

Investigating Errors Made by Iraqi EFL Learners in Using English Compound and Complex Sentences

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1- Introduction

This study deals with the errors made by university students in Iraq who study English as a foreign language in using English complex and compound sentences and their punctuation marks as one of the essential constructions in language.

The study aims at investigating the ability of Iraqi EFL university students in distinguishing and using complex and compound sentences and their punctuation marks and the extent to which they can master these complex and compound sentences and their punctuation marks in making correct grammatical sentences and how to use the punctuation marks well. It is believed that most of Iraqi EFL university learners face problem in mastering and distinguishing between compound and complex sentences with their punctuation marks. Run-on sentences, sentence fragments, comma splices, and missing words are all types of sentences structure errors. A sentence structure error occurs when the grammatical structure of a sentence is incorrect in some way. Sentence structure errors are global in nature, which means they can interfere with the students' understanding of a clause, a sentence or a whole section of any written text by the students. Therefore, they are highly noticeable.

Several types of problems can result in the above-mentioned errors. Two of the most common of these are missing clause elements and incorrect structure of compound and complex sentences. This study is designed to familiarize the learners with some fundamentals of English clause and sentence structure and to

then help them use this information in order to recognize and correct the above-mentioned sentence structure errors.

The researchers will make a diagnostic test that will be designed and applied to a sample of 90 Iraqi EFL university students at their fourth stage from the Department of English, College of Education, University of Wasit.

Marks of punctuation such as commas and semicolons are now used to clarify the grammatical structure of a sentence; they are not used (as they once were) to indicate when and for how long a person uttering the sentence should pause. At the present time, the position of these marks in a well-constructed sentence is equivalent to the position of parentheses and brackets in a properly punctuated mathematical formula. It has little to do with the way the sentence is uttered or pronounced.

Students usually have trouble with some of the contexts in which an elementary mark of punctuation is considered correct. Some of them cannot know where to put a comma or a semicolon within the structure of the sentences. The problem can appear well in the context of compound and complex sentences. Thus, many college seniors have trouble with commas, and many graduate students (even some professors) cannot cope with dashes and semicolons. The difficulty is apparently owing to their lack of familiarity with elementary grammatical distinctions such as that between clauses and phrases, appositives and participles. Such a study will clarify such distinctions and show how the accepted use of commas, semicolons, dashes, colons, and parentheses is related to the syntactical structure of the sentences containing them. To confirm this study, rules will be given for the proper use of each punctuation mark .

