grammatical features developed through instruction and *implicit knowledge* which is the ability to use a language unconsciously when reading or speaking.

Schmidt (1990) suggested that both explicit and implicit knowledge are connected and that one possible interface is learners’ awareness or consciousness of particular grammatical features developed through formal instruction. Once a learner's consciousness of a target feature has been raised through formal instruction, the learner often tends to notice the feature in subsequent input. Such noticing is suggested to be important because it appears to initiate the restructuring of the learner's implicit knowledge. So, when a language point is noticed frequently, learners develop awareness of it and unconsciously compare it with their existing system of linguistic
knowledge. Noticing can be brought about in a number of ways. One is by requesting the students to identify the examples of the target structure which are introduced by the teacher in the data (for examples), underline the noun groups in the sentences. Another is to highlight the examples of the target structure in some way, for instance, by italicizing, bracketing or diagramming them.

Sentence diagramming is seen as a method of grammar instruction that relies on a standardized framework of lines and branches to reveal the syntactic structure of a sentence. The simple groups of words can be considered:

- A big book.
- John's new bike.
- The dark old house.

In teaching the sentence structure, rather than talking about traditional nouns, verbs and adjectives, the focus will be about the whole meaning of these words as a functional group when they appear. They can not only describe tangible real objects, but also describe abstract concepts or ideas such as the following:

- the baking of cakes.
- a funny feeling.
- the art of motorcycle maintenance.

Such a word group represents an easily identifiable 'participant' in the action of a story in an explanation or in some other text. This signifies that single isolated words alone do not actually carry very much real meaning. So, in using diagramming for teaching, the teacher reveals the syntactic structure for the students and this in turn may facilitate comprehension.

To sum up, it can be commented that activities that raise learners' awareness of grammar forms through instruction can play a vital role in assisting learners to acquire these forms. This point is exactly what the present study is conducted to affirm.
2.3. A brief account of Traditional Grammar

Traditional Grammar, as stated by Allen et al (1995:73), dates back behind Ferdinand de Saussure's lectures under the title of *Cours de Linguistique General* in 1916. Traditional grammar originated beyond this period and back over 2000 years.

Allen et al maintain that the linguistic analysis carried out by the Greeks between the fourth century B.C and the second century A.D included most of the basic concepts which still constitute the layman's conception of grammar. According to traditional grammar, words are classified in terms of gender (masculine, feminine and neuter). It also made a distinction between the active and passive voice and between transitive and intransitive verbs.

Yule (1995:88) investigates the famous division and classification of Greek words into eight parts of speech; noun, verb, participle, article, pronoun, preposition, adverb and conjunction. The Greek model was largely followed by later Roman grammarians. The grammar of Donatus (C. A.D 400) and Priscian (C.A.D. 500) were used at teaching grammars through the Middle Age and as late as the seventeenth century. The traditional categories were then taken over by prescriptive grammarians as John Wallis, Robert Lowth and Lindely Murray, thus helping to preserve an unbroken tradition of grammatical analysis which has lasted from the time of Aristotle to the present day.

Allen et al (1995) argue that both the scholarly and pedagogic grammarian have been blamed for their too-ready acceptance of national and imprecise definitions of the parts of speech and other grammatical categories. They add that there it often more than a way of defining a category in linguistics, for instance the definition of a noun may be morphological, functional or notional. Morphological definition is based on the classification of the physical forms of a language. A functional definition is based on the relation of words to other words in sentence with reference to the concepts of subject, object, complement … etc. And a notional definition is the one which
is based on our understanding of the relationship of words to the actual, real-world phenomena which they denote.

In spite of the fact that the traditional parts of speech are greatly criticized, it is also of a great importance to deal with these parts since this study is mainly concerned with comprehension through understanding the structure and components of the English sentence, the researcher sees that it is of great value to investigate the features related with all the parts of speech for the purpose of providing a clear picture that may serve as a good step towards fully understanding the structure of the sentence, and improve reading comprehension.

2.4 Views about Parts of Speech

Scott et al (1968: 24) stress that it is convenient to place words in certain categories or classes, according to three perspectives; (i) their form, (ii) the change that can occur in their form, and (iii) the position they occupy in groups in relation to other word classes. The classes considered are nouns, personal pronoun, verbs adjective, and numerals.

As for Mockba (1999: 10), he claims that words of the English Language may be grouped into classes, traditionally, called part of speech. According to him each part of speech is characterized as having a set of features; semantic, morphological and syntactic categories. This classification reflects a variety of factors, including the type of meaning that words express, the types of affixes that they take, and the type of structures in which they can occur. The parts of speech are also treated in terms of lexical categories. Lexical categories include noun, verbs, adjective, preposition and adverb, whereas non-lexical categories include determiners, auxiliaries, conjunctions and degree words.

Wardhaugh (1995: 4) claims that there is a longstanding tradition which says that there are eight parts of speech in English; nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. He
argues that defining these parts in terms of their distribution in the sentence is given consideration.

Greenbaum et al (2002: 86) claim that word classes such as noun, verb, adjective... etc are traditionally called parts of speech. They declare that there is not a fixed number of word classes explaining that many classes and subclasses can be set up as is needed for analysis. They also state that word classes can be divided into "open classes" and "closed classes". Open classes are reading open to new words; closed classes are limited classes that reading admits new words. For example, it is easy to create new nouns but not new pronouns. Open classes include; nouns adjectives, main verbs and adverbs. Closed classes include; pronouns, determiners, auxiliaries, conjunctions, and prepositions.

Sidney et al also emphasize the importance of dealing with the parts of speech in terms of meaning and distribution. They say that some words can be listed in more than one class that is why it is important to know the class of the word within a context, they introduce the following examples:

1. I expected a reply before the end of the month.
2. You should reply before the end of the month.

"Reply" in (1) and (2) represents two different words that share the same form. In (1) it is a noun while in (2) it is a main verb. It can be concluded that the two approaches, the formal and distributional concerning the parts of speech, produce conflicting results for some words, for example, the word "dancing" in "the dancing ceased", "dancing" has the – ing ending characteristic of a verb but the distribution of noun. Because of this, an approach which is based on both formal and distributional criteria helps in avoiding confusion in trying to understand what is actually happening in the language.

2.5 The Simple Sentence

Since this study is concerned with understanding sentence structure, it is important to have a clear picture about what a simple sentence is. Many
grammarians introduced different definitions for the simple sentence that need to be investigated for the purpose of having sufficient knowledge about the concept of the simple sentence.

Wardhaugh (1995:70) defines the simple sentence as a construction that has a noun phrase as a subject followed by a verb phrase which is called a predicate, the verb in this context is a finite verb i.e it has a tense marker.

Todd (1987: 65) declares that in 1952 C.C Fries examined over two hundred definitions of sentence hoping to find the most appropriate and useful one. He discovered that it is easier to show what a sentence looks like than to say what a sentence is. He introduced a number of structures stating that they are sentences. They include the following:

1- The man died.
2- The dog chased the cat.
3- The girl is a good student.
4- That child is very tall.
5- The boy ran up the hill.

According to Fries, these are regarded as sentences since they can exist independently and do not rely on any other piece of language. From the many definitions investigated by Fries, he found that the most workable definition is the one provided by Bloomfield in 1933. According to his definition "Each sentence is an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form:.

With regards to this definition, all the five previous mentioned structures are sentences because each of them is meaningful and independent. "The man died", for example, is independent in a way that "When the man died" is not. This clause depends on such a construction as: "They were all sad when the man died". Todd adds that on even simple categorization of "sentence" can be applied to the written medium in that the sentence can be defined as a linguistic unit which begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.
Finch (1997:118) says that functionally a simple sentence is said to consist of a subject and predicate, the subject is what the sentence is about, or its topic, and the predicate (a word which comes from a Latin verb meaning to claim or declare) is the claim being made about the subject. According to this functional definition of the simple sentence, whatever new information added to the subject or predicate will be regarded to the subject or predicate as part of them. For example, in the sentence: "The man died".

The man is the subject, and died is the predicate. If the phrase with his hands behind his back is added, that would all become part of the predicate. Fromkin et al (1983:227) claim that the basic sentences of English have a noun phrase subject followed by a verb and possibly a noun phrase object.

Another definition of the "Simple sentence is introduced by Lyons (1991:115) revealing that a simple sentence, as opposed to non-simple, is the sentence that consists of only one clause. He explains that within a simple sentence there are various part-whole relations; relations of constituency. All the word-forms are constituents, and groups of words may constitute phrases which are also constituent of the sentence.

Greenbaum (2002:20) also investigates the concept of the simple sentence saying that the simple sentence is the sentence that contains two main constituents; the subject and the predicate. He reveals that a sentence has structure in that there are rules that decide the units that can co-occur in the sentence and order in which they can occur.

By investigating the definition of the simple sentence discussed so far, it is obvious that the central point about the concept of the simple sentence lies in how it is structured rather than what it is. This concept leads the researcher to touch on what exactly creates or makes a simple sentence.

2.6 The Basic Elements of the Simple Sentence

After the investigation of the possible definitions of the simple sentence, it is now important to go deeper and find out what elements are
essential and major in constituting a simple sentence. As this study suggests, being aware of the structure of the simple sentence may play a vital role in understanding the meaning of each sentence and this contributes to improving the University students reading comprehension when dealing with any piece of Language. To achieve this aim, a detailed analysis and discussion of the structure of the sentence must be made.

Greenbaum (2002:21) asserts that it is traditional to divide the sentence into two main constituents: the subject and the predicate. The predicate consists of a verb and any other elements of the sentence apart from the subject, as illustrated in the following examples:

**Table (2.1) the two main constituents of the sentence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>learned all this much later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chef</td>
<td>is a young man with broad experience of the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The face of the land</td>
<td>Parallels the fate of the culture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sidney et al add that regular sentences consist of a subject and a predicate, and the predicate contains at least a verb. The following are examples of sentences consisting of just the subject and verb:

**Table (2.2) sentences consisting of a subject and a verb.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A door</td>
<td>Opened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sun</td>
<td>is setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The baby</td>
<td>was crying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>must leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many of us</td>
<td>have protested</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another fact about sentences is that sentences usually contain more than just the subject and the verb. Here are some examples:

1- His black boots had pointed toes.
2- It rained everyday of our vacation.
3- Every kind of medical equipment was in short supply.

Referring to the above example, it is found that in each sentence there is a subject and a verb and some more information apart from the subject and the verb. In sentence (1), for instance "Pointed toes" is neither a subject nor a verb, and the same is true of "Everyday of our vacation" and "In short supply" in sentence (2) and (3) respectively.

Scott et al (1968:41) also examine the essential and main parts that are combined together to constitute a simple sentence. They state that sentences usually have a subject and predicate, they often have a complement and an adjunct as well. To facilitate understanding, a detailed investigation of each element is crucially required.

Ehrlich et al (1976:1) declare that simple sentence principal elements are the verb, subject of the verb, and direct object of the verb or complement of the verb. They also maintain that many sentences have only a verb and subject and that some other important elements are the indirect object and modifiers. Another claim about the elements of a sentence is made by Radford et al (2004:247), they state that a simple sentence is an expression which contains a subject and a predicate and which may also contain a complement. A detailed account of the elements of the English sentence will be discussed and illustrated.

2.6.1. The Subject

The subject is one of the major elements that constitute a simple sentence. Graham (1982:1) points out that all sentences have a subject. He defines the subject of a sentence as someone or something spoken about in the sentence.
Many different grammarians investigate the subject in terms of certain characteristics with which it is known and realized. These characteristics are related with its position in the sentence and its various role relationships to verb in the predicates of the clauses in which it occurs. Accordingly, a detailed investigation of the characteristics of the subject can be essential because recognizing the subject of the sentence can act as a cornerstone in understanding a sentence and so importantly in reading comprehension.

2.6.2 The Characteristics of the Subject

For revealing the different characteristics that distinguish the subject from the other elements of the sentence, Scott (1968:41) introduces some examples of sentences that are helpful in identifying the subject:

1- He swims well.
2- They swim strongly.
3- Alcohol is dangerous.
4- The excessive use of alcohol is disastrous.
5- Cows eat grass.
6- Six shorn Romney sheep were killed.
7- The rather charming seventeen year old lass in the powder blue Suit and Chantilly lace blouse downed me with a karate chop.

By referring to the above sentences which are introduced by F.S. Scott, the following characteristics of the subject can be concluded:

a- Subjects are nominal group items, simple or complex. This fact can be stated by referring to sentence (3) and (5) in which "alcohol" and "cows" are simple nominal groups functioning as subjects. Sentence (3) is about "alcohol" which is described as being dangerous, while sentence (5) is about "cows" which is the doer of the action expressed in the verb "eat".

As for sentences (4), (6) and (7) they contain complex nominal group subjects. In sentence (4) "the excessive use of alcohol" is the subject of the sentence and it is a complex nominal group. In (6) the sentence is about "sin
shorn Romney sheep" so it is the subject and it is a complex nominal group subject because the phrase "six shorn Romney" modifies the noun sheep.

b- Subjects precede predicate items. By referring to the examples in question, it is obvious that the subjects with their different forms come in the beginning of the sentence followed by the predicate items.

Wardhaugh (1995:75) investigates the subject maintaining that the position of the subject is usually the first noun phrase in a clause. He adds that even phrases of other types than noun phrases may fill noun-phrase positions, as in the following examples:

- Over the fence is out.
- Swimming there was a favorite activity of theirs.
- In this example the prepositional phrase "Over the fence" fills a subject noun-phrase position and "Swimming there" is a verb phrase similarly filling a noun-phrase position.

c- Subjects have number concord with the predicate items.

Referring back to Scott's example, there is a complete agreement between the subject and predicate items. For instance, in sentence (1) the subject "he" concords with the verb "swims" i.e a third person singular with a singular form of the verb.

Wardhaugh (1995:78) talks about subject-verb agreement, saying that it is usually a fairly clear cut matter in English. If the first verb of the verb phrase is in the present tense, it agrees with the noun phrase that is the subject, e.g:

- He eats cheese.
- She drinks Pepsi.

In the sentences above, the verb "eats" and "drinks" are in agreement with the subject "he" and "she" respectively. Ronald further claims that from time to time certain issues do arise in subject-verb agreement. Among these issues are the following:
a- If the subject is somewhat distant from the verb, some speakers may use another noun phrase than the subject noun phrase to determine agreement, specially, one close to the verb, as in the following sentences:
"The purpose of these sessions is to introduce and familiarize staff with the new manual".

In the sentence "the purpose" is the subject, but the agreement - the verb are-is made with "these sessions" in the prepositional phrase.

Another example of this kind of agreement can be illustrated by the following sentences:
"Any ship or aircraft which penetrates the specified zone will be regarded as hostile and are liable to be attacked"

b- Another issue about subject-verb agreement is that if the head noun of the subject is a group noun, there may be uncertainty as to whether or not the agreement should be singular or plural. In such a case both could be used, as in the following pair of sentences.
The class has voted to go.
The class have voted to go.

In these sentences, the head noun of the subjects are group nouns, the agreement can be grammatical (the class has) or semantic (the class have).

C- One more issue about agreement is that if the subject contains coordinated noun phrase, the agreement is usually with the second noun phrase when the two noun phrases differ in number. The following sentences reveal the point:

Either Fred or his cousins are going.
Either my aunts or my mother is going.

In both the above sentences the subjects contains coordinated noun; phrases differing in number, "Fred or his cousins" and "my aunts or my mother" so the agreement goes with the second noun phrase.

Some further claims about subject-verb agreement are made by Ehrlich et al (1991:46) who discuss agreement by introducing the following points.
a- When compound subjects are connected by "and", they are usually intended as plural. Sometimes however, they are intended singular constructions. The following sentences illustrate both types:
1- Jack and Bill are going up the mountain.
2- A hot dog and sauerkraut is all I want for lunch.

   The subject of the first sentence "Jack and Bill" can be replaced by "two dogs" or "two men" which would be plural. The compound subject "Jack and Bill", therefore, is plural.

   For this reason, a plural verb is used "are going". So the sentence is understood as both the two Jack and Bill are going.

In the second sentence the subject is "A hot dog and sauerkraut" constitutes a single dish. This subject, therefore, is singular and the verb must be singular: is. Greenbaum et al (2002:25) also introduce some more characteristics of the subject. These characteristics include the following:
1- The subject normally comes before the verb in declaratives, but in questions it comes after the operator, as in the following examples:
   a- They accepted full responsibility.
   b- Did they accept full responsibility?

   Sentence (a) declarative, so the subject (they) precedes the verb (accepted). Sentence (b) is a question, so the subject (they) is preceded by the operator (did).

2- The subject is normally absent in imperatives as in:
   - Help me with the luggage.

   In such a sentence, the subject is absent but it is implicitly understood as (you).

3- When the subject is personal pronoun, it always has a fixed form as (I, we, you, they, he, she, it) and when the same pronoun is used as object, it takes a different form as in:
   1. She knows me well.
   2. I know her well.
In sentence (1) the form (she) is subject but when used as object it becomes (her) and the same applies to (1) and (me) in sentence (2). This states the fixed form of the subject when it is a personal pronoun.

4- The subject determines the form of the reflexive pronoun that appears in the same clause as in the following sentences:
1- I hurt myself badly.
2- You can look at yourself in the mirror.
3- She can look at herself in the mirror.

In these three sentences, the subject (I) determines the form of the reflexive pronoun to be (myself), and (you) yourself, and (she) herself.

5- The position of the subject in passive sentences is changed or the subject may be omitted, consider the following sentences:
1. Active: The police called the bomb-disposal squad.
2. Passive: The bomb-disposed was called by the police.
3. The bomb-disposed squad was called.

In the active sentence, the subject, (the police) comes first while in the passive sentence it comes last as in (2) or omitted as in (3).

2.6.3. The Complement

Wardhaugh (1995:80) investigates other elements of the sentences apart from the subject. He terms these elements as "the complements". He defines complements as constituents of constructions in which one constituent always governs i.e. requires and control another constituent. For example, in the prepositional phrase: (to John) or (for the money), the prepositions (to) and (for) govern the noun phrases (John) and (money) respectively.

Scott et al (1968:43) discuss the possible characteristics of complements that exist in the different kinds of the structures. Among these characteristics are the following:

a- The complement is usually represented by a noun phrase except when it is modified by usual noun group modifiers in which case the complement is a verb, as in the following examples:
- I do envy her sewing.
- I don't trust Lee's tackling.

In these two examples, the complements are (sewing) and (tackling) and they are verbs being modified by noun group modifiers (her) and (Lee's).

b- The complement is also characterized by the fact that it follows immediately after a predicate as in the two sentences above.

c- Another fact about the complement is that it has no concord with the predicate except when it is represented by a noun-headed group as in:
- He felt a fool.
- They felt complete fools.

In these sentences there is concord between the complements and the predicate in singularity and polarity.

d- One more feature of complements is the fact that complements are not present in all sentences, for instance:
(Fred died) has no complement at all.

In discussing complements, it is quite clear that there are different types of complements in the structure of the English sentence. These types are correlated with the different types of verbs. Because of this, each type of complements is to be investigated together with the type of verb in question.

26.4 Types of Complements

Complements have different types according to the type of verb used in the sentence.

2.6.5. Direct Object and Transitive Verbs

Ehrlich (1991:1) defines the direct object as a word or a phrase that receives the action indicated by the verb, for example, in the sentence: "Automobiles are polluting cities"

The action indicated by the verb is (are polluting) what receives the action is (cities). So (cities) is the direct object of the verb (are polluting).
Wardhaugh (1995:83) claims that the complement that functions as a direct object is the one which comes following a monotransitive verb i.e. (a transitive verb).

The term (transitive) comes from the notion that a person (represented by the subject of the sentence) performs an action that affects some person or thing. There is a (transition) of the action from the one to the other. Indeed, the direct object typically refers to a person or thing directly affected by the action described in the sentence in the following sentences:

- Helen received (my email).
- They ate all (the strawberries).
- I dusted (the bookshelves) in my bedroom.

2.6.6. The Characteristics of the Direct Object

Scott et al (1968:44) illustrate some characteristics associated with the direct object. These characteristics include the following:

a- The nominal group items that represent the direct object have a noun or pronoun as a head. For instance, the sentence:

*Bonzo cleans your smallest room*

This sentence has a direct object (your smallest room) that has a noun (room) as a head of the nominal group that represent this direct object. However, in the sentence:

(She pushed him), the direct object (him) is a pronoun functioning as the head of the nominal group that represent the direct object.

b- Another feature of the direct object is that it can be transformed into the subject of a corresponding clause particularly a passive sentence as in the following examples:

1. The men saw the accident.
2. The accident was seen by the men.

The direct object (the accident) in (1) is transformed to be the subject of the second sentence (2).
c- One more property of the direct object is the fact that it is not in number concord with either the subject or the predicate.

