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An-Najah National University

Faculty of Graduate Studies

Dept. of Teaching Methods

*Some Syntactic Features Typical of Spoken English in the
Senior English Majors' Writing at An-Najah National
University.*

By

Malek Rasheed Saleh Nassrallah

Supervisors :

Dr. Fawas Aqel

Dr. Hanna Tushyeh

*Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the
degree of Master in Education.*

Palestine - Nablus

May, 2001

An-Najah National University

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Dedication

To my parents,

To my brothers , and sisters,

To my wife , and beloved daughters : Minna and Aminna

*To all those who introduced me to spoken and written
language respectively.*

Acknowledgement

In the preparation of the present study I had more help than a brief acknowledgement can describe, and there are more people to thank than I can name.

To God, Almighty Allah, my thanks are due to His blessings without which this dream would never have become a reality.

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Abstract

Some Syntactic Features Typical of Spoken English in the Senior English Majors' Writing at An-Najah National University

By

Malek Rasheed Saleh Nassrallah

Supervisor:

Dr. Fawaz Agel

Dr. Hanna Tushyeh

The present study attempted to identify some syntactic features of spoken English in the senior English majors' writing at An-Najah National University. Specifically, it aimed at answering the following questions :

- 1. Do English seniors apply syntactic features typical of spoken English in their writing?*
- 2. What are the most syntactic features of the spoken phase of English in their writing?*
- 3. What are the major sources of English spoken features in the senior English majors' writing?*

The population of the study (n=51) consisted of all English seniors at An-Najah National University in the academic year 1999/2000. The sample of the study consisted of forty-five students who were attending an advanced English course, Research Methodology.

Guided by the survey of previous research , criteria consisting of 18 items divided into three domains were developed by the researcher by which English seniors' essays, based on Hughes's " As I grew older", were syntactically analyzed, using means and percentages.

The findings of the study were as follows :

- 1. Great occurrences of coordinated constructions, simple sentences, active voice constructions, simple present tense, parallel constructions, sentence fragments, self-references, and demonstrative modifiers.*
- 2. Few occurrences of wh-interrogatives, reduced participles, nominalizations, passive voice constructions, subordinated constructions, complex sentences, and compound complex sentences.*

On the basis of the results, the researcher recommended that further research on other different syntactic and lexical features of spoken English would reveal more about the language used by English majors. Also, the researcher recommended that further courses in writing and ,in particular, in spoken and written English would improve the writing skill of English majors as a process including pre-writing, writing, and revision.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND

Like any other phenomena in society, language has been carefully investigated from several and different points of view. In their incalculable efforts, many scholars have been convincingly demonstrating that language performs multiple functions in any society. Besides communicating information, language serves in establishing social relationships among its speakers and learners as well as reflecting their experience of culture around them. Wardhaugh (1986), at this point, maintained that :

Language provides a screen or a filter to reality; it determines how speakers perceive and organize the world around them, both the natural world and the social world. Consequently, the language you speak helps to form your world-views.(p. 125)

On the matter of communication , language, as a system of communication, is stored somewhere in our brains; and whenever we need to talk or write, we recall this system and make wise choices of various vocabulary in order to be arranged in variant patterns so that speakers or writers can form units of meaning to be used in different contexts. In this connection, O'grady and Dobrovolsky (1988) viewed language as :

A system of communication, a medium of thought, a vehicle for literacy expressions, a social institution, a matter for political controversy, a factor in nation building (p. 1).

Besides, in relation to language as a system of communication, speech and writing are recognized as two main modes of communication. Writing is a complicated process including overlapping and interacting subprocesses through which the writer uses his mind, knowledge, and experience to express thoughts. Thus viewed, writing should be organized and gradually developed in such a manner that enables the reader to conspicuously understand the included message. Otherwise, the reader will evidently lose the thread of meaning.

On the other hand, armed with paralinguistic cues such as tone of the voice, intonation, facial expressions, and gestures, the speaker has the advantage of being able to monitor his listeners' minute by minute reactions to what he says. Face to face interaction between the speaker and listener, furthermore, enables the listener to signal understanding or to ask for clarification. Nevertheless, the writer, who most frequently has no access to immediate feedback, has enough time to felicitously mold a succession of ideas into a more complex, coherent, and integrated language, making use of devices seldom used in speech. Hence, from what has been proposed, what is questionable in this respect is : Does what work orally, works in print and vice versa?

In general, it is argued that spoken and written language are syntactically and lexically different because they differ in the methods of their acquisition and in the methods of their production. On the matter of acquisition, Akinnaso (1982) contended that speech is normally acquired naturally without formal instruction (in family setting, or playground, on the street, etc.), whereas writing has to be consciously learned, usually in the formal setting of the school. "Such a setting", Akinnaso added, "is often more authoritarian and heavily reliant on standardized learning activities and systematized procedures" (p. 105).

A second notable difference between spoken and written English is due to the manner of production. Chafe (1982) argued that the writer may look over what he has already written, pause between each word with no fear of his interlocutor interrupting him, take his time in choosing a particular word, even looking it up in the dictionary if necessary, and reordering what has been written. The speaker, in contrast, has available to him full range voice of quality effects and all non-verbal channels. Armed with these, Chafe added that the speaker can always override the effect of words he speaks.

Equally, many scholars argued that speech and writing should be treated as two independent systems of communication. Referring to informal spoken and formal written as two independent varieties, Crystal and Davy (1969) stressed the idea that spoken and written English are different autonomous systems. Having examined this issue, Stubbs (1980) came to the conclusion that:

It is evident from several facts that the two systems (spoken and written English) are at least partly autonomous. There are distinctions maintained in one, but not in the other; they typically change over time at different rates (p. 41).

On further observation, Atari (1984) maintained that the two modes of language, speaking and writing, exhibit distinctive features of two strategies of communication. Speaking, according to Atari, exhibits features of oral style strategies which involve face-to-face interaction between the speaker and the audience. Writing, on the other hand, demonstrates literate strategies which involve decontextualization due to the separation in time and place between the writer and the reader. Similarly, Tannen (1982) correctly remarked that the spoken phase would be highly context-dependent and the written text detached from its immediate context in time and space.

In terms of permanence, writing is more advantageous than spoken language, the former being permanent and the latter transient. Therefore, writing frees us from the limitations of time and geography (Fromkin and Rodman : 1988).

Since the turn of century, the relationship between spoken and written language has been a subject of considerable interest in linguistics, anthropology, and education. Building on previous research, Akinaso (1982) pointed out whilst anthropologists are primarily interested in the implications of writing for cultural evaluation and the growth of social systems, linguists are interested in several aspects of the relationship between speech and writing

according to their theoretical perspectives. Akinnaso further added that linguists and language teachers have focused mainly on the lexical and grammatical differences between spoken and written language.

Lexically, early studies, such as those by Devito (1966), Grener et al. (1976) (both cited in Akinnaso, 1982 and Brown and Yule, 1983) focused on lexical differences as primarily distinguishing markers between speech and writing in English. They found out that written texts are shorter, have longer words, have more attributive adjectives, and have more varied vocabulary.

Syntactically, Chafe (1982) found out that formal written language differs from spoken language by having a larger proportion of nominalizations, genitive subjects and objects, participles, attributive adjectives, conjoined phrases, series, sequence of prepositional phrases, complement clauses, and relative clauses which permit the integration of more material into idea units. He also suggested that such integration is fostered by greater amount of time available in writing, and that speakers are less likely to use them due to the faster pace of spoken language.

Statement of the problem

During his experience as an English major at An-Najah National University, the researcher noticed that English language instructors, particularly in courses of writing and literature, constantly complain that English majors are incapable of producing good communicative and satisfactory writings even though they

know the English grammatical rules and they have a rich output of vocabulary. In addition, being an MA candidate and having a course in Discourse Analysis including spoken and written language, the researcher likewise observed that English majors tend to extensively apply strategies of communication typical of spoken mode of language in their writing. Taking into account this problem, the researcher decided to conduct the present study so that it could hopefully contribute to eliminate the strategies of the spoken phase of English used in the writing of English majors.

Purposes of the study

The purpose of the study is three-fold :

1. to identify the most prominent syntactic differences between spoken and written English language,
2. to mark some syntactic features typical of spoken language in the English seniors' writing, and
3. to classify the most frequent syntactic features typical of spoken language in the English seniors' writing.

Questions of the study

The present study seeks to answer the following three questions :

1. Do English seniors apply syntactic features typical of spoken English in their writing?
2. What are the most frequent syntactic features of the spoken phase of English in the writing of senior English majors?

3. What are the major sources of English spoken features in the senior English majors' writing?

Significance of the study

The present research is expected to have an important theoretical and pedagogical significance. Theoretically, it is foreseen that it would enrich the English majors' knowledge with a practical clear-cut vision of the main differences between spoken and written English, for such an area of research has been given little attention by previous research which traditionally compare and focus on the theoretical similarities and differences between spoken and written English language. Most importantly, the significance of the present research likewise stems, foremost, from its purpose, i.e., identifying and classifying some syntactic features of the English spoken channel in the English seniors' writing. As a corollary, English majors are expected to avert using features typical of spontaneous face-to-face interaction in their writing hoped to satisfy their instructors.

Pedagogically, the findings of the present study are hoped and expected to have some values and assistance to the EFL learners to express their propositions in the writing process efficiently and communicatively by providing them with the effective writings skill techniques and strategies. EFL teachers and instructors, in addition, are expected to enhance their learners' writing process by helping them brainstorm, develop, organize, and evaluate their writing.

Limitations of the study

As the preceding discussion has briefly made clear that typical spoken and written language obviously differ syntactically and lexically, some prominent syntactic features of spoken English have been adopted to be the researcher's limited criteria by which he will investigate forty-five literary essays written, in the second semester of the academic year 1999/2000, by the seniors of the Department of English (College of Arts) at An-Najah National University, Nablus.

Definition of terms

The following terms which will frequently appear in the study are defined as follows :

Complex sentence : It contains two or more clauses at least one of which is subordinate (Huddleston. 1984, p. 378).

Compound complex

sentence : It consists two or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses (Huddleston. 1984, 380)

Compound sentence : It contains two or more main clauses (Huddleston. 1984, p. 378).

Coordination : A process of linking together two or more elements of equivalent status and function.

These elements can be clausal or non-clausal, lexical or non-lexical or phrasal (Quirk, et al. 1972, p. 270).

Decontextualization : It refers to the situation where sentences are separated from their context of use or occurrences and treated as "self-contained and isolated units" (Coulthard 1977, p. 9).

Discourse analysis: It refers to the analysis of linguistic units larger than the sentence such as conversational exchanges and written texts. Discourse analysis is also related to sociolinguistics in that it is concerned with language in use in its social context (Crystal, 1991, and Stubbs, 1983).

Idea unit : It represents a "chunk of information which is viewed by the speaker/writer cohesively as it is given a surface structure" (Kroll. 1977, p. 89).

Simple sentence : It contains only one clause; main clause. (Huddleston. 1984, p,378).

Spoken discourse : It is normally acquired naturally without formal instruction, and usually takes place in face-to-face interaction where speakers and their interlocutors can exchange

immediate feedback, most of which content dependent manifested in paralinguistic cues such as tone of voice, facial expressions, and gestures. Due to the faster pace of spoken language, speakers are less likely to use complicated and embedded structures when uttering their propositions, always containing colloquial expressions, vague elements, general non-specific words and phrases, and fabricated fillers.

Subordination :

A process of linking together multiple clause structures which are syntactically unequal, i.e., each subordinate clause may itself be subordinate (independent) to one or more other clauses, so that a hierarchy of clauses, one within another may be built up, sometimes resulting in sentences of great complexity (Quirk et al. 1972, p. 721).

Syntactic analysis :

It refers to the way by which the syntactic features, typical of both spoken and written English, of the research criteria analyzed. For example, voice is divided into active and passive, conjunctions into coordinations and subordinations,

sentence types into simple, compound, complex, and compound complex, and so.

Syntactic features : They refer to the grammatical components, discussed in the present research, including conjunctions, sentence and tense types, voice, relative clauses, demonstratives, reduced participles, etc.

Written discourse : It has to be consciously learned, usually in the formal setting of the school. It is mostly characterized by detachment from its immediate context due to the separation in time and space between the reader and the writer who most frequently has no access to immediate feedback, but has enough time to edit his or her text before making it available for reading, making use of devices seldom used in speech including nominalization, participles, attributive adjectives, conjoined phrases, series, sequence of prepositional phrases, complement clauses, passive voice, and relative clauses. As a corollary, written text is always coherent, integrated, complex, has a dominant topic or main focus of attention, and carefully organized and formula

Summary

The foregoing analysis attempted to show that typical spoken discourse tends to be unplanned, informal, and directed to a limited number of listeners who are generally known to and interacting with the speaker, often providing immediate verbal and non-verbal feedback. Written texts, on the other hand, said to be well planned, detached, and integrated, are often directed to readers who are generally not present during the time the text is being composed. This chapter, in addition, shed some light on the background of the problem of the study. It also dealt with the purposes, questions, significance, and limitations of the study. Furthermore, it included definition of the terms related to the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the main syntactic and lexical differences between spoken and written English. These differences are divided into five sections.

I Detachment vs. Involvement

Concerning the context, writing is described as being decontextualized. Decontextualization refers to the situation where "sentences are separated from their context of use or occurrence" and treated as "self contained and isolated units" (Coulthard, 1977, p. 9). This is in agreement with Chafe's argument (1982) in which he argues that the writer is detached from his audience in time and place. He further maintains that detachment in written language is established through the use of passive voice and nominalization. The writer's main concern, he argued, is to produce written pieces that are "consistent and defensible" when read (p. 45). A further illustration of detachment was given by Redeker (1984) who demonstrated the features of detachment as follows :

- (i) *passive voice, e.g., is reflected , must be paid,*
- (ii) *past perfect, e.g., I had bought it,*
- (iii) *indirect quotes, e.g. and he said he'd take me home,*
and
- (iv) *literacy expressions, e.g., utterly, to excel, ambience,*
the utmost of, ... (p. 48).

