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'Sentence Crimes': Blurring the Boundaries between the Sentence-Level Accuracies and their Meanings Conveyed

Yohannes Telaumbanua*

Politeknik Negeri Padang,
INDONESIA

Nurmalina

Universitas Pahlawan Tuanku
Tambusai Pekanbaru Riau
Indonesia, INDONESIA

Yalmiadi

Universitas Dharma Andalas
Padang, INDONESIA

Masrul

Universitas Pahlawan Tuanku
Tambusai, INDONESIA

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Abstract: The syntactic complexities of English sentence structures induced the Indonesian students' sentence-level accuracies blurred. Reciprocally, the meanings conveyed are left hanging. The readers are increasingly at sixes and sevens. The Sentence Crimes were, therefore, the major essences of diagnosing the students' sentence-level inaccuracies in this study. This study aimed at diagnosing the 2nd-year PNP ED students' SCs 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 SCs produced by the students. The findings designated that the major sources of the students' SCs were the subordinating/dependent clauses (noun, adverb, and relative clauses), that-clauses, participle phrases, infinitive phrases, lonely verb phrases, an afterthought, appositive fragments, fused sentences, and comma splices. As a result, the SCs/fragments 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 Indonesian and or other EFL students constructs sentences rests upon the knowledge, sensitivity and the mastery of complex syntactic structures through transformational/structural grammar.

Keywords: *Sentence crimes, blurring, boundary, sentence-level accuracies, meanings.*

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Introduction

Why are the sentence crimes (SCs for its marking symbol) or another popular term called "the *sentence boundary errors*" (SBE for short) displeasing and disquieting though they can still be understood? Analogously, all of us have probably heard the old adage that if one of a couple dies, the abandoned one, then, feels lonely and vacuous. S/he does not have a perfect life, tethered by pseudo-happiness, and blanketed by melancholy and despondency. Life becomes totally crippled. Similarly, if a sentence does not have a subject or a verb/predicate; if two independent clauses are only split by commas; or if two or more sentences are brought together or run on without applying punctuations such as a comma, a semicolon or a dash and or conjunctions, the sentence then means nothing. The crimes/errors of the sentences must be eschewed at all costs. The bases from which the primary ideas of proposing the "*Sentence Crimes*": Blurring the Boundaries between the Sentence-Level Accuracies and their Meanings conveyed as the topic of discussion and or writing of this article, therefore, sturdily stood on the nine *raison d'être*. The followings were the emblematic details of the writing issues made by the Indonesian students. *Firstly*, the Indonesian English Department (ED) 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. The assumed examples, which are simply considered as complete sentences, however, have not yet represented the complete thoughts due to lacking the *subjects* and *verbs* or *predicates*.

Secondly, they oftentimes *preconceived* that those 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 Indonesian ED students of English preconceived notions of capital

* **Corresponding author:**

Yohannes Telaumbanua, Politeknik Negeri Padang, Padang, Indonesia. ✉ yohannesnpn@yahoo.com



letters and punctuations towards the 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. Hereinafter, *fourthly*, they suppose that those that begin 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*, long sentences, which are followed by nouns and normally comprise of one or more explaining the phrases or subordinating/dependent clauses after them, are recurrently reckoned as sentences.

Sixthly, *lonely verbs* such as “*but took*the strictest 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* a very impressive political speech,” and *participle phrase fragments* like “*tyed*the knot with Nadyiathree 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 and Vago (2010); Badalamenti and Henner-Stanchina (2000); Beaumont and 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, (if possible/any a direct or an indirect object, adverbs of time and places) elucidating a complete thought (Azar, 1998, 1996, 1992).

Seventhly, another EFL students’ feeble and shabby point is to tend to write the longest sentences (independent clauses) as evidence or proof that they are capable of providing and presenting brightest the ideas/thoughts to their readers. For the students themselves, the weakness is the *emblem of strength* of extensively narrating, communicating, expressing, explicating, and or exploiting their feelings, beliefs, ideas, and knowledge. They are very complacent (satisfied without being worried) writing long sentences and, certainly, it needs to be thumbed-up. NNW’s motive is pretty-good! Although this may be true, the longest sentences or independent clauses become naturally incomprehensible, perplexing, and biased towards the readers’ appreciation. The examples, “*the pupils should stay home from school they have to do their homework they also have to go to the mosque to study the Koran helping parents after reciting the Qur’an is an obligation such as washing kitchen utensils and sweeping the floor,*” are sentences which are tying the readers themselves in a knot. The sentences are very confused and anxious seeing that they run on together without seriously taking account of using correct punctuations (comma, semicolon, colon, or dash), conjunctions (coordinating and subordinating conjunctions) or transitional signals or cohesive devices (then, nevertheless, even if, in fact, thus, henceforth, etc explicating complete thoughts (Silyn-Roberts, 1996; Babayigit, 2018)).