In addition to the characteristics of the direct object discussed so far Greenbaum et al (2002:27) introduce some grammatical roles that refer to the direct object which include the following:

1- The direct object normally comes after the verb except when the verb is ditransitive and this will be discussed later. For instance, in the following sentence the direct object comes following the verb:
- *Carter has been photographing light bulbs lately.*

   The direct object (light bulbs) comes after the verb (has been photographing).

2- One more grammatical rules referring to the direct object is that some pronouns have a distinctive form when they function as direct object as in the following sentences:
1. She phoned us earlier this evening.
2. We phoned her earlier this evening.
In one, the pronoun (we) takes the form (us) when it is used as direct object and pronoun (she) takes the form (her) when it is used as direct object in sentence (2).

3. Another rule is concerned with the fact that if the subject and direct object refer to the same person or thing, the direct object is then a reflexive pronoun. Consider the following example:
- The children hid themselves.

   In this sentence, the subject (the children), and the direct object (themselves) refer to the same person, so the direct object in this case should be a reflexive pronoun referring to the subject (the children, themselves).

**2.6.7. Linking Verbs and Subjects Complement**

The subject complement is another essential element that is part of the English sentence structure.
Jackson (1985:84) claims that the complement function may be filled either by a noun phrase or by adjective phrase as in:
- Jim has become *a qualified engineer* (NP).
- Jim seems *quite pleasant* (AdjP),

Jackson (1985:84) states that the subject complement is identified by its reference to the subject. This means that the subject complement completes and gives information and describes the subject of the sentence.

Furthermore, a complement my refer either to a state as in; (Harry seems ill) in which the complement (ill) describes the state [f the subject) (Harry), or the complement may refer to result as in: (Harry has become ill).

Wardhaugh (1995:87) defines linking verbs as those verbs that take either a noun phrase or an adjective phrase as a subject complement or take an obligatory adverb phrase.

Noun phrases occur as subject complements in the following:
- The teacher was (an old friend).
- That was (the information he sought).
- He seems (a good sort).
- It's (mine).
- His goal was (more weapons).
- They are (a fine couple).

From the examples above, it is clear that the parenthesized phrases are all noun phrases functioning as subject complements. it can be commented that noun phrases functioning as subject complements occur after the linking verbs (be) and (seem).

In addition to noun phrase, adjective phrase also occur as subject complements as is illustrated in the following sentences:
- You are (very sensitive).
- Bill appears (uncertain).
- The coffee tastes (good).
- Keep (Quiet).
- Are you (afraid of flying).
- It seems (certain to happen).
- The picture looks (good).
- The milk turned (sour).

In these sentences, the parenthesized phrases are all adjectives phrases functioning as subject complements, and the possible linking verbs that can be followed by adjective phrases include the verbs; (be, appear, taste, keep, seem, look, and turn) as the examples suggest.

Preposition phrases or adverb phrases can also function as subject complement. And this often occurs as obligatory with the verb (be) as in the following sentences:
- They are (outside).
- He is at (the race).
- John and Mary were (in London).
- The water is (off).

After studying the different forms that the subject complement can take and that are noun phrases, adjective phrase or adverb or prepositional phrases, a number of characteristics can be detected about the subject complement.

Scott et al (1968:44) introduce three important characteristics of the subject complement which include the following:

a- The nominal group items that represent the subject complement either are of the usual type with noun at (head), or have an adjective at (head). For instance, in the sentence (The minister seemed very angry), the subject complement (very angry) has and adjective at head (angry), while in (He become a leader) the subject complement has a noun at head (leader).

b- The items that represent the subject complement cannot be transformed into a passive construction i-e they only come following a linking verb.

c- There is a number concord between the subject and complement when the complement is represented by a noun- headed group e.g: in :
(He felt a fool) both subjects (he) and complement (a fool) are singular. While in; (They felt complete fools) both subjects (they) and complement (complete fools) are plural.

A clear and detailed classification of linking verbs is given by Halliday (1985:63).

He illustrated the different types of linking verbs that are followed by subject complements. He stated that subject complements come following:

1- Verb of perception, as in the following examples:
   a- Mary (looked) amazed.
   b- They (seem) very happy.
   c- It (sounds) strange.
   d- It (smelled) so good.
   e- He (feels) tired.

In these examples, the subject complements are: amazed, very happy, state, so good and tired. All these complements come following the verbs of perception: Look, seem, sounds, smelled and feels respectively., and as it previously explained, these subject complements give further information about the subject, for instance (amazed) gives us information about Mary's state.

2- Verbs that have to do with change: These verbs include verbs like; become, grow, turn into, get, as in the following examples:
   a- John (has become) a great man.
   b- It (is getting) hot.
   c- He (has) grown) old.

In these sentences, a great man, hot and old are subject complements that come following verbs that have to do with change, (become, get and grow). The subject complements following these kinds of verbs tell the change happened or is happening to the subject. e.g.: (a great man) in (a) is the change that has happened to John, which means that he was not a great man but now he has become great.
For the purpose of the present study, it is quite important to be aware of the fact that some items in the English sentence often define, describe, and give information about the subject and that, these items occur after certain kinds of verbs that are classified as linking verbs. Being aware of these facts might contribute greatly to understanding English sentences, and then understanding full texts.

2.6.8. Direct Object and Indirect Object

Another basic element that is part of the English sentence structure is the indirect object. Because the indirect object often occurs with the direct object, they are often discussed together.

Jackson (1992:84) claims that some clauses have two objects direct and indirect. The indirect object normally refers to a person more particularly, the person who is recipient or who benefits from the action. For example, in “(John gave his wife a yellow flower), (his wife) is indirect object and recipient. In the sentence (Agatha knitted her husband a yellow pullover).

Greenbaum (2002:30) stresses the fact that the indirect object refers to a person indirectly affected by the action described in the sentence. The person generally receives something or benefits from something as in the following:
1- Ruth gave (my son) a birthday present.
2- I can show (you) my diploma.
3- My friends will save (her) a seat.
4- You may ask (the speaker) another question.

2.6.9 The Characteristics of the Indirect Object

The indirect object is known by certain properties in the structure of the sentence.

Greenbaum (2002:31) introduces the following points about the characteristics of the indirect object:
1- The indirect object comes after the verb: e.g.: in: Ruth gave (my son) a birthday present), the indirect object (my son) comes after the verb (gave).

2- If the subject and indirect object refer to the same person, the indirect object is generally a reflexive pronoun. e.g.:
- The managing director paid (herself) a huge salary. The indirect object in this sentence is (herself) and it refer to the subject that why it is a reflexive pronoun.

3- When an active sentence is turned into a passive sentence, the indirect object of the active sentence can become the subject of the passive sentence: as in:
- The principal granted (Tony) an interview.
- Tony was granted an interview.

Murphy (1991:6) gives a brief definition of the indirect object claiming that it is a word or words that receive the direct object. He adds that the indirect object is encountered in two different ways:

1- When an indirect object follows the direct object, the indirect object will be preceded by to, for or of, as in the following examples:
   a- He gave the book to me.

   In this sentence, the direct object of (gave) is (book). (Me) is the indirect object and is preceded by (to).
   b- The professor asked a question of (her).

   Here the direct object is (a question). (Her) is the indirect object and is preceded by (of).

2- When an indirect object appears between the verb and the direct object, the indirect object will appear without to, for or of, as in the following:
   a- He gave (me) the book.
   b- The professor asked (her) a question.

   The indirect objects in these sentences are (me) and (her) and as the rule says they are not preceded by any preposition because they come between the verb and the direct object.
Since the basic sentence elements are most often determined by the type of verb used in the sentence, it is necessary to touch on the type of verb used with the indirect object.

Jackson (1992:87) states that verbs that take two objects as complements are called distransitive verbs. They include a number of verbs as: give, make, leave, tell, ask, fine, charge, offer, and like. To sum up, awareness of objects in the sentence is important for understanding what the sentence wants to say. For instance, when the reader realizes that a certain item is indirect object he/she will understand that this item receives or something is done for it and this definitely will guide a correct interpretation of the sentence.

In the next section compounding of the different groups that can exist in the structure of the English sentence will be explained.

2.7 Possible Number of Groups as Elements in the Sentence

- In the structure of the English sentence sometimes more than one group can be found at clause elements.

Scott (1968:148) emphasizes that more than one group as clause elements is a normal phenomenon that exists in the structure of English sentences. They investigate this by discussing the clause elements individually or in pairs as it is explained below:

2.7.1. The Subject and Complement

The subject and complement may be represented by one or more group. When there are several noun phrases representing a single subject or complement they may be linked or opposed.

a- linked subjects and complements:

The following examples that include linked subjects are to be considered:

1- All over town hearty goodnight and tender farewells were being exchanged.
2- The political labels, the social or origins and the personal opinions of individuals are forgotten.
3- These two uses for the land, the material and the spiritual may come in conflict and often do.
4- Stagnation and an absence of progress followed from this policy.
5- His emphasis upon moral excellence, his enmity to alcohol, his passion for cleanliness for the land and for farming were all to be fulfilled by a few generation.

These examples include two or more noun groups in each sentence, these groups, whether simple or complex, linked together. The linkage may be by particle like "and", but more subtly, it may be by sharing of an element. In sentence (2), for example, of individuals, which occurs as qualifier in the third nominal group, is shared by the two preceding noun groups. In (3) the noun groups, the material" and "the spiritual" which are linked by the particle, are together linked to the preceding noun group by sharing "uses for the land".

b- apposed subjects and complement:

The following sentences include noun groups that are apposed in the subjects and complements.
1- Our manager, Mr. Papados, will help you.
2- The sheriff interviewed Wild Bill, the bad man of the prairie.
3- The question "whether" he should stay must be decided at once.
4- His latest proposal is this: "that hedgehogs should be used as combs:.

In example (1) and (2) the noun groups are apposed in the subject and the complement respectively and in (3) and (4) a clause is a apposed to a noun group in the subject and complement respectively. Apposition differs from linkage because in the apposition relationship both noun groups have the same referent and both are alternative in the structure. Either might be deleted but not both.
2.7.2. The Predicator

Thomas (2001:98) states that in English sentences a series of linked verbs may occur. Such linked verbs are considered not as the heads of separate simple verbal groups but as linked heads of one complex group. As in the following sentences:

1- She has "washed" and "combed" her hair.
2- She "ironed", "folded" and "counted: the washing.

In these sentences there are linked verbs: washed and combed", "ironed, folded and counted". These linked verbs should be understood as belonging to one complex group and not as the head of separate simple verbal groups.

Multi- Predicated clauses have two main links according to the presence or the absence of another element intervening between the predicator elements. These can be referred to as (1) multi-predicated clauses with no intervening element and (2) multi-predicated clauses with an intervening element.

(1) Multi-Predicated clauses with no intervening element:

This structure consists of adverbs which are infinitive with to, bare infinitive and gerund, as in the following examples:
- He helped wash the dishes.
- She likes to play chess.
- He wants to visit London.
- Many people enjoy watching television.

In such structures the first verb and the following verb form together the predicator "The first verb in this structure are known as catenative verbs.

(2) Multi-Predicated clause with an intervening element:

This type of multi-predicated clauses has three main structures that form group constituents:
This structure consists of an adjective followed by a verbal group with infinitive with to. Such verb groups share the same subject as the first verb group. The examples below are to be considered:

- The man is eager to please.
- The prime Minister seemed anxious to expedite the legislative programme.
- They will be happy to help if they can.

Structure (6):

For realizing the nature of this structure, the following sentences illustrate the point:

- The man is easy to please.
- The piece of music is difficult to play.
- These children are impossible to train.

Compared to structure (a) the subject in structure (b) can be transposed as the complement of the second verb group. This establishes that in:

- The man is easy to please.

The man is both subject of (is) and complement of "to please", its complement relationship with "to please" which is quite obvious in the transforms, still remains in structure (6). The transforms can be:

- The man is easy to please.
- It is easy to please the man.
- To please the man is easy.

A further difference between structure (a) and (b) is that only in (a) may the second predicate be followed by a complement. It is possible to find:

- She is happy to help her friends but there is no.
- She is easy to please them.

When the subject or complement is represented by a pronoun, the relationship with both predicators still persists.

She is easy to please.

The pronoun is, of course, in the form appropriate for a subject. But in the transforms it adopts the forms appropriate for the complement:
She is easy to please.
It is easy to please her
To please her is easy.
Structure (c):

For the recognition of structure (c) of the predication structure the following examples are to be studied:
- The scouts let "Jack" lead the way.
- The visitor helped "her" wash the sidles.
- The government took "steps" to suppress the rebellions.
- She teaches "deaf children" to read.
They instructed "a commission" to investigate the change.
- you can hear "the love-sick wood pigeons" moving in bed".
- They noticed "a man" beckoning to them.

By deep investigation of the above sentences, the noun groups between the two verbs in each sentence are related to these verb groups. They are complements of the verb groups that precede and subjects of the verb groups that follow. The following transformation may help to demonstrate this:
You can hear the love-sick wood pigeons.

The love-sick wood pigeons are moving in bed. You can hear the love-sick wood pigeons moving in bed.

2.7.3. The Adjunct

Thomas (2001:122) points out that the adjunct may be represented by one or more adverbial or prepositional groups. If there are more than one adjunct they may be linked or apposed, or both. Some instances of linked, apposed and linked and apposed can be explained with examples:
a- linked adjunct:
1- The chairman squashed the suggestion very abruptly and quite finally.
20 The band marched "down the hill" and "over the bridge" till they come to the village green.
3- By intermarriage, by a common education of an exclusive European type, by a shedding of specifically native habits, the smaller race will eventually be absorbed into the more numerous.

4- This situation of amity was only reached after a decade of vigorous controversy from the end of the war" to the start of the depression.

These sentences from) 1) to (4) includes linked adjuncts. Sentence (1) consists of two linked adverbials while sentence (2), (3) and (4) contain linked prepositional groups. It is noted that the agency of the linkage may vary. In sentence (2) the particle "and" is used for linking. In (3) the repetition of by is the linking word whereas in) 4_ the particles "from" and "to" are paired.

b- Apposed adjuncts:

Thomas (2001:124) indicates that adjuncts can be apposed in an English sentence. The apposed adjuncts are alternatives, one being more specific than the other:
1- We live "here" in "Oban".
2- The guide led the way "back", "to the cave entrance".
3- The pioneers looked "out" across the magnificent plain.

c- Linked and apposed adjuncts:

Linked and apposition of group at adjuncts may be combined as in the following examples:
"Working conditions and wage level must be guarded by other means, by arbitration, and by political pressure.

**2.8. Predicates, Augments and Thematic Roles**

The three concepts or notions, predicates, agreement and thematic roles represent a point of interaction between syntax and semantics. Awareness of this interaction acts as one of the essential factors that help in reading and understanding sentences and texts. Because of the some explanation concerning these three notions and their relationship need to be made.
Arts (1997:91) investigates the notion of predicates and arguments by analyzing the following sentence:

1- Crocodile devoured a doughnut.

Aarts says that this sentence consists of a subject (the crocodile), predicate (devoured), a predicate (devoured) and a direct object (doughnut). Both the subject and direct object are realized by noun phrases, whereas the predicate is realized by verb.

Considering this sentence from a different angle, it can be noticed that the verb (devour) cannot form a sentence on its own: it requires the presence of other elements to form meaningful proposition. "Devour" in the act of devouring something, and what is was that was being devoured. So an element such as "devour" is referred to as predicate and the participants (the crocodile, a doughnut) are referred to as arguments:

What is worth noting again about predicate is the fact that not only verbs can be predicates, nouns, adjectives and prepositions can too as in the following:

(1) Paul's study of art history.
(2) Freddy is fond of his sister.
(3) The bird is inside the house.

In the first expression, the noun "study" requires the specification of a subject expression i.e. it requires the specification of "a studier" in this case "Paul", it also requires the specification of an internal, i-e what is being studied, namely "art history". In the second and third sentence the subjects expressions are "Freddy" and "the bird", respectively, while "of his sister" and "the house" correspond to the internal arguments found in verb phrases.

2.8.1. Thematic Role

The arguments or participants of a verb carry thematic role. There are a number of thematic roles that are widely accepted.

Yule (1985:94) introduces the following thematic roles that can be played by participants in sentences:
1- Agent: The doer of the action denoted by the predicate.
2- Patient: The undergoers of the action or event denoted by the predicate.
3- Theme: The entity that is moved by the action or event denoted by the predicate.
4- Experiencer: The living entity that experiences the action or event denoted by the predicate.
5- Goal: The location or entity in the direction of which something moves.
6- Benefactive: The entity that benefits from the action or event denoted by the predicate.
7- Source: The location or entity from which something moves.
8- Locative: The specification of the place where the action or event denoted by the predicate is situated.

2.9. Grammatical Functions and Thematic Roles

Nelson et al (2002: 34) comments that sentence elements are grammatical, not semantic categories. However, they are associated with certain meaning. Since the present study is concerned with understanding sentences by identifying their parts, it will be of a great value to know more about grammatical function and thematic roles.

Nelson (2002 :35) assigns the possible roles that can be played by each individual grammatical function as subject, verb, direct object, indirect object and adverbial.

2.9.1. The Subject

The subject takes the following roles, according to the structure of the sentence: agentive, identified, characterised, affected, it.

1- Agentive:

In sentences with a transitive or intransitive verb, the subject typically has an agentive role which means the person that performs the action a sin the following sentences:
- Martha has switched on the television.
Caroline is calling.
In these two sentences, Martha and Caroline are agentive because they perform the action of switching on and calling.

2- Identifier:

This role occurs in structure with a linking verb as in:
- Germy was my best friend.
- Doris is my sister-in-law.
Here, the two subjects Jeremy and Doris are identified as being best friend and sister-in-law respectively.

3- Characterized:

Like the identified, the characterized role is also typical of structures with a linking verb. Consider the following sentences:
- This food tastes delicious.
- Paul is an excellent student.

The two subjects of the above sentences, this food, and Paul, are characterized as being "delicious" and "excellent student".

4- Affected:

The affected roles occur in structures with an intransitive verb in which case the subject directly affected by the action, but not intentionally performing the action:
- They are drowning.
- The water has boiled.

In these two sentences the subject "they" and "the water" have been affected by drowning and boiling.

2.9.2. The Verb

The verb undoubtedly carries the central meaning of any sentence. The major distinction in meaning is between verbs that are dynamic.

Stative verbs introduce a quality attributed to the subject or a state of affairs as in:
- I am a French citizen.
- Their children are noisy.
- She has two brothers.

Dynamic verbs introduce events. They refer to something that happens:
- Her books sell well.
- Your ball has broken my window.
- I listened to her respectfully.

The meanings of all the above sentences indicate that something happens or has happened because they contain dynamic verbs.

2.9.3. The direct object

The direct object can help play the role of affected resultant and eventive.

1- Affected:

The affected roles means that the object directly affected by the action:
- She shook "her head".
- I threw "the note" on the floor.

In these sentence the objects "her head" and "the note" are affected by shaking and throwing.

2- Resultant:

The direct object can take the role of the action:
- He has written "an account of his travels".
- I am knitting a sweater for myself.

3- Eventive:

The eventive object generally contains a noun that is derived from a verb. The noun carries the main part of the meaning that is normally carried by the verb, and is preceded by a verb of general meaning as do, have, or make:
- They were having a "a quarrel".
- I have made my choice.
In these sentences, the objects a "quarrel" and "my choice" are eventive because they carry the main part of the meaning which is normally carried by the verb (they were quarrelling", (I have chosen).

2.9.4. The Indirect Object

Jan (1996:103) Points out that the indirect object is often associated with the role recipient or benefactive. The indirect object is either recipient or benefactive. The indirect object either receives something or benefits in some way.
- They paid the fees.
- He bought Sara a bunch of flower.

In these sentences the indirect objects "me" and "Sara" have the role of recipient or benefactive because things are made for them.

2.9.5. Subject Complement and Object Complement

The role played by the complement is often the role of attribute. It attributes identification or characterization on the subject if it is subject complement, or the direct object if it is an object complement, consider the following sentences:
- Susan is my secretary.

I have made David my assistant.

In these sentences, "my secretary" is a subject complement and its role is attribute because it characterizes Susan, while assistant is an object complement, an attribute that characterizes the object "David".

2.10 Function- Form Relationships

Aarts (1988:71) pinpoints that it is worth noting that in Language, there is a lack of a one-to-one relationship between the various forms we encounter and the functions they perform. The converse also holds: a particular function may be performed by different forms. Because of this it is very necessary to
distinguish between function and form. This can be done by discussing the several ways in which each grammatical function can be realized.