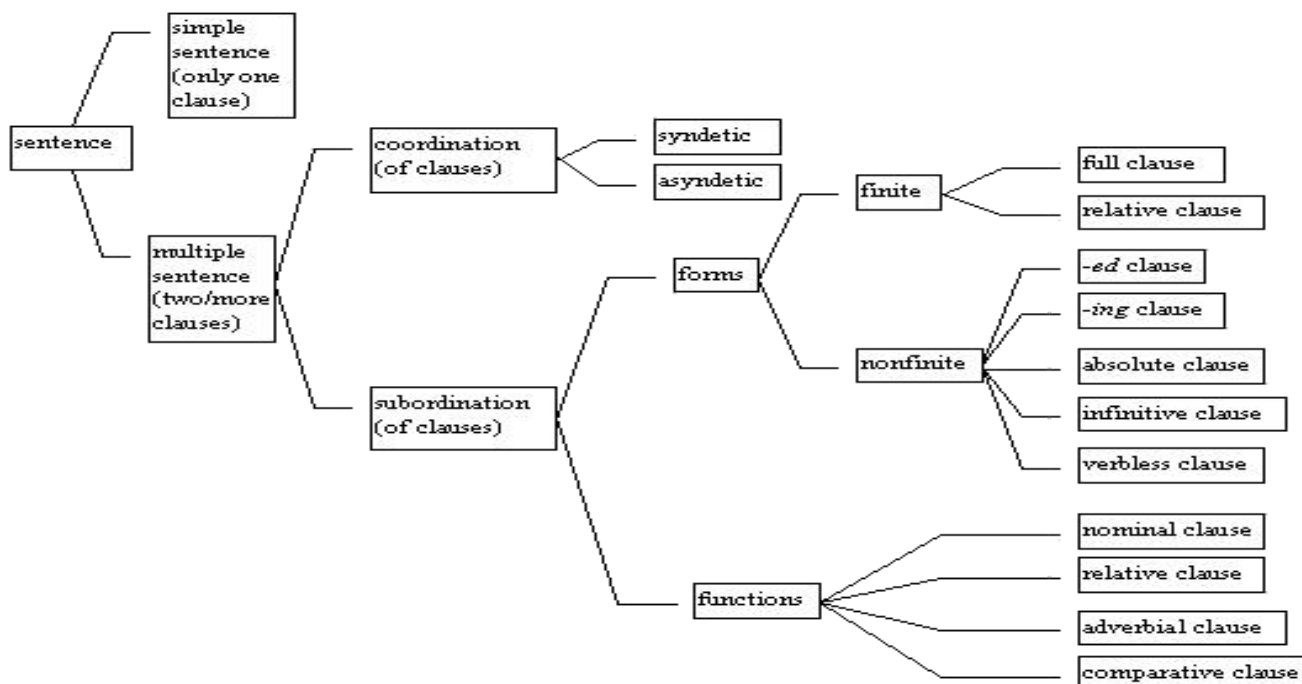
2- Definition of a Sentence

Most people recognize a sentence as a unit which begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (period), a question mark, or an exclamation mark. Of course, this applies only to written sentences. Sentences have also been defined notionally as units which express a "complete thought", though it is not at all clear what a "complete thought" is. It is more useful to define a sentence syntactically, as a unit which consists of one or more clauses. A sentence is not

just a long series of speech sounds; it is composed of words and phrases, which must be arranged in a certain way in order to achieve the speaker's goals. Similarly, words (in many languages) may be composed of smaller units, each of which has its own meaning, and which must be arranged in a particular way. In order to analyze the structure of sentence, we need to identify the smaller parts from which it is formed and the patterns that determine how these parts should be arranged. Thus students should have the knowledge of the basic elements of a sentence such as the subject, the verb, the complements, and the other grammatical categories. In addition to that, they should distinguish between words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, etc.), phrases and clauses in order to write a meaningful grammatical sentence.

There are four main types of sentences: simple, compound, complex and compound complex. Each has a different structural pattern, but all include at least one independent clause. Experienced writers use a variety of sentences to make their writing interesting and lively. Too many simple sentences, for example, will sound choppy and immature while too many long sentences will be difficult to read and hard to understand (Quirk et al, 1985:38- 49).

Sentences are subcategorized by the number and type of clause relationships they exhibit. The simple sentence has but one clause; the multiple sentence has more than one clause. Since the distinction between the simple and the multiple sentence (compound, complex and compound-complex) is easier to be recognized by our students, the researchers will focus their attention to studying the problems faced by the learners in producing and recognizing the multiple sentence. Such a distinction of the sentence can be illustrated as follows:



3-Compound Sentences

3-1 Definition of Compound Sentence

The term "composite structures" refers to the syntactic units larger than the simple sentence. Being combinations of at least two initially simple sentences, such structures will exhibit different syntactic, semantic, and even phonological properties when compared to simple sentences.

A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinate, main clauses. Compound sentences are used to express related thoughts which are more or less equal and carry approximately the same weight; that is, when both clauses of the sentence are offered as new information; they are usually equal both syntactically and semantically. In other words, it is a paratactic relationship that holds between the clauses (Quirk et al., 1985: 918). Each clause contains a subject and a predicate of its own. Each part is; therefore, a sentence which is part of a larger sentence. Each clause makes good sense by itself, and neither of them is inferior, to, or dependent on, the other (Razzaq & al-Hassan, 2000: 8).

The compound sentence contains more than one ideas. In this type, all the ideas expressed have an equal value, as in the following example (Alexander, 1965: 1) :

1- *The man knocked at the door and waited for an answer.*

3-2 Structural Types of Compound Sentences

Compound sentence is made up of two or more main, independent clauses joined together by coordinating conjunction and sometimes includes one or more clauses. Here, the term of compound sentence may be interrelated with the term of complex sentence to form what is called compound –complex sentence . According to the structural point of view, compound sentence may be found in different forms and structures. Such forms can be listed as follow:

1-A sentence has two main clauses.

(2)- *The horse reared and the rider was thrown.*

2-A sentence has three main clauses.

(3) -*They were fond of music, played on various kinds of instruments and indulged in much singing.*

3-A sentence has two main clauses and one subordinate clause.

(4)- *They asked him, how he received the wound, but he refused to answer.*

4-A sentence has two main clauses and two subordinate clauses.

(5)- *He says what he means, and he means what he says.*

These sentences indicate what a compound sentence is (Close, 1993: 78).