Similarly, *eighthly*, in joining two or more independent clauses, the Indonesian ED students just put emphasis on the use of comma while the roles of conjunctions as the most important elements of connecting the main clauses explaining the complete thoughts are normally skipped for an unclear reason. As illustrated in the following examples, the sentences/clauses signified that “*We brother and sister would like to spend our weekend in Bogor this week but we have to write 4 articles as the main requirements to take the final semester examination next two weeks,*” the EFL students forgot putting the comma (,) after ‘*week*’ or before ‘*but*’ although they have extremely considered using the conjunction, “*but*.” Another one, was “*I will still have a Writing class tomorrow I have to attend my bother wedding reception.*” The comma and conjunction are both ignored unconsciously (Hacker, 2003).

Lastly, the students’ sentence crimes/errors arose essentially due to the lack of sensitivity’s acumen for rules detailing how to construct/structure the sentences correct grammatically and syntactically. The identified examples as previously illustrated were not real sentences because of lacking one of three units of the sentences, namely, a subject, verb/predicate, and or a complete thought. Likewise, the constructed/structured sentences ran on because of forgetting 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 sentence crimes fragment or break the ideas into pieces; fail to show the relationships between two or more sentences/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).

The study, under those circumstances, aimed at, *firstly*, diagnosing the students’ sentence crimes/errors ahead of inculcating the sentences and complex structures of English. *Secondly*, it aimed at instructing the cruxes of the sentences and complex structures of English along with observing the students’ learning signs of progresses of understanding the linguistic-grammatical units of the nature of sentence structures of English in the 2nd-year students’ English Paragraph Writing (EPW). The proposed formulated research question was “what the cruxes of the sentence crimes which significantly distort the Indonesian 2nd-year ED students’ EPW or flop into sending a meaningful message to a reader.”

Sentence crimes or 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 impinge on the studies of the rules of the Phonology, Morphology and Syntax, which are regularly complemented by the Phonetics (speech sound), Semantics (meaning of words and sentences) and Pragmatics (dealing with the meanings and effects which comes from the use of language in particular situations/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 p.1-3; Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, & Harnish, 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' of English sentence-level accuracies and their meanings conveyed. At the level of practice or application (use), the systematised and long-established sets of structural rules governing the composition of these hierarchical units are consciously or unconsciously, often ignored. The ignorance and avoidance of these structural rules result in blurring the gaps between the sentence-level accuracies and their meaning communicated. The *blurriness* is then popularly known as the "*sentence crimes* (Blocher, 2019 p. 1-3)" or theoretically termed as "*sentence boundary errors* (Lunsford & O'Brien, 2011 p. 205-327)." The author himself, on the contrary, names the crimes/errors as the "*half dead-alive sentences*."

*Sentence and Complex Structures of English: Theoretical Rules for "Diagnosing and Correcting" the EFL Student's Sentence Crime/Errors**Types of Sentences*

Whatever the terms are constructed and used to entitle or dub the sentence crimes/errors, the central points of interest in recovering the students from their critical sentence fragments and run-on sentences (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. The deep-seated creeds (theories) of a sentence, in essence, are linguistically-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 kind of definition has, at least, 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 symbolised by S+V+O; N1 + V + N2, or NP + VP (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p. 121- 134; Frank, 1972a p. 220).

The definitions, afterwards, engender the classifications of a sentence by "*types*" and another by the *number of formal prediction*. 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 recognising something specific, and uttering direct statement. The second is the *interrogative grammatical mood* features the form of *yes/no* →ask whether or not something is the case) and *who-questions* →specifying the information being required. The third one is *imperative (Commands, Requests)mood* is a sentence whose syntax is different between affirmative and negative imperative (prohibitive or vetative mood) sentences. Linguistically, the form of the declarative mood is every so 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 *exclamatory sentence/Exclamation* is an informal, forceful and emphatic expression whose primary goal is to express excitement and show strong emotion. These examples, 'What an excellent talk it was!, What a beautiful lip she has!, How handsome he is!, and or how politely they behaved!, are the "*types*" of exclamatory sentences (Frank, 1972a p. 220-222; Austin, 1962; Brown & Levinson, 1978 p. 56-310).