2.10.1. Realizations of the subject

When talking about the realization of the subject, the purpose is knowing the particular forms that subjects have different forms as follows:

1- NPS function as subject:

The subject can take the form of a noun phrase as in the following sentences:

1. {The man} ate the cream cake.
2. {A rat} bit my toe.
3. {This shoe} hurts me.
4. {Academics} never lie.

2- Prepositional phrases functioning as subject:

The following sentences include prepositional phrases that function as subject.

- (After Saturday) would be a good time to go away for a few days.
- (Between eleven and midnight) suits me alright.
- (Under the stairs) was a safe area to be during the war.
- (Outside the fridge) is not a good place to keep milk.

An important point that heed to be observed is that prepositional phrase as subjects are usually either specifying time interval, or a location as included in the above sentences:

3- Adjective phrase functioning as subject:

The subject of an English sentence can also be on adjective phrase as in the following example:

- (Resultless) is what I would call him.

The following sentence exemplifies the subject that takes the form of an adverb phrase:

- Cautiously is how I would suggest you do it.
Not only phrases alone are capable of functioning as subjects in English sentences.

4- Finite clauses functioning as subject:

Finite clauses functioning as subject are introduced as in the following examples:
- That he will go to New York soon.
- Because he is generous, doesn't mean that he is rich.
- What the terrorists said puzzled the police.
- Why she consented remains a mystery.

5- Non-finite clauses functioning as subject.

Aarts (1988:73) stresses that non-finite clauses too can perform the function of subject. These types of clauses include five types, -ing participle clauses, -ed participle clauses and small clauses. These can be investigated in illustration.

a- To-infinite clauses functioning as subject:

To-infinite clauses can take a subject of their own in which case the subject is always preceded by (for). When these clauses have no subject they can be of two types, they are either not introduced at all, or they are introduced by a wh-word. Consider the following examples:
- (For Judith to buy that house) would spell disaster.
- (For Judith us to understand the issues) requires a major mental effort.
- (To be a good teacher) is more difficult than people think).
- (To see her) is to love her.
- (What to read during the holidays) is the question all students are asking.
- (Who to ask for permission) seems quite clear.

b- Bare infinitive clauses functioning as subject:

Bare infinitive clauses functioning as subject are rare and used informally as in:
- (Party the night away) is a nice thing to do.

c- -ing participle clauses functioning as subject:
It is normal to find - ing participle clauses as subjects in the English sentences. Consider the following examples:
- (Students working on the roof) poses a safety risk.
- (John buying all those books) will cost his father a fortune.
- (Running a business) is hard work.
- (Swimming in this lake) will make ill.

For successful reading, it is important to realize full the subject of each sentence. This requires an awareness of the different forms that subjects can take. Because of this researcher has introduced the different realization of the subject to help in identifying boundaries of the sentence elements and so achieving good reading.

2.10.2. Realization of the predicate

Bas. (2001:8) indicates that the predicate in a sentence consists of everything. Thus the subject. Thus in the sentence:
- Eric "lost his keys yesterday" is the predicate. The predicate is distinguished inside the predicate which is the verb "lost", the direct object the "NP his keys" and adjunct the "NP yesterday".

As for the realization of the predicator, it is claimed that the predicator is a constituent that is usually realized by verbal forms only. If the predicate consists of a verb phrase only, the functions predicate and predicator are realized by the same constituent;
- Lions roar.
At dawn the party set out.
- The jewels had vanished.
The man was dying.
Two of the prisoners may have escaped.
- The child should have been sleeping
- The case must have been being investigated at the time.
By reference to the above examples the verb phrases (roar, set out, had vanished, was dying, may have escaped, should have sleeping, must have been being investigated) function as predicate and predicator because they consist of a verb phrase only.

2.10.3. Realizations of the Direct Object

Direct objects can be realized by the following range of phrases and clauses, Non-phrases, and non-infinitive clauses. It is useful to discuss them in isolation - Realizations of the direct object:

1- Noun phrases functioning as direct object: Here are some examples of non phrases as direct objects:
   - Sarah admires (the president).
   - She described (the event).
   - They attended (the meeting).

2- Finite clauses functioning as direct object:

   Greenbaum (1996:32) declares that finite clauses functioning as direct objects include that-clauses and wh-clauses as in the examples below:
   - The government believes (that the voters are stupid).
   - Mary doubts (that her boyfriend will ever change).
   - We regret (that we appointed you).
   - You know (what I mean).
   - I don't remember that (why he said that).

3- Non-finite clauses functioning as direct object:

   Non-finite direct object clauses can be realized by all five types of non-finite clauses, -ing participle clauses, -ed participle clauses and small clauses.

   a- To-infinitive clauses functioning as direct object:

   These clauses can be introduced with a subject of their own and without a subject of their own in which case either they are not introduced at all or they are introduced by a wh-word. The following examples explain these points:
   She wants to leave.
- We hope to see you soon.
- He forgot (what to say to his teacher).
- John couldn't decide (who to marry).

b- Bare infinite clauses functioning as direct object:

The verbs that take bare infinitive clauses as direct objects are merely verbs of perception and causative verbs. Here are some examples:
- We saw {the sunrise}.
- She made {her enemy}.
- I let {the situation pass}.

c- -ing participle clauses functioning as direct object:

These kinds of clauses can occur both with and without a subject of their own. Consider the following examples:
- I heard (John singing in the bath).
- We could smell (something burning).
- The witness saw (someone running away).
- I can't imagine (traveling to Moscow).
- She hated (eating meat).

d- -ed participle clauses functioning as direct object:

These clauses always take a subject when they function as direct objects, the following sentences reveals this statement:
- We had (the permission jailed).
- I need (my watch repaired).
- They found (the door locked).

2.10.4. Realization of the indirect object

Greenbaum (2001) claims that indirect objects are very restricted in their realization. More often than not they are noun phrases. Occasionally they are wh-clauses/ the following sentences include indirect object realized by noun phrases and by wh-clauses:
- She told (her brother) Alie.
- He gave (his friend) a birthday present.
- John told (whoever wanted to hear it) his story.

In these examples, her brother and his friend are noun phrases functioning as indirect objects "whoever wanted to hear it" is a wh-clause functioning as indirect object.

2.10.5. Realization of Adjuncts

Adjuncts can be adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, noun phrases, finite clauses, non-finite clauses and small clauses.

1- Adverbs functioning as adjunct:

The sentences below consist of adjuncts that are realized as adverb phrases:

- He cleaned the house (quite cheerfully).
- They (repeatedly) had their car stolen.
- (Officially) the company denied all responsibility.

In these examples, the adverb phrases "quite" cheerfully", "repeatedly", and "officially" all function as adjuncts in the sentences.

2- Prepositional phrases functioning as adjunct:

Some adjuncts in English sentences can be in the form of prepositional phrases as it is explained in the following sentences:

- We met (at the station).
- Franck cut the bread (with a penknife).
- They always drink sherry (before dinner).

In these sentences the prepositional phrases "at the station", "with a penknife" and "before "dinner" functioning as adjuncts that express the semantic notion location, instrument, and time respectively.

3- Non phrases functioning as adjunct:

When adjuncts are realized by noun phrases, they usually specify "time when". Consider these examples:

- We discovered the Italian restaurant (yesterday).
- The crisis began (last year).
- He wants me to do it (this second).
The noun phrases "yesterday", "last year", and "this second" are adjuncts.

4- Finite clauses functioning as adjuncts:

Finite clauses functioning as adjuncts are introduced by a subordinator and they often express a variety of meaning as time, reason, condition, result and purpose, as in the following sentences:
- They will be cooking the meal (when we arrive).
- He doesn't like her because she doesn't respect him.
- I will go to London (of I collect enough money).
- Tell her to hurry up (so that we can go out).

5- Non-finite clauses functioning as adjuncts:

All types of noun-finite clauses can function as adjuncts. The following sentences include the different types of noun-finite clauses that function as adjuncts.
- We need some music (to enjoy the evening).
- (Rather than sell the painting) Ike preferred to destroy it.
- (Standing on a table), Dawn addressed the cord.

2.10.6. Realization of the Subject Attributes

The subject attributes can be realized by different functions. Greenbaum (2001:27) listed the following; a noun phrase, an adjective phrase, a prepositional phrase, a finite clause, and a non-finite clause. These will be explained with their examples.

1-Noun phrases

The following examples include noun phrases that function as subject attributes:
1-Martin will make a good husband.
2-Your proposal seems a good solution.
3-His death will remain a mystery.

In these three examples the subject attributes are realized by the noun phrases a good husband, a good solution, and a mystery respectively.
2-The adjective phrase

   Like noun phrases, adjective phrases can also function as subject attributes as in the following sentences:
1-Suddenly, everything went black.
2-He appeared glad to see me.
3-Your coffee smells good the proposal sounds quite interesting.

   As it is observed in the above three sentences, the adjectives phrases black, glad to see me, and good function as subject attributes respectively.

3-Prepositional phrases

   Below are some examples that show prepositional phrases functioning as subject attributes:
1-My brother is in the United States.
2-Mary feels on top of the world.
3-The party was on Wednesday.

   In the United States, on top of the world, and on Wednesday are prepositional phrases that function as subject attributes.

4-Finite clauses

   Considering the following sentences that contain finite clauses functioning as subject attributes will explain the point:
1-The question is whether there is enough to go round.
2-He does not want to be what his father was.
3-Things remain as they had been in the past.

5-Non-finite clauses

   Non-finite clauses that function as subject attributes include infinitive clauses and –ing clauses. Here are some examples;
1-The government first concern will be to strengthen the economy.
2-All you have to do is to ask for further information.
3-Visiting Athens is seeing Greece at its best.
2.11 Linguistic Units and the Sentence

The description of the various components of a grammar has always concentrated on different sorts of linguistic units. Semantic descriptions have recently begun to pay attention to larger units than the word. As for syntactic descriptions, they have traditionally taken the sentence as their starting point, smaller units being primarily regarded as building-blocks of sentences.

Since the present study deals with the structure of sentences, some important primary issues about the sentence may be a crucial guide towards knowing the nature of sentences. These issues incorporate the concept of word-order and sentence structure, word meaning and sentence structure, structural ambiguity, the notation of constituents, rankscale and rankshift, and functions and categories.

Aarts (1988:7) says that sentences consist of words but he adds that if a sequence of words is to constitute a sentence, it must be meaningful. This leads to the important point of word-order.

2.11.1. Word-order and Sentence Structure

Aarts (1988:9) approaches the concept of word-order by introducing the following string of words:

1-Lion cage this less in dangerous is the.

In this string of words it is true that some sort of meaning could be assigned to each word individually but the sequence as a whole fails to make sense.

Consider this second string of words:

2-The lion is less dangerous in this cage.

If sentence (1) is compared to (2), it could be noted that failure to make grouped together. Sentence (2) on the other hand, is meaningful because it is completely obvious that the word less combines with dangerous to form less dangerous, rather than with is to form is less. Similarly, the combines with lion, this with cage, and in with this cage. Thus in (2) there are three coherent groups of words: the lion, less dangerous, and in this cage.
The two examples (1) and (2) reveal that one of the factors that determines the structure of a sentence is the order in which the words are arranged. This leads to think always of how words are ordered in order to deal with and understand sentence structure.

2.11.2. Word meaning and sentence structure

Word-order is not the only factor that determines sentence structure. The structure of a sentence also depends on the individual meanings of the words making up the sentence.

Cruse (2000:285) points out that the syntactic properties of words are determined by or predicted from their meanings. A study (reported in Levin and Hovar Rapport 1992) shows a tight relationship between the meaning of a set of verbs and their complementation patterns. This study involves what are called verbs of removal such as those in the following sentences:
1- John cleared the leaves from the lawn.
2- Mary wiped the offending words from the blackboard.

Both the two verbs cleared and wiped also occur in a pattern in which the location is the direct object of the verb. Consider the following:
3- John cleared the lawn.
4- Mary wiped the blackboard.

In a different structure the two verbs differ in their ability to occur in a pattern where the locatum (the thing which is removed) is expressed by an of-phrase as in:
5- John cleared the lawn of leaves.
6- Mary wiped the blackboard of offending words.

The verb wipe can occur in this pattern only if a final state is specified as in:
7- Mary wiped the blackboard clean of offending words.

The patterns in which they occur separate these verbs of removal into three distinct classes:
a- Clear verbs: clear verbs include verbs as clear, clean and empty
b-Wipe verbs: they include verbs like buff, brush, file, mop, pluck, rake, rinse, rub, scour, scrape, scratch, shear, shovel, sponge, trim, vacuum, wipe.
c-Removal verbs: these verbs include dislodge, draw, evict, pry, remove, steal, uproot, withdraw, wrench.

The study arrived at the following generalizations that emerged from the semantic features of the verbs:
1-Clear verbs: These verbs all encode the final state of the entity being acted on, but do not encode either the manner in which the final state is achieved or the instrument which is used. Consistent with this, they are typically derived from adjectives denoting the final state: this is true of the verbs clear, clean, and empty, which are zero-derived from adjectives.
2-Wipe verbs: these verbs all encode either a manner (e.g. wipe) or an instrument (e.g. brush), but do not entail that a particular state will result (the fact that a blackboard has been wiped is no guarantee that it is clean). None of these verbs is adjectival: those like brush which encode an instrument, are typically derived from the noun denoting the instrument.
3-Remove-verbs: these are characterized by the fact that they encode neither a final state nor a way of carrying out the action.
To sum up it could be stated that at the very least there is a clause relationship between meaning and sentence structure.

2.11.3. Structural Ambiguity

It has been discussed so far that structure is overtly indicated by word order and different lexical items. Sentence structure is, however, not always unambiguously derived from overt marks from these.

An ambiguous sentence is one to which it can be assigned more than one structure and therefore more than one meaning.

Haegman (2006:65) starts the illustration of structural ambiguity by stating that word meaning can contribute to the meaning of a sentence in addition to the role of the arrangement of words into a sentence.
Liliane (2006:65) introduces the following example to reveal the phenomenon of ambiguity:

-Mr. Straw decided to appoint a panel of independent doctors to examine General Pinochet on January 5

The string of words on January 5 provides information about a date or, in more general terms about time. The date given (January 5) refers to the time of some action or event. When reading this sentence, it seems that there three possible ways of relating (on January 5) to the sentence: on January 5 may denote the time of Mr. Straw deciding, (2) it may denote the time of appointing, or it may denote the time of examining.

Thus, it can be concluded that this sentence is three ways ambiguous i.e. one string of words has three interpretations. The ambiguity does not reside in a lexical ambiguity of any one of the individual words in the string (on January 5). These words have a constant meaning in this sentence, whichever the interpretation chosen.

The three readings of (January 5) are due to the structural relations in the sentence. Ambiguities which arise through different structural relations are known as structural ambiguity.

In the discussion of what has been investigated so far the following can be concluded:
1-If a sequence of words is to constitute a sentence, it must be meaningful.
2-Sentences are interpreted not as strings of individual words but as sequences of groups of words.
3-There exist certain relations between the words and word-groups of a sentence.
4-The network of relations between the words and word-groups of a sentence is called its structure.
5-Clues to the structure of a sentence can be found in its word-order and in the meanings of the words in the sentence.
Although word-order provides a significant clue to the structure of a sentence, sentence structure is not always observed in the linear sequence of the words in the sentence.

### 2.11.4. The Notation of Sentence Structure

To make the structure of the sentences visible, two devices for the notation of sentence structure can be used: diagramming and bracketing. For example, the structure, *John took a walk* can be diagrammed as follows:

(John) ((took) (a walk))

The second device employs brackets to indicate structure as follows:

John took a walk

Each of the above notations represent the sentence as consisting of two major parts: (John) and (took a walk), the second of which is again divisible into two parts: (took) and (a walk), while the latter part falls apart into (a) and (walk).

### 2.11.5. Constituents

In examining the form of the English sentences, it seems that there are certain regularities in their structures in terms of where words may occur and words and phrases may combine with each other.

Flora. et al (1988:10) defines constituents as the parts into which a sentence can be segmented. The term immediate constituents refers to those constituents which together form a higher-order constituent. In the sentence:

(John took a walk) which was previously discussed, (a) and (walk) are the immediate constituents of (a walk), (took) and (a walk) are the immediate constituents of (took a walk), while (John) and (took a walk) are the immediate constituents of the sentence.

Knowledge of constituents play a vital role in the interpretation of sentences, therefore, students need to pay a great attention to fully appreciate them.
2.11.6. Phrases, Words and Morphemes

The investigation of constituents often leads to touch on when studying sentence structure.

Aarts refers to phrases as linguistic units that function as constituents in the sentence. Phrases may consist of one word or of more than one word. Almost every phrase can be lengthened by adding more words. In doing so the internal structure of the phrase is changed but not the structure of the sentence of which it is a constituent. (man) can be lengthened to (old man), (go) by (may have gone).

Words, on the other hand, can be examined as independent linguistic units with their different word classes as nouns, verbs, adjectives. Moreover, words can be analyzed in terms of their structure (morphemes).

2.11.7. Rankscale and Rankshift

Rankscale refers to the hierarchy of the units of linguistic description. This hierarchy is explained by the fact that morphemes function as constituents of words, words function as constituents of phrases, and phrases function as constituents of sentences.

However, a very important fact is to be considered. Units are not always consistently composed of units of the next lowest rank. Quite frequently, a unit of a given rank functions as a constituent of a unit of the same rank or even of a unit which is one step lower down the rankscale, this phenomenon is called rankshift. Thus it is possible for sentences to function as constituents of other sentences and even as constituents of phrases. Phrases can be constituents of other phrases and may function in the structure of other words.

2.11.8. Functions and categories

Muysken (2008:16) defines function as linguistic units that play its role in a larger linguistic structure. If it is viewed as something that has individual
characteristics which it shares with other units of the same kind, here the concern is with the category or class to which it belongs. For example, in the sentence:

Tom ate cakes.

In this sentence the two noun phrases (Tom) and (cakes) realize two different functions in one and the same sentence. This example shows that there is not necessarily a one-to-one correspondence between functions and categories: not only may the same category realize different functions, but the same function may be realized by different categories.

In this chapter a great deal of attention is given to sentence functions, the phrase and the sentence. Furthermore, emphasis on the structure is made. Here, the units of linguistic descriptions are examined with respect to their internal structure as well as with respect to the ways in which they function as constituents in larger structures. The relationship between sentence functions and the categories by which these functions may be realized are also investigated.

2.12 The Concept of Phrase

Since this study focuses on understanding the English sentence groups, it is undoubtedly important to shed light on the concept and the importance of knowing the groups.

University students, doing English as a major subject should be made aware of what is meant by group, so that they can be able to raise their standard of reading and understanding sentences and texts perfectly.

Maslin (1998:9) claims that in the discussion of the choice of language, no matter how wide our vocabulary may be, a single word by itself can appear somewhat vague, no matter how specific that word might seem. For instance, the term (dog) may be specific compared to mammal but it is general compared to "Collie". And "Collie" is general compared to "Lassie". Then again many different dogs played "Lassie".
To Prove that a single word is insufficient, Janet introduces a series of examples, he says:

"Suppose that you want to indicate a female person across the room. If you don't know her name, you would say: "That girl". If there were more than one, this would be too general. It lacks specificity Because of this when a single term will not supply the reference needed, terms are added to focus or limit a more general term". For example:
The girl in the blue Hawaiian shirt.

This discussion introduced by Maslin, gives and leads to a crucial concept to effective reading. Sentences are not read word by word, but chunk by chunk. Each grammatical construction is read a single unit. Deciphering sentences involves isolating phrases within a sentence and recognizing where long phrase begin and end.

Another claim about the importance of knowing and dealing with sentences in terms of group is made by Ronald Wardaugh (1995:33), who declares that the fact that sentences are constructed out of words is only true in a very narrow sense. Sentences are actually formed by putting words together in a systematic way. There are certain kinds of arrangements or structure that are possible and used over to construct sentences. These structures, as explained by Ronald, are the arrangement of words into large units such as group or phrases, clauses and sentences and they are referred to as syntactic structures.

Formkin et al (1983: 67) also emphasize the important of viewing sentences in terms of groups rather than that of words. They state that sentences are more than merely words placed one after another like beads on a string. Sentences are made up with groups that comprise the structural constituents. Fromkin et al introduce the following examples:
- The child found the puppy

In accordance with the concept of structural constituents, they claim that the above sentence is made up with two groups (constituents): (the child)
and "found the puppy". Grouping the sentence into constituents leads to the fact that constituents have different categories, and each is used in a certain position in the sentence according to the parts of phrases and this, of course, stresses the fact that sentences are formed in a systematic way and not merely by words.

