Terbit online pada laman web jurnal : **http://e-journal.sastra-unes.com/index.php/JILP**

Fakultas Sastra Universitas Ekasakti	**JURNAL JILP** (Jurnal Ilmiah Langue and Parole) Volume 7 Nomor 2	
	ISSN : 2581-0804 (Media Cetak)	**E-ISSN : 2581-1819 (Media Online)**
Received: 29-04-2024	Revised: 30-04-2024	Available online: 01-06-2025

"Sentence Boundary Errors": Diagnosing the EFL Students' Sentence-Level Inaccuracies in the EFL Writing Classrooms

[*1]Yalmiadi, [2]Yohannes Telaumbanua
*[*1]Engish Department, Faculty of Law, Humanity and Social Science, Universitas Dharma Andalas*
yalmiadi@gmail.ac.id
[2]English Department, Politeknik Negeri Padang, yohannespnp@yahoo.com

**Corresponding Author*
Yalmiadi
*[*1]Engish Department, Faculty of Law, Humanity and Social Science, Universitas Dharma Andalas*
yalmiadi@gmail.ac.id

Abstract

The syntactic complexities of English sentence structures induced the EFL students' sentence-level accuracies senseless. The Sentence's Boundary Errors were, therefore, the major essences of this study. This study aimed at diagnosing the 2nd-year PNP ED students' SBEs as the writers of English Paragraph Writing at the Writing II course. Qualitatively, both observation and documentation were the instruments of collecting the data while the 1984 Miles & Huberman's Model and the 1973 Corder's Clinical Elicitation were employed to analyse the data as regards the SBEs produced by the students. The findings designated that the major sources of the students' SBEs were the subordinating clauses (noun, adverb and relative clauses), that-clauses, participle phrases, infinitive phrases, lonely verb phrases, afterthought, appositive fragments, fused sentences and comma splices. As a result, the SBEs flopped to communicate complete thoughts because they were grammatically incorrect; lacked a subject, a verb; the independent clauses ran together without properly using punctuation marks, conjunctions or transitions; and two or more independent clauses were purely joined by commas but failed to consider using conjunctions. In conclusion, the success of the EFL students in constructing sentences rests upon the knowledge of complex syntactic structures through transformational grammar.

Keywords: SBEs, diagnosing, EFL students, sentence-level inaccuracies.

I INTRODUCTION

The raisons d'être for proposing such an idea intensely rested on the eight leading causes. *Firstly*, the EFL students unconsciously *assumed* that the following examples, "*getting tired of doing the Reading tasks*; *watching the El Clasico match*," are complete sentences expressing or bringing up the complete thoughts, though they have not yet represented the complete thoughts due to lacking the *subjects* and *verbs* or *predicates*. *Secondly*, they frequently *preconceive* that those that begin with the capital letters and end with the period/full stop [**.**], exclamation mark [**!**], and question mark [**?**] are complete sentences. "*Write to anybody for a month. Why not urging the Dean***?**, or *Stop smoking***!**" are cases in point of the EFL students' preconceived notions of capital letters and punctuation towards complete sentences. *Thirdly*, the dependent clauses (adverb, adjective, and noun clauses), e.g., "*as though they have known the correct answer, which I explained last night, why they opposed that a lot,*" shaped their propositions that the given instances are complete sentences explicating the comprehensive thoughts. Furthermore, *fourthly*, they suppose that those beginning with the *that-clause*, e.g., "*that she can drive her car tonight*; *that this might be the beginning of their lives,*" are complete sentences because the supposed made-up sentences are followed by the main verbs, *drive* and *be*, in the sentences. *Fifthly*, the long sentences, followed by nouns and typically comprising one or more explaining phrases or subordinating or dependent clauses after them, are reckoned as sentences.

Sixthly, *lonely verbs* such as " *but took* the most strict decision," *afterthoughts* like "*for instances*, tiger, lion, panther, cheetah, jaguar, and black leopard," *infinitive phrases* such as "*to deliver* a political welcoming speech amidst the civil unrest in the Western part of Yemen," *verb phrases* such as "*make* an awe-inspiring political speech," and *participle phrase fragments* like "*tied* the knot with Nadyia three years ago or *explaining* the pseudo-history of the discovery of the American continent," *appositives* such as "*the girl with the longest blonde hair* (he will tie the knot with Jane next month, the *girl with the longest blonde hair*), *her favourite film* (Avatar, *her favourite film*, will be aired in all theatres throughout the nationwide), according to the EFL students' best language knowledge of English, are complete sentences explicating the complete thoughts. However, grammarians—Alexander (1999); Altenberg & Vago (2010); Badalamenti & Henner-Stanchina (2000); Beaumont & Granger (1992); Eastwood (1999); Murphy (2012); Swan & Walter (2011); Swick (2005); Vince (2008), to name just a few—linguistically-grammatically assert that a complete sentence requires three imperative units, namely, a subject, a verb/predicate, and (if possible, a direct or indirect object, adverbs of time and places) elucidating a complete thought (Azar, 1998, 1996, 1992).

Seventhly, another EFL student's shabby point is that they tend to write the longest sentences as evidence that they can provide the brightest ideas to their readers. For the EFL students themselves, the weakness is the *emblem of their strength* in extensively communicating their feelings, beliefs, and ideas. They are very complacent in writing long sentences, and, indeed, they need to be thumbed up. The EFL students' motive is pretty good! Although this may be true, the longest independent clauses become naturally incomprehensible and perplexing to the reader's appreciation. The longest sentences tie the readers themselves in a knot (Silyn-Roberts, 1996). *Eighthly*, they just emphasized using commas in joining two or more independent clauses. In contrast, conjunctions' roles as the essential elements of connecting the main clauses explaining the complete thoughts are normally skipped for an unclear reason. The commas and conjunctions identified are ignored unconsciously (Hacker, 2003).

The EFL students' sentence errors arose due to a lack of sensitivity and understanding of rules detailing how to structure the sentences grammatically and syntactically. The sentences produced were not actual sentences due to the lack of one of the three units of the sentences, namely, a subject, verb/predicate, and a complete thought. Likewise, the constructed sentences ran on because they ignored putting one or more of the conjunctions (FANBOYS stands for "For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So"), punctuations (, /; /-), and or transition/linking words/phrases in

developing the coherent logical arguments. Consequently, the SBEs fragment or break the ideas into pieces, fail to show the relationships between two or more clauses explaining complete thoughts, and, of course, this cannot be disavowed that the crimes flop to send meaningful messages to a reader even if they are cut-and-dried states or homebred matters which are commonly used by majority incredibly well-experienced writers for stylistic purposes (Writingexplained, 2019). Under those circumstances, the authors diagnosed the cruxes of the SBEs in the 2nd-year students' English Paragraph Writing **(**EPW). The proposed formulated research question was about how the cruxes of the SBEs significantly distort the EFL students' EPW flopping to send a meaningful message to a reader. This research aimed to diagnose the cruxes of the students' SBEs in the EFL students' EPW.