For the moment, it is quite apparent that as the quality of detachment in writing leaves the writer without benefit to moment feedback, he hence makes use of devices seldom used in speech so that he could compensate for the absence of immediate face-to-face feedback. Regarding this issue, Halliday et al (1966) correctly remarked:

Whereas speech takes place against the background of a situation which includes other non-linguistic activities, writing has to compensate for the absence of situation of this kind by supplying equivalent information linguistically (p. 54).

The distinction recognized at this point is that written language fosters the kind of detachment evidenced in the use of passive voice, nominalization, etc. Spoken language, on the other hand, shows a variety of manifestations of involvement which a speaker has with his or her audience. Among these evidences of involvement are references to the speaker, devices for monitoring the flow of information, etc.

Unlike writers and their readers, speakers and their listeners can make use of paralinguistic features and depend on extra-linguistic contexts in their conversation to communicate their propositions to each other. In a sense, the speaker, being armed with paralinguistic cues, has the advantage to keep an eye on his interlocutor's interaction who in turn can gesture realization or ask for further clarifications. To describe the characteristic aspects of written and spoken modes respectively, Chafe (1982), for instance,

used functional categories such as "explicit versus implicit", and "context-free versus context dependent." (pp.37). Likewise, Graddol (1987) went further and claimed :

Written texts traditionally came in limited range of forms and implied both a limited range of linguistic styles and particular relationships with the reader. A reader, for example, was usually remote from the writer and had limited, if any, possibilities for interacting and responding to the writer. Spoken language, on the other hand, usually implied the actual presence of a listener who was able to intervene in the flow of discourse and help determine later utterances (p. 177).

On further observations, Crystal and Davy (1969) and Kay (1977) agreed that participants in a face-to-face contact rely heavily on extra-linguistic context for much of their information due to the knowledge shared, about the topic and environment of the conversation, between the interlocutors. More and more attention has been paid to this area by Chafe (1982) and Redeker (1984). In this respect, Chafe demonstrated that the involvement between the speakers and their audience can be established through six devices:

- (i) *first person references, (I, we),*
- (ii) *speaker's mental processes, (I wish, I felt, I realized),*
- (iii) *monitoring of information flow, (well, so),*
- (iv) *emphatic particles, (just, really),*
- (v) *fuzziness, and*
- (vi) *direct quotes.*

The following are examples of the six devices quoted from Chafe :

- *I have a friend who's... about six feet and blond (i).*
- *But... I can recall ...uh... a big undergraduate class... (ii).*
- *And I thought... am I live ? (ii)*
- *Well I ... took off four weeks (iii).*
- *So we... you know, we have this confrontation (iii).*
- *I just don't understand (iv).*
- *And he got really furious (iv).*
- *Since this banker is something like forty-seven (v).*
- *And he started sort of circling (v).*
- *And uh ... she said, " Sally can't I have one of your papers?" (vi) (p. 46-48).*

On further observations, Redeker added three features defining involvement in addition to those mentioned by Chafe:

- (i) *colloquial expressions, (stuff, I figured a very fun situation,...*
- (ii) *evidentials , (I think , I suppose, I'm not sure,... "indicating source and/or validity of information.", and*
- (iii) *hedges, (sort of , roughly , basically , in a way, ...)*

The overall aim of the present section was to come to much better understanding of exactly how natural spoken and written discourse, as two channels of communication, are characterized by different parameters; writing is said to be detached, and speech is recognized to be involved.

II Integration vs. Fragmentation

A second notable difference between typical written language and typical spoken language, as many linguists believe, is that the former is integrated whereas the latter is fragmented. For example, Ur (1996) pointed out that a written text is usually organized and carefully formulated as its writer has time and opportunity to edit it before making it available for reading. On the contrary, Ur added, a speaker is improvising as he or she speaks. Thus, Ur concluded that a written text conforms more to conventional rules of grammar, and its vocabulary is more precise and formal.

Having investigated spoken and written language, Chafe (1979, 1982) viewed integration as completeness, tightness, and coherence, whereas fragmentation as incompleteness, looseness, and incoherence. This corroborated Akinnaso's (1985) view of integration and involvement, i.e., "high degree of integration of linguistic structures characterizes written language, whereas fragmentation characterizes everyday speech" (p.343).

Initial efforts in this area by Chafe (1982) showed that "integration refers to packing "of" more information into idea unit than the rapid pace of spoken language would normally allow" (p.39). Furthermore, he stated that integrated quality of written language is fostered by greater amount of time available in writing, usually providing the writer with the opportunity to remold a more complex and coherent succession of ideas into an idea unit.

In a marked effort, he demonstrated that integration in written texts can be established through eight devices :

- (i) *nominalization,*
- (ii) *participles (nouns or adjectives),*
- (iii) *attributive adjectives,*
- (iv) *conjoined phrases (verb phrases, adjective phrases, and noun phrases),*
- (v) *series,*
- (vi) *sequence of prepositional phrases,*
- (vii) *complement clauses, and*
- (viii) *relative clauses.*

The following are examples of the eight devices given by Chafe:

- *There appeared to be evidence of differential treatment of children (i).*
- *The realism is preoccupied with establishing the literary work's relation to the world (ii).*
- *It was a recurring classroom activity (ii).*
- *The sight of an object brings about direct looking (ii).*
- *Now these are two distinct places (iii).*
- *As well as for speaker's tendency to learn these names earlier and use them more frequently (iv).*
- *The traders are greedy and gullible (iv).*
- *So that Dorothy Brook can, eventually, find her proper husband and her proper task in the world (iv).*

- *No capital letters, definite articles, or plural marks provide clues (v).*
- *I avoid the question of the nature of referential form in any underlying linguistic structure (vi)*
- *It is notable that assimilation rules are not much in evidence (vii)*
- *And I wish to care for the most needy (vii)*
- *And of the cognitive constraints which seems to be responsible for this distribution (viii) (p. 39-44)*

It is noteworthy, then, to pinpoint that the devices establishing integration in writing are normally achieved by virtue of the unlimited time and space available to the writer who can carefully choose his words, structure his ideas, and change the order of what he has written. Speech, in contrast, usually takes place in an immediate interaction with the availability of spontaneous feedback or interruption by present hearers, thereby making the speaker produce fragmented utterances.

On the fragmentation side, Chafe (1982 : 36-39) argued that the average speed of spoken English, including pauses, is 180 words per minute. He maintained that the speaker utters one idea unit at a time, and this situation, where the speaker is limited in time usually not allowing him to remold or reconstruct his utterances, leads to a fragmented quality of spoken phase. Concerning fragmentation, Chafe showed that a fragmented language consists of :

- (i) A typical idea unit consisting of a single clause, containing one predicate element (a verb or predicate

adjective) and the noun phrase which are directly associated with that element as a subject, object, and the like, e.g., :

I was eating a "popsicle".

And my room was small.

- (ii) Sometimes a fragmented idea unit may consist of nothing more than a noun phrase or prepositional phrase, e.g., :

And .. a--- nd uh----... staple ... things

At that point.

He conspicuously also observed that "fragmentation is partly apparent in the stringing together of idea units without connectives." To quote him in this matter, Chafe introduced the following example :

And my room was small.

... it was ... like nine by twelve or something.

It seemed spacious at the time .

...I came home,

I was really exhausted,

I was eating a "popsicle",

...I was sitting there in my chair.

III Planning vs. Unplanning

It is generally acknowledged that written and oral communication involve very different kinds of strategies : planning and unplanning. As an aspect of discourse, planning is fostered by the unlimited time offered for writers or speakers to communicate their propositions. Unplanning, on the other hand, is usually manifested in oral and written discourse as a corollary of the short time allotted for speakers or writers.

On the differences between spoken and written language, Lakoff (1982) pointed out that the devices utilized in the two media are different. He further supposed that the direct transposition of the devices of one medium to the other will not work. He ascribed the reason for this to the discrepancy between the two modes: oral communication works through the assumption of immediacy or spontaneity; writing, on the contrary, is planned, organized, and non-spontaneous. Lakoff furthermore argued that unplanned discourse, contrary to planned, is virtually characterized by lack of clarity, using wrong words or phrases, hesitation, and repetition. To support this common belief among linguists, Direman (1962 : 83) introduced the term "deliberation". Deliberation means a careful selection of required items, making any task of performance disambiguous, clear, and relevant to the topic under discussion.

From what now seems to be an accepted fact, Sacks et al (1974:696) maintained that spontaneous conversation is "locally managed" as it tends to bank on "turn-by-turn basis," i.e.,

conversationers are restricted in time when conveying their propositions. Attributable to limitless time, written discourse, on the other hand, is considered to be more planned as his or her composer is free to think carefully and reorganize conspicuously what he has written.

In a distinguished attempt, Keenan (1977) introduced planned and unplanned discourse in terms of design and organization. Unplanned discourse, in this regard, was viewed as discourse lacking forethought and organizational preparation. Planned discourse, conversely, was sighted as discourse carefully designed and thought out prior to its expression. Similarly, Ochs (1979) introduced the term "prethinking and prearranging," i.e., the composer, in planned discourse, has the opportunity to precisely think before performing any task so that he can produce a well organized outcome (p. 55).

Four major characteristics of unplanned discourse were also presented by Keenan (1977) :

- (i) Unlike planned discourse, speakers ,in unplanned discourse, enormously count on the immediate context to express their propositions. Great reliance on context as communicating information is necessary, whereas in planned discourse more attention is paid to syntax. At this point, Ochs (1979) said that : "In spontaneous conversation, speakers rely less heavily on syntax to articulate semantic relations "obtaining" between two referents or between whole propositions" (p. 62).

- (ii) In unplanned discourse more than in planned, speakers extremely rely on morpho-syntactic structures acquired in early stages of language development. Planned discourse, however, makes greater use of morpho-syntactic structures emerging late in language learning. Frequent use of deictic modifiers, active voice, and present simple tense referring to past events, for instance, were observed to occur considerably in unplanned discourse. Relative construction, passive voice as well as recurrent use of past tense to refer to past actions, in contrast, were noticed to characterize planned discourse. Ochs (1979) attributed this discrepancy to the situation where both spoken and written discourse are acquired or learnt. She argued that planning writing, for example, is learnt in a formal situation such as schools where learners can learn the grammatical rules of language, helping in producing more complex morpho-syntactic structures than those learnt early in life.
- (iii) In relatively unplanned discourse more than in relatively planned discourse, lexical items are tended to be repeated and refined by speakers when expressing their utterances. Repetition is viewed as part of the speaker's search for a particular word or as an attempt by the speaker to think out. In the same view, Tannen (1987) believed that : "Repetition enables speakers to produce language in more efficient, less energy-draining way and repetition facilitates comprehension by producing semantically less dense discourse" (p.581).

- (iv) In relatively informal discourse, the form and content of sequentially arranged social acts tend to be more similar than in relatively planned discourse. Concerning this feature, Keenan referred to a form of repetition in which parts of previously expressed speech acts are incorporated in subsequent acts. The feature incorporated maybe, Keenan added, morphological, syntactic or phonological. In the following example, the repeated lexical items serve the same grammatical function in the series of utterances in which it appears:

*... so sometimes you know you can lose the latter
you can something can happen in Beverly Hills.*

The present example apparently demonstrates how a speaker may become restricted into a subject or a subject-verb frame. The following example exhibits similarities in the phonological shape of sequentially placed speech acts:

Two girls:

A: *Ripped about four* nails and oh*

B: *Fantastic*

A: *But it was fun* y sound very far away.*

**Here we have repetition of the phoneme /f/.*

To sum up, the discrepancy between each mode of discourse, characterized by different features, is attributed to the time available for both speakers and listeners.

IV Formality vs. Informality

Ongoing debate concerning the differences between spoken and written language has clearly revealed that both spoken and written discourse can be formal or informal. A closer look, for example, at our day-to-day social communications as well as our writings bring to light that speakers' and writers' exclusive style is not existent, i.e., one's style differs accordingly due to the situation and the addressees' rank as well. Accordingly, it is quite evident that the degree of discourse formality varies in accordance with certain conditions, i.e., one's style of speaking at home is dissimilar of his or hers in the market.

Drawing upon data derived from spoken and written samples, Bolinger and Sears (1975) argued that our awareness of the appropriateness between language and audience, channel or occasion plays a vital role in adopting the degree of formality in language (spoken or written). Their work suggested that there is no incisive distinction between formal and informal language, but what always varies is the gradation of many degrees of formality. Starting with too formal down to informal speech, Joos (1967) introduced five levels of formality :

(i) Oratorical or frozen:

This level of formality is described as a self-conscious form of public address. It is used by professional speakers as a monologue.

(ii) *Deliberative, or formal:*

This level of language formality is aimed at any group of audience who are too large for effective interchange with the speaker. Like the oratorical, the deliberative register tends to be monologues.

(iii) *Consultative:*

Here we refer to dialogues where words still have to be somewhat carefully chosen. Dialogues among businessmen are an example of this level of formality.

(iv) *Casual:*

At this level all social barriers are absent. Fellow student talk is an example of this level.

(v) *Intimate:*

This level of formality differs from the previous one in that it incorporates conversations between close friends or relatives (e.g., the conversation between sisters or mothers and daughters).

In a way of ensuring what has been introduced above, Akinnaso (1985) mentioned two aspects of formality:

(i) *Markedness of setting*

This aspect of formality deals with the degree to which the setting of an event is marked. Every communicative event has a setting but each setting differs from the others in the degree of markedness. In formal communicative events, the settings are clearly marked. Events in such marked settings are explicitly recognized by actors as formal or highly structured, reflecting ideas and values of public social relevance.

(ii) *Predictability of code, setting, actors, ... etc. :*

This aspect concerns the extent to which aspects of code, setting, and the entire communicative activity can be recognized well in advance by actors and other members of speech community. Predictability has two functions: first, it helps to define the boundaries of communicative event. Second, it is used by actors and observers to evaluate the quality of permanence.