Smith (1999:57) approaches the concept of phrase by using the term structured sentences of words. He illustrates this concept with the following example:

"Herry stirred the stew"

He explains that the above sentence is standardly analyzed as having the simplified structure indicated by the brackets as follows:

{Harry} {Stirred} {the stew}

This analysis means the {the stew} is a constituent, {Stirred the stew} is a constituent, and the whole sentence is constituent.

Valin (2001:4) also discusses the concept of phrase using the notion relational structure which is concerned with the organization of the units which constitute sentences. He claims that sentence does not consist simply of string of words, that is in a sentence like (The teacher read a book in the library), it is not the case that each word is equally related to the words adjacent to it in the string. There is no direct relationship between (read) and (a) or between (in) and (the); (a) is related to (book), which it modifies, just as (the) is related to (library), which it modifies. (A) is related to (read) only through (a book) being the direct object of (read), and similarly, (the) is related to (in) only through (the library) being the object of the preposition (in).

By referring to this analysis, it is clear that the words of sentence are organized into units which are then organized into larger units. These units are called constituents or phrases, and the hierarchical organization of the units in a sentence is called its constituent structure. Thus, referring to the
sentence (The teacher read a book), (the) and (teacher) constitute a constituent structure, and (in the library), constitute a constituent structure.

This interesting investigation of the sentence made by Robert leads to the crucial point that knowledge of the groups or phrases that make up the sentence is greatly needed for understanding sentences because these groups are the essential components of sentences.

The fact that the groups or phrases function as the essential elements of sentences leads to the discussion of the different types of phrases in the structure of the English sentence.

Knowing the different types of phrases and their structure acts as a cornerstone in understanding sentences and texts.

" 2.12.1. Types of Phrases

April. (2006:126) states that phrases in the structure of the English sentence are different types. These different types include the noun phrase, the verb phrase, the adjective phrase, the adverb phrase, and the prepositional phrase. For the purpose of understanding these types, examples can be helpful.

- The noun phrase: *a peaceful result*, can be analyzed as follows: the article (a) and the adjective (peaceful) and the noun (result) all together form a noun phrase.

- Verb phrase must have been dreaming here the verb phrase includes the three auxiliaries must, have and been and the main verb (dreaming).

- Adjective phrase: very pleasant. *(very pleasant)*, is a phrase that acts as an adjective phrase containing the adverb (very) and the adjective (pleasant).

- Adverb phrase: Very carefully: *(Very carefully)* is a phrase which is made up of the adverb (very) and the main adverb (carefully), the two adverbs together form one unit that functions as adverb phrase.

- Prepositional phrase: In the corner
(In the corner) is a prepositional phrase, the main word in this phrase is the preposition.

After the investigation of the examples of all the five major types of phrases it is now important to realize what each type is and what its structure looks like.

2.12.2. The Noun Phrase

- The definition of the noun phrase:

  Aarts et al (1988:61) define the noun phrase as a group of words that has a dominant member (the head) which can replace the entire phrase. The noun in the noun phrase can be preceded by a determiner and premodifier.

  Leech et al (2001:73) defines the noun phrase as a phrase which can act as subject, object or complement of clause, or as a prepositional complement. It is called a noun phrase because the word which is its head is typically a noun. For example, in the sentence:

  *John found the new secretary in his office a very attractive woman.*  
  *John, the new secretary, his office, a very attractive woman,* and *are* all noun phrases, because the dominant member in all of them is a noun, which are John, secretary, office, and woman respectively.

  The head noun in a noun phrase can be accompanied by determiners (the, a, his) and one or more modifiers.

  Warchhaugh (1995:36) defines the noun phrase as a construction that typical has either a noun or pronoun as its central constituent i-e that noun or pronoun must be regarded as the head. The other constituents that exist in the noun phrase are usually regarded as modifiers of the constituent.

  Following the definitions of the noun phrase, it is clear that it is based on what the noun phrase contains. Because of that and for the purpose of clear and deep appreciation of the noun phrase a detailed account about the different elements that constitute the noun phrase (determiners, premodifiers, postmodifiers) needs to be made.
2.12.3. The Structure of the Noun Phrase

Greenbaum (2001:47) declares that structure of the typical noun phrase may be represented in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:
(Determiner) + (premodifier) + noun + (postmodifier)

This structure means that a noun phrase consists of an obligatory noun and other optional elements e-i the parenthesized ones. These optional elements have a special order; a determiner often come first followed by premodifiers and then comes the head noun and finally postmodifiers. This can be illustrated by the following:

Noun books
Determiner + noun these books
Premodifier+noun new books
Det+postmodifier some long books
Noun+postmodifier books on astronomy
Det+noun+postmodifier some books on astronomy
Premodifier+noun+postod popular books on astronomy
Det+prenod+noun+postmod some popular books on astronomy

After the investigation of the general elements that constitute the noun phrase, now it is necessary to discuss in details these elements to help identify and understand the noun phrase when reading English sentences.

2.12.4. The Determiner

The determiner is the first element of the noun phrase. Downing et al (1992:423) indicate that the basic function of the determiner is to particularize and so help to identify the noun phrase referent in the context of the speech situation.
Determiners identify a nominal group referent by telling which or what or whose it is, how much, how many, what part or degree of it is referred to, what big or frequent it is, how it is distributed in. space or time.

Determiners by this sense have four main types of selection: demonstrative, possessive, quantification and distribution.

In the structure of the noun phrase these determiners are classified into three subclasses by the order in which they come:
1- Predetermines.
2- Central determiners.
3- Post-determiners.

The classes of items that can realize each of these sub-functions are explained in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>predeterminer</th>
<th>central determiner</th>
<th>postdeterminer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>cardinal number</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>a, an</td>
<td>ordinal numbers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a- Predeterminer:

Arts et al (1982:106) claims that the items all, double, half and twice can combine with both singular and plural heads as in the following examples:
1- All poetry.
2- All these expensive school uniforms.
3- double Peter's salary.
4- double these amounts.
5- Half this cheese.
6- half Britain's natural resources.
7- Twice his not inconsiderable energy.
8- Twice these sums.

As it is explained by the above examples, some predeterminers occur with both singular and plural head nouns, University students doing English as a major subject must realize this fact together with the fact that
predeterminers are part of the noun phrase, because this will help in reading and understanding properly.

The predeterminer (both), on the other hand requires only a plural head, as in:
- Both my sisters.
- Both his last two newspaper article.

(May), (such) and (what) as predeterminers are obligatorily followed by the indefinite article e.g:
- Many a time.
- Such a situation.
- What a pity.

There is something exceptional for (such), which is that it can combine with other predeterminers as in (all such jokes) and can come after a central determiner and a postdeterminer as in, (no such jokes), many such jokes.

b- Central determiners:

As their names suggest, central determiners come in the middle following predeterminers and preceding postdeterminers.

Central determiners such as, the definite article, the demonstrative and possessive pronoun and the specifying genitive, can all be preceded by the predeterminer items, all, both, double, half and twice and followed by cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers and the words (last) and (next). They also allocate with most of the other postdeterminer items. The indefinite article can be preceded by half, many, such, and what. The following examples illustrate the use of these central determiner items:
- double the amount.
- The fourth chapter.
- Both these books.
- this last question.
- half their property.
- Our next attempt.
- All Peter's clothes.
- John third baby.
- His many mistakes.
- The most mistakes.
- Jim's other car.
- These few exceptions.
- Half a minute.

The other items of central determiners from (another to whose) in the table cannot be preceded by predeterminer items as in the following examples:
- Another beautiful day.
- Any other solution.
- Each third sentence.
- Either case.
- Enough intelligent students.
- Every English grammar.
- Much useful information.
- Neither side.
- No problems.
- Some Japanese drawings.
- What friends.
- Which university.
- Whose books.

c. postdeterminers

Postdeterminers come following predeterminers and central determiners. They exhibit such wide range of collocational possibilities and restrictions that it is very hard to formulate general rules governing their behavior. The following examples can play a role in explaining their use:
- Half his many books.
- Any other day,
- Mary's last case.
- The first two pages.
- No other chance.
- The same man/
- Every other week.
- Any more books.
- What little money.
- What few friends.
- Some more sugar.

Some postdeterminers are not mutually exclusive; i.e. they can occur one after the other as in the following examples:
- One more drink.
- Little more news.
- Few other people.
- Little other information.
- Many other problems.
- The last two weeks.
- The next few years.
- The first ten arrivals.

In the structure of the noun phrase, determiners are not the only items that come preceding the head noun; another item is also found before the head.

2.12.5. Premodifier

Lock et al (1992: 217) maintain that the item that follows the determiners and precedes the head noun is known as premodifier. It often describes or classifies the referent of head. It characterizes the head noun by attributing qualities to it. This premodifier is realized by, an adjective phrase, a noun phrase, a classifying genitive or an adverb phrase. These different items that function as premodifiers of noun need be investigated in details.
1-Adjective phrase:

Phillipe et al (1992: 218) claim that when the adjective phrase is used as a premodifier a noun phrase, it can be realized by one word adjective phrase and at the same time it can contain an intensifier. In the following examples the adjective phrases that premodify the noun consist of one word.

- All English poetry.
- Both my younger sisters.
- Any other acceptable solution.
- Our next abortive attempt.

The following group of examples represent adjective phrase having intensifiers.

- A very old lady.
- An extremely difficult problem.
- This rather expensive clock.

As for the number of adjectives that may occur before the head noun, in principle there are no restrictions, but what the order in which adjectives appear is not always free.

To a large extend the order in adjectival strings would seem to be determined by the semantic class to which the adjectives belong. The most common semantic classes are the following:

1- Adjectives denoting nationality: English, Dutch,
2- Adjectives denoting substance.
Silk, wooden, golden, wooden.
3- Adjectives denoting color: red, green, black.
4- Adjectives denoting age: old, young.
5- Adjectives denoting shape: round, square.
6- Adjective denoting size: large, huge, small.
7- Adjective denoting other properties: fine, gay, cheap, angry, direct, secret.

Class 1 adjectives appear immediately before the head of the noun phrase, class 2 precede class 1 and so on. The table below shows the order of the
adjectives in the noun phrase according to their semantic classes discussed so far.

For the purpose of this study, the university students should be aware of the fact that when reading sentences the noun phrase can be premodified by an adjective or more.

By referring to the table above, the phrase (an expensive Swiss watch), it should be understood as a phrase that functions as one unit which is a noun phrase whose head is the noun (watch). The adjective phrase (expensive Swiss) is a premodifier of this head noun. So the whole phrase is to be grasped and interpreted as a special watch which it is made in Switzerland and that it is expensive.

The head noun of a noun phrase can also be premodified by a noun phrase as it will be investigated.

2- Noun phrase:

As it was previously mentioned, the head of a noun phrase can be premodified by another noun phrase, which often consist of a head only.

Lillian (2006:117) illustrate that the head of a noun phrase can be premodified by a single noun and it is also possible for the noun head to be premodified by a noun phrase which, in turn, is premodified by another noun phrase.

Here are some examples of head nouns that are premodified by a single noun.

- Sign language.
- Garden city.
- London policemen.
- Government decision.
- Speed limit.
- Language disorder.

The following examples show head nouns premodified by a noun phrase which, in turn, is premodified by another noun phrase:
It is also possible for the noun phrase to be premodified by coordinated nouns. Consider the following examples:
- World an U.K reports.
- A blood and thunder story,
- Cheese and cucumber sandwiches.
- A milk and fruit diet.

University students doing English as a major subjects pay a great attention to the premodification of head nouns by other nouns so as not to confuse and misinterpret the head nouns. In addition to that they must be able to work out the noun phrase meaning as one unit in order to read and understand sentences and texts properly.

For example, the noun phrase, (London policemen), the essential or major word is (policemen), (London), tell the reader which (policemen) that are the policemen that belong to (London) and not to any other place. Also, government decision means the decision made by the government and not by any other person.

As for two nouns premodifying the noun phrase as in, language disorder students, it is important to be aware of such structures because they are more complex.

This structure should be understood as students of language disorder. As for (Cambridge University press) the meaning of this is that there is a (press) this press belong to a university, this University is in Cambridge. Let's investigate also noun phrases that are premodified by coordinated nouns (cheese and cucumber sandwiches), for instance, should be interpreted as
follows, the focus is on (sandwiches), but what sandwiches? Sandwiches that are made of cheese and cucumber together. Also, (a milk and fruit diet) means a diet which is a mixture of milk and fruit.

3- Classifying genitive:

In addition to the possible premodifiers of the noun phrase, that have already been discussed, Lilian (ibid) claims that the noun phrase head may be premodified by a noun in the genitive form. The following examples support this structure:
- A dog's life.
- A men's shop.
- Women's right.
- A doctor's degree.

The noun phrase (a dog's life) means a life which is restricted to dogs. (a mean's shop) refer to a shop which is only for men.

- Adverb phrase
The noun phrase head can be premodified by an adverb phrase which consists of a head only.
Sidney. G (2000:57) introduces the following examples:
- The then chairman.
- An away game.
- A through road.
- An up train.

In the discussion of the premodification of the noun phrase head, it is obvious that the matter is a bit complicated. Therefore, University students doing English as a major subject should work hard towards recognizing all the items can function as predmodifiers of head nouns. These items include adjectives, nouns, classifying genitive and adverb phrases. When reading, attention should be given to this complex structure of the noun phrase premodification in order to understand sentence by reading them chunks by chunks and not word by word.
2.12.6. Postmodifier

In the introduction of the structure of the noun phrase, it is declared that a noun phrase head can be postmodified by a number of different items. Postmodifiers are the expressions that come following the head noun.

Bowly (1968:64) declares that in the structure of the noun phrase the function postmodifier may be realized by means of the following:
- An adjective phrase.
- An adverb phrase.
- A prepositional phrase.
- A noun phrase.
- A finite clause.
- A non-finite clause.

These items that function as postmodifiers of a noun phrase head will be discussed in isolation and in details to see how they look like.

1- Adjective phrase:

Bowly (1968) says that adjective phrases may postmodify a head noun in the following cases:
- a- When the postmodifying adjective is one of a limited number of items, including present, alive, involved, concerned and some few adjectives ending with suffix -able or -ible. Here are some examples:
  - The people present.
  - The information available.
  - The factors involved.
  - The person responsible.
  - The happiest woman alive.

b- When the noun phrase head is a pronoun as in the following examples:
  - Something interesting.
  - Nothing useful.
  - Somebody important,
  - Anything original.

c- When the adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase as in:
- People adverse to hard work.
- The difficulties in this kind of undertaking.
- Boys interested in bird-watching.
- A wallpaper similar to yours.
- A house different from John's.

d- When the adjective is followed by an infinitive clause. In this case the adjective may be preceded by (too) or followed by (enough) as in the following examples:
- A theory too difficult to explain.
- Soldiers eager enough to go on leave.
- Customers unwilling to pay.
- A chest too heavy to move.
- Students clever enough to understand this.

e- When the adjective is in the comparative degree or preceded by as, more or less.
- A car faster than yours.
- A country-house more expensive than Peter's.
- A plan less ambitious than we expected.
- A man as rich as my father.
- A performance as good as I have seen.

As it is discussed, the adjective phrase can postmodify head nouns under different structures and conditions. For the purpose of this study, what is required from University students doing English as a major subject is to realize that these adjectives in such structures belong to and modify a noun phrase.

2-Adverb phrase postmodifier:

Adverb phrases may also postmodify noun phrase head. The following are some examples explaining this point.
- the way down.
- the way back.
- the journey up.
- the road ahead.
- the man outside.
- this point here.
- the car over there.
- the day before.

By reference to these examples, it is clear that all of them contain head nouns postmodified by adverbs. So the University students concerned in this study should be aware of this structure in order to realize that such a structure forms as unit which is a noun phrase. For examples, the phrase (the man outside) means the focus is on a certain man who is outside, so (outside) as an adverb is only part of the noun phrase, its mere function is that, it postmodifies the head noun "man".

3- Prepositional phrases as postmodifiers:

savartvik et al (1979:287) state that the prepositional phrase is by far the most common type of postmodifiers in English. Prepositional phrases that postmodify noun phrase may be one, two or more prepositional phrases. The following examples illustrate the point:
- a pound of sugar.
- the book on the table.
- the shop opposite our house.
- the edge of the desk,
- the trees in the park.
- the path along the canal.
- the book on archeology by Professor Smith.
- the house at the corner of the street.
- the flowers in the vase on the table.

What is important to note is that, when there are more than one prepositional phrase following a head noun, the syntactic structure is not always the same. For the example; is not phrase, "the book on archaeology by
professor Smith", the second prepositional phrase modifies all that precedes, whereas in the phrase "the house at the corner of the street", the second prepositional phrase "of the street", modifies only the noun phrase of the first prepositional phrase, "corner"

Realizing and understanding prepositional phrases functioning as postmodifiers of a noun phrase is significant for University students. Instances of prepositional phrases as postmodifiers of nouns are greatly witnessed in the structure of noun phrases. Therefore being able to identify such structures leads to correct reading and interpretation of sentences. When investigating a sentence like" the trees in the park are beautiful, it should be understood that the sentence is about certain trees which are "in the bark" excepting the other trees that are not in park.

4- Noun phrase as postmodifier

Aarts et al (1988:115) discuss postmodification by means of noun phrases emphasizing its possibility, but claiming that is is rare. It is found in narrow and restricted structure as in the following examples:
- girls your age.
- a rock that shape.
- a car that color.
- a hat this size.

From the above examples, it cab be concluded that when nouns postmodifying other noun heads, the nouns are almost preceded by possessive or demonstrative adjectives. Coming across such structures, university students doing English as a major subject should realize that these structures are noun phrases postmodified by noun phrases. For instance, the phrase "girls your age", refers to girls whose ages are the same as yours, so the whole structure should be taken as one unit which is a noun phrase.

5- Finite clause as postmodifier:

Nelson (2002:48) identifies three types of finite clauses that can be used as postmodifiers, relative clauses, appositive clauses and clauses
introduced by temporal conjunctions. These three types of finite clauses are investigated below:

A- Relative clauses:

In the structure of the English sentence, there are two types of relative clause: restrictive and non-restrictive. Restrictive relative clause often supply information that is essential for the identification of the antecedent unlike non-restrictive that contain information that is not strictly required to identify the antecedent, Non-restrictive clauses are often characterized by the fact that they are separated from the antecedent by means of commas.

The following are examples that contain relative clauses that post modify noun phrases.

- This is the best book that has been written on the subject recently.
- The woman who was sitting next to you is an engineering student.
- The book which I bought yesterday is very interesting.
- John, whose wife left him last week, feels quite relieved.
- Eliot, whom he had always greatly admired, paid him a visit one day.
- There were two passengers in the taxi, who were killed.

For the purpose of this study what is required from university students doing English as a major subject is that they should be careful to understand that relative clauses are part of a noun phrase that only supply the head noun with more information. For example: the sentence:

The woman who was sitting next to you is and engineering student.

In this sentence, (the woman who was setting next to you), represent the noun phrase, the relative clause (who was setting next to you) postmodify the noun (the woman) identifying this woman from among other women.

b- Appositive clauses:

Greenbaum (1996:50) claims that appositive clauses postmodify noun phrases. Appositive clauses are introduced by (that) and by wh- words. Here are some examples:

- The fact that she rejected his offer of marriage is great shock.
- The news that agreement has been reached has made everybody happy.
- The problem how this could be solved is annoying.
- Our hesitation whether we ought to go is a waste of time.

By referring to the above example, when reading sentences, students have to know that the appositive clauses introduced by that, how, whether are part of the noun phrases preceding them. These clauses answer the question of (which) and this of course supply more information for the head noun. The sentence:
- The news that agreement has been reached made everybody happy.
In this sentence, saying "the news made everybody happy" is vague and raises the question (which news"? "So that agreement has been reached" identifies "the news".

c- Clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions:

The third type of finite clause that can function as postmodifier in the noun phrase is introduced by temporal conjunction such as before, after, sine, etc. Consider the following examples:
- The days before he died were nice.
- The years after she was born witnessed drought.
- The time since he has been chairman a lot of problems have been solved.

As the other types of finite clauses, clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions are part of the noun phrase, they postmodify the noun by identifying it.

d- Non-Finite clauses as postmodifier:

Non-finite clauses are three types, infinitive clauses, -ing participle clauses and -ed participle clauses.

Brown (1968:90) confirms that non-finite clauses can occur as postmodifiers. A detailed investigation is crucial for understanding sentences and noun phrases.

e- Infinitive clauses:
Brown (1968) explains that infinitive clauses are the clauses that begin with "to" and can function as postmodifiers. The following examples illustrate this point.

- The man to talk to is Peter.
- They were the first men to land on the moon.
- Peter's wish to be burned in England could not be fulfilled.
- The best man to watch our interests carefully is Joe.