3-3 The linguistic Relations of Compound Sentence

The inferential load of any text is crucially involved in the way they relate to each other in connected discourse. Discourse consists of chains of inferential steps in which some of them are syntactic or semantic ones. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) "A text is REALIZED by, or encoded in, sentences". The sentences of the text should always be linked in order to constitute the property of a text. One way of linking sentences is by the use of conjunctions. These conjunctives have the function of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other structural means. The focus here is on syntactic relations, meaning relations, semantic relations, between sentences, and between clauses (or simple sentences) within sentences.

3-3-1 Syntactic & Semantic Relations

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 238) and Close(1993: 79) distinguish four similar types of conjunctive or syntactic relations: **additive (copulative)**, **adversative (contrast)** , **alternative (disjunctive)**, and **attentive (logical**

consequence). These four types can be studied syntactically and semantically since they are used to form a text and a sentence at the same time. Each type is described in the following subsections.

a-Additive (copulative)

This type expresses the parallelism, similarity of conjoined sentences, which are in the same way relevant to the discourse (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 234).

(6)- *she likes poetry and she is interested in music.*

Additive relations can be expressed through the following elements: *and, or, furthermore, in addition, by the way, ...etc.* They can be used to express a positive addition as in the example above. On the other hand, negative addition can be expressed by the use of *nor* (Halliday, 1985: 304). For example:

(7)- *Many of the settlers had never farmed before, nor were they ready for the brutal Saskatchewan winters.* (Berube et al, 1996:21)

b- Adversative (contrast)

It is a relation of contrast and/or of opposition. Such relations can only be binary. Adversative relations can be expressed via a number of devices such as: *but, however, on the other hand, instead...etc* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 250).

(8)- *Mike worked hard, but Peter did not work at all. (It implies the reverse, too).*

c- Alternative (Disjunctive)

Expressing a choice out of two or more states of affairs, only one is considered to be valid. In this way, the two main clauses are disjoined in meaning and a choice between them is offered for acceptance.

(9)- *she must weep, or, she will die.*

d- Attentive (logical consequence)

In this type, the second clause gets reference from the first clause.

(10) *He is unwell, so he can not attend his office.* (Close, 1993: 79)

3-4 Ways of Linking Compound Sentence

As mentioned above that compound sentence is made up of two or more independent clauses joined together by coordinating conjunction. Two types of coordinators are used to join compound sentences. These connectors are divided into two types: Simple coordinators such as (and , for, but, etc.) and Complex

coordinators which are correlative such as (both and, either..... or, not only.... but also, etc.) (Winter, 1998: 96).

In addition to the use of such conjunctions, Marks of punctuation such as commas and semicolons are now used to clarify the grammatical structure of a sentence. These marks of punctuation are not used to indicate when and for how long a person uttering the sentence should pause. At the present time, the position of these marks in a well-constructed sentence is equivalent to the position of parentheses and brackets in a properly punctuated mathematical formula. Thus, Compound sentences can be formed in four ways:

- 1-Using [coordinating conjunctions](#) (FANBOYS) plus a **comma**.
- 2- Using the [semicolon](#) with [conjunctive adverbs](#).
- 3- Using the [semicolon](#) without [conjunctive adverbs](#).
- 4- Using the [colon](#) alone.

1-Compounding with conjunctive coordinators plus a comma

Conjunctions include the set of words commonly known as "FANBOYS". This word is composed from the initial letters of the following conjunctions.

F: For

(11)- *I drink some water, for I was thirsty.*

A: and

(12)- *He was tired, and he had a headache.*

N: nor

(13)- *I can't whistle, nor can I sing.*

B: but

(14)-*Tom studied a lot, but he didn't pass the test.*

O: or

(15)- *He can buy the book, or he can borrow it from the library.*

Y: yet

(16)- *Tom studied a lot, yet he didn't pass the test.*

S: so

(16) *It was cold outside, so she put on a sweater. (Close, 1993: 79)*

2- Compounding with the semicolon

A semicolon alone can join two independent clauses when the relationship between them is obvious as in the following sentence:

(17)- *I will raise my kids to be critical thinkers; it won't be easy.* (Rozakis, 2003: 167)

3- Compounding with conjunctive Adverbs plus a semicolon.

A conjunctive adverb, sometimes called a sentence adverb, is a word or phrase that shows a relation between the clauses it joins, as a conjunction does. But a conjunctive adverb is usually weighted and more emphatic than a conjunction. Conjunctive adverbs indicate the following relations between one clause and another (ibid: 168).

a- Addition (besides, furthermore, moreover, in addition).

(18)- *Some economists oppose legislation restricting foreign trade; in addition, they attack proposals to increase corporate taxes.*

b- Likeness (likewise, similarly, in the same way).