SENTENCE BOUNDARY ERRORS: REVIEWS OF THE LINGUISTIC-GRAMMATICAL UNITS OF THE NATURE OF A SENTENCE

In linguistics, grammarians—Eastwood (1994 p. 317–356), Greenbaum (1996 p. 88–305), Biber et al. (1999–2007 p. 117-875), Jespersen (2006 p. 74, 78, 102, 299–317), Seaton & Mew (2007 p. 139–146), Swick (2009 p. 76), Lunsford & O'Brien (2011 p. 205–327), to name just a few, have *traditionally* and *progressively* long governed the compositions of the hierarchical units of the English phoneme/grapheme, morpheme, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourse in a natural language. The government of these hierarchical units, of course, directly impinges on the studies of the rules of phonology, morphology, and syntax, which are regularly complemented by phonetics (a speech sound), semantics (meaning of words and sentences), pragmatics (dealing with the meanings and effects that come from the use of language in a particular context), and discourse analysis, the methods used to *textually* and *contextually* diagnose one's larger spoken, written, vocal, or sign language use, or any significant semiotic events (LSA, 2016, pp. 1–3; Akmajian et al., 2010 p. 13–359). Consequently, the objectives of the formal-realistic outputs of the structural rules of the phoneme/grapheme, morpheme, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences are to systematise and standardise the linguistic-grammatical behaviours of both groups of native and non-native writers' English sentence-level accuracies and their meanings conveyed. At the practice or application (use) level, the systematised and long-established sets of structural rules governing the composition of these hierarchical units are consciously or unconsciously ignored. The ignorance and avoidance of these structural rules result in blurring the gaps between the sentence-level accuracies and the meaning communicated. The *blurriness* is then theoretically known as "sentence boundary errors" (Blocher, 2019, pp. 1–3) or popularly termed "*sentence crimes* (Lunsford & O'Brien, 2011, pp. 205–327). The author himself names the errors as "*half-dead-alive sentences*."

Theoretical Rules for "*Diagnosing* and *Correcting*" the Sentence Errors

Types of Sentences

Whatever the terms are applied to dub the sentence errors, the central points of interest in recovering the students from their critical sentence fragments, run-on and fused sentences, and comma splices are the mastery, the understanding, and the accuracy of linguistically-grammatically applying the cruxes of the deep-seated theories of the phrases, clauses, sentences, and complex structures of English. Exclusively, Frank (1972a, p. 1-171); Frank (1972b p. 220); Azar (1989, p. 238-347); Lane & Lange (1999, p. 68-130) have traditionally laid down the fundamental tenets of a sentence. In essence, a sentence's deep-seated creeds (theories) are linguistically and grammatically delineated in one of two ways. The first way is by "*meaning*", where a sentence encompasses a "*complete thought*", producing either abstract or concrete ideas, notions, beliefs, statements, etc. Such a definition is, however, considered unsatisfactory due to the abstraction of the complete thought itself. The second one is by "*function*." This definition has satisfactorily answered the question of what makes a thought complete or responded to someone's doubts about the absent-mindedness of the complete thought. By

function, the definition regularly proposes the structural functions of a "*subject*" and a "*predicate*" in a sentence. Comprehensively, both functional and formal features of a sentence have a full prediction consisting of a subject and a predicate, which S+V+O symbolises: N1 + V + N2, or NP + VP (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 121- 134; Frank, 1972a, p. 220).

The definitions, afterwards, engender the classifications of a sentence by "*types*" and another by the *number of formal predictions*. The first classification of the simple sentence by *type* is the *declarative mood*. This type of sentence heavily relies on providing information, communicating facts and opinions, allowing or offering a reader or listener to recognise something specific, and uttering a direct statement. The second is the *interrogative grammatical mood* features the form of *yes/no* →ask whether or not something is the case). Moreover, *wh-questions* →specifying the information being required. The third one is *imperative (Commands, Requests) mood,* a sentence whose syntax differs between affirmative and negative imperative (prohibitive mood) sentences. Linguistically, the form of the declarative mood is often called "*cohortative* or *jussive*". Principally, ordering, requesting or advising the listener to do or not to do something are the primary usages of the declarative sentence. The last type is *an exclamatory sentence*/*Exclamation*, an informal, forceful and emphatic expression whose primary goal is to express excitement and intense emotion. These examples, 'What an excellent talk it was!, What a beautiful lip she has! How handsome he is! and how politely they behaved! are the "*types*" of exclamatory sentences (Frank, 1972a, pp. 220-222; Austin, 1962; Brown & Levinson, 1978, pp. 56-310).

On the contrary, the classifications of the sentences by *number of formal predictions* are the first is *simple sentences*, whose forms are declarative, questions, requests, and exclamations; acquire only one full prediction in the form of independent clauses containing one complete subject and predicate as in "*the UK PM's political speech shocked the 2019 G-20 Osaka Summit*." The second is a *compound sentence*, which does not take a dependent clause and acquires at least two dependent clauses, as in "*America and China are economically fighting,* ***but*** *they still maintain the stability of world economy*." The two or more clauses are usually compounded with coordinating conjunction with or without a comma, semicolon serving as conjunction, and colon modifying the first sentence. In other words, a compound sentence joins two sentences/clauses co-ordinately into one by punctuation alone (Today is downpour**;** all flights are canceled), punctuation and a conjunctive adverb (She learnt hard**;** consequently she passed the test), or coordinate conjunctions of FANBOYS (she promised to be on time**,** *but* she finally breaks it) (Rozakis, 2003, pp. 167-168; Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 121-134; Frank, 1972a, pp. 222-223).

The third classification of a sentence is a complex sentence. This sentence has two or more full predictions. One of them is an independent/main clause similar to the form of the simple sentence, and the other is a dependent/subordinate clause. A dependent clause contains a whole subject and predicate and begins with a word attached to the main clause. 'Darkezi Telaumbanua wrote the oratorical speech which the Prime Minister delivered' is a form of a complex sentence. The last is the sentence consisting of two/or more independent/main clauses and one/or more dependent clauses are widely known as a compound-complex sentence as in 'The Presidential Guards team prepares the presidential official state visit security system and they closely guard him until he safely arrives in the country he visits.' The independent/main clause stems from classifying sentences by types attached to the subordinate clause to form a complex and compound-complex sentence. The conjunctions' basic principles tether sentential classifications, transition words and phrases, and adverbial, adjective, and noun clauses (Rozakis, 2003, pp. 167-168; Frank, 1972a, pp. 222-223). For more details, see the following tables.

COORDINATION within sentences with "***and***, ***or***, ***but***"	
Words	She rides **slowly** *and* **carefully**
Phrases	**Bored by the talks**, but **not willing to go away**, he walked out of the house to smoke
Clauses	My mom said ***that*** **she was sleepy** and

***<u>that</u>* she was going to bed**

SUBORDINATION within sentences: ***nominal***, ***adjectival***, or ***adverbial elements***			
	Nominal Function	Adjectival Function	Adverbial Function
Words	**Jogging** is enjoyable.	He has an **expansive** car.	He ate **greedily**.
Phrases	Gerund: **swimming in the sea** is cool. Infinitive: **to swim in the sea** is cool.	Prepositional: The jewellery **in a box** is expensive. Participle: the man **speaking to the headmaster** is my friend.	Prepositional: she comes **against her will**.
Clauses	**That the poor man's son** becomes a president surprised the world.	The woman **who is crossing the street** was my mother.	They came **even though they were unwilling**.

The mastery of the major principles of the independent clauses is, thirdly, the easiest way out of misconstruing or incorrectly constructing the sentences. The correct grammatical combination of two or more full predictions of these two clauses results in a single sentence expressing a complete thought. The significant principles of the independent clauses are full predictions, which are co-ordinately joined by mere punctuations, punctuation plus coordinate conjunctions, punctuation: semicolon plus conjunctive adverbs and then a comma. Conjunctive adverbs express addition, examples, cause-effect, contrast, chronology, and conclusion. Conjunctive adverbs occupy the three possible positions (Initial Position: I am sick; therefore, I take medicine. Mid-Position: I am sick; I, therefore, take medicine. Final Position: I am sick; I take medicine, therefore. The final position is only in a short clause) (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 131-133; Frank, 1972a, pp. 223-227).