The foregoing analysis has attempted to show that social and situational views are the main factors which can evidently indicate the discourse formality. Therefore, there is no straightforward decision that can be easily made which certain spoken or written discourse is formal or informal. Having reviewed the related literature, nevertheless, it has been found out that most researchers

have mainly discussed typical spoken language and typical written language as the former is informal, and the latter is formal.

On the differences between formality and informality, Direman (1962) pointed out that the informality of speech is conspicuously crystallized in the prevalent usage of colloquial expressions, e.g. "well, you know, I mean," etc. Similarly, Brown and Yule (1989) argued that speakers sometimes complete a clause with a vague expression such as "... and everything is started raining". They also maintained that the speaker may produce a number of fabricated fillers: "erm, I think, you see what I mean, of course, and so on". They observed likewise that speakers tend to use general non-specific words and phrases characterized to be typical features of informal spoken language:

- * *they haven't got the scientists to do that.*
- * *...so we sort of supply the scientists for that.*
- * *... things like that*
- * *somehow (p. 6)*

Drawing on research which studies formality and informality, Ochs (1979) provided a synthesis of finding about the differences between formal writing and informal speech. She successfully indicated that while simple morpho-syntactic structures acquired early in life is the main reliance for informal speech, formal writing, on the other hand, relies on complex morpho-syntactic structures learnt late in life. To support this common belief, Dulay et al (1982) revealed that:

Language acquisition is a gradual process that can take place anywhere from several months to several years. During this time, the learner acquires the different structures that make up the language: tense endings, plural markers, negative sentences, complements and so forth. Learners acquire some of the subject, verb, object in a simple sentence, for example, "is learned" very early e.g., (She is working).Other structures such as simple verb tenses are acquired later, and still other only after much natural exposure to the language (p. 2000).

On the matter of context, Ochs contended that whereas informal speech greatly banks on immediate context to express the relationship between propositions, cohesive devices and topic sentences are classified as major markers among propositions in formal writing. As a direct result, speakers, contrary to writers, tend to frequently use deictic modifiers such as "this and these" instead of definite and indefinite articles, i.e., "a, an, the" recurrently used in formal writing. Expectedly, reliance on immediate context rather than cohesive devices, and on deictic modifiers rather than definite and indefinite articles can be attributed to the immediate feedback usually provided by the addressees who are often, contrary to readers, present in the setting of day-to-day uses of language.

Being limited in time , and armed with paralinguistic cues as well as spontaneous feedback, speakers, Ochs added, tend to avert using relative clauses, and embedded and complicated structures as well. Chafe (1982) ,in the same view, provided evidence (to be shown in chapter four) that formal writing differs from informal

speech by having a larger proportion of nominalization, relative clauses, and complement clauses.

To support this growing evidence in the broadest sense, Akinasso (1985) noted, in particular, that everyday conversational language also differs from written language in other aspects of formality, especially in regard to centralization of focus and the markedness of the setting. In writing, Akinasso claimed that there is always a dominant topic or main focus of attention often indicated in the title and in the introduction. Furthermore, Ong (1980) pointed out :

Writing prototypically takes place in a secluded or circumscribed setting: in libraries, offices, and the privacy of the writer's home. On the other hand, ... conversation can take place virtually anywhere; it needs not be pre-arranged or planned, nor need there be a unified focus or specified topic (p. 344).

Finally, Al-Tamari (1995) summarized the features of formality, planning, and spontaneity in spoken and written language preferred by researchers. He found that spoken language is relatively informal, unplanned, and spontaneous, whereas written language is relatively formal, planned, and non-spontaneous.

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V Complexity vs. relative non-complexity

Building mainly on previous research by O'Donnel (1974); Kroll (1977); Chafe (1982); Ochs (1979); Poole and Field (1976); Halliday (1979); Al-Tamari (1995), and Beaman (1984), number, type, and depth of embedded structures, number of subordinate clauses, and complex verb groups, average sentence and phrase length, sentence types, etc. are recognized as major indicators of syntactic complexity of language.

Having conducted many studies on the syntactic complexity of spoken and written English, researchers, interestingly, came up with conflicting findings, i.e., which discourse is syntactically more complex. With respect to their results, studies hence fall mainly into two groups: the researcher of the first group, namely Ochs, chafe, O'Donnel, and Kroll, substantiated the claim that written language is syntactically more complex than spoken language; on the contrary, the advocates of the second group, mainly Halliday, and Beaman hold the view that spoken language on the whole is just as complex as written language.

Nevertheless, as the proponents of the second hypothesis came up with fluctuating and indecisive findings being unable to definitely decide that spoken language is syntactically more complex than written language in terms of the indicators stated above, the second hypothesis, consequently, will be sustained and exemplified in the present study.

Having compared unplanned spoken narratives and written narratives taken from university students who were asked, orally in class and then as a composition assignment at home, to relate an experience on which they had come close to death, Kroll (1977) used "idea unit" to analyze the syntactic complexity in her subjects' products. An idea unit (IU) represents "a chunk of information which is viewed by the speaker / writer cohesively as it is given a surface structure (p. 89). The following is an operational definition of idea unit according to Kroll:

- (i) *a subject and verb counted as one idea unit together with (when present) (a) direct object, (b) prepositional phrase, (c) adverbial element, or (d) mark of subordination,*
- (ii) *full relative clauses counted as one idea unit when the relative pronoun was present,*
- (iii) *phrases which occurred in sentence initial position followed by a comma or which were set off from the sentence with commas were counted as separate idea units,*
- (iv) *verbs whose structure requires or allows a verbal element as object were counted with both with verbal elements as one idea unit,*
- (v) *reduced clauses in which a subordinator was followed by a nonfinite verb element were counted as one idea unit,*
- (vi) *post-nominal -ing phrases used as modifiers counted as idea units, and*

(vii) *other types of elements counted as idea units were (a) absolutes, (b) appositives, and verbs (p. 90).*

In her study, Kroll found out that the percentage of independent structures in the written samples (35.4%) is significantly greater than in the spoken sample (14%). She attributed this to the planning time available to the writer which, she maintained, enables the writer to encode information in more difficult structure, exhibiting, in turn, a more syntactic complexity.

Ochs (1979) substantiated this claim and argued that the amount of planning time available for the user of language (speaker / writer) acts a needed role in forming the types of structures used in discourse. She further added that the syntactic structures applied in unplanned discourse are similar to those used by children who heavily rely on coordinated structure (rather than subordinate), deictic modifiers (rather than definite articles), demonstrative plus noun constructions (rather than relative clauses), active voice (rather than passive voice), and present tense (rather than past or future tense).

Having investigated her data, consisting of unplanned spoken sample (casual conversation and personal narratives) and planned written sample (personal narratives), Ochs, likewise, found out that planned discourse, as mainly exhibiting more reliance on subordinate clauses, is syntactically more complex than unplanned discourse.

In his study which has been at most concerned with integration and involvement in spoken and written language, Chafe (1979) ,in addition, came up with similar results of Ochs's, i.e. written language exhibited greater use of subordinate clauses. His sample consisted of four styles of language:

- (i) *informal spoken language, from dinner table conversation,*
- (ii) *formal spoken language, from lectures,*
- (iii) *informal written language, from letters, and*
- (iv) *formal written language, from academic papers (p. 36).*

Chafe's subjects were academic people (faculty and graduate students) who were asked to produce language of such kinds. His study ,however, was restricted to the data produced by 14 students out of 25 in which he only compared between informal spoken and formal written language. Nevertheless, Chafe found out that complement clauses and relative clauses, as major features of syntactic complexity, were significantly greater in the formal written sample than in the informal spoken sample. Thus , in accordance with Chafe's findings, it is quite evident that formal written language is syntactically more complex than informal spoken language.

Also, in a remarkable study, O'Donnel (1974) used spoken and written samples produced by university graduates to compare between the syntactic complexity indicators in both samples. Consistent with the general agreement which has been proposed so far, again O'Donnel found that the total occurrences of various

syntactic features, namely nominal, adjectival, adverbial, and interjected clauses, were significantly infrequent in the spoken sample, indicating that spoken language is syntactically less complex than written language.

In a recent study which attempted to investigate the nature of syntactic complexity in spoken and written language, Al-Tamari (1995) ,similarly, found out that his written sample (Foster's A Room With A View) demonstrated greater syntactic complexity with respect to average sentence length, average sentence types, and total verb phrase types than his spoken sample (six TV shows of entertainment programme, You Bet Your Life), substantiating the claim that written language is more complex in terms of syntax than spoken language.

Summary

The preceding discussion has so far made clear that whereas written language fosters the features of detachment, involvement, integration, planning, formality, and complexity, spoken language , on the other hand, fosters features of involvement, fragmentation, unplanning, informality, and relative non-complexity, evidenced in the use of devices that characterize each mode of communication elaborately exemplified earlier in this chapter . This discrepancy, as reviewed previously, was attributed to the limitless time available to the writer, helping him or her to carefully edit his or her text, contrary to the speaker, before making it available for reading.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter covers the population and sample of the study, research instruments, research design, procedures of conducting the study, data collection, data analysis, and statistical design.

Population and the sample of the study:

The population of the study consisted of fifty-one students (males and females) who represented all English seniors of the Department of English at An-Najah National University, Nablus, in the second semester of the academic year 99/2000. But as six seniors were absent, the sample of the study consisted of forty-five English seniors who were attending an advanced English class, Research Methodology.

It is noteworthy to mention that the English seniors were selected to be the research subjects as they were expected , for one thing, to have had taken at least three courses in writing with emphasis ,of course, on the major writing skills. English seniors, for another thing, are accustomed to writing analytical literary essays in the courses of literature. Hence, they are expected to approximately produce formal and communicative essays free from typical features of spoken English. Otherwise, the results of the present study can be safely generalized to the other academic levels majoring in English.

Research instruments:

1) The criteria:

It seems worthwhile to point out that the researcher's intention here is not to discuss the many different forms of spoken English such as dialectal and accent differences which can be identified even within one area like Britain or America.

Building partly on previous research by (Ochs, 1979; Chafe, 1982; Akinnaso, 1982 and 1985; Beaman, 1984; Tannen, 1987; Brown and Yule, 1989; and Ur, 1996), the researcher extracted some (by no means all) syntactic features of spoken English by which English seniors' essays will be syntactically analyzed.

Guided by the survey of previous research, primary criteria were developed by the researcher to include eighteen items divided into three domains. The following criteria show the distribution of the items divided into their domains.

Some prominent syntactic features of spoken English

A) Non-complex structures:

1. Preference for coordinate rather than subordinate constructions.
2. Grand reliance on simple sentences.
3. Frequent use of simple present tense.
4. High dependence on active constructions.

5. Small proportion of wh-interrogatives.
6. Prominent lack of reduced participles.
7. Few attribution of nominalizations
8. Great use of the same syntactic forms (parallel constructions).

B) *Fragmentation:*

1. Enormous use of sentence fragments.
2. Recurrent use of "but" and "and" clauses.
3. High dependence on coordinate clauses (other than "but" and "and" clauses).
4. Limited use of wh-interrogative clauses.
5. Limited use of nominalizations.
6. Few attribution of reduced participles.

C) *Involvement:*

1. Preference for active constructions.
2. Reliance on self- references.
3. Dominance of demonstrative modifiers.
4. Prevalence of direct quotes.

2) *The text:*

Being considered as a formal text, Hughes's "As I grew older" was adopted to be analyzed by the students in written essays. For the overall aim of selecting Hughes's poem (see Appendix A) is its formal nature, English seniors thus are expected to produce essays characterized by features typical of the English written mode. Otherwise, it becomes easier for the researcher to characterize any other features which are not typical of written English.

3) *The test:*

On the basis of the striking findings of the forty-five essays which showed unexpected dominance of syntactic features typical of the spoken mode, the researcher decided to carry out a short test on a representative sample of the students. The main purpose of the test was to identify the major sources for the dominance of these features in the seniors' essays. But as the researcher presupposed that unawareness of these features was the major factor for their dominance in the seniors' writing, a random sample consisting of fifteen seniors of the same population were asked to answer the following question:

What are the syntactic differences between spoken and written English?

Validity of the instruments:

The draft criteria were adopted as the final research instrument after being approved with no modifications by three literature, linguistics, and writing specialists from An-Najah National University and Bethlehem University. The same three specialists approved the formality of the text, too.

Reliability of the criteria

To measure the reliability of the criteria, a sample of fifteen essays were randomly selected to be analyzed according to different items in the three domains. On the basis of the findings (shown in the tables below), the researcher's criteria can be considered as a reliable instrument according to the statistical analysis designed for the present study (see page : 43-44)

Table 3.1
Occurrences of Six Items in the Three Domains Per 15 Essays

| Items | Occurrences | Means |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------|
| Relative clauses | 31 | 2.06 |
| Reduced Participles | 1 | 0.06 |
| Incomplete sentences | 25 | 1.66 |
| Self-References | 62 | 4.13 |
| Direct Quotes | 104 | 6.93 |
| Demonstrative Modifiers | 65 | 4.33 |

Table 3.2
Percentages of Four Items in the Three Domains Per 15 Essays.

| <i>Items</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Voice</i> | <i>Active</i> | <i>Passive</i> |
| | 89.80 | 11.20 |
| <i>Tense</i> | <i>Simple Present</i> | <i>Others</i> |
| | 80.11 | 19.89 |
| <i>Sentence Types</i> | <i>Simple</i> | <i>Others</i> |
| | 51.93 | 48.07 |
| <i>Conjunctions</i> | <i>Coordination</i> | <i>Subordination</i> |
| | 71.17 | 28.83 |

Research design

The researcher utilized the descriptive method for conducting his study in which he developed some criteria of syntactic features typical of spoken English so that he could indicate them in the seniors' writing. The researcher further used a test to identify the sources of these features.