19-Many young Englishmen condemned the English war against France in the 1790; likewise, many young Americans condemned the American war against North Vietnam.

c- Contrast (however, nevertheless, still, nonetheless, conversely, otherwise, instead, in contrast, on the other hand)

(20)-*Einstein's theory of relativity was largely the product of speculation, experiments made within the past fifty years, however, have confirmed many of its basic points.*

d-Cause and effect (accordingly, consequently, hence, therefore, as a result, for this reason)

(21)-*Chamberlain made an ill – considered peace treaty with Hitler after the German invasion of Czechoslovakia; as a result, England was unprepared for the German invasion of Poland.*

e-A means – and- end relation (thus, thereby, by the means, in this manner).

(22)-*Florence Nightingale organized a unit of thirty – eight nurses for the Crimean War in the 1850, thus she became a legend.*

f- Reinforcement (for example, for instance, in fact, in part Indeed).

(23)-Public transportation will also be vastly improved; a high – speed train, for instance, will take passengers from Montreal to Toronto in less than two hours.

g- Time (mean while, then, subsequently, afterward, earlier, later)

(24)-*At first, members of the audience were overtly hostile to the speaker, later, they cheered her as one of their own. (ibid: 169)*

4-A colon with coordinated clauses

A colon alone can occasionally be used to join two independent clauses when someone wants to explain, exemplify, or expand on the first independent clause as in the following sentence:.

the relationship between them is obvious

(25)-*I've just had some good news: I've been offered a job in a law. (Quirk etal, 1985:1615)*

3-5 The Uses of Compounds Sentence

Some grammarians have classified the uses of compound sentence into two main types. These uses are of either general or literary as follows:

3-5-1 General Uses of Compounds Sentence

Compound sentences can have any length, although the more clauses it contains, the more difficult it is to understand. Generally, we join the sentences to form compound sentence for the following uses:

*Compound sentences can be used to create complex communications, adding detail and richness to what otherwise would be a less informative simple sentence.

* Compound sentences can be used to add rationale, to make more persuasive sentence.

* Compound sentences can also be deliberately used to confuse by adding so much details that the listener is unable to process it all. (Winter, 1998: 60)

3-5-2 The Literary Uses of Compound Sentence

Sentences have to be combined to avoid the monotony that would surely result if all sentences were brief and of equal length. Part of the writer's task is to employ whatever music is available to him or her in language, and part of language's music lies within the rhythms of varied sentence length and structure. Even poets who write within the formal limits and sameness of an iambic

pentameter beat will sometimes strike a chord against the beat and vary the structure of their clauses and sentence length, thus feeling the text alive and the reader awake (ibid).

3-5 Functions of Coordinator

The functions of coordinators are divided into two types which are primary functions and secondary functions.

a- Primary Functions

The primary function of coordinators is to join main clauses of equal weight and value. The coordinator is also used to prevent run – on sentences.

b- Secondary Function

Coordinators are also used to join items in a series. They may also be used to begin a sentence.

3-6 Meanings of Coordinators

As presented before, the first letter of each coordinate relater spells out the word – fan boys.

- a- For is used to indicate a reason for doing something.
- b- And is used to indicate a continuation of thought.
- c- Nor is used to indicate a double negative.
- d- But is used to indicate a contrast.
- e- Or is used to indicate an alternative.
- f- Yet is used to indicate a contrast.
- g- So is used to indicate a result. (Winter, 1998: 79)

4- Complex sentences

A complex sentence is like a simple sentence in that it consists of only one main clause, but unlike a simple sentence it has one or more subordinate clauses functioning as an element of the sentence. Subordination is an asymmetrical relation which means the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship, that they form a hierarchy in which the subordinate clause is a constituent of the sentence as a whole(Quirk etal, 1985: 987).

4-1 Elements of Complex Sentences

The elements of a complex sentence are the same as those of the simple sentence; that is, each clause has its subject, predicate, object, complements, modifiers,etc. But there is a difference; whereas simple sentence always has a word or a phrase for subject, object, complement, and modifier, the complex sentence has statements or clauses for these places (Chalker, 1984: 239).

A- Clause

A clause is a division of a sentence, containing a verb with its subject. Jespersen (1933:342) defines it as a linguistic expression which has a finite verb and a subject in it. Zandvoort(1975:211) as cited in Thakur(1998: 85) defines it as a construction having "the form of a two nucleus group with a subject and a finite verb in it ". Strumpf & Douglas(1999:334-335) state that a clause is a group of words that contains both a subject and a predicate.