Hereinafter, abridgment in clauses or, widely known as elliptical construction, serves as a substitution of an auxiliary for the whole predicate. The following instances, "She *likes* reading comics**,** *and* **her son *does too*** or *and* ***so does* her son**." "She *does not like* reading comics**,** *and* **her son *does not either*** or *and* ***neither does* her son**." "I like the cartoon**, *but* my father *does not***." "I do not like the cartoon**, *but* my father *does***" are abridgements that substitute the auxiliaries for all the predicates. Such abridgements are particularly familiar in clauses expressing *short agreements* or *disagreements* (Frank, 1972b, p. 11). Unlikely abridgements, "DANGLING" construction, which does not own subjects, serves introductory elements/structures in sentences (independent/main clauses) as in these two examples: "*to learn properly*, every pupil should have good books," "*at the age of 18*, she has lived in Toronto." The introductory structures, such as "*at the age of 18* and *to learn properly*", correspond to the predicate parts of the sentences. If the subjects fail to serve as their agents, the introductory structures are considered "*dangling*," just left without a particular word to join it to (Frank, 1972b, p. 16).

The Nature of Clauses

As linguistically grammatically termed, a clause, which can be discriminated from a phrase that does not require a subject and a predicate/verb, is a set of words comprising a subject and a predicate/verb expressing a complete thought. Each clause, therefore, has a subject and a predicate/verb. Simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences are parts of clauses that are independent/main clauses (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 123-127). However, in complex sentences, the full prediction in the dependent clause is changed, which is then attached to the independent clause to construct a complex sentence. By tradition, a dependent clause, which cannot stand alone, is an incomplete thought providing, describing, or identifying additional/further information about nouns. In addition, it can either modify an adjacent clause or function as a component of the independent Clause (Azar, 1989, p.238; Oshima

& Hogue, 1983, pp. 121-123). According to their *functions* in the sentences, the dependent/subordinate clauses have three different types, namely, *adverbial, adjective and noun clauses* (Jespersen, 2006, pp. 295-308; Lane & Lange, 1999, pp. 68-130; Azar, 1989, pp. 238-366; Frank, 1972a, pp. 228-275; Frank, 1972b, pp. 21-46). The following are the details of the three different types of each clause.

Adverb Clauses

An adverb clause is a "Subordinate clause containing the main clause of all ranges of semantic relationships that are similar to those borne by the adverb, such as time, method, place, instrument, condition, concession, purpose, result, cause or condition (Trask, n.d p 10)." Functionally, the adverb clause functions as a verb modifier, noun, adjective, or all sentences (time and place). The following are the clause types, subordinate conjunctions that start clauses and illustrated sentences from statement clauses (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 155-163).

	Types of Clause	Subordinating Conjunction beginning the clause	Illustrative Sentences
Adverbial Clause	Time	when, while, since, before, until, after, as soon as, by the time (that), now that, once, etc	We will watch the movie in the theatres ***when*** *we have finished our school assignments*. **Abridgment** of time clauses: 1. **When/while** *at 18***,** she behaved strangely. 2. She behaved strangely ***when*** *speaking English*. 3. The antiques**, *when*** *being hard to get***,** are always well maintained and stored.
	Place	where, wherever	I live ***where*** *the road crosses the river*. You may go ***wherever*** *you want to go*. **Abridgment** of place clauses: 1. ***Wherever*** *possible*, you must reduce consuming sweets.
	Cause	because, since, as, now that, whereas (legal), inasmuch as (formal), as long as, on account of	He cannot hear us well ***because*** *he has a hearing*

	that fact, due to the fact, because of the fact, etc	*loss*. **Abridgment** of cause clauses: 1. It is an unforgivable slur, ***since*** *on purpose*.
Condition	if (*see the three types of conditional sentences*), unless, on condition that, provided/providing that, in the event that, in case that, whether...or not, etc	***If*** *I were you*, I would take the offer. ***Were*** *I you*, I would take the offer. **Abridgment** of condition clauses 1. **Were I you**, I would take the offer. 2. **Had I known** you were sending it, I would not have bought the part here.
Contrast: *Concessive*	although, even though, though, even if, in spite of/despite the fact that, notwithstanding (the fact), that, etc	***Although*** *it is raining*, I will go fishing **Abridgment** of concessive clauses: 1. ***Though*** *in a rush*, you have to have breakfast.
Adversative	while, whereas, where	Some students wrote their essays, ***while*** *others they were at a cafe*.
Purpose	that, in order that, so (informal), so that, for the purpose that, etc	He is learning hard ***so that*** *he can get a scholarship from the central government*.
Result	so+ adj. / adv.+that, such (a)+N+that, so that, etc	Bali has ***such*** beautiful nature ***that*** all foreign visitors enjoy it.
Comparison	...as+adj./adv.+as... ...(not) so+adj./adv.+as... ...-er/more+adj./adv.+than...	He learns hard***er than*** her sister learns. **Abridgment** of comparison clauses:

			1. He learns hard***er than*** her sister (*does*).
	Manner	as if/as though	He looks ***as though*** he needs more sleep. **Abridgment** of manner clauses: 1. They left the meeting ***as if*** *annoyed*.

Adjective/Relative Clause

The relative clause is "a linguistic-grammatical terminology occasionally applied for a clause which modifies a noun or pronoun, like an adjective." The following are noun antecedent meaning, introductory words, and illustrative sentences of the adjective or relative Clause (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 169-183; Leech, 2006, p. 6).

	Noun Antecedent Meaning	Introductory words	Illustrative Sentences
	Relative as Pronoun/Noun		
Adjective/ Relative Clause	Person	who (whom/whose), that	**Subject**: She paid the money to the stonemason ***who*** **(**or ***that*****)** *did the work*. **Object of verb**: She paid the money to the stonemason ***whom*** **(**or ***that*****)** *she had hired*. **Object of the preposition**: She paid the man ***from whom*** *she borrowed the money*. **Possessive Adjective**: This is the schoolchild ***whose*** *sharpener was stolen yesterday*.
	Thing/Object	which, that	**Subject**: this is the doctor's prescription ***which*** **(**or ***that*****)** *explicated the medicine being purchased*. **Object of verb**: The table ***which*** **(**or ***that*****)** *she bought is very expensive*. **Object of the preposition**: she is wearing the pant for which she bought IDR 350.000.

	Relative as adverbs		
	Time	when	This is the year ***when*** *the World Cup Football is held*
	Place	where	Here was the primary school building ***where*** *I learnt*
	Reason	why	Would you please give her one reason ***why*** *you left her*?
Other expression introducing Adjective/ Relative Clause		**Before / after**	She was ill **after** she attended the 45-hours meeting
		As (after **the same**)	He made the same language errors **as** (= **that**) his brother did
Punctuation of Adjective Clause			
Non-restrictive Clause (uses comma) → when antecedent is restricted itself		*Antecedent a proper noun*	Hundreds of people welcome **Darrel Keandra,** *who has won the Noble Prise for Medical Science*. (uses comma)
		Antecedent one of the kind	The **primary school headmaster's daughter,** *who rides him every day to school,* has won several world championships in mathematics and natural sciences. (uses comma)
		Antecedent restricted by the preceding context	At midnight, she was later hospitalized for three days. **The pregnant woman,** *who had failed to normally deliver her first son at home, was operated on by an obstetrician*. (uses comma)
		*When the antecedent refers to **all** of a class*	***The students***, whose final scores slump, are required to repeat them in the odd semester.
restrictive clause (do not use comma) → when antecedent is restricted by adjective clause		*Antecedent a proper noun*	Hundreds of people welcome **the scientist** *who has won the Noble*