Procedures of the study

In coordination with the Department of English at An-Najah National University, the researcher held a meeting with the instructor of Research Methodology class in which the study was to be conducted. Being given the required permission (see Appendix B), the researcher himself handed the English seniors Hughes's "As I grew older" on which they were assumed to write their essays. In order to fulfill the study and facilitate the students' task, the following four steps were carried out:

- (i) The following two pre-reading questions were orally discussed:
 - 1) Have you ever had a good dream which never came true?
How did you feel about it?
 - 2) Should people keep their promises?
- (ii) The researcher started to explain the poem and asked the students to take notes. Difficult words such as "Dimming", "shatter", "smash", and "whirling" were also clarified during the explanation process.
- (iii) To ensure the students' understanding of what had been explained, students were asked to orally answer five comprehension questions prepared in advance on the

chalkboard. Then the researcher himself gave orally the possible model answers for the following five comprehension questions:

- 1) Did the poet have a dream when he was a young? What do you think it was? What happened to his dream? Did it come true?

Yes, the poet had a dream. Perhaps his dream was about the freedom of the black in the USA. Maybe he wanted to see the whites change their attitudes and opinion of the blacks. His dream was not fulfilled; a strong wall stood between the poet and his dream, so that the dream did not see the light of the day and this gave him a lot of pain.

- 2) What does the poet mean by the word "wall"? describe this wall?

"wall" here refers to the powers that stopped his dream from coming true. The wall is thick and it prevents the light from shining on the poet's dream, thereby making it dim and dark.

- 3) What images does the poet use in this poem?

Images of light: e.g., brightness, shadows, blackness, darkness

- 4) Will the poet set idly by and allow the wall and the darkness to destroy his dream? What will he do?

No, the poet will not sit around doing nothing. He calls on his dark hands to break the wall, destroy the darkness and help him find his dream; thereby transforming the shadows of darkness into a bright and shining promise.

- 5) What is the poem about?

It is about unfulfilled promises and dreams which are deferred.

- (iv) Having made sure that students understood the poem, the researcher finally gave them an hour to write a well-organized essay of about two hundred words on the major theme of the poem entitled - Freedom and unfulfilled dreams.

Data collection

The researcher collected the written essays immediately by hand when the students had finished their writing.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is restricted to the syntactic features mentioned in the research criteria, which in turn divided into three domains : non-complex structures, fragmentation, and involvement. Having trained a major friend to give me a hand in the data analysis, each syntactic feature within the three domains was analyzed and computed separately in terms of means and percentages. For instance, sentence fragments, in the second domain, was divided into ten types where each type analyzed and computed in each essay. Examples of each type were quoted from the seniors' essays, as well. The same is true concerning the remaining features within the three domains. (see Appendix E, page :112)

Statistical design

The items of the criteria were statistically analyzed according to the following parameters:

1) Percentages

- a) Conjunctions
- b) Sentence types
- c) Tense
- d) Voice

2) Means

Means were calculated by dividing the number of occurrences of each item by the number of the essays.

1) High frequency

The items were considered typical features of spoken English if they occurred more than the number listed next to each.

- a) Sentence fragments (more than three times)
- b) Self-references (more than three times)
- c) Direct Quotes (more than three times)
- d) Demonstrative modifiers (more than five times)
- e) "But" and "and" clauses (more than 12 times)
- f) Coordinated clauses, other than "but" and "and" clauses (more than seven times)
- g) Parallel constructions (more than three times)

2) Low frequency

The items were considered typical features of spoken English if they occurred less than the number listed next to each.

- a) Relative clauses (less than five times)
- b) Nominalization (less than five times)
- c) Reduced Participles (less than five times)

Summary

The present study sought highlighting some syntactic features typical of the spoken mode in the English seniors' writing at An-Najah National University. To mark these features, forty-five essays, based on a short poem by Hughes, were collected from an advanced English class. For this purpose, the descriptive design was used depending mainly on the criteria developed by the researcher by which students' writing was analyzed. Further, a short test was utilized so as to identify the basic source for the unexpected dominance of these features in the seniors' essays. Having finally analyzed the data at hand, findings were computed by using percentages and means.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The present study aimed at identifying and marking some syntactic features typical of the English spoken phase in the writing of the English seniors. For this purpose, the statistical analysis of the data at hand in the three domains will be analyzed according to the three questions posed earlier in the study.

Q1 "Do English seniors apply features typical of spoken English in their writing?"

For testing the first question, means for some items and percentage for others were used. The following tables present the statistical analysis for each item in the three domains.

I Non-complex structures

Table 4.1

Frequency and Distribution of Coordinating Conjunction

| <i>Coordinating Conjunctions</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|---|---------------------------|---------------------|
| <i>And</i> | <i>543</i> | <i>12.06</i> |
| <i>But</i> | <i>112</i> | <i>2.50</i> |
| <i>So</i> | <i>47</i> | <i>1.04</i> |
| <i>Or</i> | <i>52</i> | <i>1.16</i> |
| <i>Yet</i> | <i>11</i> | <i>0.24</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>765</i> | <i>17</i> |

As table (4.1) shows, the total mean of coordinating conjunctions was very frequent in the seniors' writing; they were used 17 times per essay. Also, the above table reveals a marked absence of all compound coordinators as well as some simple coordinators, namely "for" and "nor".

Examples:

4.1.1 ...his dream was clear and bright and he wanted to achieve his dream and make it true.

4.1.2 If one has no aim or no purpose, he will live in darkness.

4.1.3 ...so the writer want to show us the deprivation that black people have.

4.1.4 He could see it yet he can't fulfill it because of the thick wall.

4.1.5 The poet accept his blackness but he refused to live in darkness or in the shadow.

Table 4.2

Frequency and Distribution of Subordinating Conjunctions

| <i>Subordinate Conjunctions</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|--|---------------------------|---------------------|
| <i>After</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>0.07</i> |
| <i>Although</i> | <i>6</i> | <i>0.13</i> |
| <i>As</i> | <i>30</i> | <i>0.67</i> |
| <i>Because</i> | <i>21</i> | <i>0.47</i> |
| <i>If</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>0.07</i> |
| <i>Since</i> | <i>6</i> | <i>0.13</i> |
| <i>Till</i> | <i>6</i> | <i>0.13</i> |
| <i>While</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>0.07</i> |
| <i>How</i> | <i>11</i> | <i>0.24</i> |
| <i>However</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>0.07</i> |

| | | |
|--------------|------------|-------------|
| <i>What</i> | <i>11</i> | <i>0.24</i> |
| <i>Which</i> | <i>81</i> | <i>1.80</i> |
| <i>Who</i> | <i>42</i> | <i>0.93</i> |
| <i>That</i> | <i>32</i> | <i>0.71</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>258</i> | <i>5.73</i> |

An examination of the figures in the above table indicates that the total mean of subordinating conjunctions was very infrequent in comparison with coordinating conjunctions. The figures further show no instance of all compound subordinators and some simple subordinators as well.

Examples:

4.1.6 God created all people equally although they may differ in their color,

4.1.7 The poet has his dream since he was a young boy, and...

4.1.8 Everyone has a dream which forms a central issue for his life.

4.1.9 He became nearly as a person who tried hard to compensate.

4.1.10 The wall refers to the power that controlled them.

Summary Table 4.3
Frequency and Distribution of Conjunctions

| <i>Conjunctions</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Coordinating</i> | <i>765</i> | <i>74.78</i> |
| <i>Subordinating</i> | <i>258</i> | <i>25.22</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>1023</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

Table (4.3) clearly reveals that coordinating constructions (74.78 %) were about three times as many occurrences of subordinating conjunctions (25.22 %) . On the basis of these figures one can emphasize that English seniors heavily relied on coordinating rather subordinating constructions characterized to be non-complex structure.

Table 4.4
Frequency and Distribution of Sentence Types

| <i>Sentence Types</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Simple</i> | <i>307</i> | <i>52.93</i> |
| <i>Compound</i> | <i>132</i> | <i>22.76</i> |
| <i>Complex</i> | <i>72</i> | <i>12.41</i> |
| <i>Compound complex</i> | <i>69</i> | <i>11.90</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>580</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

A study of the percentage of each sentence type in the above table demonstrates that English seniors manifested a heavy reliance on simple sentences (52.93 %) compared to the other types (47.07 %) , verifying the preference for non-complex structures.

Examples:

4.1.11 *They should shatter and break the wall. (simple sentence)*

4.1.12 *He couldn't achieve his dream, but he is trying. (compound sentence)*

4.1.13 *Certainly, God created us equal although they may differ in their color,....(Complex sentence)*

4.1.14 *I thank you for this chance which you gave us in order to write few lines about this great problem which is still found in the second millennium. (compound complex sentence)*

4.1.15 *The poet presents the problem of the black as a personal problem, so he tells us about his dreams from when he was a young boy, the dream was the freedom dream which the writers compares it with the light of the sun., he sees the freedom as a light, but this dream there is a barrier or a wall in front of it as the wall which prevent the sun light to reach to someone or place. (A badly formed Compound complex sentence)*

4.1.16 *It appears that the poet has a dream in his life and he wants to achieve this dream, his dream about freedom which all black people want to fulfill, this dream like a sun because freedom is a light for all people but there is a great barrier between him and his dream, he faces many difficulties in achieving it. (A run-on sentence)*

4.1.17 *He seems hopeless and sad. His dream isn't fulfilled. He dreams to be free as a white man. He wants to be equal of him. His dream is faced by obstacles and barriers. He has a hope to achieve his wishes with the help of others. (Sentence fragment)*

Table 4.5
Frequency and Distribution of Tense Types

| <i>Tense types</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Simple present</i> | <i>543</i> | <i>78.92</i> |
| <i>Simple past</i> | <i>106</i> | <i>15.41</i> |

| | | |
|---------------------------|------------|--------------|
| <i>Simple future</i> | <i>21</i> | <i>3.05</i> |
| <i>Present continuous</i> | <i>9</i> | <i>1.31</i> |
| <i>Present perfect</i> | <i>9</i> | <i>1.31</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>688</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

It is obvious from table (4.5) that the simple present tense (78.92 %) was the most frequent tense in comparison with the other tenses (21.08 %). It was about four times as many occurrences if compared with the other tenses, affirming a high dependence on non-complex structures characterized to be a typical feature of English spoken phase.

Examples:

4.1.18 *His dream comes as a result of his nature (S. present)*

4.1.19 *He felt that he was deprived from his freedom (S. past)*

4.1.20 *He will try to do that in his real life. (S. future)*

4.1.21 *The poet has determined to get his freedom. (P. perfect)*

Table 4.6

Frequency and Distribution of Active and Passive Constructions

| <i>Voice</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Active</i> | <i>933</i> | <i>91.20</i> |
| <i>Passive</i> | <i>90</i> | <i>8.80</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>1023</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

Again, the figures above plainly exhibit that active constructions (91.20 %) were more ten and a third times than passive constructions. A great reliance on active constructions

further demonstrated that English seniors overused non-complex structures.

Examples:

4.1.22 *The poet decided to damage this wall.... (Active)*

4.1.23 *The poet's dream isn't fulfilled. (Passive)*

Table 4.7
Frequency and Distribution of WH-Interrogative Clauses

| <i>Wh-Interrogatives</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>How</i> | <i>11</i> | <i>0.24</i> |
| <i>However</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>0.07</i> |
| <i>Which</i> | <i>81</i> | <i>1.80</i> |
| <i>Who</i> | <i>42</i> | <i>0.93</i> |
| <i>That</i> | <i>32</i> | <i>0.71</i> |
| <i>What</i> | <i>11</i> | <i>0.24</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>180</i> | <i>4</i> |

The total mean of wh-interrogatives (4) manifests that they were rarely used by English seniors, indicating that English seniors employed a small proportion of complex structures.

Examples:

4.1.24 *The poet has a dream which was about freedom.*

4.1.25 *He became nearly as a person who tried hard....*

Table 4.8

Frequency and Distribution of Reduced Participles

| <i>Participles</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>-ing participles</i> | <i>2</i> | <i>0.04</i> |
| <i>-ed participles</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>0.07</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>0.11</i> |

A study of the low frequency of -ing participles (2) and -ed participles (3) strikingly reveals that English seniors seldom used complex structures in their writing embodied in the prominent lack of reduced participles.

Examples:

4.1.26 Having suffered a lot of this wall, he calls his dark hands to destroy, to smash this wall. (-ing participles)

4.1.27 ...that happen towards the black in a society filled with white aristocrats. (-ed participle)

Table 4.9

Frequency and Distribution of Names and Verbs of Processes

| <i>Process</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| <i>Names</i> | <i>185</i> | <i>13.86</i> | <i>4.11</i> |
| <i>Verbs</i> | <i>1150</i> | <i>86.14</i> | <i>25.56</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>1335</i> | <i>100 %</i> | <i>29.67</i> |

The above table explicitly shows a high frequent occurrence of verbs of process (86.14%), verifying few attribution of nominalizations (4.11%) described to be complex structure.

Examples:

- 4.1.28 He describes his dream which didn't come true as a wall
which represented the white.... (verb)
- 4.1.29 ...and this really delays the fulfillment of this dream (name)

Table 4.10

Frequency and Distribution of Parallel Constructions

| <i>Parallelism</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|
| <i>Constructions</i> | <i>226</i> | <i>5.02</i> |

The figures above signify that each essay repeated the same syntactic form more than five times which is considered to be non-complex structure.

Examples:

- 4.1.30 Finally, the poet decided to break this shadow..., he
decided to destroy this wall...and he decided to make the
light covers all the black.
- 4.1.31 Black people want to take their freedom, they want to be
equal with white people , they want to take their chances in
life.

Summary Table 4.11

***Frequency and Distribution of Complex and Non-Complex
Structures in the First Domain.***

| <i>Structure</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Complex</i> | <i>953</i> | <i>21.18</i> | <i>25.57</i> |
| <i>Non-complex</i> | <i>2774</i> | <i>61.64</i> | <i>74.43</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>3727</i> | <i>82.82</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

The figures above evidently illustrate that the spoken discourse structural markers (74.43%) were about three times more prevalent in the seniors' writing than written discourse structures (25.57%), emphasizing a prominent use of non-complex structures by English seniors in their writing.