Clauses come in two parts: main clause and subordinate clause. A main clause can stand alone and make sense. A subordinate clause relies on the presence of the main clause to complete its meaning .It cannot stand alone as a grammatically complete thought (Andrews, 2006:39). These two parts can be clarified by the following example:

26- I lent him the money because he needed it .

This sentence contains both a main clause and a subordinate clause. The main clause is *I lent him the money* which has the subject(***I***) and the predicate (*lent him the money*). It is a complete grammatical thought. When the main clauses stand alone ,we call them simple sentences.

The subordinate clause in this sentence is ***because he needed it*** which has the subject (***he***) and the predicate (*needed it*). But this clause cannot stand alone and make a sense. It relies on the presence of the main clause for a complete meaning.

4-1 Types of Complex Sentences

There are two types of complex sentences which are subdivided into Relative clauses and complement clauses.

(a) Relative clauses

The general classification of Relative clauses takes into account semantic criterion which subdivided into:

1-Restrictive Relative Clauses (RRCs).

2-Non – Restrictive clauses.

1-Restrictive Relative Clauses

Semantically, they express compound properties, and thus they represent a way of referring to a set of objects by firstly choosing a larger set (the do main), and then restricting it to those members that have a second property, expressed by the restricting clause. Thus means that RRCs bring a property that restricts the set to which it applies. RRCs are an important device of naming things, which have otherwise no lexematic correspondent in the language. The RRC is even obligatory for the string to be meaningful and commonsensical within the communicative context in question. The omission of the RRC results in lack of clarity, and even in absurd messages, because of the pragmatically inadequate in appliance of the unmodified nominal. Structurally, RRCs are part of complex NPs, the constituents of which are ahead noun and a relative clause. Consequently, RRCs, modifying only the head of the antecedent, function as nominal modifiers. In RRCs the deletion. In RRCs the deletion of the identical nominal in the embedded clause is obligatory. RRCs are usually pronounced within a continuous intonational contour (i.e. without pauses), and they are not graphically separated by commas. This sentence indicates that.

*(27) Men [who drink too much] are not good husbands and fathers.
(Cornilescu, 1996: 76)*

2-Non- Restrictive Relative Clauses

Semantically, they differ from RRCs in that they do not limit the domain of the antecedent, but only add supplementary information about an already defined antecedent. NRRCs can be omitted without affecting the intelligibility and appropriateness of the message. While RRCs modify only the head, NRRCs, being appositive, modify the whole antecedent. NRRCs are usually pronounced in a separate intonational contour, and they are graphically separated by commas.

*(28) My uncle, [who drink too much], is not a good husband and father.
(ibid:78)*

(b)-Complement Clauses

In order to identify the types of complement clauses, an important phenomenon has to be brought into relief, namely the fact that the embedded by complementation clause may become more and more nouny, and less sentiency. Clausal complements are subdivided into the following types:

1-That Clauses

They are the most sentiency, preserving most features of the independent sentence. Sentence hood of that clauses is supported by the fact that they can have the same distribution as non-phrases NPs. This actually demonstrates that they are non-phrases (in other words, THAT Clauses and NPs are mutually exclusive).

(29)- [That Helen was nervous] was obvious.

(30)- It was obvious [that Helen was nervous].

2-Infinitive Clauses

Some NP positions within Complex Sentences can be filled by sentential entities, and the latter may change into an infinitive clause. Infinitive clauses are less sentiency and more nouny than THAT clauses, and this is mainly due to the loss of tense distinctions.

(31) He is pleased [to be making progresses]. (Graver, 1986: 116)

3-Gerundial Clauses

Gerunds are the most nouny complement clauses, as they evince more nominal features than THAT Clauses and Infinitive Clauses.

(32) [His letting the car kill him] was obvious. (ibid: 116)

The Test-5

5-1 Procedures of the Study

In order to fulfill the aims of the present study, a test has been designed. Throughout this chapter, a description of this test is presented including its objectives, design, material selection, and the subjects to whom the test has been applied. Validity and reliability of the test are defined as well. Moreover, the present chapter describes the pilot and the main administration of the test along with the scoring scheme adopted .

5-2 Objectives of the Test

Since a language test is regarded as a means of assessing the student's performance through the elicitation of “ certain behaviour from which one can make inferences about certain characteristics of an individual ” (Bachman, 1990:20). The present test has been constructed primarily to investigate the extent to which college students master **compound and complex sentences** . It is a diagnostic test aiming at measuring the areas of difficulty encountered by Iraqi EFL college students in recognizing and producing those clauses as well as trying to identify the causes of their errors so that the appropriate remedial recommendations can be suggested on the basis of the test results .