		Prise for Medical Science. (no comma used)
	Antecedent one of the kind	The **daughter** *who rides her father every day to school* has won several world championships in mathematics and natural sciences. (no comma used)
	Antecedent restricted by the preceding context	**The pregnant woman** *who had failed to normally deliver her first son at home was operated on by an obstetrician*. (no comma used)
	When the antecedent is limited by the adjective clause *refers to* ***some*** *of a class*	***The students*** whose final scores slump are required to repeat it in the odd semester. (no comma used)

Noun Clause/Content Clause

Rozakis (2003, pp. 153-159) elucidates, "A noun clause sp, specifically known as a content clause containing a subject and verb, is the dependent clause, starting with *how*, *what*, *whatever*, *when*, *where*, *whether*, *where*, *who*, *who*, *who*, *who*, *who*, and *why*. A noun clause functions as a noun of a subject or as a direct object, indirect object, predicate nomination, or object of the preposition in the sentence. A clause is a noun/content clause if the pronoun (*he*, *she*, or *they*) can be replaced by it. In contrast, noun clauses are not modifiers but function as other sentence patterns that are always complete as nouns. A noun clause acts as a subject, a subject complement, a direct object, or a preposition object in a sentence (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 141-153; Lane & Lange, 1999, pp. 103-129; Azar, 1989, pp. 263-284; Frank, 1972a pp. 283-303; Frank, 1972b pp. 61-77).

a predicate noun	We asked Mr. Keandra, **a professor of Linguistics**, to explain the language errors.
a predicate adjective	The professor**, unconsciously that two of 25 trainees ran away,** kept lecturing.
an adverb (adv. expression)	The old lady **over there by the entrance** is our former president.
a prepositional phrase	Darrel, **in a rush to get back home**, drove his car from school.
adjective Clause	The man **who is responsible for the case** has paid compensation *becomes*: The man **responsible for the case** has paid compensation The teacher**, who is now a mayor,** proves his political campaign promises. *becomes*: The teacher**, now a mayor,** proves his political campaign promises. Note: **BE** is reduced to appositive phrase by retaining only the complement after **BE** (NP, Adj.P, Pre.P).
complement of appositive nouns and adjective as predicate	**Adj**. **clause**: Jakarta, a city **which has 10 million people**, coddles its visitors. **Participle phrase**: Jakarta, a city **housing has 10 million people**,

noun	coddles its visitors. **Prepositional phrase**: Jakarta, a city **of 10 million people**, coddles its visitors.		**errors,** correct them.
		position of appositive phrase	Initial position and final position (less common)
complement of appositive adjective as predicate adjective	***That***-clause: the student**, conscious that she made sentence errors,** corrected them. **Infinitive phrase**: the student**, willing to correct her sentence errors**, said she will learn the errors anymore. **Prepositional phrase**: the student**, conscious her sentence**		

Noun Clause derive from	Introductory conjunction	Function of Clause	Illustrative examples
a statement e.g. **Honest politicians came from the countryside**	**that**	Subject	***That honest politicians came from the countryside*** was an undeniable fact.
		Subject after **it**	It was an undeniable fact ***that honest politicians came from the countryside***.
		Subjective complement	Our acknowledgment is ***that honest politicians came from the countryside***.
		Object of verb	All knew ***that honest politicians came from the countryside***.
		Appositive	The people's credence ***that honest politicians came from the countryside***.
a question expecting *yes*/*no* answer, e.g. **Will she get married**	**whether** (**or not**) **if**	Subject	**Whether** (**or not**) **she will get married** does not concern me.
		Subjective complement	The question is **whether she will get married**.
		Object of verb	Do you know **whether/if she will get married**?
		Object of preposition	Her families were not concerned *about* **whether she will get married**.
interrogative *wh-questions* e.g. **how did they buy the car**	**who**, **what**, **which**, **when**, **where**, **why**, **how**	Subject	**How they bought the car** is their own affair.
		Subjective complement	The question is **how they bought the car**.
		Object of verb	We do not know **how they bought the car**.
		Object of preposition	I am not concerned about **how they bought the car**.
a request e.g. **meet the dean soon**	**that**	Object of verb	Her parents suggested **that I meet the dean soon**.
an exclamation e.g. **what an excellent son they have**	**What**, **how**	Object of verb	I realised **what an excellent son they have**.
		Object of preposition	We gossiped *about* **what an excellent son they have**.

	Present main verb (no sequence of tenses)	**Past main verb** (sequence of tenses)
Indirect speech: Noun clauses from statements	He **says** (that): The bus **usually arrives late**. The bus **is arriving**. The bus **arrived late**. The bus **has just arrived**. The bus **will arrive soon**. The bus **may be arriving soon**.	He said (that): The bus **usually arrived late**. The bus **was arriving**. The bus **had arrived late**. The bus **had just arrived**. The bus **would arrive soon**. The bus **might be arriving soon**.
	The ***that*** is omitted in informal usage. The present tense may be retained in a **that** clause object expressing a generalisation, e.g.: He said that the bus **usually arrives late**. No comma precedes a noun clause	

***That*-clauses**

In English linguistics and grammar, *that*-clause is part of a noun clause. Additionally, *that*-clause following the main verb within the sentence begins with the adjective/relative pronoun *that*. The following details are the types of *that*-clauses within the sentences. Firstly, "*that*-clause" is a relative pronoun; for instance, *the tiger the hunter shot is still alive*. This example explains that "*that*" refers to the noun antecedent modifying *the tiger*. *The tiger* is an antecedent. However, in some cases, "*that*" does not belong to a relative pronoun as it does not describe a noun antecedent, as in "*I believe* ***that*** *my online business will significantly grow 7,00 % in a third-quarter this year*." This sentence indicates that "*that*" is not a subject of the clause. It is a noun acting as an object followed by the main verb "*believe*" and due to it, it can be discharged from the sentence as in "*I believe my online business will significantly grow 7,00 % in a third-quarter this year*." Words that do not act as and modify "noun antecedents" are 'believe, suggest, request, indicate, show, urge, demand.' Such a case is known as that clause after a verb of urgency. Similarly, "*that*-clauses" after adjectives of urgency is not a relative pronoun because it does not modify a noun antecedent, such as "*it is important* ***that*** *every English teacher is required to teach types of clauses*." Lexicons that show the "*that*-clauses" after adjectives of urgency are 'important, essential, necessary, urgent, imperative, etc.' (dictionary.cambridge.org, 2019; MEG.com, 2019; Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 143-144; Frank, 1972b, pp. 71-74).

Secondly, "*that*-clause" is a subject of a sentence as in "***that*** *the farmer's daughter could win the 2019 presidential election shocked the world*." Thirdly, "*that*-clause" acts as an object of a sentence like "*he wished that she could have joined the Spanish national football team*." Fourthly, it is the reporting verb pattern: verb + "*that*-clause," for instance, "*both national campaign teams* ***agree that*** *reconciliation between the two camps must be immediately realized*." The reporting verbs "*accept, insist, repeat, decide, discover, admit, know, reply, agree, doubt, mean, say, announce, expect, mention, see, assume, explain, notice, show, believe, suggest, promise, feel, find (out), check, state, pretend, claim, suppose, comment, prove, forget, guess, realise, think, complain about, hear, reckon, understand, hope, remark, confirm, consider, imagine, remember,"* verbs + "*that*-clause" (dictionary.cambridge.org, 2019).

Furthermore, the verbs "*advise, inform, remind, assure, persuade, tell, convince, promise, warn*" are followed by "*that*-clause" serving as indirect objects as in "She ***promised me that*** *she would attend my birthday party* or She promised that she would attend my birthday party." The following verbs, "*admit, explain, point out, recommend, state, complain, mention, prove, say, suggest*," are generally followed by a prepositional phrase (see the underlined one) and a *that*-clause functioning as a direct object as in, "*she* ***complained to a supervisor that the employees did not provide the information required***"

(dictionary.cambridge.org, 2019; MEG.com, 2019). .