On the contrary, the classifications of the sentences by *number of formal prediction* are the first is *simple sentences*, whose forms are declarative, questions, request and exclamations; acquire only one full prediction in the form of independent clauses containing one full subject and a predicate as in "*the UK PM's political speech shocked the 2019 G-20 Osaka Summit*." The second one is a *compound sentence*, which does not take dependent clause, 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, compound sentence joins two sentences/clauses co-ordinately into one by punctuation alone (Today is downpour; all flights are cancelled),

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 p. 167-168; Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p. 121-134; Frank, 1972a p. 222-223).

The third classification of a sentence is a complex sentence. This sentence has two or more full prediction. One of them is an independent/main clause that is similar to the form of the simple sentence and the other ones are dependent/subordinate clauses. A dependent clause containing a full subject, predicate, and begin with a word attaches to the main clause. ‘The oratorical speech which was delivered by the Prime Minister was written by Darrel Keandra Dzaki Telaumbanua’ is a form of a complex sentence. The last is the sentence consisting of two/more independent/main clauses and one/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 emanates from the classification of sentences by types, which attached to the subordinate clause to form a complex sentence and compound-complex sentence. Both of these sentential classifications are tethered by the basic principles of the conjunctions, transition words and phrases, adverbial, adjective and noun clauses (Rozakis, 2003 p. 167-168; Frank, 1972a p. 222-223). For more details, see the following tables.

Table 1. Sentence’s Classifications

COORDINATION within sentences with “ <i>and, or, but</i> ”			
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 <i>that she was sleepy</i> and <i>that she was going to bed</i>		
SUBORDINATION within sentences: <i>nominal, adjectival, or adverbial elements</i>			
	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.	Prepositional: The jewellery in a box is expensive.	Prepositional: she comes against her will .
	Infinitive: to swim in the sea is cool.	Participle: the man speaking to the headmaster is my friend.	
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/main clauses is, thirdly, the easiest ways-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 major principles of the independent/main clauses are full predictions are co-ordinately joined by mere punctuations (comma, semicolon or dash), punctuation plus coordinate conjunctions (comma and FANBOYS), punctuation: semi-colon plus conjunctive adverbs (transition words and phrases such as besides, in fact, thus, however, due to, etc) and then punctuation: comma. Conjunctive adverbs show Agreement, Addition, or Similarity such as moreover, in addition, besides, etc; Examples, Support, or Emphasis such as, for instance, truly, etc; Effect, Result, or Consequences: as a result, thus, etc; Contradiction, Limitation, or Opposition like in spite of, in contrast, however, etc; Cause, Condition, or Purposes like otherwise, if, inasmuch as, etc; Space, Location, or Place like there, wherever, in front of, etc; Time, Sequence or Chronology like after, later, first, in due time, etc; and Conclusion, Summary, or Restatement such as in brief, to sum up, etc. 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, p.131-133; Frank, 1972a p. 223-227).

Here in after, abridgement in clauses or widely known as elliptical construction serving 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 abridgments substituting the auxiliaries for the entire predicates. Such abridgements are particularly familiar in clauses of expressing *short agreements* or *disagreements* (Frank, 1972b p. 11). Unlikely abridgements, “DANGLING” construction, which does not own subjects, serves an 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*,” that is, just left without a particular word to join it to (Frank, 1972b p. 16).

The Nature of Clauses

As linguistically-grammatically termed, clause, which can be discriminated from a phrase which does not require a subject and a predicate/verb, is a set of word consisting of 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, p.123-127). However, in complex sentences, the full prediction in the dependent clause is changed, and it is then attached to the independent clause to construct a complex sentence. By tradition, 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, p.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 p. 295-308; Lane & Lange, 1999 p. 68-130; Azar, 1989 p. 238-366; Frank, 1972a p. 228-275; Frank, 1972b p. 21-46). The followings are the details of the three different types of each clause.

Adverb Clauses

An adverb clause is "Subordinate clauses 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 followings are the types of clauses, subordinate conjunctions that start clauses and illustrated sentences from statement clauses (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p.155-163).