In the above sentences the infinite clauses that being with "to" postmodify the preceding nouns. "To talk to" postmodifies "the man".

So what is so important is that, when reading sentences, infinitive clauses in such contexts should be understood as part of the noun phrase.

f-- Ing participle clauses:

The following are examples of sentences that contain - ing participle clauses that function as postmodifiers in noun phrases:

- Students (wishing to take the examination before June) should contact the secretary.
- The work (being done) was really hard.
- The articles (describing the effect of air pollution on people's health) are read by many people daily.

In these examples all - ing participle clauses function as postmodifiers of the preceding nouns. Students, the work, the articles respectively.

g--ed participle clauses:

- ed participle clauses are one of the types of non-finite clauses that postmodify nouns. The following sentences illustrate this point.
- All the children injured were taken to hospital.
- The techniques used by the research tem are sound.
- The general impression given by this book is favorable.
- The candidates selected all have a very high IQ.

By reference to the above examples, what is to be noted is that all -ed participle clause function as postmodifiers of the preceding nouns and of
course all the construction function as a single unit within a sentence. The fact that has to be given a great attention is that the noun phrase is the most common with in English sentences. In addition to that noun phrases are characterized by their long structures because of the many premodifiers and postmodifiers that accompany them.

This point raises the issue of reading. The goal of reading whether sentences or texts is not recognizing grammatical features, but to find meaning. The goal is not to break a sentence or part of a sentence into as small pieces as possible, but to break it into chunks in a way that fosters the discovery of meaning. This implies that each noun phrase must be read as a single unit accompanying all the components together in order to arrive at a correct interpretation.

2.13 Pronouns and Their Functions

English pronouns are worth discussing in the structure of the English sentence because they have their own special status in the structure and meaning of the sentence.

Nelson (2002:98) pinpoints that pronouns are essentially special types of nouns and are the main words in a noun phrase or more usually the only word in a noun phrase. Pronouns include eight different subclasses: personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, reciprocal, interrogative, relative and indefinite pronouns. These different classes of pronouns have important functions in the structure of the English sentence that need to be briefly investigated.

Aarts et al (1982:49) declare that in terms of sentence structure the personal pronouns are looked upon as noun phrases of the simplest possible structure, which, as a rule allow neither premodification nor postmodification. They occur in the subjective case and the objective case. Consider the following sentences:

1-She goes to the market daily for shopping.
2-My brother advised her to work hard.
In the above sentences the personal pronouns 'she' and 'her' play the role of noun phrases and function as subject and object respectively. Therefore, in reading English sentences an awareness of the functions of personal pronouns as replacing and doing the function of noun phrases in the sentence is central in understanding the structure and meaning of sentences.

As for possessive pronouns and their functions in the sentence, Andrew, (2004:38) classifies them into two subclasses according to their function in the sentence: possessive pronouns that function dependently as determiners in the structure of the noun phrase and those that function independently as heads of noun phrases. Consider the sentences below:

1-This book is yours.
2-That is my car.

In these two sentences the possessive pronoun yours function independently since it is used as a constituent replacing a complete noun phrase that functions as a subject complement. The possessive pronoun my in the second sentence is dependent because it is part of a noun phrase and functions as a determiner of the noun car. So, for understanding sentences that contain possessive pronouns, knowing the two possible functions played by them is crucial.

In the case of reflexive pronouns, Andrew (ibid) identifies three functions that can have in the sentence.

First, reflexive pronouns replace co-referential noun phrases and usually function as constituents of the sentence as in the following sentences:

1-I watched myself in the mirror.
2-That man is not himself.
3-Are you going to give yourself a treat?

In the above sentences, the reflexive pronouns myself, himself and yourself function as constituents replacing noun phrases that function as object, subject complement and indirect object respectively.
Second, reflexive pronouns also occur in prepositional phrases as postmodifiers and complements of a preposition. This can be revealed in the following examples:

1- John is very proud of *himself*.
2- They are pleased with *themselves*.

In the first sentence the reflexive pronoun *himself* is part of a prepositional phrase that postmodifies the adjective *proud*, while in the second sentence *themselves* functions as a complement of the preposition *with*.

Third, reflexive pronouns are also used in coordinated noun phrases occurring in free variation with personal pronouns. The following examples reveal this point:

1- John and *myself* (John and I) were the only visitors.
2- For her brother and *herself* (for her brother and her) this must have been a terrifying experience.
3- The invitation was addressed to the Joneses and *ourselves* (to the Joneses and to us).

These above sentences stress the possible use of reflexive pronouns in noun phrases that are coordinated with *and*. This, of course, is a clear indication of the fact that reflexive pronouns can act as one of the forms noun phrases.

Demonstrative pronouns in turn, function as constituents of the sentence or as determiners in the structure of the noun group as in the following examples;

1- *That* book is mine.
2- *This* is John's book.

In the first sentence, the demonstrative pronoun *that* functions in the noun phrases *that book* as a determiner that specifies the book and distinguishes it from the other books. In the second sentence, the pronoun *this* functions as a constituent (a noun phrase) as subject.
Evidence from the discussion of demonstrative pronouns states their functions as constituents or determiners. So, when dealing with sentences an awareness of the functions of these pronouns is useful for appropriate interpretation.

Reciprocal pronouns, as Murphy (1989:170) points out, can function as constituents representing noun phrases in the sentence as in the following sentences:

1- The partners trust each other completely.
2- They have never written to each other.
3- The children were admiring one another's Christmas presents.

Relative pronouns, as illustrated by John, E (1992:141), are used to introduce relative clauses which are clauses that normally function as postmodifiers in the structure of the noun phrase. This can be explained in the following sentences:

1- The man that caused the accident escaped.
2- People who live in glasshouses should not throw stones.
3- The girl whom the police suspect was arrested last night.

In these sentences, the elative clauses introduced by the relative pronouns that, who and whom function as postmodifiers of the nouns man, people and girl respectively.

Knowledge of the functions of relative clauses helps greatly in recognizing the structure of noun phrases and leads to a proper interpretation of sentences containing them.

2.14 The Adjective Phrase

The adjective phrase is considered as one of the essential types that has its place in the structure of the English sentence.

Aarts (2001:33) claims that the main word in an adjective phrase is an adjective. The head can be premodified by a constituent preceding the head, post modifiers by constituent following the head and by an interrupted
constituent on either side of the head which is referred to as discontinuous modifier. This structure will be discussed in details.

2.14.1. Premodifier of Adjective Phrase

Arts (i2001) declares that the function premodifier is realized by adverb phrases. The following examples illustrate this point:
- (very) useful.
- (extremely) interesting.
- (fairly) easy.
- (Surprisingly) honest.
- (rather) stupid.
- (dark) red.
- (a year) old.

From the above examples, it is clear that the types of premodifiers that can be used before an adjective phrase can either be an intensifier such as very, rather, extremely or and adverb as (surprisingly) or even certain noun phrase as in (a year old).

2.14.2. Postmodifier of Adjective Phrase

The function post modifier in adjective phrases may be realized by the adverb "enough", a prepositional phrase, a finite clause, a noun finite clause.
1- The adverb "enough" postmodifier:
Consider the following examples:
- Clever enough to pass the exam.
- Quick enough to be in time.
- Light enough to be carried.

2- Prepositional phrase:

The following are examples that show adjective phrases that are postmodified by prepositional phrases:
- afraid of mice.
- Qualified for the job.
- Fond of football.
- Full of water.
- Good at bridge.

The prepositional phrases that follow the adjective in the above examples restrict and identify them, so all together make the adjective phrase.

2.14.3. The Function of the Adjective Phrase

Decapua (2008:83) declares that adjective phrases can realize different functions in both group and clause structures. Below are the possible functions with their examples:

a- Premodifier in noun phrase:
- A very good actor.
- Heavy rain.
- An old friend.

b- Postmodifier in noun phrase:
- Something cheap.
- The person responsible.

c- Head of a noun phrase:
- The French like wine.
- The old prefer classical music.

d- Complement of preposition:
- At last - in short.

e- Modifier in an adjective phrase:
- Bright red, light blue.

2.15 The Verb Phrase

The verb phrase is one of the essential and cornerstone constituent in the structure of the English sentence. It is often thought of as being the heart of the sentence because it is the verb that provides the central meaning to the sentence. It is important to be aware of the fact that verbs express what the subject does or describe something about the state or condition of the subject. In addition to that verbs also determine the kinds of other groups or
constituents that follow. Because of this being able to identify verbs and to know their main categories and structures is crucial for reading and understanding sentences. This section includes identifying verbs, main verbs tense, person, and number, aspect, voice and auxiliaries.

2.15.1 Identifying Verbs

Svartvik et al (2001:283) point out that verb can be identified on the basis of semantic, structural, and morphological clues.

Semantically, the verb is identified and defined as a word that tells something the subject does or something about the subject state of being such as verbs like jump, walk, and recognize.

Identifying verbs morphologically is determined by derivational and inflectional ending. Common verb suffixes of the verb class include - ate, fy, and - ize as in create, classify, and realize. Another feature that helps in identifying verbs morphologically is inflection. English verbs are characterized by their inflection for present and past time as in, walks, walked.

Structurally the position of the verb is highly fixed. In affirmative sentences, the verb comes after the subject.
- The boy laughed at the joke.
- Hunky was watching the game.

2.15.2. Main Verb

Radford (2009:39) declares that verbs are generally divided into two major categories, main verbs and auxiliary verbs, the two together make up the verb group. It is greatly important to know main verbs when reading sentences or texts because they act as the heart of sentences and provide their central meaning.

Main verbs are defined as verbs that can stand alone and that do not need to be accompanied by any other verb. They also contribute the key semantic meaning in any verb phrase as is indicated in the sentences below:
- He is walking to school.
- Jenny walks to school.
- She walked to school yesterday.

In these sentences, (walking, walks, walked) are main verbs because they provide the central meaning of each sentence regardless of their different inflections.

Sidney, (2002:72) indicates that regular main verbs have four forms which include the following:

a- base form:
The base form is what is found in dictionary entries as: laugh, mention, play. They are characterized their infinitive uninflected forms.

b- -s form:
The (-s) added in the end of verbs is a form that is related with the third person subject in the simple present tense, as in; laughs, mentions, plays.

c- -ing participle:
The -ing participle is an ending added to the base form in progressive tenses as in; he is laughing, she is playing.

d- -ed from (past or -ed participle):
The -ed form adds to the base form an ending as in; laughed, mentioned, and played.

2.15.3. Tense, Person, and Number

Sidney (2001) reveals that the first or only verb in the verb phrase is marked for tense, person, and number.

Tense is a grammatical category referring to the time of the situation; the tense is indicated by the form of the verb. There are two tense forms: Present and Past. There are three persons: first person (the person or persons speaking or writing), second person (the person or persons addressed), and third person (others). There are two numbers: singular and plural.
All English verbs have two present forms; the -s form and the base form. The -s form is used for the third person singular with (he, she, it and singular noun phrases subjects:
- He plays football every day.
- The road seems narrow.

The base form is used for all other subjects; I, you, we, they and plural noun phrases as subjects:
- I play football every day.
- The roads seem narrower.

Excepted from this rule, is the verb (be). The verb (be) has three forms for the present tense, which are completely distinct from the verb base form (be).
Am - used for the first person singular.
Is - used for the third person singular.
Are - used for the other persons.

As for the past from, there is only one past form for all regular verbs with the exception of the verb (be).
- He (or they) played football yesterday.
- The road (or roads) seemed narrower.
The verb (be) has two forms for the past:
Was, used for first and third person singular.
Were, used for other persons.

The two tenses are related to distinctions in time, but they do not correspond precisely to the difference between present and past in the real world.

2.15.4. Aspect

Aspect is another important feature that needs be investigated in the structure of the verb phrase because it has its contribution to the entire meaning of a sentence.
Kinso (2010:88) defines aspect as grammatical category that indicates temporal features such as duration, frequency, and completion. Aspect is indicated by complex tenses that are composed of an auxiliary verb + a main verb.

There are two types of aspect in English: The progressive aspect and perfect aspect. The progressive aspect is formed with (be) followed by a lexical verb. It is called progressive because the verb phrase describes the ongoing nature of an event or action. So, the progressive verb phrase consists of the auxiliary (be) in present or past tense + the present participle pf the main verb as in the following examples:

- John is walking.
- John was walking.

In these two sentences the verb phrase (is walking) is in a progressive aspect and its time reference is present while the verb phrase (was walking) indicates a past time.

The perfect aspect is formed with (have) followed by a lexical verb. The auxiliary (have) has two present forms (has, have) and one past form (had). Consider the examples below:

- I have closed the shop for the day.
- The shop has closed for the day.
- The police had closed the shop months ago.

The present perfect refers to a situation set in some indefinite period that leads to the present. The situation may be a state of affairs that extends to the present. Consider the following:

- They have been unhappy for a long time.
- I have lived here since last summer.

We have always liked them.

By reference to these sentences being unhappy is a state can be extended to the present time. Also living here can be till now.
2.15.5 Voice

Barbara, (2007: 113) pinpoints that verbs have two voice, active and passive. The active is the voice that is used most commonly. The active and passive have different verb phrases in that the passive has an additional auxiliary; a form of the auxiliary (be) followed by an (-ed) participle. The following are examples of corresponding active and passive verb phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loves</td>
<td>is loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sold</td>
<td>was sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is fighting</td>
<td>Is being fought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has reconstructed</td>
<td>has been reconstructed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may have asserted</td>
<td>may have been asserted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should be purifying</td>
<td>should be being purified</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth realizing that the passive a way of phrasing the sentence so that the subject does not refer to the person or thing responsible for the action. The most common reason for using the passive is to avoid referring to the person performing the action because it is not known or it is felt to be unnecessary to identify the person. The following sentences are to be noted:
- He was immediately admitted to the hospital.
- The refrigerator door has not been properly closed.

In these two sentences mentioning, for instance in the first sentence the important information is the admission of the mentioned subject (he) to hospital but who did it is not necessary.

2.15.6. Auxiliary verbs

In the structure of verb phrases, auxiliaries appear as one of essential components. Auxiliaries are of different types and characters tics and follow a certain sequence in the verb phrase.
Andrew (2009:5) classifies auxiliaries into five major types that include modal, perfect, progressive, passive and the dummy do.

a- Modal auxiliaries:

Modal auxiliaries include can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must. They are always followed by bare infinitive as in:
- He can sing.
- You should come.
- It may rain.

b- Perfect auxiliaries include has, have and had and they are often followed by a verb in the past participle form as in:
- I have eaten.
- She has written.
- They had left.

c- Progressive auxiliaries:

Progressive auxiliaries include the forms of the verb (be), am, are, is, was, were, been, be which are followed by present participle as in:
- I am reading.
- They were sleeping.
- It is raining.

d- Passive auxiliaries:

Passive auxiliaries include the different forms of (be), am, are, is, was, were, be being and been and they are always followed by a verb in the participle form as in:
- The book was stolen last night.
- They were punished yesterday.
- The house has been rebuilt recently.

### 2.15.7. The Sequence of Auxiliaries

In the structure of the verb phrase, it is normal to have more than one Auxiliary placed before the head verb. When this happens, these auxiliaries follow a certain sequence.

Scott et al (1968:102) set out a sequence table with all the auxiliaries divided into four sub-classes according to the order in which they can occur. They first introduced the following sentences that contain the possible sequence.

1- He didn’t speak to me, because at the time, he might have been being watched.

2- In fact, I was sure that he was being watched.

3- If he had spoken to me, we might have been caught.

4- Already we had been warned.

5- Both of us would have been sent to jail for life.

6- If an agent had been shadowing him, both of us could have fallen into their net.

7- He must have been eluding them for days.

8- Having been pursued for so long, he must be feeling the strain.

By reference to the above examples, Scott et al (ibid) set out the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (2.4) sequence of auxiliaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the table above, the following points are concluded:

- In each group the final verb is head.

- Forms of the auxiliary (be) may appear in more than one column according to the form of the verb which follows (be) in the group.

- Items in column (b) can be preceded only by items in column (a) (but not every item in (b) can be preceded by every item in (a), items in (c) by those in (b) and items in (d) can be preceded by items in (c).

  Halliday names auxiliaries in column (b) perfect auxiliaries, in column (c) progressive auxiliaries and in column (d) passive auxiliaries. He adds that the auxiliaries in each column determine the form of the following auxiliary or head. This can be illustrated as follows:

  - Auxiliaries in column (a) must always be followed by an infinitive form of a verb, like, would kick, should be done, in which the auxiliaries (would) and should are followed by infinitive forms (kick) and (be).

  - Auxiliaries in column c. must always be followed by ving form e.g. are eating, is being kicked.

  - Auxiliaries in column d. must always be followed by ved/en forms is kicked, are eaten. The forms of the verb (do) in column (a) function as finites in negative and interrogative sentences when the verb group contains no other auxiliary that could fulfill this function. They must be directly followed by a column (H) item as in:

    - - didn’t kick.

    - Doesn’t eat.

**2.15.8. Phrasal Verbs**

Apart from the major structure of the verb phrase which is an auxiliary and a lexical verb, multi-word verbs are also found in the structure of the English phrase.
Carth (1994:85) defines multi-word verbs as combinations of a verb and one or more other words. The most frequent types of multi-word verbs consist of a verb followed by one or more participles. There are followed three major types of these combinations; phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs and phrasal prepositional verbs.

a- Phrasal verbs:

Toney (2005:74) identifies the phrasal verbs as verbs that consist of a verb and a particle. Particles include prepositions and adverbs. The most common phrasal verb particles are:
About, around, at, away, back, down, far, in, into, off, on, out, over, though, to, up.

Toney (2005:75) adds that phrasal verbs have idiomatic meaning i.e. their meaning cannot be deciphered from the separate parts. Below are illustrative examples:

-I gave up smoking.
- The idea has caught on in a big way.

In these sentences the phrasal verb (gave up), means (stopped), and (caught on) means (became) popular. Phrasal verbs should be thought of like any other English vocabulary and they should be studied carefully when encountered. The base way and deal with phrasal verbs is to think of each phrasal verb as a separate verb with a specific meaning. To be able to understand the meaning of sentences that contain phrasal verbs, it is important to learn their meaning and their use. For instance, some phrasal verbs require a direct object while others do not. Some phrasal verbs can be separated by the object, while others cannot.

In addition to the idiomatic meaning of phrasal verbs, sometimes there is a one word verb with the same meaning as the phrasal verb. Here are some examples:
- Scientists are trying to find out (discover) the reason behind this phenomenon.
- We must fix up (delayed) traffic from an hour.
- You have failed to keep up (maintain) your monthly payments.
- You have left out (omitted) two names from the guest list.
- They have put off (postponed) the match until next week.
- A new company has been set up (established).

Phrasal verbs cannot be specified in a limited number; nevertheless some more examples of phrasal verbs with their meaning might be advantageous:

**Table (2.5) phrasal verbs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ask some out</td>
<td>Invite on a date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask around</td>
<td>Ask many people the same question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back someone up</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow up</td>
<td>Explode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break down</td>
<td>Stop functioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come across</td>
<td>Find unexpectedly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count on</td>
<td>Rely on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall apart</td>
<td>Break into pieces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure someone out</td>
<td>Understand, find the answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find out</td>
<td>Discover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get away</td>
<td>Go on a vacation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get away tih someone</td>
<td>Do without being noticed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give someone up</td>
<td>Quit a habit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go a head</td>
<td>Start, proceed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go over something</td>
<td>Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Equivalent Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow up</td>
<td>Become an adult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look after</td>
<td>Take care of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make up something</td>
<td>Invent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass away</td>
<td>Die</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pick out</td>
<td>Choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put up with</td>
<td>Tolerate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run out</td>
<td>Have none left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set up</td>
<td>Arrange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use up</td>
<td>Finish the supply</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.16 The prepositional Phrase

The prepositional phrase is one of the essential groups that make up the English sentence.

Greenbaum (1996:70) identifies the prepositional phrase as consisting of two constituents: a preposition and complement of the preposition. Optionally, the preposition may be premodified by an intensifying adverb. The prepositional complement is chiefly a noun phrase, an –ing participle clause, or a WH – clause.

Downing (1992:33) says that a notable feature of the English language is the extremely wide lexico-grammatical use, it makes of prepositions. And where there is a preposition, there is a prepositional phrase, since preposition cannot normally standalone although they can be separated from their complement by stranding.