II Fragmentation

Table 4.12
Frequency and Distribution of Sentence Fragments

| <i>Sentence fragments</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>Participial phrase fragments</i> | — | — |
| <i>Prepositional phrase fragments</i> | — | — |
| <i>Positive phrase fragments</i> | — | — |
| <i>Infinitive phrase fragments</i> | 12 | 0.27 |
| <i>Subordinate phrase fragments</i> | 30 | 0.67 |
| <i>Added detailed fragments</i> | 9 | 0.20 |
| <i>Missing subject fragments</i> | 32 | 0.71 |
| <i>Missing main verb fragments</i> | 33 | 0.73 |
| <i>Incomplete thought Fragments</i> | 48 | 1.06 |
| <i>Missing connectives fragments</i> | 116 | 2.58 |
| <i>Total</i> | 280 | 6.22 |

An examination of the figures listed above manifests that sentence fragments were prevalent more than six times in each essay , indicating an enormous use of fragmentation characterized to be a prominent feature of spoken English.

Examples:

4.2.1 To put himself in the world to share in the world like other people. Especially like white people. (An infinitive phrase fragment)

4.2.2 Just because he/she is black. This prejudice stood like wall. (A subordinate phrase fragment)

4.2.3 He uses a lot of images to express his feeling and problems. Such as an image of a wall which is strong, high, and thick. (An added detailed fragment)

4.2.4 One of the powers is the white who always think that the black less than them, and ^ don't believe in giving any privileges. (A missing subject fragment)

4.2.5 Also to stop sufferings and pains. (A missing main verb fragment)

4.2.6 As a result of this, there are inferior than and tool in the hand of the white, they can treat them as they want (An incomplete thought fragment)

4.2.7 He seems hopeless and sad because his dream isn't fulfilled. He dreams to be as a white man. He wants to be equal of him. His dreams is faced by obstacles and barriers. He has a hope for achieving his wishes with the help of others. (A missing connective fragments)

Table 4.13
Frequency and Distribution of "But" and "And" Clauses

| <i>Clauses</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>But</i> | <i>112</i> | <i>2.49</i> |
| <i>And</i> | <i>543</i> | <i>12.07</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>655</i> | <i>14.56</i> |

The total mean of "but" and "and" clauses (14.56) signifies that each essay contained fourteen and a half times of "but" and "and" clauses which helps in producing sentence fragments in the English seniors writing.

Table 4.14
Frequency and Distribution of Coordinated Clauses (other than "but" and "and" clauses)

| <i>Clauses</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>So</i> | <i>47</i> | <i>1.04</i> |
| <i>Or</i> | <i>52</i> | <i>1.16</i> |
| <i>Yet</i> | <i>11</i> | <i>0.24</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>110</i> | <i>2.44</i> |

As shown in table (4.14) above, the total mean (2.44) of coordinated clauses (other than "but" and "and" clauses) was acceptable as a syntactic feature of written English in the seniors' written essays.

Table 4.15
***Frequency and Distribution of Wh-Interrogatives,
 Nominalizations, and Reduced Participles.***

| <i>Syntactic features</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>Wh- interrogatives</i> | <i>180</i> | <i>4</i> |
| <i>Nominalizations</i> | <i>185</i> | <i>4.11</i> |
| <i>Reduced participles</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>0.11</i> |

Going through the means listed above, one can obviously conclude that there was a salient limited use of wh-interrogatives, nominalizations, and reduced participles which affirms that English seniors utilized loose structures leading to fragmentation.

III Involvement

Table 4.16
Frequency and Distribution of Active Constructions, Self-References, Demonstrative Modifiers, and Direct Quotes.

| <i>Involvement devices</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>Active constructions</i> | <i>933</i> | <i>20.73</i> |
| <i>Self-References</i> | <i>184</i> | <i>4.09</i> |
| <i>Demonstrative modifiers</i> | <i>304</i> | <i>6.76</i> |
| <i>Direct quotes</i> | <i>194</i> | <i>4.31</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>1615</i> | <i>35.89</i> |

The total occurrences and means listed in the above table denote that the devices of involvement, described to be conspicuous syntactic features of spoken English, were considerably widespread in the seniors' essays.

Example:

4.3.1 This situation motivates them to write about their own need and dreams (Active voice)

4.3.2 I see that those writers bring images from the real life (Self-Reference)

4.3.3 As we know, the black are always in struggle with the white (Self-Reference)

4.3.4 It appears that this poet has a dream of (Demonstrative modifiers)

4.3.5 Actually, these black people do a hard labor for the benefit of the white, but.... (Demonstrative modifies)

4.3.6 He said that his dream which was freedom wasn't fulfilled because.... (Direct quote)

4.3.7 He asked us why black people deprived from their dreams. (Direct quote)

Having tested the first question of the study in the three domains, the researcher found out that English seniors remarkably did apply syntactic features typical of spoken English in their essays.

Q2 "What are the most frequent syntactic features typical of spoken English in the English seniors' writing?"

To answer the second question of the study, findings were classified according to their high frequency and means so that the researcher could identify the most frequent syntactic features typical of spoken English in the English seniors' writing within the three domains.

I Non-complex structures

Table 4.17

Frequency and Distribution of Non-Complex Structures

| <i>Non-complex structures</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| <i>Active constructions</i> | <i>933</i> | <i>20.73</i> | <i>33.63</i> |
| <i>Coordinated clauses</i> | <i>765</i> | <i>17</i> | <i>27.58</i> |
| <i>Simple present tense</i> | <i>543</i> | <i>12.07</i> | <i>19.57</i> |
| <i>Simple sentences</i> | <i>307</i> | <i>6.82</i> | <i>11.07</i> |
| <i>Parallel constructions</i> | <i>226</i> | <i>5.02</i> | <i>8.15</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>2774</i> | <i>61.64</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

The figures above explicitly exhibit that all non-complex structures were strikingly dominant in the English seniors' writing. The figures likewise demonstrate that the most frequent non-complex structure was the active constructions used (20.7) times per essay.

Table 4.18
Frequency and Distribution of Complex Structures

| <i>Complex structures</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|---|---------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Other sentence types (rather than simple sentences)</i> | <i>273</i> | <i>6.07</i> | <i>28.65</i> |
| <i>Nominalizations</i> | <i>185</i> | <i>4.11</i> | <i>19.41</i> |
| <i>Wh-interrogatives</i> | <i>180</i> | <i>4</i> | <i>18.89</i> |
| <i>Other tenses (rather than simple present)</i> | <i>145</i> | <i>3.22</i> | <i>15.22</i> |
| <i>Passive constructions</i> | <i>90</i> | <i>2</i> | <i>9.44</i> |
| <i>Subordinated clauses (other than wh-interrogatives)</i> | <i>75</i> | <i>1.67</i> | <i>7.87</i> |
| <i>Reduced participles</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>0.11</i> | <i>0.52</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>953</i> | <i>21.18</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

The preceding means and percentages verify that complex structures typical of the English written phase were astonishingly infrequent in the seniors' writing. In addition, the figures above indicate that the most infrequent complex structure was the reduced participles.

Summary Table 4.19
Frequency and Distribution of Complex and Non-Complex Structures

| <i>Structures</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| <i>Complex</i> | <i>953</i> | <i>21.18</i> | <i>25.57</i> |
| <i>Non-complex</i> | <i>2774</i> | <i>61.64</i> | <i>74.43</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>3727</i> | <i>82.82</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

As shown in the above table, the non-complex structures used in the seniors' writing were about three times more prevalent than the complex structures, substantiating a heavy reliance on morpho-syntactic structures learnt and acquired early during the process of language development.

II Fragmentation

Table 4.20
Frequency and Distribution of Devices Suppressing and Leading to Fragmentation

| <i>Devices leading to fragmentation</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
|---|--------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| <i>"But" and "and" clauses</i> | <i>655</i> | <i>14.65</i> | <i>62.68</i> |
| <i>Sentence fragments</i> | <i>280</i> | <i>6.22</i> | <i>26.79</i> |
| <i>Coordinate clauses (other</i> | <i>110</i> | <i>2.44</i> | <i>10.53</i> |

| | | | |
|--|--------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| <i>than "but" and "and" clauses</i> | | | |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>1045</i> | <i>23.22</i> | <i>100 %</i> |
| <i>Devices suppressing fragmentation</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> | <i>Percentages %</i> |
| <i>Wh-interrogative clauses</i> | <i>180</i> | <i>4</i> | <i>48.68</i> |
| <i>Nominalizations</i> | <i>185</i> | <i>4.11</i> | <i>50.00</i> |
| <i>Reduced participles</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>0.11</i> | <i>1.35</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>370</i> | <i>8.22</i> | <i>100 %</i> |

The above table indicates that the enormous use of the syntactic devices leading to fragmentation was manifested in "but" and "and" clauses (655) times, i.e., they occurred more than fourteen and a half times in each essay. The above table, in addition, indicate that the limited use of syntactic devices suppressing fragmentation was evidenced in the reduced participles. Likewise, as shown in table (4.20), the total mean of the syntactic devices leading to fragmentation was about three times as many of those suppressing fragmentation.

III Involvement

Table 4.21
Frequency and Distribution of Involvement Devices

| <i>Involvement devices</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>Active constructions</i> | <i>933</i> | <i>20.73</i> |
| <i>Demonstrative modifiers</i> | <i>304</i> | <i>6.76</i> |
| <i>Direct quotes</i> | <i>194</i> | <i>4.31</i> |
| <i>Self references</i> | <i>184</i> | <i>4.08</i> |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>1615</i> | <i>35.88</i> |

An examination of the aforementioned figures clarifies that the most frequent syntactic device of involvement was, again, the active constructions (933) used more than twenty times per essay.

Summary Table 4.22
Frequency and Distribution of the Most Frequent Syntactic Features Within the Three Domains

| <i>Syntactic features</i> | <i>Occurrences</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>1) Non-complex structures</i> | <i>933</i> | <i>20.73</i> |
| <i>Active constructions</i> | | |
| <i>2) Fragmentation</i> | <i>655</i> | <i>14.55</i> |
| <i>"But" and "and" clauses</i> | | |
| <i>3) Involvement</i> | <i>933</i> | <i>20.73</i> |
| <i>Active constructions</i> | | |

The findings shown in the above table manifest that while the most frequent syntactic feature typical of spoken English in the first and third domain was the active constructions (933), "but" and "and" clauses were recognized to be the most frequent ones in the second domain (655).

Q3 "What are the major sources of the English spoken features in the senior English majors' writing?"

For testing the third question of the study, the researcher scanned the seniors' representative sample answers to the following question: "What are the major syntactic differences between spoken and written English?" Having precisely investigated the seniors' answers to the above question, the researcher basically attributed the major source of spoken English syntactic features in the seniors' writing to the ignorance of these features. This inference was mainly concluded due to the irrelevant answers and general statements given by the English seniors who aimed at defining the major syntactic differences between spoken and written English. Furthermore, first and second language acquisition universals, simplification strategy, and mother tongue interference contributed to the dominance of these features.(Further illustrations will be discussed in Chapter Five)

Summary

The researcher ,in this chapter, has presented the findings of the statistical analysis which has been displayed in terms of answering the questions of the study. Means and percentages which were used to analyze the data at hand proved that English seniors unconsciously used all the syntactic features typical of spoken English very frequently in their essays.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter will discuss the results, draw the conclusions and suggest the recommendations pertinent to the purposes mentioned earlier in the study. Furthermore, presentation of discussion will be introduced separately according to each domain. As the dominance of the syntactic features of spoken English, displayed in the preceding discussion, mostly partake the same reasons for their high prevalence in the English seniors' writing, justifications and reasoning of their great occurrences will be vindicated separately, as well.

I Non-complex structures

It is quite evident that English seniors heavily relied on coordinate rather than subordinate conjunctions as the former were three times as many occurrences of the latter, i.e., the English seniors' syntax is typically less structured as it contains little subordination. This coincides with the findings of Kroll (1977), who compared unplanned spoken narratives and planned written narratives, in which she supported the view that written discourse is syntactically more complex than spoken discourse because the former shows a greater dependence on subordinate structures, whereas the latter shows a great dependence on coordinate constructions. Another support comes from Beaman (1984) who

found, in his analysis of twenty written and spoken narratives taken from university woman, that the actual frequency of occurrences of coordinating conjunctions is over twice their occurrences in speech as in writing.

Another evidence for utilizing non-complex structures in the seniors' writing was the high frequency of occurrences of simple sentences (52.93%). This result is consistent with Al-Tanni's (1991) who found , in his speech data consisting of (1451) sentences, that the frequency of occurrences of simple sentences was (68.44%). Another supporting findings were recognized by Al-Tamari (1995) who found that the total percentage of simple sentences in the spoken sample consisting of six TV shows was (56%). Like the findings of the present study, they also recognized that the other sentence types are less frequent in their spoken samples.

Likewise , the simple present tense was a prominent proof for avoiding complex syntax as it occurred very frequently in the seniors' writing (78.92%). In this connection, Biber (1986) came up with similar findings, i.e., the simple present tense is more frequent in speech than in writing. Biber attributed the heavy reliance on the simple present tense to the co- present situation between speakers and listeners.

Again, the frequent occurrences of active constructions (91.20%) substantiated a preferential usage of simple syntax in the English seniors' writing. A strong agreement with our findings was noticed in Al-Tamari's spoken data in which he found that the frequency of occurrences of active constructions was (98.6%).

Similarly, Chafe's sample of (1982) showed that passive voice constructions occurred in the spoken sample about five times as many occurrences in the written sample. Passive constructions were also more seven times frequent in writing than in speech as O'Donnell's (1974) samples exhibited.