Fifthly, these kinds of lexicons, "afraid, alarmed, amazed, angry, annoyed, ashamed, astonished, aware, concerned, delighted, disappointed, glad, (un)happy, pleased, shocked, sorry, upset, worried, certain, confident, positive, sure, are adjectives which are used to express feeling and emotion. The illustrative example is "the teachers are *excited **that** their students passed the national exams*." Sixthly, "*the professors have a strong belief that the 2019 education budget improves the quality of education*" is *that*-clause follows a noun. Lastly, as a restrictive relative clause, the "*that*" clause is established, and the relative pronoun "*that*" serves to provide essential information, as in this case, "The parrot *that hunter caught yesterday was* secured by the police today." The crucial information from this news is that "*the parrot was secured by the police today*. We do not know how the parrot was secured (dictionary.cambridge.org, 2019; MEG.com, 2019).

Participle Phrase

A participle phrase modifies a noun/pronoun (Frank, 1972b, p. 81; Oshima & Hogue, 1983, pp. 197-208). As a modifier, participle phrases have different positions in a sentence, as illustrated in the following table.

participle phrase modifying a noun/pronoun	restrictive phrase (narrows down the reference of a noun or pronoun)	Non-restrictive phrase (does not narrow down the reference of a noun or pronoun)
Position of participle: *after the noun being modified* a. noun as *subject*	The man **speaking to my father** is rich.	The Senators**, supported by all students,** have higher self-confidence of developing the country's future.
b. noun as *complement of a verb*	The person to see is that man **speaking to my father**.	This is an excellent decision**, backed by all members of the legislator**.
c. noun as *object of verb*	I know the man **speaking to my father**.	They have an excellent decision**, backed by all members of the legislator**.
d. noun as *object of preposition*	We pay our respect to the man **speaking to my father**.	They long for an excellent decision**, backed by all members of the legislator**.
at the beginning of a sentence modifying the subject	-	**Supported by all students,** the senators have higher self-confidence of developing the country's future
at the end of a sentence modifying the subject	-	The senators have higher self-confidence of developing the country's future, **feeling that they have the support of all students**.
participle phrase as part of the object of a verb	We saw them **gossiping the long blonde girl**.	

Infinitive Phrase

Frank (1972b p. 113) shortly explicates, "Infinitive Phrase works or acts as *nouns*, *adjectives* or *adverbs* in sentences." The illustrative examples of the Infinitive Phrase are exemplified in the following table.

Function	illustrative examples
1. ***nominal function***	
a. subject	**For our children to have breakfast every day** is extremely necessary or
b. object of verb	It is extremely necessary **for our children to have breakfast every day**.
c. subjective complement (predicate noun)	My father expects **his children to seriously learn English**.
d. appositive	The bylaw is **for the unmarried men and women to separately sit in the public areas**.
	I just have only one expectation – for my sons to be religious and pious persons.
2. ***adjectival function***	Here is a ticket **for you to sail around the Indonesian archipelago**.
3. ***adverbial function***	
a. modifier of a sentence	**To speak the truth**, I did not understand them at all.
b. modifier of a verb	(I order) for us to master English skills, we have to join more
c. modifier of an adjective	English classes after school.
	Statistics is very difficult **for us to learn**.

Appositive Phrase

Grammatically, apposition is two units of noun phrase place side by side in a sentence. One unit acts to recognize the other in a dissimilar way. These two units are in opposition. One of these two units is known as the ***appositive***; for example, "My student[A] *Darrel*[P] loves playing games" or "Darrel *my student* loves playing games (I have many students, but I restrict my statement to the one named Darrel) is *restrictive appositive* as it gives information essential to recognizing the appositive phrase." The small letter above the line of *My student*[A] is *appositive phrase*[A] *and Darrel*[P] is *phrase in apposition*[P]. *Darrel* and *my student* are, therefore in apposition. By contrast, *non-restrictive appositive* generally set off by commas, provides trivial or unnecessary information about appositive phrase/phrase in apposition as "we are on vacation in *Bali*[P], *the land of god and goddess*[A]. The appositive phrase (*the land of god and goddess*[A]) is unnecessary to recognize Bali. Similarly, Frank (1972b p.171-176) elucidates, "Appositive phrase contains a predicate complement without a subject and verb form. Its subject emerges in another part of the sentence." Consider the following illustrative instances.

The other linguistic-grammatical rules used to diagnose and correct the sentence errors are the mastery of, firstly, "*Verb Phrase and Lonely Verb*." Some EFL students feel, not think, that, "*do your best* (√he does her best), *make a perfect performance* (√she makes a perfect performance)" are sentences. They presume that the italicised sentences are sentences whose meanings are well understood.

(Writingexplained, 2019 p. 4). *Lonely Verb*, in contrast, is deemed as a sentence seeing that it has a verb/predicate though it misses a subject at the beginning of a sentence. *Lonely Verb* is usually begun with FANBOYS, for example, "***but*** *knew that all students would demonstrate their work at the national seminar*." Secondly, it is *Afterthought*. Afterthought elucidates previous information by giving specific details such as "***including*** *cheetah, tiger, and lions* and this is not a sentence. The correct one is "*The animals that must be eschewed when visiting the African wildlife parks are* ***including*** *hyena, cheetah, tiger, and lions*." Words expressing afterthought are "***especially***, ***except***, ***excluding***, ***for example***, ***for instance***, ***including***, ***like***, and ***such as*** **(**Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p.239-243; Simmons, 1997-2009 p.1-28)." Thirdly, *Run-on Sentences* are two or more sentences (independent clauses) directly joined without seriously considering using proper *punctuations*: comma, semicolon, colon, dash; *conjunctions*: FANBOYS and or *transitional signals*. "*I love gardening I plant a number of*

crops in my parents garden these plants have grown large, some already can be harvested processed sold" are run-on sentences (Lunsford & O'Brien, 2011 p.1-3; Edwards, 2011a, p. 1-40; Edwards, 2011b p.1-7; Meltzer, 2009 p. 1-2; Lane & Lange, 1999 p.139). The last is *Comma Splices*. Comma Splices is a part of a *Fused Sentences* in which two independent clauses are wrongly split with a comma instead of using period/full stop, semicolon, conjunctions, or transitions. The case of comma splices is, for example, "*one option is to read the newspaper, another option is to watch the YouTube*" (Lunsford & O'Brien, 2011, p.1-3; Meltzer, 2009, p. 1-2; Lane & Lange, 1999 p.140). The parallel structures of *verb/infinitive* (I like reading comics, watching movies, and listening to pop music); of *verbs/base forms* (I like to read comics, watch movies, and listen to pop music); of *gerunds* (I enjoy swimming, surfing, and waterskiing); of *present participle verbs* (while she was thinking about the ideas and correcting some critical grammatical errors, I downloaded some e-books); of *prepositional phrase* (*Today, Smartphone is used by many people and in many different ways*) must have the same grammatical forms. Please consider that the FANBOYS connecting words used to join one or more items in a sentence because the parts of the sentence should be structurally parallel, and this is, of course, the correct way of avoiding *sentence errors* of the *faulty parallelism* (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p.135-137; Lane & Lange, 1999 p.140).