According to Downing the prepositional phrase refers to the unit consisting of a preposition, its complement, and an optional modifier. It can be represented as follows:

Prepositional phrase.
Table (2.6) the structure of the prepositional phrase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Into</td>
<td>The police man’s arm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completely</td>
<td>Out of</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straight</td>
<td>Along</td>
<td>This road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Just</td>
<td>At</td>
<td>That moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quite</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>Here</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not all prepositional phrases contain a modifier but all of them contain preposition and a complement. The modifier typically intensifies the preposition by adding something semantically specific to the tense of the preposition, such as exactness and immediacy in the case of right, together with completion (right into the policeman’s arms) or exclusiveness (only by concentrating hard).

2.16.1. The Complement of the Preposition

As Sidney (2001) mentions the complement of a preposition is realized by a nominal groups, adjective groups, adverb groups, ing participle clauses or wh – clauses. The examples below explain the point:

- Noun groups: at home – on the table.
- Adjective groups: in private – at last.
- Adverb groups: for ever – until quite recently.
- WH – clause: Have you decided about when you are leaving?

2.16.2. The Modifier of the Preposition Phrase

Like nouns, adjectives and adverbs, prepositions can also be modified. The modification of prepositions, as stated by Locke, takes the form of intensification, direction, attenuation, quantification, description or simply of focusing and reinforcement. Grading by comparative or superlative appears to be more restricted.
The following are some examples:

a- Grading modifiers: include: *more, less for more, much less, the most, the least.*

e.g.: That day seemed more like a dream than real life.

b- Intensifying modifiers – completely, directly, right, well, absolutely, greatly, badly, all.

- The ball went right through the window.
- Today I am feeling absolutely.
- Sit down, Paul, and I will tell you all about it.
- The walls are badly in need of coat of paint.

c- Directional modifiers – up – down- out- over:

- I will meet you down by the river.
- The balloons floated up over the house.
- The race course is over/out on the other side of Madrid.

d - Attenuation modifiers: These include: partly, scarcely, not fully, to some extent, slightly, a little, a bit, hardly, not at all, not altogether and somewhat.

- You are a bit/slightly out of touch with reality.

e – Quantifying modifiers – they include: a long time, miles, hours, streets, nearly, and almost.

- She was streets a head of her rivals.
- Almost at the same time, they realized they were lost.

f – Descriptive or attitudinal modifiers – include words as: surprisingly, hopelessly, dangerously, and unexpectedly.

- We were dangerously close to having an accident.
- He is hopelessly in love with a girl who ignores him.
Prepositional phrases as it has already been discussed are complex in their structures. To understand and be able to identify prepositional phrases when reading, it is important to memorize the structure of the preposition phrases that are either a preposition followed by a complement or a modifier and a preposition and a complement. All the elements that make up the prepositional phrase in the sentence should be viewed as one unit that has a certain meaning and that has a certain function in the sentence.

2.16.3. Function of Prepositional Phrases

Sidney identifies the possible functions that prepositional phrases can have in a sentence. It can function as postmodifier and noun, postmodifier of an adjective, subject predicative, object predicative, adverbial, complement of a verb. These functions need to be discussed in details as follows:

a- Postmodifier of a noun:
   - I took several courses in history.
   - Everybody questions the significance of the results.

b- Postmodifier of an adjective:
   - I was happy with my works last term.
   - He was not aware of his mistake.

c- Subject predicative:
   - Yesterday the sun was just as it in India.

d- Object predicative:
   - From the time I brought her out of hospital she never slept.

e- Adverbial:
   - After the storm, the sky brightened.

To sum up, unless the whole group that makes up the prepositional phrase is identified it will be a bit difficult to understand
the whole meaning properly, because of this both the structure and function of the prepositional phrase should be understood accurately.

2.17 The adverb phrase

The adverb phrase is one of the important elements that can appear in the structure of the English sentence.

2.17.1. The structure of the adverb phrase

Barbara (2007:130) asserts that the structure of the adverb phrase is similar to that of the adjective phrase, that is, it is composed potentially of three elements: the head, the premodifier, and the post-head element which is either post-modifier or complement. These can be illustrated by the following examples:

Table (2.7) the structure of adverb phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head</th>
<th>Yesterday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head Modifier</td>
<td>Early in the morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifier Head</td>
<td>very early</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifier Head Modifier</td>
<td>Very early in the morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifier Head Complement</td>
<td>More slowly than necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complement</td>
<td>Far away from civilization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quite early enough.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.17.2. Modification and Complementation in the Adverb Phrase

Sidney (1996:298) claims that adverbs are graded in the same way as adjectives by more, less, as and so on and the same suppletive forms are used for well and badly as for good and bad. Similarly, intensification is carried out by very, quite, rather, pretty, fairly, among others. Adverbs of space or time are frequently modified by other adverbs of space or time (out there, back home). Few adverbs take direct complement with preposition or clauses (luckily for us, long to wait. Indirect complements of graded forms function in the same way as with adjectives.
1- Comparative and superlative:

Adverbs, as declared by Sidney are graded by the same words as adjectives: *more often, most often, less often, least often, as often, often enough, and too often.*

2- Identifies:

Leech et al (1998:180) points out that intensifiers can function as premodifiers in the adverb phrase as in the following examples:

- Very soon.
- Quite soon.
- Perfectly well.
- Extremely stupidly.
- Much more carefully.
- Exceptionally quickly.
- Rather badly.
- Right now.

3- Complements of comparison and excess:

Leech et al (1998) claim that complements of adverbs are almost exclusively of one type, namely grading.

Many adverbial verbal heads admit indirect complements, which depend, on the adverb itself, but on the degree modifier. E.g.:

- He speaks Spanish much more fluently than his sister.
- It rains less often here than in some other countries.
- Our coach left earlier than usual.
- I don’t translate as accurately as a professional.
- We reached the station too late to catch the train.
- We didn’t leave early enough to get there in time.
Aarts et al (1984:122) calls there complement discontinuous modifiers saying that they are four structures. It is crucial to discuss these four structures with their examples for clear and easy comprehension.

1- So + adverb + that clause or as to-clause.
   - They worked so hard that they finished before five.
   - He spoke so eloquently as to convince everyone.

2- As + adverb + as + (reduced) comparative clause or noun phrase.
   - He loves her as much as he did 20 years ago.
   - We need your support as badly as you need ours.

3- More/less + adverb + than + (reduced).
   Comparative clause or noun phrase:
   - The body participates more actively than we had expected.
   - He reacted less kindly than yesterday.

4- Too + adverb + infinitive clause:
   - The boy was running too fast for the policemen to overtake him.

2.17.3. The Functions of Adverb Phrase

Adverbs, as explained by Svartivk have two typical functions that need to be appreciated and negotiated. Adverbs can be used as adverbial and as modifier of adjectives, adverbs, and others.

1- The adverb used as modifier:

Most modifying adverbs fall into the semantic category of degree adverbs.

a- The adverb as modifier of an adjective:
   - He is rather tall for a ten-year old.
- It is extremely good of you to do this for me.

b- The adverb as modifier of an adverb.

This means that the adverb phrase can consist of two adverb head which is modified by another adverb.

- You seem to be smoking rather heavily these days.

2-The adverb phrase as an adverbial:

The adverb phrase can function as an adverbial of clause as in the following sentences:

- Refunds of fees are not normally available.

- He drives very carefully.

- She discusses her problem hesitantly.

2.18. Sentence Constructions

Victoria.(2003;117) claims that since words, phrases, clauses and sentences are all built out of smaller units according to particular patterns the concept of construction is relevant to all areas of grammar.

Phrases as discussed earlier in this chapter are given special interpretation in linguistics and may consist of just one word; she and John are noun phrases. Many phrases consist of more than one word, for example, (our new colleagues car), (the car of our new colleague), and (a car of our new colleagues). These three constructions are not equivalent in meaning; for instance, the last one is used only in situations in which the new colleague referred to has more than one car. A different construction with a different choice of words brings out differences in meaning; for example; (the book of the month) is the normal phrase while (the months book) is unacceptable.

2.18.1. Different Constructions and Different Meanings

Constructions in classes are discussed under two central ideas. The first is that basic and more complex clauses can be recognized and it is possible to
Work out the relationship between them. That is, constructions are not isolated structures but fit into a general network: The second idea is that different constructions exist or have been created to enable the readers to signal what is being conveyed by them. A number of different constructions can be examined first and then consider the question of the relationship among them. For the example in (1):

1- a. The wealthy young man bought that piano for his secret fiancée.
   b- Did the wealthy young man buy that piano for his secret fiancée?

Example (1-a) and (1-b) are clearly related. They are related semantically in that they both have to do with a situation in which one person, a wealthy young man, bought something, a piano, for another person, his secret fiancée. The semantic relationship between these two constructions is indicated by three properties of the example. They share the major lexical items, wealthy, young, man, buy, piano, secret, and fiancée; in both examples, wealthy and young modify (man) and secret modifies fiancée; and buy has its complement (the wealthy young man) referring to the buyer, that piano, referring to the recipient of the piano.

Example (1-a) is referred to as a declarative construction (reflecting the idea that the speaker or writer declares something to be the case); (1-b) is an example of an interrogative construction which is used to ask about whether the event took place.

Other interrogative constructions are used when speakers or writers know that a particular type of event took place but not the identity of one or more participants. Consider the following examples:

2-a. Who bought that piano for his secret fiancée?
   b- What did the wealthy young man buy for his secret fiancée?
   c- Who did the wealthy young man buy that piano for?

Examples (2a...c) are not directly related in meaning to (1a...b) because the latter specify all the participants in the buying event—the wealthy young man, the piano and the secret fiancée. In (2a...c) one of the participants is
unknown. It makes more sense to consider (2a) as related in meaning to (someone bought a piano for his secret fiancée) and (2b) as related in meaning to (the wealthy young man bought something for his secret fiancée). Returning to (1a) it can be seen that other constructions are related to it. Consider (3);
3-The wealthy young man bought his secret fiancée a piano.

What has changed here, is that the preposition (for) is missing and (that piano) has swapped places with (his secret fiancée). The syntactic structure of (3) is the subject noun phrase (the wealthy young man), followed by the verb (bought), followed by the noun phrase (his secret fiancée) and finally the noun phrase (that piano).

Sydney (2001:121) lists the four major types of constructions or sentences that are associated with four major uses in communication.
1-declarative for statement.
2-interrogative for questions.
3-imperative for directions.
4-exclamatives for exclamation.

Throughout the investigation in this research most of the sentences introduced are declaratives. The other three types will be explained here.

2.18.2. Interrogative Constructions

There are two main types of interrogative sentences;
1-yes-no questions which begin with a verb. They require subject-operator inversion; that is, a reversal of the order of subject and verb. The verb that appears before the subject is an operator as in;
Does this shop open 24 hours every day?

Yes-no questions as the above sentence often expect the answer to be either yes or no. In dealing with such constructions, it must be observed that they have an operator preceding the noun phrase and this information is undoubtedly important as a guide for readers to recognize the noun phrase in such sentences.
2-WH-questions; these questions begin with an interrogative word or phrase as in:
- Why should the government cut income taxes?
- On which days does this shop open 24 hours?

These questions are called wh-questions because most of the interrogative words begin with WH.

WH-questions generally require subject-operator inversion except when the interrogative word or phrase is the subject and in that case the normal subject-verb order applies e.g.:

Who has taken my car?
- Which bus goes to London?

The interrogative word in wh-questions represents a missing piece of information that is needed to be known. This missing information often acts as one of the constituents of sentences.

2.18.3. Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences are characterized by the fact that they do not have a subject. They either begin with an auxiliary or the base form of the verb:
- Take a seat.
- Pass me the bottle.
- Make me an offer.

The only auxiliary that occurs with imperative sentences is the passive be and in particular in the negative;

Don’t be carried away with the idea.

What is important for readers when they encounter sentences as these is their awareness that such sentences begin with a verb group so having known this fact they could be able to understand the sentence.

2.18.4. Exclamatory Sentences

Noun phrases with how is used for all other purposes. The exclamative phrase is always fronted:
- What a good show it was!
- What a time we have had!
-How hard she works!
-How strange the book looks!

Exclamative sentences express strong feeling. More specifically, they indicate the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something.

21.9. Sentence Parsing

Since the present study deals with the identifying and understanding of sentence structure, a very important concept concerning the analysis of sentences needs to be investigated. The focus here is with sentence parsing.

Parsing as is defined by Roman, T (1988:25) is the assignment of the words in a sentence to their appropriate linguistic categories to allow understanding of what is being conveyed. It is not simply the assignment of words to simple diagrams or categories, but also it involves evaluating the meaning of a sentence according to the rules of syntax drawn by inferences made from each word in the sentence. When a sentence is parsed each word in it is examined and processed to contribute to the overall meaning and understanding of the sentence as a whole. Parsing occurs as the language is being processed examining both the past and present stimuli to allow understanding of future concepts.

Taraban et al (19988:53) claim that a theory of parsing explains how sentences are processed. Specifically, it must explain how a serially presented surface string is analyzed into its underlying representation. Two central components of the underlying representation include: (a) a specification of how any particular constituent is configured with other constituents and this is referred to as syntactic attachment and (b) an assignment of semantic roles to constituents and this is known as thematic role assignment. This representation for a sentence generally specifies what goes with what in a sentence as well as the semantic relations holding between one constituent and another. Constructing this representation under the limits imposed by the serial order of sentence group constituents, a large part of what is required to read and understand a sentence.
2.19.1. Factors of Parsing

Roman et al (1998) state that parsing is driven by four main factors. Each contributes to parsing occurring correctly. These factors include the following:

1. Thematic roles

Thematic roles are considered to be critical to parsing because they allow the most basic understanding of a sentence to take place. This initial comprehension must be made before further and deeper inferences can be parsed.

Michael et al, (1987:587) state that thematic roles, associated with verbs, play an important role in human language processing and comprehension. The goal of sentence interpretation is to assign thematic roles to words in the sentence being processed— who is doing what to whom. One of the most important guides to thematic roles comes from an analysis of the verbs argument structure. For example, in the sentence:

-Vlad gave the ring to Agnes.

The verb give in this sentence has the structure Agent gives Theme to Recipient. Hence, verbs play a central role in parsing.

The discussion of thematic roles and their role in understanding sentences indicates that thematic roles focus on the lexical information being presented. They rely on interpreting words semantically in a sentence. They allow the linkage and coordination of both the semantic and discourse information as well as lexical and syntactic information.

2. Syntactic phrase structure

Mellish (1989:4) points out that there are purely syntactic relationships between parts of a sentence (constituents). For example, the following sentence can be parsed in groups as explained below:

- The man ate the large biscuits.

-(The man) (Ate) (The large biscuits).
It is, however, argued that it is impossible to talk of a natural grouping without considering meaning. Most linguistic research assumes that the meaning of a sentence is composed from the meanings of its parts, and so it is natural to devise syntactic structures that reflect these groupings of items into larger meaningful units.

From a practical point of view, in a natural language understanding system there seems to be no alternative to an analysis of the syntactic structure of a sentence taking place before its meaning can be grasped. A syntactic parsing is useful because of the following reasons:

1- It provides a hierarchical set of groupings of words and phrases which can be the basis for a general-purpose, finite and compositional procedure to extract meaning from a sentence. For instance, to find the meaning of the sentence:

Poetry is displayed with the verse environment.

Some models of how the meanings of the individual words conspire together to produce the meaning of the whole is needed. Syntactic parsing tells that phrases like poetry, with the verse environment and is displayed with the verse environment are meaning-bearing items in their own right because they fill distinct slots in possible sentence patterns, whereas phrases like with the and poetry is are not such candidates for breaking down the meaning into smaller parts.

2- Syntactic parsing is useful because different possible semantic readings of a sentence can often be ascribed to different possible syntactic analyses, and hence syntactic analysis provides an important basis for the enumeration of possible interpretations. For instance, the sentence:

The explosives were found by a security man in a plastic bag. Can be read as found by (a security man in a plastic bag), (found by a security man) in a plastic bag. The points discussed so far stress the great contribution of the syntactic groupings in understanding and interpreting the meaning of sentences. Therefore, successful reading often depends on the ability to
identify the different groups that constitute sentences. After having some idea about sentence parsing, ways that are used for doing this need to be investigated.

2.19.2. A guide to Sentence Analysis

As it was stated earlier sentences can be divided into groups of words that belong together. For instance, in the sentence:

-The nice unicorn ate a delicious meal.

*The*, *nice*, and *unicorn* form one such group, and *a*, *delicious*, and *meal* form another. These groups of words are called phrases. If the most important part of a phrase, i.e. the head, is an adjective, the phrase is an adjective phrase; if the most important part is a noun; the phrase is then a noun phrase and so on. Indication of phrases is made by putting brackets around them or by using trees.

For the purpose of a good understanding of analyzing sentences examples of how the different types of phrases can be investigated.

2.19.3. Analyzing the Structure of Noun Phrases

A noun phrase such as *the nice unicorn* can be analyzed as follows: this noun phrase is built around a noun, namely *unicorn*. This noun is called the head of the noun phrase. In addition to the head, noun phrases can contain determiners as *the* and adjectives as *nice* as well as other elements. This can be analyzed in branches that indicate how the phrase is divided up:

```
(1)
NP
```

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
```
Structure (2) is to be considered and compared with (1)

A structure such as (2) expresses the relationship more accurately than (1). In (1) it is unclear whether the specifies the adjective or the noun, in (2) the specifies nice unicorn.

On occasion, it may hard to find the head of a noun phrase, or to identify the entire noun phrase. For example, the initial groups of word in (3) are centered around a noun that may be difficult to identify:

-The unpleasant unicorn from Malacandra loves dog food.-

The head of the noun phrase is unicorn because the sentence can be shortened to have the unicorn loves dogfood. Thus, unpleasant and from Malacandra add additional information. Another way to shorten the sentence is to use a pronoun as in (4). This process is known as pronominalization and indicates that the phrase is the unpleasant unicorn from Malacandra.

4- It loves dog food. The entire analysis can also be found by examining which parts say something about the head, i.e. modify it. Thus in (3) both
unpleasant and from Malacandra have no other function in the sentence than to modify the head unicorn.

Sentence (3) could be represented as (5):

\[ \text{NP} \]

\[ \text{D} \quad \text{Adj} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{P} \quad \text{N} \]

The unpleasant unicorn from Malacondra

This structure (5) indicates that the NP is composed of five words, but it does not tell whether from is more connected to Malacandra or to unicorn. For a more hierarchical structure (6) is to be considered:

\[ \text{NP} \]

\[ \text{D} \quad \text{PP} \]

the unpleasant unicorn from Malacondra

2.19.4. Analyzing the Structure of the Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is built around a verb, which can indicate an action, a state, or a sensation. Some verb phrases include other obligatory material i.e. words or phrases that cannot easily be left out such as noun phrases,
prepositional phrases and adjective phrases. For recognizing a proper analysis of the verb phrase, consider the following tree diagram.

(a)

```
  VP
   |   NP
   V
 [ [  Wrote  D  N ]
    |        |  
   NP
```

(b)

```
  VP
   |   NP
   V
 [ [  Wrote  D  N ]
    |        |  
   NP
```

(c)