The test is designed to measure the recognition and the production levels. The first question measure the subjects' responses on the recognition level, whereas the second question measure their responses on the production level. Accordingly, the hypotheses proposed before will be either verified or refuted.

5-3 Selection of Material

Most of the items of the test have been selected from the grammar and composition books mentioned in section(2&3). The items cover as far as possible the forms. Furthermore, the selection of the test items has been approved by a jury committee of ten experienced university lecturers. It includes :

5-4 Test Design

The test consists of two questions. The first one is designed to measure the subjects' responses on the recognition level. The first question includes ten items intended to measure the subjects' ability to distinguish compound and complex sentences.

In the second question, the subjects are supplied with ten items and asked to write a complex and compound sentences. Conjunctions are given in order to facilitate the subjects' task .

A good test, however, must have the features of validity, reliability, economy, scorability , and administrability. These are going to be discussed in some detail in the following sections .

5-5 Validity and Reliability

According to Alderson et al.(1995:170), validity is “ the appropriateness of a given test or any of its component parts as a measure of what it is supposed to measure ”. To achieve the validity of the test, it must meet two criteria : face validity and content validity.

In order to achieve the test surface credibility or public acceptability, the present test has been exposed to some administrators and non-expert users who have shown their approval of the test as a whole.

Content validation depends on the analysis of the language being tested and the objectives of a particular course (Heaton, 1988:160). Thus, the items of the present test are assumed to be valid as they are constructed to satisfy the aims of the test.

In addition, the test has been submitted to a jury of experts in order to assess its face and content validity. The jury has judged the test as being valid to measure the purposes for which it is designed. The jury offered some suggestions which have been taken into consideration; accordingly certain instructions have been modified whereas some sentences have been replaced by others .

On the other hand, a test is reliable if “ its scores remain relatively stable from one administration to another ” (Harris, 1969:144). To ensure that, a definite scoring scheme has been used (**see section below**). Furthermore, the instructions of the test were clearly explained and the subjects were encouraged to answer the test .

Heaton (1988:163-4) mentions that there are different methods for estimating the reliability of a test such as : **test–retest, two equivalent forms, split–half, and Kurder–Richardson Method.**

The method adopted to estimate the reliability of the present test is Kurder–Richardson of which the following formula can be considered :

$$r = \frac{N}{N-1} \left(1 - \frac{m(N-m)}{NX^2} \right)$$

Where

r = reliability .

N = the number of items in the test .

m = the mean of the test scores .

x = the standard deviation of the test scores .

The computation of this formula has yielded that the reliability coefficient of the present test is(**0.94**) which is a highly positive correlation .

5-6 Subjects

The sample of the study consists of 80 subjects of the third level during the academic year (2011–2012) of the Department of English at the College of Education, University of Wasit .

The sample represents about 80% of the total student population. They are native speakers of Iraqi Arabic who have similar EFL background and their average age is twenty–one years old .

The third year students are preferred to apply the test because the topic under investigation has been taught in their third year of study at the university. The textbook adopted is *A University Grammar of English* by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) as well as in writing composition in the second stage. Moreover, they are the most advanced learners of English on the university level before graduation .

5-7 Pilot Administration

Before conducting the actual administration of the main test, a pilot test has been applied on the 15th of January, 2011. This try out has been administrated to twenty subjects selected randomly from the third year students who are excluded from the main test. The aims of the pilot test are to specify the time required for answering the test, to see whether the directions and the items of the test are clear to the subjects, to check which of them needs modifications, and to analyze the items to determine their effectiveness in term of item difficulty and item discrimination power.

The results of the pilot test have indicated that the time required to answer the whole items of the test is about one hour, and that some instructions need modification. All the results obtained from the pilot administration of this test have been incorporated into the final version of the test .

5-8 Item Analysis

Item analysis is “ a means of estimating how much information each single item in a test contributes to the information provided by the test as a whole ” (Davies, 1968:192). The aim of such analysis is to examine the test items in term of two criteria: (i) whether they are of suitable level of difficulty, and (ii) whether they discriminate between good and weak students.

The index of difficulty (or facility value) of an item means “ how easy or difficult the particular item proved in the test ”(Heaton, 1988:178). It is calculated by using the formula :

$$FV = \frac{R}{N}$$

Where

FV = facility value .

R = the number of correct answer .

N = the number of the students taking the test .