II RESEARCH METHODS

The qualitative paradigm as a research design format of this study was a holistic and flexible means for profoundly exploring and understanding the meaning of the EFL students' theoretical knowledge of English Writing as well as acquiring an in-depth, comprehensive picture and reflection of the EFL students' critical writing issues under investigation *particularly linking to the critical issues of their sentence constructions*. This design has been used in conjunction with the features of diagnosing the "*sentence crimes*": blurring the boundaries between the sentence-level accuracies and their meanings conveyed. Besides, this design assisted the authors in interpreting what they had seen, heard, and understood. Through this qualitative research, the processes of studying the students' Sentence Boundary Errors could be unfolded naturally so that the authors could acquire the expected specific and detailed information and facts. Another critical interest in choosing it was to guide the authors to genuinely examine the open questions rather than test theoretically derived (deductive) hypotheses. Consequently, it gave detailed information and explanations of the students' deficiency in understanding and constructing English sentences. More importantly, this method practically presented a *meaningful comprehension* to the authors of what the sentence errors meant to the EFL students' writing enhancement (Bell & Aldridge, 2014; Devers & Frankel, 2000, p. 263–271; Freebody, 2003; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009 p.419-470; Dillon, & Gallagher, 2019 p.1562; Howard, 2019 p.1482-1486). Politeknik Negeri Padang was the locus of undertaking the research. The study lasted 6 months, starting in mid-January 2019 and ending in the first week of July 2019.

Procedure

Technically, this study had a four-stage course of action: delving into, diagnosing, and explaining the students' sentence errors, as explained below.

Step 1: Teaching Writing Skills

Writing Skills II class lasted for 16 meetings in the 2019/2020 academic year. Each meeting took 120 minutes. The contents of this course comprised of three parts. The *first part* was *Writing a Paragraph*, which is a paragraph covering paragraph writing, topic sentences, and the concluding sentence. Others are Unity and Simple paragraph Outlining, Coherence from Transition Signals focusing on transition signals, coherence from logical order, concrete support, quotations, paraphrasing, summarizing, and footnoting. The *second part* was *writing an essay, encompassing the introductory and concluding paragraphs, outline, and pattern of*

essay organization, such as chronological order, logical division, cause and effect, and comparison and contrast. The *last part* was *Grammar and Punctuation*, stressing sentence structures and their types/kinds, the clause, coordination and subordination, parallelism, word order, adverbial clauses, adjective/relative clauses, noun clauses, participle phrases, gerund phrases, infinitive phrases, appositive phrases, passive sentence, conditional sentence, punctuations: commas, semicolons, colons, and quotation marks and sentence problems: sentence fragments, Choppy sentence, run-together (on) sentence and stringy sentences (Oshima & Hogue, 1983 p. 3-239).

The classroom was the site of instruction for Writing Skills II. This instruction aimed to provide the students with the theoretical writing background before noting down their English paragraph writing. After studying the theories, the students were assigned to write a five-paragraph English essay comprising one introductory paragraph, three content paragraphs with details/supports and examples, and one concluding paragraph.

Step 2: Teaching Method

Apart from the heated controversy, the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was applied in teaching Writing Skills II. Firstly, the GTM helped the students to universally equalize and differentiate between the systems of the L1 and L2. *Secondly*, it focused on Writing skills and grammatical structures. *Thirdly*, it promoted understanding and sensitivity towards the language systems of English. *Fourthly*, it improved the students' Reading and Writing skills. *Fifthly*, it aided the students in producing grammatically correct communicative sentences (texts). *Sixthly*, it stressed details, accuracy, clarity, and flexibility, contributing to a better understanding of English sentences and their complex structures. *Seventhly*, it assisted them to grasp how English systems work (Mart, 2013, p.1-3).

Step 3: Instrument, Sampling and Data

Qualitatively, the authors themselves were the key instruments. As the key instrument, the authors have *validly* understood the basic concepts of the qualitative method; linguistically-grammatically mastered the fundamental theories of English sentences and complex structures, English writing theories and Errors in Language Learning and Use; and the authors' readiness to research and prepare its logistics in undertaking the study.

The authors theoretically validated these self-evaluations (Sugiyono, 2007, p.222). *Non-probability sampling* was due to its relative ease of access to contact, reach, discuss, and evaluate the research participants and their behaviour/performance (Lucas, 2014b p. 394). In addition, the selection of these *sampling and its technique* will or can be used for further pilot studies (Thabane et al., 2010 p. 1-10). After being confirmed, the 2nd-year PNP ED students (n=31), whose ages ranged from 19–23, were voluntarily willing to participate as research participants, and their English Paragraph Writing could be used as the source of the data to be diagnosed (Wiederman, 1999 p.59-62). For readers' information, the selected participants have taken Grammar, Speaking, Writing, Listening, Reading, and Translation courses, which were considered to have met the terms of the conditions of being research participants in this study.

Step 4: Data Collection and Data Analysis

The data collection techniques were observation and documentation (Written Document Reviews of the 2nd-year PNP ED students' English Paragraph Writing). The questionnaire is usually used as an accidental sampling technique (Given, 2008). However, it was not applied in this study. Afterward, although the qualitative data analysis method has not yet been well formulated (Sugiyono, 2007 p.243), the study applied the 1984 Miles and Huberman's Model and the 1973 Corder's Clinical Elicitation as data analysis techniques. The steps were the *data reduction*: gathering samples of the student's English Paragraph Writing, diagnosing, describing, explaining, and assessing/correcting the sentence errors: sentence fragments, run-on sentences, fused sentences, and comma splices (Ellis, 1994 p.48); *data display*: displaying the preferred sentence errors into a flowchart; *conclusion drawing*: drew a preliminary conclusion that was temporary or determined a credible conclusion about the data that have been analyzed (p.247-253).

IV RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The SBEs produced form the most beautiful processes of learning English as a Foreign Language in the Indonesian language teaching context. However, the learning methods are not as striking and stunning as imagined. The facts indicated that the teaching of Writing Skills II lasted for 16 meetings; each meeting took 120 minutes, leaving some critical problems in constructing the correct sentence structures grammatically, as illustrated in the clustered column chart below. Briefly explain the total number of sentence errors produced. The surge of this number designated imperfect and incomplete learning.

Consequently, the errors degraded the students' sentence-level accuracies and

blurred the meaning sent. After teaching, 238 was, in contrast, the total number of sentence errors produced. The decrease or the fall in errors signified significant and realistic changes in the student's language learning behaviour. These behavior changes cannot be separated from the teacher's errors and commitment to the adequate teaching method applied (Corder 1967, p. 160–170), impacting the students' consistein producing grammatically correct sentence structuresically.

It could be seen that the discrepancies between the total number of errors before and after instructing the cruxes of sentence errors designated that the teaching of the Cruxes of Errors in Writing Skills II is helpful and completely impinged on the students' sentence-structure-level accuracies and meaning communicated.