```
  VP
   |   NP
   V
 [ [  Was  P  NP ]
    |      |  
   PP
    |      |  
   NP
```

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In diagram (a) the verb phrase is built around the verb wrote and includes a noun phrase (the letter), and in (b) the verb phrase is built around the verb (was) including the prepositional phrase (in the garden), and in (c) the verb phrase is built around the verb (was) with the inclusion of the adjective phrase (very nice).

Other elements that can be included in the verb phrase are adverbials. When adverbials modify verbs, they often express when, where, how and why the action takes place. So, they give background information on time, place, manner and cause of the event. Consider the following tree diagram:

2.19.5. Analyzing the Structure of the Adjective Phrase
Adjective phrases are built around adjectives. They are characterized by their possibility of being accompanied by a degree marker such as very, too, extremely really. Consider the following example:

(3)

In the above tree diagram, the head of the adjective phrase is the adjective safe, but this head is modified by an adverb phrase whose head is in turn is the adverb environmentally.

2.19.6. Analysing the structure of the prepositional phrase

The prepositional phrase is built around a preposition. Prepositional phrases often indicate relations in space and time. They include a preposition and a noun phrase. An example is given below;
2.20. Previous Studies

The question of what relationship exist between knowledge of grammar and the communication skills is one that has been frequently debated and has been the subject of a number of statistical studies. Although most of these studies have indicated low statistical correlation between grammar and reading, the idea has persisted that knowledge of grammar is necessary related to skills in interpreting ideas.

In this section the researcher introduces some of the studies that have been made and that relate in some way or another to the present study.

1- The study of Franklin S. Hoyt-1906. (Study of the correlation between Awareness of structural Relationships in English and Ability in Reading Comprehension)

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between ability in reading comprehension and knowledge of grammatical structures. It is designed to measure to what extent knowledge of grammar may lead to the use of better English in oral and written expressions. The subject chosen for the study were 84 high school students, the senior class. The researcher used testing as the major tool for data collection. He administered a test in grammar; composition and interpretation to high school students of the tests with each other were then calculated. The findings of the study indicate probable true correlation of grammar with interpretation.

2- The study of Marwan Abdul Qawee
(Syntactic knowledge in Reading comprehension).

This study aimed at finding out the role that syntactic knowledge play in reading comprehension. To conduct his research, the researcher used the descriptive and analytical method. The samples chosen for the study are 23
first preparatory classes learners. The researcher used testing as a tool for collecting his data. Learners are three times to examine the learners lexical and syntactic knowledge, after that they were on vocabulary and reading comprehension. The research stated that there was a significant increase in the reading comprehension of the learners after receiving the third test.

**3- The study of Cuppes and Holmes- 1992**  
(Evidence for a difference in syntactic knowledge between skilled and less skilled adult readers).

In this research, the researchers aimed to investigate the relationship between reading ability and linguistic knowledge for adults. It assumes that good comprehenders perform better in syntactic tasks: The researcher used the experimental and descriptive method to conduct his research. The subjects chosen for the study were 200 secondary school adult students. The researchers used testing as the major tool for data collection. They administered a test of syntactic-judgment task to decide whether pairs of words served the same grammatical function in sentences. The important finding is that differences in form-class knowledge could be associated with corresponding differences in syntactic processing efficiency, and thus with variation in reading comprehension skill generally.

**4- The study of Gaux C. Gambert J. E. 1999**  
(Implicit and explicit syntactic knowledge and reading in pre-adolescents).

The study aims at identifying and analyzing the links between syntactic awareness and the reading, in its recording and comprehension aspects in pre-adolescent readers. The researchers used the descriptive analytical method to conduct the research. The samples chosen for the study are 83 sixth grade pupils, the study examined the relation between seven syntactic and morphosyntactic tasks and several indicators of recording and comprehension in reading. The study reveals that the more explicit the syntactic awareness tasks, the more frequent and greater their contribution to reading performances. Comparisons of syntactic performances as a function of three
levels of reading comprehension (good, average, poor) revealed a syntactic deficit in the poor comprehension. The poor comprehenders exhibit a deficit in the majority of the syntactic tasks.

5- *The study of the Chretein Dianne Dorothy- 2009*

*(Making meaning: using syntax as a tool for reading comprehension).*

This study was designed to investigate whether teaching students to approach scientific texts using their knowledge of language (Specifically syntax), would help them better understanding the passages they are reading. The researcher aims at discovering whether direct teaching of syntax is, effective in raising syntactic awareness of young students and whether an increased awareness of syntax application of syntactic knowledge be accompanied by an increase in reading comprehension of science texts. The research was conducted by the use of the experimental method. The samples chosen for the study are university students. The tool used for data collection is testing. The students were divided into an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group received a pretest and a post test testing syntactic knowledge and reading comprehension and a seven week intervention which included whole class lessons teaching students to recognize sentence structure and it also included guided reading sessions applying the syntactic concepts to reading science texts. The control group received only the pretest and the posttest. The research reveals that the experimental group improved in syntactic and maintained their scores in comprehension, while the control group improved slightly in syntactic knowledge and did not improve in comprehension.

5- *The study of Crew and Ruthellen (2002)*

*(The influence of linguistically - Oriented Techniques on the English Sentence Structure and Reading Comprehension of forth Grade Students).*
The study was designed to compare a grammar program using a linguistic approach with one using a traditional approach to determine how each affects children's ability to construct sentences which have variety in structure, and to comprehend silent reading. The method used for conducting the study is an experimental one. The samples chosen are fourth grade students in Florida. The tool used for data collection is testing. Five experimental and five control classes of fourth-grade children were selected from different schools. The control groups received instruction from material with an essentially traditional approach, and the experimental group followed materials from Robert L. Allens "A linguistic approach to writing, Discovery 1 and Discovery 2". Pre-and post test scores were obtained. All data were analyzed by individual change scores. T. scores were calculated for (1) change by all classes, before and after, as changes between pairs of experimental and control classes, and (3) changes between all experimental and all control children. The findings favored significantly at the less than. \( \text{---} \) level (1) the experimental group in variety in sentence structure and (2) the control group in reading comprehension.

**6-The Study of L-Akbar Azizifar (2008)**

*The Relationship between Sentence Structure Awareness and Iranian High School Students Performance in Reading Comprehension*

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between sentence structure awareness and reading comprehension. To conduct his research the researcher used the experimental and descriptive method. The subjects chosen for the study were 64 third-grades high school students at Bgerololom high school in Iran. These students were divided into a control group and experimental group. The researcher used a Michigan test (1997 version) of language proficiency which was given to the subjects in order to come up with a homogeneous number of subjects. The test consisted of three sections: grammar(40 questions) vocabulary (40 questions) and reading comprehension (20 questions). After comparing the pretest and posttest scores
of the experimental and control group the results showed an increase in the posttest mean scores of the experimental group so the result of the study clearly indicates that explicit teaching and students awareness of grammatical structures play an important role in the improvement of the Iranian high school students performance in reading comprehension.

7-The Study of Danielle M.Brimo (2011)
Examining the Contribution of Syntactic Awareness and syntactic knowledge to Reading Comprehension

The purpose of this study was to examine the direct and indirect effect of syntactic knowledge and awareness on adolescent reading comprehension. The method used in this study was the experimental method. The subjects chosen for this study were 193 9th and 10th grade students who attended a high school in Florida. The samples include male and female students. The researcher used a battery of assessment to measure reading comprehension and contributors to reading comprehension. Additionally syntactic knowledge and syntactic awareness was assessed. Reading comprehension was measured at the passage and sentence level. The finding of this Study confirmed that syntactic awareness significantly contributed to reading comprehension even after controlling for syntactic knowledge and other predictors. Path coefficients from syntactic awareness to sentence and passage comprehension were similar (.275 and .271 respectively) and the path coefficient from syntactic awareness to latent reading comprehension factor was higher (.339). These weights indicate that syntactic awareness was uniquely predicting reading comprehension above other factors.

8-The Study of Cheryl M.Scott (2009)
A Case for the Sentence in Reading Comprehension

The purpose of this study was to address sentence comprehension as a requirement of reading comprehension. The focus is on the comprehension requirement of complex sentences. The researcher used in this study topics about evidence linking sentence comprehension and syntax with reading
syntactic properties of sentences that make them difficult to understand, clinical applications for the assessment of sentence comprehension as it relates to reading and evidence and methods for addressing sentence complexity in treatment. The samples chosen for this study were some children and adolescents who meet typical exclusionary criteria for specific language impairment. The tool used in this study is testing where the subjects are given some sentences with multiple choice questions about these sentences in order to choose the correct answer related to each sentence. The findings of this study stress the strong relation between the inability of understanding sentences and reading comprehension.

After the discussion of the review of relevant literature and the previous studies, the next chapter is an illustration of the methodology that is used in conducting the research.
CHAPTER THREE
THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Methodology

As it was stated earlier the purpose of the present study was to examine the effect of explicit teaching and practicing of the English sentence groups and their functions on improving the Teachers College student's competence in identifying and understanding sentence structure. In addition to that the study also attempted to investigate to what extent this teaching may contribute in enabling the subjects concerned to be proficient in reading comprehension. What follows is a description of the methodology used in conducting this research.

3.2. The population of the study

The population chosen in this study represents Sudanese university students. They are enrolled in the University of Dalanj, Teachers College.

3.3. The Sample of the study

The sample chosen for the study represent an intact group i.e. all third level students from University of Dalanj, Teachers College who are doing English as a major subject. The study involves 45 students that represent the whole number of the students who are having their third year of English in the department of English language, Teachers College. These students are culturally and linguistically homogeneous in the sense that they are all Sudanese and they are all studying English as a foreign language. The homogeneity of these subjects provides the necessary basis for the generalization of the findings to the population from which the sample is drawn.

All subjects had received the same courses of English language during their five semesters that they have studied in the college. This indicates that
they are of the same level and have been exposed to the same amount of English language knowledge.

3.4 The Tools of Data Collection

The main aim of this study was to measure the effect of explicit teaching of the English sentence groups and functions to the subjects concerned on raising their ability in identifying and understanding sentence structure in addition to reading comprehension.

So in order to focus on this aim, the researcher used testing as a major instrument to collect the required data. In order to arrive at the subjects' real standard in their recognition of sentence groups, and answering comprehension questions, and before implementing the teaching program, the researcher used a pretest on the identification of sentence groups and functions and a pretest on reading comprehension. Then, the researcher led an explicit teaching program about the English sentence groups and functions. The aim of this program was to train the subjects to recognize and to identify the different groups that make up the English sentences and work to extract meaning by their analysis of sentences. Apart from this the process also included analyzing sentences from texts by the students and making use of this analysis in understanding the full text. After the treatment the researcher collected the required data by means of a post test both on sentence groups and reading comprehension.

By using the T-test the mean of the subjects' performance of the pretest and post test in the identification of sentence groups are compared in order to measure the effect of the treatment (the teaching and the practice of sentence groups). The mean of the comprehension scores pretest and post test are also compared to see to what extent the instructional program of sentence groups has been effective in developing the subjects competence in reading comprehension.
3.5 The content of the Test

The subjects of the study (students of University of Dalanj who doing English as a major subject) received two different sets of tests: (a) a test on the identification of sentence groups, and (b) a test on reading comprehension.

The components of the two tests including the different types of questions are to be explained in details.

a- The test on identifying the sentence groups:

This test consists of 30 sentences. These sentences cover the English sentence structures including the basic sentence elements: subject, verb, object complement, subject complement, and adjunct. Each element, of course, is realized by a certain form and forms a certain group as noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases, subjects have to concentrate on the groups carefully since they are regarded as the most problematic. Some details about the different groups in the sentences of the test are explained in order to have a clear picture about how these sentences look like.

1- The noun group

The noun group, compared to the different groups that make up the English sentences, is considered as the most dominant construction among others within sentences and texts. Each sentence contains at least one noun group as a constituent element. In addition to that the noun phrase is also characterized by the fact that it has more elements in its structure than the phrases in the English sentence. This is stated by the complex structure of the noun phrase that can possibly consist of determiners, central determiners, post determiners, premodifiers, and post modifiers.

Taking all these facts into account, the researcher introduced the noun groups in the test covering all the possible structures. To be more exact, some noun groups in the test consist of determiners and premodifiers, others contain
premodifers and postmodifiers and include all elements; determiners, premodifiers and postmodify.
2- The verb group

The structures of the verb group which are introduced in the test include both simple structures and complex structures. Simple structures consist of a single lexical or main verb while the complex structures include auxiliaries with their different types followed by the main verb.
3- The adjective group

The adjective groups that are included in the sentences of the test cover the possible structures that incorporate premodifiers and postmodifiers.
4- The adverb group

The components of the adverb group also covered structures that contain modification as with the case of noun groups and adjective groups.
5- The prepositional group

The prepositional group, as its name suggests, consists of a preposition followed by a noun, so the test prepositional groups in this sense.

As it was mentioned earlier the purpose of the present study was to train the students by an explicit instruction to read sentences in groups that is to say chunk by chunk and not word by word because of this the test was designed as to include extended structures that make up the English sentences so that the students can familiarize themselves with these structures and develop their reading capacity. After the explanation of the nature of the different groups of the sentences of the test it would be fruitful to introduce some examples of these sentences.

Examples of sentences from the test:

-1-The patient dog greeted him very joyfully.

2-Our weekly paper prints only local news.

3-Late night television shows old movies.

4-The man with blond hair ran down the stairs.

5-The tall policeman very gently comforted the frightened child.
6-The building in which we live has been destroyed.
7-The third unpleasant task to be assigned to me is actually difficult.
8-The two men are fishing for touts in the clear stream beside the woodhands cottage.
9- People of all ages enjoy swimming.
10-Your apple pie looks really delicious.

Having known some examples of the sentences that were used in the test, the way of the students answering might be useful to explain together with the manner of correction and scoring.

3.6 The Correction and Scoring of the Test

In this test the subjects were asked to identify the groups that constitute each sentence. Each group in a sentence was given (1) mark. If the student fails to identify the group by including all its components, he or she would not be given any mark even if there is something correct in his identification. The total marks of all the answer of the different groups in all the sentences are calculated out of (100) which is the total marks of the test as a whole.

After the test of the identification of the sentence groups, the students also received a test on reading comprehension as the dimension of the present study. What follows were some explanations of what is concerned with the reading test including the text and the questioning techniques used.

b. The comprehension test

The passage chosen for the comprehension test consisted of (488) words. The vocabulary of this text was considered to be suitable and matches the standard of the subjects of the study. The researcher had intended to choose such a text to avoid the intervention of vocabulary as a factor that may affect the purpose of the study which was to examine the effect of explicit teaching of the English sentence structure on the students'
performance in understanding sentences and consequently managing with reading texts.

c- The question types

The comprehension test consists of five different types of questions; WH-questions, stating whether some statements are true or false, filling gaps with words or phrases, multiple choice questions and analyzing some sentences from the passage.

The WH-questions aim to measure the subjects' ability to read English texts for understanding details and making inferences and to measure their abilities in giving answers in correct structures which may reflect the effect of the teaching program and the practice that they made in identifying sentence groups. Some examples of WH-questions from the test are the following:

1- What is non-verbal communication system?
2- What do chimpanzees do when they are excited?
How does a chimpanzee run towards another when he is aggressive?

True and false questions are intended to measure to what extent the subjects can infer facts from their deep analysis and comprehension of what the text is conveying.

The questions of gap-filling by using words or phrases test the subjects' ability in understanding minimal information from the text together with their ability of knowing the boundaries and chunks of sentences. Some examples of these questions include:

1- When a chimpanzee is attacked by a superior, he redirects..........
2- Chimpanzees show an apparent need for..................
3- When close associate chimpanzees meet after a long absence, they may..................
4- Chimpanzees need physical contact in.............
The multiple choice questions aim to detect the subjects' competence in extracting information and understanding the meaning of within the text. Here are some examples of multiple choice questions;

1-Chimpanzees need physical contact when they are;
a-happy  b-afraid  c-relaxed
2-The similarity between man and chimpanzee lies in;
a-gestures  b-postures  c-non-verbal communication

The reading comprehension questions focus on text meaning by the manipulation of the sentence structure that the subjects have practiced. The nature of the questions used leads the subjects to memorize structures for the sake of arriving at the correct answers.

Concerning the scoring of the comprehension test, each question is given the same point since the entire test items are viewed as equally important in the reading comprehension achievement. Regarding the reliability of the test and marking, even though the questions are quite objective, an agreement was reached by the co-supervisor on the scoring for each aspect assessed.

3.7 The instructional program

The purpose of the present study was to examine the effect of an explicit teaching of the English sentence groups to Teachers College students on improving their competence in understanding sentences properly.

To achieve this aim, the researcher designed a program that incorporated the major groups that function as constituents in the English sentences. The program was assessed by two professional university teachers and approved. The details of the content of the program would be illustrated.

1-The concept of the sentence group

The researcher introduces some definitions to illustrate the nature of the phrase including the elements of structure that make up the phrase. Facts
about the phrase as containing one or more than one words are explained in addition to its lack of subject-predicator structure, and its form as containing heads and modifiers.

2-Major classes of phrases

The program includes explanations of the different types of phrases that exist in the structure of the English sentence.

1-Noun phrases

The form of noun phrases includes different types of heads, in addition to premodifiers, postmodifiers and determiners.

The head of a noun phrase can be a noun, a pronoun, an adjective or an enumerator.

The different types of premodifiers are taught in the program. These types include noun phrases premodifiers, adjective phrases premodifiers, adverb phrases premodifiers, and prepositional phrases premodifiers.

Noun phrases can also be postmodified. So the program pinpoints the different types of elements that can function as postmodifiers. These include adjective phrases, prepositional phrases, adverb phrases and clauses.

Moreover the instructional program also incorporates the different classes of determiners that function in the structure of the noun group. These classes of determiners include predeterminers, central determiners and postdeterminers.

1-The prepositional phrase

The form of the prepositional phrase is discussed in the program. The head of the prepositional phrase is a preposition, it also has a complement and the head can be preceded by a premodifier. In addition to that, the function of prepositional phrases as postmodifiers of nouns, and complements of noun phrases, adjective phrases and adverb phrases are also explained.
3- The adjective phrase

The program also includes the adjective in terms of its form and function in the sentence. The adjective phrase has an adjective as its head. It can be premodified by adverb phrases and noun phrases and postmodified by adverb phrases and prepositional phrases.

4-The adverb phrase

The Program also covers the form of the adverb phrase which consists of an adverb as a head preceded by an adverb phrase and a prepositional phrase as a premodifier.

3.8 Test Validity and Reliability

The following section investigates the validity and the reliability of the tests often used in researches particularly experimental ones.

a-Test Validity

Campbell et al (1966) declare that validity refers to how well a test measures what it is purported to measure. The question,"Are we measuring what we think we are measuring?", best describes the most common definition of validity. There are two important forms of validity: external and internal validity.

The external validity of a test is related with the possibility of generalizing the results i.e this type of validity can be checked by replication. The replication should be done with other settings, with other subject populations, and with other, but related variables.

Internal validity, on the other hand, when associated with experimental research, refers both to how well the study was run, and how confidently it can be concluded that the change in the dependent variable was produced solely by the independent variable and not extraneous ones.

b-Test Reliability

Cozby (2001) defines the reliable test as the test that can produce stable scores or consistent scores. A test can be described as having reliability if the
scores demonstrate consistency no matter who administer the test, when and where it is administered.

Technically, reliability shows the extent to which test scores appear to measure a real quality, characteristics or traits. A test could be described as reliable when all items within a test assess the same thing. In addition to that a reliable test is to measure the same thing from one administration to the next. If the same test is happened to be administered twice, people would be expected to obtain a similar mark.

For the present study, after the researcher had prepared the test, it was corrected and approved by specialists and some corrections were made before being given to the subjects of the study.

3.9 The application of the program

The instructional program which was designed to teach the English sentence groups and functions was held by the researcher. The program was fulfilled in a formal setting that is a lecture hall in the College. The duration of this instructional program was six weeks; they attended one lecture per a week. Each lecture lasts for two hours.

To introduce the content of the program, the researcher prepared handouts which were distributed to the participants as a reference to be used for revising and reinforcing their knowledge.

The practice of sentence groups by the students during the instruction was given a great deal of attention. This is done by giving them a number of sentences in order for them to analyze their structures as a pair or group work. Analyzing sentences from texts is another way followed by the researcher to make the students practice sentences in an attempt to give them a chance to understand texts by means of sentence analysis.

3.10 Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

The effect of an explicit teaching of the English sentence groups on identifying and understanding sentence structure and ability in reading comprehension for Teachers College students was the researchers main
aim, so in order to focus on this aim the researcher designed a pretest on identifying the English sentence groups in order to examine the level of the students before receiving any instructional treatment. The students then received instruction on the English sentence groups in an attempt to raise their competence in analyzing and understanding the specific structures that they had learned and determine whether their understanding had a crucial role on their ability to recognize the English sentence structure and understanding of reading texts.

By the end of the treatment the researcher collected the required data by giving a posttest to the participants on the identification of sentence groups and another test on reading comprehension. The data was analyzed by using a series of sample T-test in which sentence groups in the structure of the sentences tested was calculated separately before the total marks were presented. By doing this, the mean of the pretest scores were compared to the mean of the posttest in order to determine whether the difference between the two mean of the pretest and posttest was so meaningful that the researcher could claim that the gains made by the subjects after the treatment were because of the treatment or not.

For relating the theoretical description of the data analysis procedure with empirical statistical evidence, below are two tables that reveal the descriptive statistics of the subjects' performance on the test of identifying the sentence groups and the reading comprehension test.

Table (3.1): descriptive statistics of the total marks scores of sentence groups pretest and posttest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples Statistics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1  Total Marks pre test</td>