The application of this formula has yielded that the item difficulty ranges between **0.10– 0.80** (see **Table 1**). In this respect, Bloom et al.(1981:95) point out that a good spread of results can be obtained if the items vary in difficulty from 0.20 to 0.80. Therefore, the item difficulty of the present test is satisfactory except for items (6 and 10) in question (**1**) and item (1) in question (**3.A**) which have been replaced by others .

The following formula, on the other hand, has been used to find out the item discrimination power:

$$D = \frac{\text{CorrectU} - \text{CorrectL}}{n} \quad (\text{Heaton, 1988:180})$$

Where

D = discrimination index .

U = upper half .

L = lower half .

n = the number of the students taking the test in one group .

After the computation of this formula, it has been found that the discrimination power ranges between **0.20–0.80** (see **Table 1**). According to Ebel

(1972:399), “ Good classroom test items have indices of discrimination of (0.30) or more .Some of the items which show low indices of discrimination ,however, have been included in the final version of the test because they are necessary to measure certain aspects of the students' performance.

The following table shows the facility value and the discrimination index of each item of the test:

**Table (1)
The Facility Value and the Discrimination Index of the Test Items**

No.of Question	No.of Item	FV.	DP.	No.of Question	No.of Item	FV	DP.
	1	0.33	0.23	Q(2)	1	0.45	0.66
Q(1)	2	0.56	0.42		2	0.63	0.64
	3	0.34	0.55		3	0.53	0.48
	4	0.37	0.65		4	0.73	0.82
	5	0.34	0.53		5	0.64	0.85
	6	0.34	0.70		6	0.66	0.73
	7	0.54	0.65		7	0.50	0.86
	8	0.43	0.35		8	0.78	0.53
	9	0.40	0.61		9	0.56	0.43
	10	0.43	0.86		10	0.34	0.65

Table (1)
The Facility Value and the Discrimination Power of the Test

5-9 Final Administration

The main test was carried out on the 2nd of February during the academic year 2011–2012. The time allocated for the test was one hour. The subjects were assured that the test was purely for research purposes and had no bearing on their marks .

After distributing the test papers, the instructions were clearly explained and illustrative examples for each question were given to the subjects. The subjects were instructed to answer on the same test sheet to save time and effort .

The subjects, then, were encouraged to respond to the test and ask any questions. They were asked not to write their names on the test sheets so as to avoid embarrassment .

The process of marking the test has been done by the researcher using the scoring scheme presented in the following section .

5-10 Scoring Scheme

A definite scoring scheme has been adopted so as to obtain objectivity and reliability . The entire test has been scored out of **(20)**. The scores have been distributed in such a way as to give (1) score for each correct answer and zero score for the incorrect one. The items that are left by the subjects with no answer have also been given a zero score since they predicate that the subjects have failed to give any answer .

6- Concluding Remarks

6-1 Introductory Note

This section attempts to describe the set of the procedures followed in analyzing and discussing the data in the present study to arrive at conclusions . thus ,it starts with the analysis of the selected data to find out the areas in which Iraqi EFL university learners are unaware of compound and complex sentences .

Finally, this section attempts to provide a presentation and discussion of the results with reference to the aims and hypothesis of the study.

6-2 Data Analysis

This section presents the general results of the main test with the tables and statistical means .It also analyzes the performance of the subjects at the recognition and the production levels .The analysis of data is of great importance since it will be the basis upon which the researcher's hypothesis mentioned before will either be verified or refuted.

6-2-1 Frequency and percentage of the subjects' performance in recognizing compound and complex sentences in the first question.

The first question is used to measure the subjects' performance at the recognition level . The following table shows the frequency and the percentage of the subjects' performance on each item in this question:

Table(2)

Frequency and Percentage of the Subjects' Performance

At the recognition Level in Question (1)

No. of item	No of CRs.	%	No. of IRs.	%
1-	31	38	49	61
2-	28	35	52	65
3-	33	41	47	71
4-	40	50	40	50
5-	25	31	55	68
6-	36	45	44	57
7-	21	26	59	73
8-	39	48	41	51
9-	25	31	55	68
10-	42	52	38	47
total	320	0.4	480	0.6

It is concluded from the Table(2) the following:

1-The total number and the percentage of the correct responses are (480, 0.6), respectively .

2- The total number and the incorrect responses (including avoided items) are (320, 0.4),respectively .

It can be concluded from the results presented in the table above that most of the subjects are incompetent in recognizing compound and complex sentences since the total number of their incorrect responses outweigh that of their correct ones .

*** Frequency and Percentage of the Subjects' Performance in producing compound and complex sentences in the second question.**

The question is designed to measure the subjects' ability to produce complex and compound sentences and it also tests the subjects at the production level (see Table (3)).