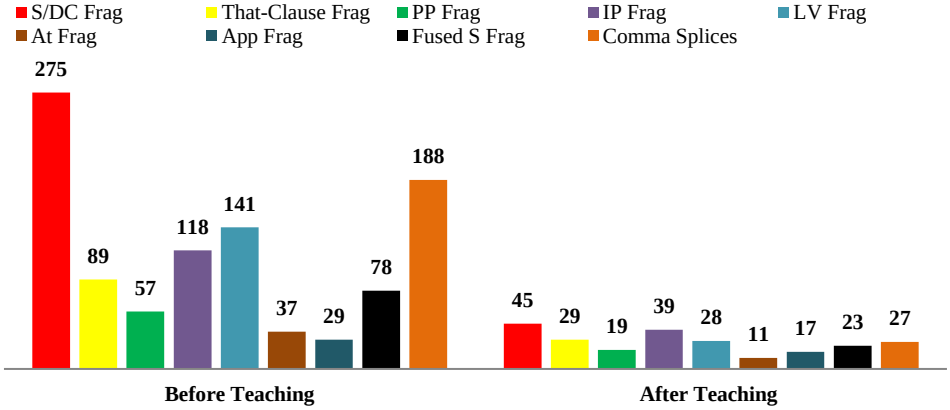

Table 1: Number of Sentence Boundary Errors; n=31

As previously elucidated theoretically, the wrong assumptions and the lack of understanding of or *insensitivity towards* the theoretical rules of English sentences and their complex structures caused them to produce sentence errors consistently. The claim states, "As long as we have seen a verb directly in the group of words, it has become a complete sentence expressing a complete thought even though it does not have a subject and vice versa." The claim was proven by the results of their sentences' diagnosis. The following are the details. Firstly, the significant students' insensitivity towards the English sentences' construction was the clauses' errors. Most students thought that a clause was a sentence consisting of a subject and a verb/predicate, and this claim was correct. They, however, failed to understand that other than the claim, the clauses have specific definitions, dissimilar types (noun, adverbial, adjective, or relative clauses), and consist of a dependent and independent possessing a subject and a verb/predicate. From these differences, they are profoundly trapped in understanding the essence of the sentence itself (Azar, 1989 p. 238, 263, 297; Lane & Lange, 1999 p.104; Murphy, 1994 p. 91-96; Frank, 1972a &1972b).

An independent clause (main clause) is a complete sentence describing a complete thought, and it can stand alone as it has two legs, a subject on the right and a verb/predicate on the

left. These two legs can run well and convey an inclusive meaning to a reader/listener. In contrast, a dependent/subordinate clause, although it has two legs (a subject and a verb) due to one of them being broken and crippled, must collaboratively act as a team with an independent clause to complete its meaning. The collaborative roles of a dependent clause towards an independent clause are intended to provide further information about a noun or a pronoun if it deals with the adjective/relative clause, typically formed by *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, or *that*. When dealing with a noun clause, the subordinate clause serves as a subject or an object.

A noun clause is usually earmarked by question words (*wh*), whether/if, and that, ever, infinitives, quoted, and reported speeches. Similarly, the adverb clause is established by time signals (after, when, before, etc.), cause and effect (since, because, etc.), opposition (whereas, although, etc.), condition (if, in case that, etc.) is a subordinate clause acting as elucidating a verb, an adjective, or another adverb in a sentence (Azar, 1989 p.238, 263, 297). Understanding types of sentences and their classifications by the number of full predictions and/or clauses with their different definitions, forms, uses, and types is a practical way of eschewing the EFL students from a global (more serious) snare of a dependent clause.

Secondly, similarly, due to consisting of a subject and a verb, the "*that*-clause" was chewed over as a sentence. The students grammatically failed to value *that* clause as part of a content clause providing content commented upon or implied by its independent clause. The clause, or "declarative content clause, " acts as a sentence's subject and or direct object. It also functions as a modifier of a verb, adjective, or noun." The clause serves as a restrictive relative clause describing the noun antecedents. The *that*-clause deals with declarative sentences, whereas the other one, the interrogative content clause, links to the interrogative sentences or indirect questions, as in "she knew *what we did*, my father is sure of *what we had explained*, I did not know *why they said* it (Jespersen, 2006 p. 286-293)."

Thirdly, the students presumed that those present participles ending with the "*ing*" form and those past participles ending in the "*ed*" form were sentences. Theoretically, participle phrases, however, are adjectives that are formed from verbs, and they serve as modifying a noun as a subject, as in "a man *planning to work in Canada* should have a temporary visa," or as an object in a sentence as in "we saw John *running for the train*."

Participle phrases consist of *-ing* and *-ed* forms participle + other words; therefore, they are not sentences. *Fourthly*, the infinitive phrase, as most students thought of it as a sentence due to consisting of a verb, is a group of words serving as modifiers of a noun, adjective, or adverb in a sentence, as in "the only way *to improve the students' sentence boundary errors* is by reading A Writing Clearly: An Editing Guide was written by Lane & Lange." The infinitive phrase is an adjective because it modifies "the only one way." The *to + infinitive* is, for that reason, an infinitive phrase of a verb that is added with any complements function as modifiers. It is not a sentence, hence.

Fifthly, the lonely verb was also regarded as a sentence because it has a verb, although it misses its subject. In addition, the students have not fully realized yet that the lonely verbs emerge outside the groups' words. The required independent clauses are, therefore, missing. *Sixthly*, afterthoughts occurred in the students' perceptions. It is declared a sentence because it introduces/provides good details/examples of previous information. It usually began with the expressions "*especially*, *for example*, *for instance*, *like*, *such as*, *including*, and *except*." *Seventhly*, though it was deemed a sentence, appositives are grammatically groups of words acting as renaming the nouns beside them.

Appositives are not main clauses; therefore, they cannot stand alone in describing complete thoughts. *Eighthly*, the ignorance of using the sentence signs such as (correct) punctuation marks of commas, semicolons, or colon, transitional words and phrases, and or coordination conjunctions of FANBOYS caused the sentences (clauses) constructed to run together. This kind of fragment is traditionally recognized as fused sentences. There were traffic (sentential) signs signifying the sentences or clauses. The comma splices, *lastly*, were

identified as main clauses because the students, in their two or more independent clauses, merely joined the main clauses by commas and forgot to use conjunctions. Fused sentences and comma splices resulted from errors in coordination conjunctions, punctuation marks, and transition signals. As a result, they failed to show the relationships between two or more ideas/thoughts.

V CONCLUSION

That is a fact that the SBEs always paint the EFL students' English writing, mainly the 2nd-year PNP ED students' English Paragraph Writing, even though the basic tenets of English Writing rhetoric (the study of the ways of applying the English language effectively), *organization* and *style* have been instructed, learned and practiced. Still, the supremacy of the L1 interference, the students' lack of understanding, insensitivity (ignorance) and grammatical complexities of English often disrupt the ways the EFL students wrote the correct sentences and clauses.

Linguistically, sentence errors are the incorrect application of grammatical units, significantly degrading the values and systems of the words, phrases, sentences, clauses, and or speech acts (Richard et al., 2002). Therefore, treatments are required to qualify the students' incorrect sentences and clauses. As clearly illustrated in the above-clustered column table 1, the teaching method *–grammar-translation method–* used and the *processes of learning the sentences and their complex structures* indicated that there were earth-shattering (significant and momentous) progress, meaningful attempts, and better improvements made by the students in qualifying their sentence-level accuracies and meaning sent.

However, there were still some critical sentence structure errors. The attempts achieved by the students, at least, have detracted them from blurring the sentence-level accuracies and meaning communicated. The remaining errors are an early warning system (an instructional reflection) to the teachers that the students have not grammatically understood specific units of the sentence structures. Therefore, teachers are required to improve the quality of their teaching to avoid.