<td>28.53</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9.723</td>
<td>1.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Marks post test</td>
<td>59.6222</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.98748</td>
<td>2.08513</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Total Marks pre test - Total Marks post test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-31.0889</td>
<td>15.83124</td>
<td>2.35998</td>
<td>-13.173</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table (3.1) reveals the statistical procedure used to analyse the sentence groups test. It represents the total marks scored by the subjects described by the mean of the total marks pretest and posttest.

Table (3.2) descriptive statistics of the comprehension scores pretest and posttest.

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Comprehension Marks pre test - Comprehension Marks post test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-26.4222</td>
<td>21.80022</td>
<td>3.24978</td>
<td>-8.130</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Comprehension Marks pre test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Comprehension Marks pre test</td>
<td>38.87</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16.124</td>
<td>2.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension Marks post test</td>
<td>65.2889</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.82567</td>
<td>1.76287</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (3.2) measures the comprehension marks obtained by the subjects. It contains the mean of the pretest and posttest scores.

After the investigation of the various procedures which is used in analyzing the data, the following step is a detailed explanation of the analysis of the obtained data.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 The Analysis and Discussion of Data

As stated earlier, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the effect of explicit teaching of sentence groups and functions for Teachers College students who are doing English as a major subject on raising their ability to identify and understand sentences and to make use of this ability to understand texts.

To investigate this claim the following hypotheses were initially put forward:

1-If the Teachers College students who are doing English as a major subject receive an explicit teaching and practice of sentence groups and functions; they can improve their competence in identifying and understanding sentences.

2-The students' improvement in their ability to identify and understand sentences may contribute in raising their ability to understand texts.

In order to test the above stated hypotheses a series of independent sample T-tests are utilized. The step-by-step procedure is detailed here:

Table (4.1): Descriptive statistics of the noun group pretest and posttest scores.
This table presents the calculations for the mean and standard deviation for the students' scores of the noun group in both the pretest and posttest which are designed for the identification of sentence groups.

In the paired sample statistics there is an apparent difference in the mean of the noun group scores in the pretest which is 14.76 compared to the mean of the posttest which is 29.0889. This clear difference in the two means of the pretest and posttest is considered as significance because in the paired sample test the value of (t) is -10.184 at (44) degree of freedom and the significant value is .000 and this value is less than 0.05. Thus, this means that the experimental treatment (the explicit teaching of sentence groups) has had a positive effect on the subjects' performance.
Table (4.2): Descriptive statistics of the verb phrase pretest and posttest scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Verb Phrase pre test</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.886</td>
<td>.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Verb Phrase post test</td>
<td>17.6444</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.73457</td>
<td>.70579</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Verb Phrase pre test - Verb Phrase post test</td>
<td>-9.2889</td>
<td>5.43817</td>
<td>.81068</td>
<td>-11.458</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table (4.2) shows the students scores on the identification of the verb group in both the pretest and the posttest. From this table, in the paired sample statistics, there is a clear difference in the mean of the verb group scores in the pretest and the mean of the posttest. The mean in the verb phrase in the pretest is 8.36 while in the posttest is 17.6444. This difference that exists between the two means is a significant one. It is significant because in the paired samples test the value of (t) is _11.458 under the degree of freedom (df) (44) and the significant value is .000 which is less than .05 and this is an indicator that there is a positive effect for the treatment on the students performance.
Table (4.3): Descriptive statistics of the adjective group pretest and posttest scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Adjective Phrase per test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Adjective Phrase post test</td>
<td>2.2667</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.09545</td>
<td>.16330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Paired Samples Test |
|---------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|----------------|
|                     | Paired Differences | Mean  | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Pair 1              | Adjective Phrase per test - Adjective Phrase post test | -1.2444 | 1.38425 | .20635 |
|                     |                  |       |                 | t               |
|                     |                  |       |                 | -6.031          |
|                     |                  |       |                 | df              |
|                     |                  |       |                 | 44              |
|                     |                  |       |                 | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|                     |                  |       |                 | .000            |

Table (4.3) illustrates the students' scores of the question of identifying the adjective group from the sentences of the test. The table includes both the adjective group pretest and posttest scores. The table concerning the paired samples statistics reveals a clear difference in the mean of the adjective group pretest and posttest scores. The mean of the pretest is 1.02, while the posttest mean is 2.2667. The difference between the two means is significant because the (t) value is -6.031 under the degree of freedom (df) 44 in addition to the significant value which is only .000 and it is less than .05, All these statistical points state that the treatment to which the students are exposed had a positive effect on their performance.
Table (4.4): Descriptive statistics of the prepositional phrase pretest and posttest scores:

**Paired Samples Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Preposition Phrase pre test</th>
<th>Preposition Phrase post test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>9.1778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.111</td>
<td>3.87468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.57760</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Paired Samples Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Preposition Phrase pre test - Preposition Phrase post test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-5.5111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>4.07109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>.60688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>-9.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.4) explains the students' scores of the identification of the prepositional phrase from the test. The table contains the students' prepositional phrase pretest and posttest scores. The paired sample statistics pinpoints a clear difference between the means of the prepositional phrase pretest, that is 3.67, and the mean of the prepositional phrase posttest which is 9.1778. The difference detected between the two means is undoubtedly significant which is supported by the statistical facts in the paired sample test in which the value of (t) is -9.081 under the degree of freedom (df) 44 and the significant value is .000 which is less than .05 and this states that there is a positive effect for the experimental teaching program on the subjects' performance.
Table (4.5): Descriptive statistics of the adverb phrase pretest and posttest scores:

### Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Adv. Phrase per test</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Adv. Phrase post test</td>
<td>1.2222</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>.84984</td>
<td>.12669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Adv. Phrase per test - Adv. Phrase post test</td>
<td>-.7333</td>
<td>.93905</td>
<td>.13999</td>
<td>-5.239</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.5) represents the subjects' scores of both the pretest and the posttest on the identification of the adverb group from the sentences on which they are tested. The paired sample statistics reflects a clear and a marked difference between the mean of the adverb group scores in the pretest which is .49 and the mean of the posttest scores which is 1.2222. This apparent difference between the two means of the students performance in the identification of the adverb group in the two tests is undoubtedly described as significant because by reference to the paired sample test the value of (t) is -5.239 at the degree of freedom 44 and with the significant value .000 which is of course, less than 0.05. Thus, these statistical facts indicate that the subjects' performance on the posttest exceeded their performance on the pretest. This progress that happened in the subjects' performance suggests that the teaching program of sentence groups played an important role in the improvement of the subjects' competence in the recognition of sentence structure.
Table (4.6): Descriptive statistics of the total marks scores of the sentence groups pretest and posttest:

### Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Total Marks pre test</td>
<td>28.53</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9.723</td>
<td>1.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Marks post test</td>
<td>59.6222</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.98748</td>
<td>2.08513</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Total Marks pre test - Total Marks post test</td>
<td>-31.0889</td>
<td>15.83124</td>
<td>2.35998</td>
<td>-13.173</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table (4.6) reveals the calculations for the mean and standard deviation for the subjects total scores of the identification of sentence groups pretest and posttest. It reflects the total marks obtained by the subjects in all the sentence groups that are set to be identified. As the table suggests, in the paired samples statistics an apparent difference is observed in the mean of the total marks of the sentence groups pretest which is 28.53 compared to the posttest total marks that is 59.6222. This Unquestionable difference between the two means is significant. It is significant because as the paired samples statistics reveals, the (t) value is _13.173 at the degree of freedom 44 and a significant value .000 which is less than 0.05. These statistical facts which show an increase in the posttest mean scores of the total marks of the identification of sentence groups demonstrate empirically that the experimental teaching program has a positive effect on the subjects' improvement in the recognition and understanding of sentence structure.
Table (4.7): Descriptive statistics of the comprehension pretest and posttest scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples Statistics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension Marks pre test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension Marks post test</td>
<td>38.87</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16.124</td>
<td>2.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65.2889</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.82567</td>
<td>1.76287</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples Test</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Comprehension Marks pre test - Comprehension Marks post test</td>
<td>-26.4222</td>
<td>21.80022</td>
<td>3.24978</td>
<td>-8.130</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table (4.7) presents the calculations for the mean and standard deviation for the subjects' scores of reading comprehension. It represents the total marks of all the comprehension questions obtained by the subjects including both the pretest and posttest. The researcher deals only with the total marks of the comprehension test because the study is conducted to measure the effect of the program on the overall performance in reading apart from the types of questions used.

As the paired sample statistics reveals, there observed an enormous difference in the mean of the comprehension marks pretest which is (38.87) and the mean of the posttest scores which is (65.2889). This huge difference between the two means of the two tests states its significance since in the paired samples test the (t) value is –(8.130 at the degree of freedom 44 and the significant value .000 which is less than 0.05. This statistical information stressed that the experimental treatment which is designed for the subjects to practice sentence groups, has a positive effect on raising their competence in understanding texts and answering comprehension questions. This can be related to the subjects' use of their knowledge of sentence structure that they
receive during the program of practicing the sentence groups and their functions.

Chapter five is an illustration of the results of the study. It includes the summary of results and the recommendations and suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, FINDINGS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this research is to examine the effect of an explicit teaching of sentence groups and functions on raising and improving the Teachers College students' competence in identifying and understanding the English sentences and their structures and making use of this knowledge in understanding texts and hence answering comprehension questions.

The data of the present research is obtained from a sample of (45) EFL Students who are doing English as a major subject at the University of Dalanj, Teachers College. These students are homogeneous and have the same learning experiences because they are all third level students.

The instrument used for collecting data is testing. The students received two tests; one on the identification of the English sentence groups and the other on answering comprehension questions from a text. Each test is divided into a pretest and a posttest. The pretest is intended to measure the students' current proficiency in dealing with the English sentence structure and ability in text reading comprehension.

After the students are pretested, an explicit teaching program of sentence groups was conducted by the researcher that lasted for six weeks. During the lectures the students were allowed thirty minutes to practice identifying the sentence groups in both isolated sentences and in texts to check to what extent they benefited from teaching.

The T-test is used as a means for analyzing the students' performance in the test.

The mean of the performance of the pretest and posttest on the identification of sentence groups are compared in order to examine the effect of the treatment of sentence groups teaching and practicing. The mean of the text comprehension scores pretest and posttest are also compared to see to
what extent the teaching and the practice of sentence groups is effective in reading comprehension.

After the illustration of what the present study aims at and how the whole research was conducted the following results can be drawn:

1-Having compared the pretest and posttest scores of the subjects' performance in identifying the sentence groups, an increase in the posttest mean scores of the subjects is noted. This can be stated as follows; by reference to table (4.1) there is increases in the posttest mean scores on noun groups which is 29.0889 while in the pretest it is only 14.76. In table (4.2) the mean of the verb group posttest is 17.6444 and that of the pretest is only 8.36. Table (4.3) shows an increase in the mean of the adjective group from 1.02 in the pretest to 2.2667 in the posttest. Table also shows an apparent increase in the posttest mean scores on the prepositional group that is 9.1778 in comparison to the pretest 3.67. Table (4.4) reveals an increase in the posttest mean scores of the adverb group that is 1.2222 while the mean of the pretest is only .49. Finally, an apparent increase is noted in the total marks of the sentence groups posttest (59.6222) and the pretest total marks (28.53).

This increase in the posttest mean scores of the subjects performance on identifying sentence groups demonstrate empirically that the explicit teaching and practice of sentence groups by the researcher and the students has a significant effect on improving the Teachers College students performance in recognizing the different groups that make up the English sentences.

2-Comparing the pretest and posttest scores of the subject's performance on the reading comprehension text, an increase in the posttest mean scores is observed. This fact is revealed in table (4.7) in which the posttest mean score is 65.2889 which exceeded the pretest mean score which is 38.87. This enormous increase in the posttest mean score is an indication of the improvement that happened in the subjects' competence in interpreting
texts and answering comprehension questions as a result of the teaching program that they have received.

It can be stated that the results of the hypotheses of the present study demonstrate a positive relationship between explicit teaching of sentence groups and the subjects improvement in recognizing and understanding the English sentence structure and hence the ability to read and understand texts.

This signifies that the students' scores on both pretest and posttest changed significantly due to the explicit instruction during the treatment. This leads to restating the hypotheses to be specifically that the explicit teaching and practice of the English sentence groups has a positive effect in improving the Teachers College students' ability to identify and understand the English sentence structure. And that the students improvement in their ability to identify and understand sentence structure

3-The results of the present study can be useful for foreign language pedagogy in different areas including foreign language teaching, it addresses whether there is any empirical evidence to state the students improvement by means of explicit teaching of sentence structure, and its correlation with greater reading ability.

4-From a pedagogical perspective, the study investigates how learners' attention might be directed toward the formal features of input so that they may process them. This entails how learners can be directed both to making meaning and to making form-meaning connections.

The findings of the present study are in keeping with some of the previous studies investigated in this research. It is in keeping with Hoyt's study whose findings indicated a probable true correlation of knowledge of grammar particularly sentence structure with interpretation.

The results of this study also relate Gaux study that states the more explicit the syntactic awareness tasks the more frequent and greater their contribution to reading performances.
With regard to Chrétien's study it correlates with the present study in that it reveals that the experimental group improved in their ability to recognize sentence structure after the class sessions teaching and at the same time they maintained their scores in comprehension.

Moreover, the present study also is in keeping with AkbarAzizifar who arrived at the finding that there exists a positive relationship between sentence structure awareness and reading comprehension ability of the subjects in which the experimental group students' scores changed significantly due to the explicit instruction during the treatment.

The present study also has some relation with the results of the study of Crew and Ruthellen (2003) whose findings favoured significantly at the less than 001 level the experimental group in sentence structure and the control group in reading comprehension.

Continuing with the comparison of the present study and similar previous studies, the study of Marwan Abdul Qawee (2007) presents a similar finding to the present study findings. His finding stated that there is a significant increase in the reading in the learners reading comprehension competence after being trained and tested on their syntactic knowledge.

To sum up, it could be claimed that the results of the present study has some correlations with the results of corresponding previous studies investigated in the research. If there are some important points that need to be considered, it could be commented that there are some differences in the levels of the subjects chosen in the previous studies that range from school to university students in addition to the number of the subjects involved in these studies. Some of the previous studies also differ from the present study in that they tested sentence structure in addition to vocabulary while the present study focuses mainly on sentence structure.

5.2. Recommendations

The experimental treatment of this study is intended specifically to improve the subjects' competence in understanding sentences and their
structures and hence understanding texts. The findings revealed that the students have benefited from the practice of the English sentence structure. Because any study may have some kind of limitations, the researcher recommends the following:

1-Other studies of a similar type can be done by widening the scope of the research into other components and types of grammatical structures.
2-Replication of this study using a larger size of, additional levels of language ability and lengthier experiment can be more fruitful.
3-It would be worthwhile also to replicate this study using a series of tests with different types questions in both grammar and the use of grammar content not restrictive to the structures involved in this study for gaining more benefits.
4-The findings of this study are limited to only third-year university students from one college. To obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the effect of the explicit teaching of the English sentence structure on raising the reading ability among students, researchers need to involve students at other levels.
5-The instructional program of the English sentence structure may have been affected by the students' vocabulary knowledge. Researchers can conduct other studies that involve both sentence structure and vocabulary to measure their effect on reading sentences and texts.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

The researcher suggests the following for further research:
1. The simple sentences structure is not all that is needed to deal with language, so the researcher suggests conducting other studies that incorporate the other types of sentences.
2. Concerning reading texts, the researcher suggests studies related to the role of discourse markers on understanding and interpreting texts.
3. Lack of awareness of the English sentence structure leads to think of remedial programme before enrolling in the university, that is, the researcher
suggests studies at the beginner levels as an attempt to avoid further problems in dealing with sentence structure.
4. Vocabulary sometimes acts as an obstacle towards understanding sentences and texts, so studies that promote students' vocabulary can be useful.
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Dykes, B. (2007). Grammar for Every one. Australia, ACER Press. 21-


Holmes, V. et al. (Evidence for a Difference in Syntactic Knowledge between Skilled and less Skilled Readers). Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, volume, 21, April, pp (230-249).


Appendix (A)
The sentence Structure Test

Identify the different groups in the following sentences.

1- The patient dog greeted him very joyfully.
2- Our weekly paper prints only local news.
3- Late-night television shows old movies.
4- The tall policeman gently comforted the frightened child.
5- The man with blond hair ran down the stairs.
6- The building in which we live has been destroyed.
7- The man wearing the brown suit left his papers on the desk.
8- People of all ages enjoy swimming.
9- The shop on the corner sells newspapers for many cities.
10- A line of unemployed men appeared outside the office door.
11- The rain we had yesterday left floods on many streets all over the country.
12- The girl with brown eyes pointed across the room with her left hand.
13- A dog that is well trained obeys a well trained master.
14- The school that I attend is quite small.
15- The people in the bus escaped through the emergency exit.
16- My many good friends have gone abroad.
17- The man caught by the police is very dangerous.
18- A beautiful girl handed a blue toy to the baby.
19- The man saw the kangaroo that the woman speared.
20- The very tall green trees grow in the forest.
21- The new teacher read a short book in the library.
22- The cat sniffed the tiny mouse in the kitchen.
23- The fifty English tourists walked along the Great Wall.
24- The old lady has been anxious about her cat.
25- The two men are fishing for touts in the clear stream beside the Woodhans cottage.
26-Your apple pie looks really delicious.
27-Old Mother Hubbard went to the cupboard to fetch her poor dog a bone.
28-The third unpleasant task to be assigned to me is actually difficult.
29- All the eighty elderly passengers in the front coach died last night.
30-The poor little boy seems to be lost has been a criminal.
Appendix (B)
The reading test

Read the following text and then answer the questions that follow:

For me one of the most striking similarities between man and chimpanzee lies in the non-verbal communication system—the repertoire of postures and gestures by which one chimpanzee communicates with his fellows. In many cases, it is not only the gesture that is so similar to that of a human (such as kissing, patting on the back, holding hands) but also the contexts in which such patterns are likely to occur.

When a chimpanzee is frightened, he may reach to touch or embrace a companion, and he seems to derive comfort from such contact. When two chimpanzees are suddenly excited—if for instance, they come across an unexpected supply of food—they are likely to indulge in much contact seeking behaviour of this sort, touching, embracing, kissing, and patting until it seems they are calmed by the physical contact with each other. This apparent need for physical contact with another in times of stress is often vividly illustrated by a young chimpanzee who has been threatened or attacked by another. The victim may approach the aggressor, screaming and tense, and take up a submissive crouching posture in front of him. In response to such behaviour the aggressor typically reaches out to touch, pat, or even embrace the screaming or whimpering subordinate. The effect of such a reassurance gesture on the victim is usually immediately apparent: his screams diminish, his whimper gradually cease, and he slowly relaxes his tense posture. Sometimes he seems quite calm by the time he moves away.

When chimpanzees have been separated for a while they may, if they are close associates, show friendly behaviour which we may call greeting. One individual may pat, embrace or kiss another, or they may reach out and hold hands.

Some of the patterns and contexts of chimpanzee aggression are also similar to some of our own. A chimpanzee who threatens another may make
vigorously movements of upraised arms, he may run towards the other in an upright posture, sometimes waving both hands, he may throw rocks or other objects, often with good aim, or he may brandish a stick. During an actual attack he may bite, pull hair, scratch, punch, hit or kick.

Aggression may occur when two chimpanzees are competing for social status, for favoured food in short supply or, very occasionally, for a female. A chimpanzee may become aggressive if a member of his immediate family is threatened or attacked. He may become irritable, and thus aggressive, if he is in pain or if subordinates make too much noise and commotion near by. Very often, when one chimpanzee is threatened or attacked by a superior whom he dare not fight back, he redirects his aggressive feeling against a subordinate who happens to be nearby. In addition, the sight or sound of chimpanzees of a neighbouring community may cause aggressive displays and, if a stranger is encountered, he or she may become the victim of a savage attack.

**Question one: Respond to the following questions:**
1-What is non-verbal communication system?
2-What do chimpanzees do when they are excited?
3-What do close associates chimpanzees do when they have been separated for a while?
4-How does a chimpanzee run towards another when he is aggressive?
5-How is the need for physical contact in times of stress expressed by a chimpanzee?

**Question two: State whether the following statements are true or false and correct the false ones.**
1-Gestures are the only similarity that exists between man and chimpanzee (  ).
2-An aggressor does not reassure a victim (  ).
3-Chimpanzees sometimes become eager to see each other (  ).
4-A chimpanzee is able to fight any other chimpanzee (  ).
Question three: Complete the spaces with a word or phrases from the passage.

1- A frightened chimpanzee may……………………………………………….
2- When a chimpanzee is attacked by a superior, he redirects………………
3- Chimpanzees show an apparent need for…………………………………
4- When close associate chimpanzees meet after a long absence, they may
……………………………………………………………………………………
5- Chimpanzees need physical contact in………………………………………

Question four: Choose the correct answer a, b, c, or d.

1- Chimpanzees show an apparent need for……
a- aggression  b- physical contact  c- love  d- separation.
2- The similarity between man and chimpanzee is in………
a- gestures  b- postures  c- contact  d- non-verbal communication.
3- Frightened chimpanzees feel………… when embraced.
a- fearful  b- relaxed  c- depressed  d- embarrassed.
4- Chimpanzees need physical contact when they are…………
a- happy  b- afraid  c- busy  d- excited and afraid.

Question five: single out eight sentences from the text then analyze them into groups.