Infrequent manifestations of reduced participles was a tangible sign for evading complex syntax in the English seniors' writing. This corroborates Chafe's (1982) findings who found that reduced participles were four times less frequent in the spoken sample than in the written sample. Al-Tamari's data indicated that reduced participles occurred only four times in speech and (110) times in writing, as well. O'Donnell (1974) as well as Poole and Field (1976) came up with similar results; they found that the frequency of occurrences of reduced participles in their spoken data was very rare.

Another explicit token for reliance on simple syntax by English seniors was the prominent lack of nominalizations. For example, per thousand words in Chafe's data, there were about eleven and a half times as many occurrences of nominalizations in the written data than in the spoken. O'Donnell (1974), likewise, found that nominal clauses in general were noticeably infrequent in spoken language. Guided by his data, Halliday (1989) provided, in this regard, logical reasoning for why speech heavily banks on verbs and writing relies on nouns. He attributed this to the phenomena that each mode represents. He maintained that while spoken language represents phenomena such as processes, written language represents phenomena such as products. Thus he added that the

great range of verbs in speech are turned by the written version into nouns, many of which are therefore the names of processes, such as “*applause*, *speech*, and *satisfaction*” in the following examples given by Halliday (80-81) :

Applause followed the announcement.

After the announcement, people *applauded*.

He derived much *satisfaction* from this discovery.

Because of this discovery he was very *satisfied*.

Her *speech* covered five points.

She *spoke* about five points.

Halliday attributed this discrepancy to what each mode of communication represents. For example, he maintained that a piece of writing is an object; so what is represented by written language is also given the form of an object. Hence , *applause*, *satisfaction*, and *speech* are all nouns. But when we talk we are doing or saying that something happened or something was done. Thus , *applauded*, *satisfied*, and *spoke* are all verbs.

Repetition of the same syntactic form several times over was also a straightforward mark for using non-complex structures by English seniors. This is inconsistent with Ochs's (1979) findings who, like the present study, attributed the great manifestations of parallel constructions in the unplanned speech to the overuse of coordination and the lack of subordination of ideas and structures. Another supporting finding was given by Tannen (1982:16) who

observed the repetition of syntactic constructions in spoken narratives. For example, she found a speaker spontaneously saying "... and he knows Spanish, and he knows French, and he knows English, and he knows German"

The small proportion of wh-interrogatives was a further clear evidence for averting complex syntax by English seniors. This corroborates Kroll's (1979) findings who attributed the apparent avoidance of relative clauses in speech to the difficulty of producing them in unplanned discourse which mainly relies on morpho-syntactic structures acquired early in life. A clear proof of the limited use of wh-interrogatives was also apparent in Al-Tamari's data who found that the wh-interrogatives occurred only eight times in speech and (276) times in writing.

II fragmentation

Most notably, the prevalence of sentence fragments in the data at hand was a glaring evidence for utilizing the most conspicuous feature of the English spoken mode in the English seniors' writing. This corroborates Beaman's (1984) spoken sample which exhibited fifty seven examples of sentence fragments. Al-Tamari's spoken data, in addition, demonstrated (173) examples of fragmentation. On the other hand , Beaman's as well as Al-Tamari's written samples showed few examples of fragments. Another proof came from Brown and Yule (1989) who emphasized that the spoken language contains many incomplete sentences, often simply

sequence of phrases. Associated with the last view, in his analysis of fifteen essays collected by an English sophomore class at Birzeit University, Atari (1984) found that the relationship in the sophomores' essays is not developed as there were no connectives used to join one proposition to the other. He added that the cohesive lexical or syntactic links necessary for the reader to see the logical sequence of propositions in the text are missing.

Another factor that led to the sentence fragments in the seniors' writing was the recurrent use of coordinating conjunctions occurring seventeen times per essay. Chafe (1982), in particular, noted that the high frequency of occurrences of coordinating conjunctions leads to the greater fragmentation of spoken language. He found out that the occurrences of coordinating conjunctions per thousand words were four times as many in the spoken data than in the written.

The salient limited proportion of nominalizations, wh-interrogatives, and reduced participles, discussed earlier, substantiated, moreover, that English seniors did not use devices usually used to establish integration in writing. Many researchers, most notably Chafe (1982), supported the concept that nominalizations, reduced participles, wh-interrogatives suppress sentence fragments by backing more information into an idea unit, producing, in turn, more complex and coherent structures. The preceding analysis of Chafe and other researchers proved that

nominalizations, wh-interrogatives and reduced participles were, like our written sample, very infrequent in their spoken samples.

III Involvement

The highly frequent occurrence of active constructions, discussed earlier, self references, demonstrative modifiers, and direct quotes provided a prominent evidence that English seniors were greatly involved in their writing. On the other hand, the great use of the above devices implied a heavy dependence upon the context or the environment of writing. Bernstein (1964) and Ochs (1979), in this connection, considered these elements as devices associated with speaking. Atari (1984), for example, explained that his subjects' use of demonstratives "implies the writer's involvement with a projected interlocutor- someone who is in the writer's presence" (39). Similarly, Redeker (1984) pointed out that involvement between the speakers and their audience is established through the great reliance on self-references and direct quotes. Chafe, in addition, identified involvement with the context with the spoken mode of language, for he found that self-references, demonstratives, and direct quotes tend to be lacking in the written data.

Discussion of results

Drawing upon research studies in spoken and written English illustrated in detail in Chapter Two, the features which characterize the spoken mode of English were fundamentally attributed to the

limited time available for the speaker and to the speaker's high dependence on context, as well. Speakers, for example, are less likely to use embedded and complicated structures, integrated language, and the detached quality because of the faster pace of spoken language which usually takes place among present communicators. On the other hand, speakers in their day-to-day social communication enormously count on immediate context to express their propositions, thereby producing a chaotic and rambling structures as well as a featureless and formless utterances.

Nevertheless, from a theoretical point of view, it seems fair to emphasize that the one - hour period allotted to the English seniors was relatively adequate to produce well-organized and communicative essays, for the subjects were senior English majors and for they were provided with the information needed for their two-hundred word essay. Hence, what is pertinently questionable here is: Why did the English seniors apply so many features typical of spoken English in their essays?

In fact, the prominent syntactic features of spoken English which were prevalent in the writing of senior English majors can be attributed to the first and second language acquisition universals, simplification strategy, mother tongue interference, and, most importantly, the ignorance of these syntactic features as they are typical of spoken language.

Simplification strategy is a well-attested strategy as in second language learning. Tushyeh (1983 : 146) found that Arab students wrote simple sentences instead of embedded sentences and they resorted to the conjoined analysis of sentences containing relative clauses. For example, avoidance of embedded structures is clearly embodied in the following example:

"The two boys are polite and I talked to them."

Instead of:

" The two boys whom I talked to are polite. "

The extensive application of English oral style strategies in the writing of senior English majors can be attributed, likewise, to transfer from Arabic conversational style and written Arabic style. Barbara Koch (1980), for example, in her analysis of a selection of standard Arabic texts explored repetition as a distinctive feature of written Arabic texts. She claimed that repetition serves the function of making the point of the text (cited in Atari, 1984).

In his study of cohesion and coherence in Arab EFL college students' writing, Khalil (1989) pointed out that repetition may be used as an effective rhetorical device in Arabic but that transfer of this device into the writing of English discourse produces redundant text.

On the other hand, the oral style strategy that is sometimes employed by Arabic as a means of persuasion and emphasis is clearly embodied in the extensive use of "and" and other

coordinating conjunctions. Yorkey (1977) discussed, for instance, the extensive use of coordinations in the written English of Arab students. In fact, he called this, the wa wa method. In this connection, Thompson-Panos and Thomas Ruzic (1983 : 620) says:

College English skills require analysis and subordination of thought, Arabic requires synthesis and coordination. In fact, infrequent use of subordination and overuse of coordination, particularly coordinating conjunctions at the beginning of sentences, comprise the chief characteristic of Arabic speakers' written English. This is largely because Arabic sentences emphasize sequences of events and balance of thought which favor coordination. When transferred to English, they also frequently lack the types of structures such as participial phrases and adverbial clauses that ELS teachers look for on writing classes and university professors expect on campus.

Furthermore, on the basis of the answers of the test conducted to identify the major sources for the dominance of spoken English features in the writing of the senior English majors, the researcher concluded that unawareness of the typical features of each mode of communication was the main reason for the great prevalence of the syntactic features typical of the spoken mode of English in the writing of the senior English majors(see Appendix D).

In fact, it seems fair to say that the results of the test plainly indicated that English seniors had a common output on the general differences between spoken and written English, but by no means

the specific syntactic differences. This is, no doubt, based on the general statements used by the subjects to identify the syntactic differences between spoken and written English. The following are some examples of the general statements given by the subjects:

- 5.1 *Written language is governed by rules, and it is very formal. Spoken language is simplified, and less formal.*
- 5.2 *The writer should start with a good introduction, body, then a conclusion in order to convince his reader in one time. The speaker may start speaking with an opening sentence.*
- 5.3 *Written language is very bookish. Spoken language is the language of people in the streets and other public places.*
- 5.4 *Writers should use correct phrases and grammatical sentences.*
- 5.5 *Written English grammar is very important and coherence and cohesion between ideas is very important.*

Irrelevant answers, furthermore, were another piece of evidence for the manifest ignorance of the syntactic features typical of each mode of communication. The followings are some examples taken from the English seniors' answers:

- 5.6 *In speaking we can use facial expressions and gestures.*
- 5.7 *Speakers can use stress or intonation on what he is saying.*
- 5.8 *The writer has to deal with the absence addressee.*
- 5.9 *It (spoken) is easier than written, that it deals with open conversation.*
- 5.10 *Speakers make use of feedback.*

Conclusions

To conclude, this study has shed some light on some syntactic features typical of spoken English in the writing of senior English majors. It has been obvious that inexperienced-senior writers extensively applied syntactic features typical of spoken English in their essays unconsciously.

Having examined the statistical results, the researcher has come up with the following conclusions:

1. Great occurrences of coordinated constructions, simple sentences, active voice, simple present tense, parallel constructions, sentence fragments, self-references, and demonstrative modifiers.
2. Few occurrences of wh-interrogatives, reduced participles, nominalizations, passive voice, subordinate constructions, and complex and compound complex sentences.

Recommendations

In the light of the preceding discussion and conclusions, the following recommendations are offered:

1. It seems that further research on other different syntactic and lexical features typical of spoken English will reveal more about the language used by English majors in their writing. A better picture will be drawn if researchers use samples of day-to-day conversation to be compared with the writing of English majors.
2. It is obvious that further courses in writing as well as separate courses on the differences between spoken and written English will evidently improve the writing skill of English majors.
3. EFL teachers and instructors are expected to provide their learners with multiple opportunities to improve their learners' writing skill by helping them in pre-writing process collect and focus information through brainstorming, develop, order, and organize their products by giving them the necessary immediate feedback throughout the writing process, and finally help them, evaluate, edit, and clarify what they have already written during the revision stage.
4. EFL learners are encourage to master the grammatical and discourse competence as the former helps them to be competent in using grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics of language, whereas the latter enables to organize their texts cohesively and coherently.

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Appendix : A

The Text : Langston Hughes's " As I grew older"

As I grew older

By Langston Hughes (1902 -1967)

Langston Hughes was born in Jeplin , Missouri in 1902. He graduated from high school and attended Columbia University for a year in 1921. He went to Africa and Europe as a seaman. Then he returned to the US and worked as a busboy in a hotel in Washington DC. He was one of several gifted black writers of the time. He is mostly remembered as a poet of pain, suffering and unfulfilled dreams.

As I grew older

It was a long time ago.
I have almost forgotten my dream.
But it was there then,
In front of me,
Bright like a sun-
My dream.

And then the wall rose,
Rose slowly,
Slowly,
Between me and my dream.
Rose slowly, slowly,
*Dimming** ,
Hiding,
The light of my dream.
Rose until it touched the sky -
The wall.

Shadow.
I am black.
I lie down in the shadow.
No longer the light of my dream before me,
Above me.
Only the thick wall.
Only the shadow.

My hands!
My dark hands!
Break through the wall !
Find my dream!
Help me to *shatter** this darkness,
To *smash** this night,
To break this shadow
Into a thousand lights of sun,
Into a thousand *whirling** dreams
Of sun!

Appendix : B

The Permission of the Department of English

An-Najah
National University



جامعة
النجاح الوطنية

كلية الدراسات العليا

Faculty of Graduate Studies

التاريخ : ٢٠٠٠/٤/٢٩

السيد الدكتور عودة عودة المحترم

تحية طيبة وبعد،،،

الموضوع : تسهيل مهمة الطالب /مالك رشيد صالح نصر الله رقم التسجيل (٩٧١٩٩١٧)

يرجى من حضرتكم تسهيل مهمة الطالب /مالك رشيد صالح نصر الله من طلبة الماجستير
تخصص أساليب تدريس لغة انجليزية في كلية العلوم التربوية . لاجراء دراسته على طلبة قسم اللغة
الانجليزية سنة رابعة واعطاءهم امتحان كتابة.

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم .

تفضلوا بقبول الاحترام ،،،

عميد كلية الدراسات العليا
د. محمد العبد



نسخة : الملف

اشد / م. سير سرور / لم
أرجو شكركم . بارئكم الزم ، عاتق ، لكاتب / م. سرور
يد ج. ر. س. س.
م. سرور / م. سرور
م. سرور / م. سرور
٢٩ . ٤ . ٢٠٠٠

نابلس - ص.ب ٧٠٧ هاتف : ٢٣٨١١١٣/٧ ، ٢٣٨٦٥٨٤ ، ٢٣٧٠٠١٢ (٩٧٢) * فاكسيل : ٢٣٨٧٩٨٢ (٩٧٢) (٩٠٩)
Nablus - P.O.Box 7, 707 Tel. (972) (09) 2370042, 2386584, 2381113/7 * Faaximile : (972) (09) 2387982

Appendix : C

A Sample of the Students' Essays

Freedom and unfulfilled dreams.