Table 2. Types of clause

	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 that fact, due to the fact, because of the fact, etc	He cannot hear us well because he has a hearing 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.

Table 2. Types of clause

Adverbial Clause	Types of clause	Subordinating Conjunction beginning the clause	Illustrative Sentences
	Comparison	...as+adj./adv.+as... ...(not) so+adj./adv.+as... ...-er/more+adj./adv.+than...	He learns harder than her sister learns. Abridgement of comparison clauses: 1. He learns harder than her sister (<i>does</i>).
	Manner	as if/as though	He looks as though he needs more sleep. Abridgement of manner clauses: 1. They left the meeting as if annoyed.

Adjective or Relative Clause

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

Table 3. Adjective or Relative Clause

	Noun Antecedent Meaning	Introductory words	Illustrative Sentences
Adjective/ Relative Clause	Relative as Pronoun/Noun		
	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 As (after the same)	She was ill after she attended the 45-hours meeting He made the same language errors as (= that) his brother did
Punctuation of Adjective Clause			
Nonrestrictive clause (uses comma) → when antecedent is restricted itself		<i>Antecedent a proper noun</i>	Hundreds of people welcome Darrel Keandra , <i>who has won the Noble Prize for Medical Science.</i> (uses comma)
		<i>Antecedent one of the kind</i>	The primary school headmaster’s daughter , <i>who rides him every day to school</i> , has won several world championships in mathematics and natural sciences. (uses comma)
		<i>Antecedent restricted by the preceding context</i>	At midnight, she was later hospitalized for three days. The pregnant woman , <i>who had failed to normally deliver her first son at home</i> , was operated on by an obstetrician. (uses comma)
	<i>When the antecedent refers to all of a class</i>	The students , <i>whose final scores slump</i> , are required to repeat them in the odd semester.	

Table 3. Adjective or Relative Clause

Adjective/ Relative Clause	Noun Antecedent Meaning	Introductory words	Illustrative Sentences
restrictive clause (do not use comma) → when antecedent is restricted by adjective clause		<i>Antecedent a proper noun</i>	Hundreds of people welcome the scientist <i>who has won the Noble Prize for Medical Science.</i> (no comma used)
		<i>Antecedent one of the kind</i>	The daughter <i>who rides her father every day to school</i> has won several world championships in mathematics and natural sciences. (no comma used)
		<i>Antecedent restricted by the preceding context</i>	The pregnant woman <i>who had failed to normally deliver her first son at home was operated on by an obstetrician.</i> (no comma used)
		<i>When the antecedent is limited by the adjective clause refers to some of a class</i>	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 or 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 they function as other sentence patterns that 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, p.141-153; Lane & Lange, 1999 p. 103-129; Azar, 1989 p. 263-284; Frank, 1972a p. 283-303; Frank, 1972b p. 61-77).

Table 4. Noun Clause/Content Clause

Noun Clause derive from	Introductory conjunction	Function of clause	Illustrative examples
a statement e.g. Honest politicians came from the countryside	that	Subject	<i>That honest politicians came from the countryside</i> was an undeniable fact.
		Subject after it	It was an undeniable fact <i>that honest politicians came from the countryside.</i>
		Subjective complement	Our acknowledgment is <i>that honest politicians came from the countryside.</i>
		Object of verb	All knew <i>that honest politicians came from the countryside.</i>
a question expecting <i>yes/no</i> answer, e.g. Will she get married	whether (or not) if	Appositive	The people's credence <i>that honest politicians came from the countryside.</i>
		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?
interrogative <i>wh-questions</i> e.g. how did they buy the car	who, what, which, when, where, why, how	Object of preposition	Her families were not concerned <i>about</i> whether she will get married.
		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.
		preposition	I am not concerned about how they bought the car.

Table 4. Noun Clause/Content Clause

Noun Clause derive from	Introductory conjunction	Function of clause	Illustrative examples
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 Object of preposition	I realised what an excellent son they have. We gossiped <i>about</i> what an excellent son they have.
Indirect speech: Noun clauses from statements	Present main verb (no sequence of tenses) 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. The that is omitted in informal usage. expressing a generalisation, e.g.:	Past main verb (sequence of tenses) 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 present tense may be retained in a that clause object He said that the bus usually arrives late. No comma precedes a noun clause	

That-clauses

In English linguistics and grammar, *that*-clause is a 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" serves as a relative pronoun, for instance, *the tiger that the hunter shot is still alive*. This example explains that "*that*" refers to the noun antecedent modifying *the tiger*. *The tiger* is 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.*" In this sentence, it 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 as in "*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, p.143-144; Frank, 1972b p. 71-74).