Table(3)

Frequency and percentage of the subject 's performance at the production

Level in question (2)

No. of item	No of CRs.	%	No. of IRs.	%
1-	23	28	57	71
2-	37	46	43	53
3-	33	41	47	58
4-	40	50	40	50
5-	33	41	47	58
6-	27	33	53	66
7-	38	47	42	52
8-	39	48	41	51
9-	24	30	56	70
10-	29	36	51	63
Total	323	4.375	477	6.625

Table (3) sums up the results as follows :

- 1- The total number and the percentage of correct responses are (323, 4.375), respectively (See appendix 2)
- 2-The total number and the percentage of incorrect responses(including avoided items) are (477, 6.625) , respectively.

6-3 Conclusions

6-3-1 Introductory Note

This section summarizes a number of conclusions based on the general findings of the present study. This section also ends with a set of pedagogical recommendations and some suggestions for future studies related to the subject under discussion.

6-3-2 Practical Conclusions

In the light the preceding survey and discussion related to the findings, aims, and hypothesis of this study ,the following conclusions have been drawn :

- 1-Iraqi EFL university learners at third stage are unable in recognizing and producing (pronouncing) compound and complex sentences . This is indicated by their low performance in the main test as the rate of their correct responses (

320,323) which is lower significantly than that of their incorrect ones (480 ,477).This validates the hypothesis of the study which states that Iraqi EFL university learners are still unaware of compound and complex sentences.

2-At the production level ,the findings of data analysis for question one show the subjects' incompetence to make compound and complex sentences in the question one .The rate of their incorrect (concerning question 1)is (477, 6.625),whereas that of their correct ones is (323, 4.375).This in turn verifies the hypothesis of the present study which posed in our hypothesis.

3-The subjects' performance in the whole test has also revealed that EFL university learners encounter the same unawareness at the production level than the recognition one. The subjects' performance at the production level has obtained a mean of (0.622)against a mean of (0.621)at the recognition level .This also validates the hypothesis of the study.

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Appendix 1

Q1 /Complete the sentences with a suitable relative pronoun or adverb. Use (*who , whom, whose, where ,when , why, or which*).

- 1- This is the man () we met at the station.
- 2- The tree () grow in the garden is an apple tree.
- 3- The man () go jogging every Friday is my neighbor.
- 4- The elephants () live in Africa have big ears.
- 5- Turn left at the yellow house () be opposite the petrol station.
- 6-The teacher () has this group is away today.
- 7- This is the girl () mother is from Canada.
- 8- The cowboy () is wearing the red shirt is very funny.
- 9- A castle is a place () a king or queen lives.
- 10- This is the time of the year ()many people suffer from hayfever.

Q2/ Combine the following simple sentences to create a compound or complex sentence.

- 1-John decided to stay up late. He had a lot of homework to do.

2-You should hurry. We might get to school late.

3-My sister had a cold. She went to school. She had a test.

4-Tom was washing his carpet. He slipped on the soap. He fell down.

5-My father takes the train to work .He has a new car.

6-Frank had a good sense of humor. He laughed a lot .

7-I stayed up late last night. I am tired today.

8-Miriam baked brownies . She had nothing else to do.

9-The envious women were standing in the corner. They watched people closely.

10- He was tired from the trip. He went to bed right after dinner

Appendix 2

Q1/ Identify the kind of the following sentences whether are compound or complex:-

1. If you hurry, we might get to school on time.

2. Frank had a good sense of humor, so he laughed a lot.

3. A castle is a place where a king or queen lives.

4. This must be distinctly understood, or nothing wonderful can come of the story.

5. A man cannot speak but he judges himself.

6. Stand aside; give those merits room; let them mount and expand.

7. Dad takes the train to work even though he has a car.

8. Love, and you shall be loved.

9. He teaches who gives, and he learns who receives.

10. While washing the car, The old man slipped on the soap and fell down.

Q2/ Combine the following simple sentences to create a compound or complex sentence.

1-It rained for three days. The streets in my neighborhood flooded.

2-I got to ball practice late. I forgot to set my alarm.

3-Tom completed his homework. He put it in his binder.

4-Luke mowed the lawn. He earned ten dollars.

5-I stayed up late last night. I am tired today.

6-Neil doesn't like seafood. He doesn't like cabbage.

7- My pencil was broken. I borrowed one from Jake.

8- I like apples. I like pears more.

9- Eight people got into the elevator. It was crowded. Three people got off.

10-Mary gathered the pictures. She could arrange them in a special album for her family.