As being a black writer Langston Hughes writes his poem 'As I grow older' on the theme of freedom and equality with whites. He has concerns in his life about this issue and he stands for all blacks in this poem. This poem talks about the poet's dream and the obstacles that stand between him and this dream. He uses images to convey his ideas about this dream.

The dream of the poet was a long time ago and he is almost forgotten it. This dream ^{doesn't} ~~didn't~~ come true even though it was clear like a sun. The freedom he dreamt of is for all blacks and he asks their help in order to make it real one. The wall that stands between him and his dream makes a barrier between them that prevents him from seeing the light of the sun that stands for his dream. But the writer despite of this thick and strong wall still have has the hope in making it a real one. By the help of other blacks he will shatter this wall and let the light enter again in his life.

The poet wants to fulfill his dream of freedom that he describes in his poem. He uses images of the wall, light, darkness and shadows. Each of these shadows stands for something, the wall stands for the powers that prevents him from fulfilling his dream, the light stands for the freedom, the darkness for loss of hope and the shadows for the unfulfillment of his dream.

The ^{postponed} ~~post~~-poned dreams and the mixing freedom are the two major themes of this poem. The poet wants to make a real dream and to shatter all walls and obstacles that stands against him.

Isaiah Hassan

9/7/6539

Freedom and unfulfilled dream -

Anyone can have a dream and he will do every thing and go through many problems in order to achieve his own dream. In the poem of Langston Hughes 'As I grew older' he mentions that he has a dream of freedom and unfulfilled dream which can't be deleted. The dream of freedom is a big dream as a person can't live without dream in his life and this dream must not be deleted it must be continuously wanted and search for it. Black people suffered from prejudice and life which lacks of freedom. Langston Hughes is his poem illustrates how the black man live with a dream of freedom.

This poem shows how people 'the black' have a dream and this dream is a big one and they have it from their younger life. The poet says that he has a dream which it must be deleted but ~~others~~ the black people must search for it. There were powers and strong forces that prevent the person from reaching his dream. But as the poet calls his people, the black people must be strong and have the ability to get their dream because if people are united they will achieve what they require without any problem. Hughes's poem illustrates that people must be hand by hand altogether to obtain their needs especially for the black the dream of freedom.

This dream must be deleted and they ^{must} search for what they need in every way that enable them to achieve what they want. Freedom is a big dream and without it the society will be dangerous because it will suffer from shaking. People without freedom will be slaves. Freedom should be a desirable dream for all people and for all races.

Rasem Sirhan
761547003

Freedom and Unfulfilled Dreams

If we connect this poem with "Dream Deferred", we may

have a clear picture about this poem. In "Dream Deferred", the poet

inquires what will happen if the dream postponed. Also, in this poem

'As I grew older', the poet talks about his unfulfilled dreams.

Each one has dreams and hopes, and everyone tries seriously to

accomplish them. Some can, but others can't. Knowing that Hughes

is black, gives us an idea about the dream. To be free, to take your

rights, and to live as human are the black dreams.

When he was a young, he has had a dream. Although it was an old

dream, but it still in front of ^{him} ^{he}. And not only ^{he} remembers it always, but also

^{he} follows all traces to fulfill ^{his} ^{my} dreams. Unfortunately, wills, difficulties and

conditions stood between him and his dreams. But he doesn't give up; he tries again

and again, but the wall is higher; the difficulties are stronger.

Having dream, this insists one to try to fulfill it. Don't imagine that

^{do}
you can take what you want easily.

Unfulfilled Dream

Manal 9814377

Every body has a dream in his life, regardless to the kind of this dream, some dreams come to true, others donot. But the person shouldn't give up the hope. he should try and work to fulfill his dream.

In this poem, we have a black poet who has a dream from his early childhood, but his dream is to achieve freedom, a good life for all blacks and to cease prejudice against them. But when this dream didn't come true the poet deferred his dream, he tries to develop and fulfill it but he couldn't.

The poet through his poem tries to express his feeling about his dream, so he uses images not frank terms, because he feels that he doesn't own his freedom to express his feelings and his dream.

He describes his dream which didn't come true as a wall which represents the whites whom against his freedom; they are strong and have a great power. That they didn't give him his right, he can't see it.

Finally the poet decided to damage this wall which stands against fulfillment of his dream and his freedom.

* As I grew older *

Revised Subject

161532203

Freedom and unfulfilled dreams *

The Poets

Langston Hughes has extra feelings like the romantic poets: he is aware of the problem of discrimination in his Africa between the white and the black people; he suffers not because of this discrimination ~~and that~~ that made his poems coloured with suffering and pain.

And here in this poem "As I grew older" he speaks painfully about this problem which prevented him from the freedom and ~~made~~ ^{has} caused his dreams to be unfulfilled.

Actually this is the problem of all the black people: they ~~dream~~ ^{usually} had dreams in their childhoods but when they grew up they suffer not because it is more difficult to fulfill those dreams but just because they are black and not white.

But the black people will never stop trying to ~~struggle~~ ^{struggle} to make their dreams fulfilled and to remove all the discriminatory rules between the black and the white people to in order to have equality and friendly life.

Through many centuries and the problems or the obstacles that the black people suffer from are not new subject. They suffer from oppression, depression, and discrimination as well as ~~the~~ any ethnic minority.

Literature is one an effective area to expose this subject. People who don't can't achieve their aims or their ambitions in real life, they escape to dream to fulfill that ambitions. Freedom and unfulfilled dream become an obvious and dominant theme in Black Literature.

The poet in his poem describes to us his dream of equality and getting rid of discrimination or prejudice against black people. The poet has dream but the obstacles or the barriers appear as a wall. This wall was is strong enough to ~~for~~ hinder the dream. The poet sits in the shadow of his dream which indicates that he can't sit in the light to achieve his dream. At this moment he recognizes that it is impossible to achieve his dream. The poet decides to break down the wall in order to achieve his ambition. He wants to make change to replace light instead of dark, ~~ignora~~ knowledge instead of ignorance.

The poet calls for equality and justice. He calls implicitly ~~or~~ for freedom of all people regardless to their race or colour. He says that everybody has the right to fulfill his dreams. Although the obstacles are strong, we should work hard to destroy that wall which stands in our ~~achieving~~ ~~the~~ way of our ambitions.

Alber Al-masri

Freedom and unfulfilled dream

The poet is a black writer who is calling for the freedom of the black. The black suffer from the ~~prejudice~~ prejudice of the white people.

This freedom becomes a major theme in most of the black writings. Whether it is a poem, a novel or a short story.

Langston deals with this theme in this poem. His dream is to get his freedom which faces a lot of obstacles and barriers. These obstacles are like walls which differ and shatter his dream. But he will never lay down and give up, he will struggle keep struggling in order to overcome all the obstacles and achieve his dream.

Bothaina Mohammed Ali
940997803

Freedom and Unfulfilled Dreams

The poem "As I grew older", illustrates the conditions and the look to the black people. There is a discrimination between white and black people; white people found more chances in life, there is no obstacles for them, while black people are treated badly, they face many problems in all areas of life because of their colour. Langston Hughes in his poem tries to express his feelings towards this issue and explain to the out world their suffering and pains from the treatment of white people, he refuse this discrimination and tries by his writings to express his attitudes. Black people want their freedom, they want to be equal with white people; moreover, they want to take their chances in life as others, but unfortunately their dreams are unfulfilled, they can't change the look to them, they try, but there is no results.

Our poet from his early age dreams of freedom, he entered the public life and work to break all the obstacles and to prove that he can do what white people do, this was his dream, but he failed because of his black colour, shadow and darkness. There is a strong wall between him and his dreams, and this wall is his darkness which prevent light from reaching him. The poet has determined to get his freedom, he will by his black hands shatter this wall and achieve his dreams, he wants ~~us~~ ^{us} to help him to shatter the wall in order to live with his freedom and dignity, he wants to change this darkness to light, & to shatter the wall into many lights of sun; so he will not stand and watch, but he ~~will~~ wants to achieve something to move forward in his dreams.

1- ~~Poets tell~~ them Freedom and Unfilled Dream.

Blacks in general have many problems specially when they dealt with whites. These problems in the past were made a big problems but today, they came to be solved not but not completely. Poets who took these job which is solving blacks problems. They composed poems and essays to defend them and to express their thoughts which are depressed. Here we took a poem by a black poet who is Langston Hughes in his poem "I, As I grow older."

Hughes in his poem he tells us about his dream which is unfilled. This dream is to get freedom for all blacks in order to have an identity. It is clear from the poem ~~is told~~ that the poet is, old when he said "I was a long time ago". The poet his dream was to get freedom to be an equal with whites. He faced many problems from being a black. He said that his dream which is freedom was not fulfilled because whites prevent it from achieving. He said my dream was with me from when I was a young but alas it will not be achieved. But the poet insisted in keeping his dream although whites make a barrier obstacle in front of them. The poet has a hope that he will damage the wall which whites put and they will reach to the knowledge. But at the end it is clear that the poet's dream will not be achieved because the obstacles are stronger than his hand, and because he asked for help from others to destroy the barrier between him and the knowledge, experience. Also the poet said that his dream which will not be true only dream.

Freedom and unfulfilled dreams

Langston Hughes, as a poet of pain and suffering of the black people, in his poem "As I grow older" tries to show and present the dreams and the hopes of the black who live very harsh life and suffer more due to the racial discrimination which they face from the white because of their color. Hughes in his poem presents a major theme and dream of for the all black which is the dream of the freedom, and it's of course his same dream as a black man. The poet presents the problem of the black as a personal problem, so he tells us about his dream from when he was a young boy, the dream it was the freedom dream which the writer compares it with the sun light of the sun, he sees the freedom as a light, but this dream there is a barrier or a wall in front of it as the wall which prevents the sun light to reach to someone or place. The poet gives us very beautiful images to express his theme, for example, he says that he lives in darkness like the shadow, and this because he is a black man, and the black live in a shadow because they can't do what the white can. The poet compares the white people who prevent the black from their rights and stand in their in their hopes, road as the wall which prevents the sun light to reach to the rose, they prevent them to ^{achieve} their dreams. But, in spite of all difficulties the poet emphasises that he will achieve his dream by his black people help who will break the wall which the white made, he says that all black people will gathered to break this wall and to reach to their dream of freedom and light.

Appendix : D

A Sample of the Students' Answers

What are the major syntactic differences between spoken and written English?

When we speak English we don't have to care so much of grammar. For e.g. we can say at the beginning of the sentence the subject and then we can say he or she or sometimes we omit the name because the listener in implicit or explicit way he can know. We don't need to say a complete sentence subject, verb, object. We can only say subject and verb and the listener can know what the speaker means through the context. ~~The~~ ^{the} speaker can use gesture to and he also can change his tone of speech to know which part he likes to emphasize. In spoken English the speaker speaks his voice so some word not appears and some articles, whether it's definite or indefinite. ^{telling} There is no need to connect sentences together.

Written English grammar is very important. ~~There~~ and coherence and cohesive between ideas is very important. Using transitional phrases to connect between ideas and paragraphs. ~~every~~ spelling and complete sentences is very important too. When we write we suppose that the reader has no background so we will write it clearly but in speaking the speaker has some idea.

Written language is governed by rules, and it is very formal. Spoken language is simplified, streamlined, and less formal. Spoken language can be uncensored, and spoken in more relaxed settings. Written language is very bookish. Spoken language is the language of people in the streets and other public places. Both spoken and written languages are incompatible, and any fusion between them is by no means an utter perfection. Written language has to conform to criteria of syntax, grammar, and other techniques of writing such as punctuation, capitalization, cohesion, and organization.

There are many differences between spoken and written English. Spoken English ~~doesn't need~~ it is done immediately and by it the speaker can do the corrections if he makes any mistakes. He can emphasize on what he thinks is the most or less important in what he is saying. He can do that by his stress or intonations on what he is saying. Speaker doesn't concern with the syntactic mistakes he does in his speech; because he is in a hurry and doesn't draw much attention to it if he makes a mistake or not "grammatical".

Written English can be different as the writer concerns of every thing he writes. He concerns with the grammatical mistakes and care of that not to happen. Writers draw attention very much to what is written. Especially the speaker doesn't concern with word order, subject verb agreement or any thing else of the grammatical mistakes. When a person is speaking he concerns too much of the content not on the grammatical form of what he is saying. Conversely, in writing we write and try to make what we are writing clear & help our readers to understand what is being written by drawing attention to the words order, coherence, and the organization of our ideas.

In Spoken English you can show importance ~~of the words~~
~~you're speaking by in~~

spoken English

* stress and intonation are used
to show importance of words or phrases.

* Your audience can ask you for any kind of clarification they need, because you are in front of them.

* You can repeat

* You can use ~~the~~ informal language that does not follow strict grammatical rules.

* There is no rules for speaking; to say this before that, to use topic sentence or thesis statement...

* ~~Native speakers of English always~~ when we listen to native speakers of English, we can feel hesitation in their speaking.

written English

* you have to be clear because your audience are not near to you. They can not ask you for clarification.

* you can't repeat ^{your} or words or phrases.

* you have to use correct and grammatical sentences.

* you have to follow rules of ^{writing}

* In most cases you need to use formal language.

* You can not show hesitation.

547439

What syntactic differences.

⊕ Spoken

* Omission Deletion of the auxiliaries

* Sometimes, there is, no V-S ^{agreement.} agreement

usage of informal rules

NO Complication in the word order

e.g. "To put v. before the subject"

"or to use a noun as a verb"
use a modal or an auxiliary as
a main verb.

* ~~R-speaker is not restrained~~

* using of verb to be "be"

as to mean is.

written.

* Retain Auxiliaries
are retained.

* V-S Concord must
be existed.

* Rules must be formal

* Some this complication
might be there.

* no such case.

What are the major syntactic differences between spoken & written English?

Spoken

1) Doesn't need, sometimes, order in ideas.

2) No punctuation.

3) Uses facial expressions, gestures.

4) You can move from subject to another.

5) You can use stress and intonation during speaking.