Secondly, "*that*-clause" functions as 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).

Hereinafter, 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 supervisor that the employees did not provide 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, "*that*" clause which is established the relative pronoun "*that*" serves as providing essential information as in this case, "The parrot *that hunter*

caught yesterday was secured by the police today.” The crucial information obtained from this news is “*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

Essentially, participle phrase acts as modifying a noun/pronoun (Frank, 1972b p. 81; Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p.197-208). As a modifier, participle phrase has different positions in a sentence as illustrated in the following table.

Table 5. Participle Phrase

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: <i>after the noun being modified</i>		
a. noun as <i>subject</i>	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 <i>complement of a verb</i>	The person to see is that man speaking to my father . I know the man speaking to my father .	This is an excellent decision, backed by all members of the legislator . They have an excellent decision, backed by all members of the legislator . They long for an excellent decision, backed by all members of the legislator .
c. noun as <i>object of verb</i>		
d. noun as <i>object of preposition</i>	We pay our respect to the man speaking to my father .	
<i>at the beginning of a sentence modifying the subject</i>	-	Supported by all students , the senators have higher self-confidence of developing the country's future
<i>at the end of a sentence modifying the subject</i>	-	The senators have higher self-confidence of developing the country's future, feeling that they have the support of all students .
<i>participle phrase as part of the object of a verb</i>	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.

Table 6. Infinitive Phrase

Function	illustrative examples
1. nominal function	
a. subject	For our children to have breakfast every day is extremely necessary or It is extremely necessary for our children to have breakfast every day .
b. object of verb	My father expects his children to seriously learn English .
c. subjective complement (predicate noun)	The bylaw is for the unmarried men and women to separately sit in the public areas .
d. appositive	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 English classes after school.
c. modifier of an adjective	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 *Mystudent^A* is *appositive phrase^A* and *Darrel^P* is *phrase in apposition^P*. *Darrel* and *my student* are, therefore in apposition. By contrast, in *non-restrictive appositive* generally set off by commas, provides trivial or unnecessary information about appositive phrase/phrase in apposition as in “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 not necessary 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.

Table 7. Appositive Phrase

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 <i>becomes</i> : The man responsible for the case has paid compensation
	The teacher, who is now a mayor , proves his political campaign promises. <i>becomes</i> : 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 noun	Adj. clause : Jakarta, a city which has 10 million people , coddles its visitors. Participle phrase : Jakarta, a city housing has 10 million people , coddles its visitors. Prepositional phrase : Jakarta, a city of 10 million people , coddles its visitors.
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 errors , correct them.
position of appositive phrase	Initial position and final position (less common)

The other linguistic-grammatical rules used to diagnose and correct the sentence crimes/errors are the mastery of, firstly, “*Verb Phrase and Lonely Verb*.” Some EFL students feel, not think, that, “*do your best* ($\sqrt{\text{he does her best}}$), *make a perfect performance* ($\sqrt{\text{she makes a perfect performance}}$)” 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; *connecting words/conjunctions*: FANBOYS and or *transitional signals/words and phrases*. “*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 by with a comma instead of preferring 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, Smartphones are 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 and* (Oshima & Hogue, 1983, p.135-137; Lane & Lange, 1999 p.140).

Previous studies

As previously thrashed out that the sentence errors made by (mostly) EFL students can be made use of providing the students a hand to correctly and academically write. Diagnosing language errors has attracted the ELT teachers, researchers, and scholars' attention to examine the students' sentences errors systematically. Although it is dreadfully complicated to search out information as regards researches that are precisely related to the Sentence Boundary Errors, the author found two of them, namely, firstly, Sermsook, Liamnimitr, and Pochakorn (2017). They paid attention to a deeper analysis of the language errors in a writing of English major students in a Thai university. They revealed that the six types of errors found to be the greatest difficulties of the participants were punctuation marks, articles, subject-verb agreement, spelling, capitalization, and fragments, respectively. They affirmed that the errors made by Thai college students' writing were not off beam. They were, however, constructive instruments to facilitate them non-native students of English make smaller amount errors and note down better in English. Lastly, likewise, in the analysis of English sentences written by Thai undergraduate students, Jenwitheesuk (2009) identified that the sentences contained errors, such as determiners, subject-verb agreement, tenses, and prepositions. This present study, therefore, diagnosed the students' sentence crimes/errors ahead of inculcating the sentences and complex structures of English and instructed the cruxes of the sentences and complex structures of English along with observing the students' learning signs of progresses of understanding the linguistic-grammatical units of the nature of sentence structures of English."