Bibliography

[1]. Akmajian, A., Demers, A., R, Farmer, K., A, Harnish, M., R. (2010). *Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication, Sixth Edition*. London: The MIT Press.
[2]. Alexander, L. (1999). *Longman English grammar practice*. New York: Longman.
[3]. Altenberg, E. and Vago, R. (2010). *English grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511794803
[4]. Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*, Oxford, Clarendon Press.
[5]. Azar, B. S (2003). *Fundamentals of English grammar*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
[6]. Azar, B. S. (1992). Fundamentals of English grammar. 2nd ed. New York: Pearson ESL.
[7]. Azar, B. S. (1996). Basic English grammar. 2nd ed. New York: Pearson ESL.
[8]. Azar, B. S. (1989). Understanding and using English grammar. 2nd ed. New York: Pearson ESL.
[9]. Badalamenti, V. and Henner-Stanchina, C. (2000). *Grammar dimensions*. Cambridge, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
[10].Beaumont, D. and Granger, C. (1992). *The Heinemann English grammar*. Oxford: Heinemann.
[11].Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad., & Finegan, E. (1999, 2007). Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. Edinburgh, Harlow, Essex, London. Pearson ESL.
[12].Blocher, D. (2019). "Sentence Crimes": Identifying and Correcting Sentence Boundary Errors. Retrieved May 6, 2019 from https://svcwritingcenter.wordpress.com/student-resources/svc-writing-center-handouts/sentence-crimes-identifying-and-correcting-sentence-boundary-errors/.
[13].Brown, P., & S. Levinson. (1978). "Universals in language use," in E. N. Goody (ed.), *Questions and Politeness*. Cambridge and London: Cambridge University Press.
[14].Cambridge Dictionary. (2019). Verb patterns: verb + *that*-clause. Retrieved 12th of July 2019 from https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/verb-patterns/verb-patterns-verb-that-clause.
[15].Dillon, A. M., & Gallagher, K. (2019). The experience of co-teaching for emergent ArabicEnglish literacy. The Qualitative Report, 24(7), 1556-1576. Retrieved 14th of July 2019 from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol24/iss7/4.
[16].Devers, K. J., & Frankel, R. M. (2000). Study design in qualitative research 2: Sampling and data collection strategies. Education for Health, 13(2), 263–271. https://doi.org/10.1080/13576280050074543, PMid:14742088.
[17].Corder, S. P. (1967). "The significance of learners' errors." *International Review of Applied Linguistics*. 5: 160–170. doi:10.1515/iral.1967.5.1-4.161.
[18].Eastwood, J. (1999). *Oxford practice grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[19].Eastwood, J. (1994). *Oxford guide to English grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[20].Edwards, T. (2011a). Grammar Proficiency Study Packet. Retrieved 12th of July 2019 from www.lonestar.edu/departments/english/Answers%20to%20the%20Study%20Packet.pdf.
[21].Edwards, T. (2011b). Sentence Fragments and Run-on Sentences. Retrieved 12th of July 2019 from www.lonestar.edu/departments/learningcenter/sentence_fragments_and_run.pdf.
[22].Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[23].Fraenkel, R., J & Wallen, E., N. (2009). How to design and evaluate research in education NY: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
[24].Frank, M. (1972a). Modern English: a practical reference guide. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
[25].Frank, M. (1972b). Modern English: Exercises for non-native speakers: Part II sentences and complex structures. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
[26].Freebody, P. (2003). Qualitative research in education: Interaction and practice. London, UK: SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849209670

[27].Given, Lisa. (2008). Convenience Sample. The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods. SAGE Publications. doi:10.4135/9781412963909.n68.
[28].Greenbaum, S. (1996). The Oxford English Grammar. London: Oxford University Press.
[29].Hacker, D. (2003). A Writer's Reference. (5th Ed.). Boston, MA: Bedford/St. Martin's.
[30].Hendrickson, J.M. (1987). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. In M.H. Long & J.C. Richards (Eds.), Methodology in TESOL: A book of readings. Boston: Heinle & Heinle. p. 357
[31].Howard, N.-J. (2019). Constructing professional identities: Native English-speaking teachers in South Korea. The Qualitative Report, 24(7), 1478-1510. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol24/iss7/1.
[32].Jespersen, O. (2006). Essentials of English Grammar. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
[33].Leech, G. (2006). A Glossary of English Grammar. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.
[34].Linguistic Society of America (LSA). (2016). What Speakers do in Conversation. Retrieved 6th July 2019 from https://www.linguisticsociety.org/resource/discourse-analysis-what-speakers-do-conversation.
[35].Lane, J & Lange E. (1999). Writing Clearly: An Editing Guide. 2nd Ed. NY: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.
[36].Lucas, Samuel R. (2014b). "An inconvenient Dataset: Bias and Inappropriate Inference in the Multilevel Model." Quality & Quantity, 48: 1619–1649. doi:10.1007/s11135-013-9865-x. Retrieved 14th of July 2019 from https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/81774632.pdf.
[37].Lunsford, A., A, & O'Brien, A. (2011). The Instructor's Note: The St. Martin's Handbook. 7th Ed. Boston/NY: Bedford/St. Martin's.
[38].Mart, T., C. (2013). The Grammar-Translation Method and the Use of Translation to Facilitate Learning in ESL Classes. Journal of Advances in English Language Teaching, vol.1, No.4, pp.103-105, Retrieved on 21st of July 2019 from https://www.european-science.com/jaelt.
[39].MEG.com. (2019). That-clause. Retrieved on 11th t of July 2019 from https://myenglishgrammar.com/lesson-17-clauses/8-that-clause.html.
[40]. Meltzer, A. (2009). Errors in Sentence Structure. Retrieved 8th of July 2019 from ww.hsc.edu.kw/VPO/ELU/.../W3.%20Errors%20in%20Sentence%20Structure.pdf.
[41].Murphy, R. (2012). English grammar in use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[42].Murphy, R. (1994). Intermediate English grammar: reference and Practice for South Asian Students. 2nd Ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[43].Murphy, R. (1994). Essential English grammar: a self-study reference and Practice book for elementary students of English. 2nd Ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[44].Oshima, A & Hogue, A (1983). Writing Academic English: A Writing and Sentence Structure Workbook for International Students. 3rd Edition. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
[45].Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (2002). Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (3rd Ed.). London: Longman.
[46].Rozakis, Laurie (2003). The Complete Idiot's Guide to Grammar and Style. Alpha.
[47].Seaton, A & Mew, Y., H. (2007). Basic English Grammar: For English Language Learners (Basic English Grammar for English Language Learners). Irvine, CA: Saddleback Educational Publishing, Inc.
[48].Simmons, L., R. (1997-2009). Rules for Finding and Fixing Fragments: Recognize the different between a sentence and a fragment. Retrieved 10th of July 2019 from *chompchomp.com/rules/fragrules.htm.*
[49].Sugiyono. 2007. Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif Kualitatif dan R&D. Bandung: Alfabeta.
[50].Swan, M. and Walter, C. (2011). Oxford English grammar course. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[51].Swan, M. (1995). Practical English Usage. 2ndEd. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[52].Swick, E. (2009). English verbs and Essentials of English Grammar for ESL Learners. NW: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

[53].Swick, E. (2005). English grammar for ESL learners. Chicago, IL: McGraw-Hill.
[54].Silyn-Roberts, H. (1996). Writing for science. Auckland, NZ :Addison Wesley Longman.
[55].Thabane L, Ma J, Chu R, Cheng J, Ismaila A, Rios LP, Robson R, Thabane M, Giangregorio L, Goldsmith CH. (2010). "A tutorial on pilot studies: the what, why, and how." *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 10 (1), Retrieved 6th of May 2019 from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2824145/,doi:10.1186/1471-2288-10-1.
[56].Trask, L., R. (n.d.). A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics. Brighton: Routledge.
[57].Vince, M. (2008). Macmillan English grammar in context intermediate with key and CD-ROM pack. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
[58].Wiederman, Michale, W. (1999). "Voluteer bias in sexuality research using college students participants." Journal of Sex Research, 36: 59–66, doi:10.1080/00224499909551968. Retrieved 6th of May 2019 from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247524685_Volunteer_Bias_in_Sexuality_Research_Using_College_Student_Participants.
Writingexplained. (2019). What is a Sentence Fragment? Definition, Examples of Sentence Fragments. Retrieved 6th of May 2019 from https://writingexplained.org/grammar-dictionary/sentence-fragment.