6) You can repeat what you have said if the listener asks you to do.

7) You get a feedback from the listener.

8) You have to be clear.

Doesn't need knowledge in spelling.

Written

1- order is needed w/ thoughts and sentences are needed.

2- Punctuation is required.

3- Doesn't use them.

4- You can't. The logical arrangement in ideas of the same topic or subject should take place in writing.

5- You can't.

6- There is no repetition.

7- You may get it back or may not.

8- Need right spelling and writing (composition).

What are the major syntactic differences between ?

General statements:
fixed and strict rules

Written
- we have fixed and strict rules.
- Writers should fix the suitable and correct tense to every event he is mentioning.

General statements:
(also)

Spoken
- The speaker in a formal way can use only 2 tenses for 2 different things.

Good spelling

- Writer should fix a good spelling to his written piece in order to be understood.

- No effort is done. The effort will be concentrated on forming an understood sentence or even phrases.

Expressing feelings

- Writer should express his ideas and feeling in appropriate way to leave an effect in the reader.

Spoken

- The speaker may use a gesture, body movement, facial expression to show his feeling or his opinion towards an idea or a statement.

pay attention to the punctuation

- The writer should pay attention to the punctuation of the written piece in order to not to confuse the reader and make him receive the wrong attitude, feeling, or opinion. So, ideas should be carried in a clear way.

Intonation

- The speaker shouldn't worry about something like this, because he can simply use his intonation, stress and his pitch to show his opinion, feeling and etc.

Organization

Introduction
Body
Conclusion

- The writer should start with a good introduction, body then conclusion in order to convince his reader in one time.

- The speaker may start speaking with an opening sentences like "Gloabale sentence" and withdraw with "bye".

Good luck.

Syntactic Differences:

- | <u>Spoken</u> | <u>Written</u> |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 1- Worries Careless of structure | - cares of structure |
| 2- No word ordered | - word-ordered |
| 3- No emphasis on spelling, punctuation, grammar | - emphasis on that |
| 4- No technical devices used | - technical characteristics |
| 5- Have many structural errors | - has less structural errors |
| 6- No stress and intonation are used | - stress and intonation are used |
| 7- You can interfere by asking to repeat | - you can't interfere |
| 8- No Cohesion or Coherence | - Cohesion and coherence |
| 9- No chronological order of ideas | - chronological order |

What are the major ^{syntactic} differences between spoken and written English?

Spoken English :

In Spoken English we ~~don't~~ deal with grammar as an important feature of communication. Firstly we ~~intake~~ interest in the meaning and the idea of ~~what we~~ the subject we speak about more than to be interest in its syntactic features.

Written English :

In written English we deal with grammar as an essential and basic feature in teaching or learning the language. When the teacher writes a sentence for example on the board, he wants his students to know ~~the meaning and spelling~~ firstly its grammar in addition to its meaning ~~and~~ order and its spelling.

What are the major syntactic differences?

The main syntactic differences between spoken and written differences in English are.

Spoken

- informal English
- phrases.
- Everyday English
- asking questions in such way: "How is it with you today?" asking about the his going on in life.
- the reason of not using of the whole order or complete sentences with S.V.O, is the existence of other techniques which helps in conveying the meaning.
- the ability of paraphrasing what is being said is existed →

written.

- formal English.
- full structured sentences
- bookish English
- If someone wanted to ask another such question he/she would say "How are you?" using the full order of asking a question.
- the opposite happens here, in other words, the written language is more passive than the spoken one, which means that the message should be conveyed through written language only.
- while the it is not possible to paraphrase what is written.

Appendix : E
A sample of data analysis.

Thirayya Qadri

As I grew Older

self-reference

wh-Interrogative

* badly formed compound complex sentence
As we know Hughes is a black writer who writes poems of pain and suffering and this is one of the most important poems which talks about his and all the black dream of liberty and freedom. As we noticed that the dream of this poet is grown with him since he was young till he becomes a great poet, his dream of freedom was always in front of him wherever he goes ^(active c.) like the sunshine after it sets, the poet makes many symbols in this poem as the white people ^(wh-interrogative) who stands against this dream and not to be ^(passive c.) achieved, like a strong and thick wall which can't be destroyed easily, this wall is becoming higher and higher till it reaches the sky, that huge wall prevented the sun to shine on the black, no longer he sees his dream ^(subordinator) because of that wall which prevented that, he only sees shadow and dark, no light ^(passive c.) is seen.
Finally the poet decided to break this shadow with his black hands to let the light enter and to be ^(passive voice) seen by the black, he decided to destroy this wall which prevented that light to enter, he insisted to break it to find his dream ^(wh-interrogative) which disappeared for long time and to make the light covers all the blacks.

Mehal Salih.

Freedom and Unfulfilled dream

(demonstrative m)

(present active)

wh- interrogative

In this poem, the poet tries to express his feeling which is full of pains, suffering, unfulfilled dreams. The poet tries to break the restrictions which stand between his dream and him. The poet feels with black people, how they suffer every day from lack of employment, lack of money and education.

black people suffer from the restrictions and the prejudice. For example the best work is available for white people but not for black people.

The poet doesn't accept this position and he tries to make something in order to be free. For this, he wants all black people to stand with him and help him in order to change the attitude of the world upon the black people and to show that the black people are ordinary people.

He wants black people to be united. The poet uses a symbol for liberty which is the sun. There is a wall stand between him and his dream. And because of this wall, his dream didn't fulfill.

The poet encourage black people to revolt against the white and achieve their right by different way and the light to this is the unity. The poet express the suffering in different ways, for example he resembles it of darkness, night wall, shadow; parallel constructions, run-on sentences, no connectives.

In first stanza, the poet says that his dream "freedom" is clear like a sun in the sky. Every body knows that black people are usual people as white and they should achieve the independence and liberty, and their rights.

Finally, his dream wasn't achieved.

past passive

Freedom and Unfulfilled Dreams

(simple sentences), (present active)

The poem As I grew older, ^(much more) illustrate the conditions and the look to the black people. ^(much more) There is a discrimination between white and black people. ^(passive) White people ^(present active) found more chances in life. ^(passive) There is no obstacles for them. ^(present active) While black people ^(passive) are treated badly. ^(present active) They face many problems in all areas of life because of their colour. ^(present active) Langston Hughes in his poem ^(present active) tries to express his feelings towards this issue and ^(present active) explain to the out world their suffering and pains from the treatment of white people. ^(present active) He refuse this discrimination and ^(present active) tries by his writings to express his attitudes: Black people ^(present active) want their freedom. ^(present active) They want to be equal with white people. ^(present active) Moreover, they want to take their chances in life as others. ^(passive) But unfortunately their dreams are unfulfilled. ^(present active) They don't change the look to them. ^(present active) They try, but there is no results. ^(simple sentence, run-on-sentence, parallel construction)

Our poet from his early age ^(simple present) dreams of freedom. ^(present active) He entered the public life and work to break all the obstacles and to prove that he can do what white people do. ^(present active) This was his dream, but he ^(present active) failed because of his black colour, shadow and darkness. ^(present active) There is a strong wall between him and his dreams, and this wall is his darkness which prevent light from reaching him. ^(present active) The poet has determined to get his freedom. ^(present active) He will by his black hands shatter this wall and achieve his dreams. ^(present active) He wants our help to shatter the wall in order to live with his freedom and dignity. ^(present active) He wants to change this darkness to light, & to smash the wall into many lights of sun. ^(parallel construction) So he will not stand and watch, but he ^(present active) wants to achieve something to move forward in his dreams.

{ run on sentence, badly formed complex and compound complex sentence }
{ sentence fragments, simple present tense, and sentences }
parallel construction, passive of process, etc.

Revised Budget

161582203

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Freedom and unfulfilled dreams

The Poets

(5. present) active

Langston Hughes has extra feelings like the romantic poets (i.e. he is ^{passive} aware of the problem of discrimination in his Africa between the white and the black people (i.e. he is ^{passive} suffering) a lot of because of this discrimination and ~~that~~ ^{that} ~~make~~ ^{is} his poems coloured with suffering and pain.

(badly formed long sentences, Run on sentences, fragmentations, etc.)

And ^{neglectment} ~~here~~ in ^(demonstrative m) ~~this~~ poem "As I grew older,"
he ^{is present active} speaks ^(demonstrative m) ~~this~~ problem which ^{is intelligible}
^(is past/active) ~~prevented~~ him from the freedom and ~~made~~
^(simple past) ~~caused~~ his dreams to ^(passive voice) ~~be~~ ^{unfulfilled}.

Complex sentence

Actually this is the problem of all the black people; they ~~are~~ ^{usually} ^(s. post.) ^{active} ^{dreamers} in their childhoods, but ^(coordinator) ^(subordinate) ^(s. post.) ^{active} they ^{grow} up ^{to} ^{not} ^{to} ^{fulfill} ^{these} ^{dreams} & ^{just} ^{because} ^{they} ^{are} ^{black} ^{and} ^{not} ^{white}.

coordinator

- simple future/active

But the black people will never stop trying to ~~to get their dreams~~ ^{simple dreams} make their dreams fulfilled and ^(and for) to remove all the discriminative rules between the black and the white people, to in order to have equality and directly life.

Papia 961988003

^{compound sentence}
"As I grew older" ^(co-ordinative) is a poem ^(present active) written by Langston Hughes ^(S. past) who is a black writer ^(present active) and he is a poet of pain and suffering, he wrote ^(S. past) this poem about freedom and unfulfilled dream or the postponed dreams and promises.

^{badly formed compound and compound complex sentences}
It's very clear from the poem that the poet ^(S. past) has a dream ^(co-ordinative) from long time ago ^(wh-interrogative) when he was young ^(S. past) his dream was clear and bright ^(co-ordinative) and he wanted to achieve his dream and make it true ^(co-ordinative) but suddenly a wall stood high between the poet and his dream ^(S. past) his dream didn't see the light & he seeks to see the poet's dream ^(passive voice) was unfulfilled ^(passive voice) and was unachieved ^(passive voice) because of the wall that hide the light and bring the darkness and shadow with it. ^(S. present) This wall is an image in fact ^(S. present) carries beyond it the underlying meaning ^(wh-interrogative) this wall is a representative of white people ^(wh-interrogative) who treat blacks very badly ^(wh-interrogative) and who discriminate between whites and blacks ^(wh-interrogative) blacks. This wall also indicate the power that those people have over blacks ^(wh-interrogative) and indicate the barriers and obstacles ^(wh-interrogative) that is put in front of blacks ^(wh-interrogative) in order to deprive them from achieving and fulfilling their dreams and wishes. The wall ^(wh-interrogative) was very thick and very strong that stops ^(wh-interrogative) the poet from fulfilling his dream ^(wh-interrogative) which is getting his freedom ^(wh-interrogative).

^{past} The poet refused and rejected ^(past) to stop doing nothing ^(past) and he asks his hand his black hands ^(wh-interrogative) which in real mean the hands of black people all to gather and unite ^(present active) and break the wall to see the light again ^(present active) and to break the shadow and darkness that the wall make ^(present active) and to achieve ^(present active) and fulfill his dream which is getting the freedom of the black people ^(present active) and stop humiliating and insulting them and treat them very well equal to other people.

simple present sentences / active

representation.

simple past

الملخص باللغة العربية

بعض السمات النحوية الخاصة باللغة الإنجليزية المحكية في كتابة طلبة
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية / سنة رابعة في جامعة النجاح الوطنية

إعداد : مالك رشيد صالح نصر الله

إشراف : د. فواز عقل

د. حنا طروشية

حاولت هذه الدراسة تحديد بعض السمات النحوية الخاصة باللغة المحكية في
كتابة طلبة قسم اللغة الإنجليزية / سنة رابعة في جامعة النجاح الوطنية . وقد هدفت هذه
الدراسة أيضاً الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية:

* هل يستخدم طلبة قسم اللغة الإنجليزية / سنة رابعة سمات خاصة باللغة المحكية في
كتابتهم ؟

* ما هي أكثر هذه السمات تكراراً في كتابتهم ؟

* ما هي المصادر الرئيسة وراء شيوع هذه السمات في كتابتهم ؟

وقد تكون مجتمع الدراسة من 51 طالباً وطالبة في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
/ سنة رابعة في جامعة النجاح الوطنية . أما عينة الدراسة فقد اشتملت على
45 طالباً وطالبة كانوا يحضرون مساقاً متقدماً في اللغة الإنجليزية - منهجية
البحث العلمي .

لقد قام الباحث ، وذلك اعتماداً على الأدب التربوي السابق ، بتطوير معايير
خاصة باللغة المحكية تضمنت 18 بنداً موزعة على ثلاث مجالات وذلك من أجل تحليل

كتابة الطلبة التي اعتمدت على تحليل قصيدة قصيرة للشاعر لانجستون هيوز (Langston Hughes) . وقد استخدم الباحث لهذا الغرض النسب المئوية والمتوسطات الحسابية .

وقد خلصت الدراسة إلى النتائج التالية:

* تكرارات عالية من الجمل المعطوفة و الجمل البسيطة و صيغ المبني للمعلوم والأفعال المضارعة و البسيطة و التراكيب المتماثلة و أجزاء الجمل و ضمائر الحاضر و أسماء الإشارة .

* تكرارات قليلة من الأسماء الموصولة و أسماء الفاعل و المفعول و الجمل الاسمية و صيغ المبني للمجهول و الجمل المسندة و الجمل المعقدة و الجمل المركبة المعقدة .

وعلى ضوء هذه النتائج أوصى الباحث بإجراء دراسات أخرى على سمات نحوية ومعجمية مختلفة وذلك للكشف عن طبيعة اللغة المستخدمة في كتابة طلبة قسم اللغة الإنجليزية . كما أوصى الباحث بطرح مسابقات إضافية في الكتابة بشكل عام و حول اللغة المحكية والمكتوبة بشكل خاص وذلك لتطوير مهارة الكتابة عند طلبة قسم اللغة الإنجليزية