Method

The qualitative paradigm as a research design format of this study was a holistic and flexible means for deeply exploring and understanding the meaning of the Indonesian ED students' theoretical knowledge of English Writing as well as acquiring an in-depth comprehensive picture and reflection of the Indonesian ED students' critical writing issues under investigation *particularly linking to the critical issues of their sentence constructions*. The use of this design has been 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 author to make interpretation of what he has seen, heard, and understood. Through this qualitative research, the processes of studying the students' sentence crimes could be unfolded naturally so that the author was capable of acquiring the expected specific and detailed information and facts. Another important interest in choosing it was to guide the author to genuinely examine the open questions rather than test theoretically derived (deductive) hypotheses. Consequently, it gave detailed information and explanation of the students' deficiency in understanding and constructing English sentences. More importantly, this method practically presented a *meaningful comprehension* towards the author of what the sentence crimes/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 for 6 months starting in mid-January 2019 and ending on the first week in July 2019.

Procedure

Technically, this study had a four-stage course of action of delving into, diagnosing, inculcating, and explaining the students' sentence crimes/errors as explicated as follows.

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*: what are paragraph, paragraph writing, topic sentence, and the concluding sentence. Unity and Simple paragraph Outlining, and 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 paragraph, essay outline, pattern of essay organization such as chronological order, logical division, cause and effect, comparison and contrast. The last part was *Grammar and Punctuation*. This part stressed on sentence structures and its 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 instructing the Writing Skills II. This instruction aimed at providing the students with the theories of sentences and complex structures of English ahead of noting down their English

Paragraph Writing. After studying the theories, the students were individually assigned to write down a five-paragraph essay of English comprising one introductory paragraph, three content paragraphs with the details/supports and examples and one concluding paragraph.

Step 2: Teaching Method

Apart from the frenzied controversy, the Grammar-Translation (GT) and Direct Method (DM) were applied in teaching Writing Skills II. The reasons were, *firstly*, the GTM helped the students to universally equalise and specifically 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 to grammatically produce communicative sentences (texts). *Sixthly*, it stressed on details, accuracy, clarity and flexibility and this contributed 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). The MD, on the other hand, facilitated the EFL students to link their experiences and language, ideas, rules and performance; refrain from using Indonesian during writing; bring them closer to their real world-language settings; avoid translating; have them write their ideas/thought directly in English (Naik, 2013; Muthuja, 2009).

Step 3: Instrument, Sampling, and Data

Qualitatively, the author himself was the key instruments. As the key instrument, the author has *validly* understood the basic concepts/cruxes of the qualitative method; linguistically-grammatically mastered the basic theories of English sentences and complex structures, English writing theories and Errors in Language Learning and Use; and the author's readiness to research and prepare its own logistics in undertaking the study. These self-evaluations were theoretically validated by the author himself (Sugiyono, 2007 p.222). *Non-probability sampling* whose *convenience, haphazard or accidental sampling technique* was chosen due to its own relative ease of access of contacting, reaching, discussing and evaluating the research participants and their behaviour/performance (Lucas, 2014 p. 394). In addition, the selection of these *sampling and its technique* would or could be used for the further pilot study (Thabane et al, 2010 p. 1-10). After being confirmed, the 2nd-year PNP ED students (n=31) whose age 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; and these were considered have met the terms of the condition of being research participants in this study.

Step 4: Procedures of Collecting and Analysing the Data

Unstructured Interview (the researcher did not use interview guidelines containing specific questions but only contain important points of the problem that the author wanted to explore from the students); *Participant observation* (the researcher was directly got involved in the student's learning activities) and *Documentation* (Written Document Reviews of the Indonesian 2nd-year PNP ED students' English Paragraph Writing) were the procedures or technique of collecting the data. The author documented in writing the students' sentence crimes/errors during the instructional process took place. The questionnaire is an instrument usually used in the accidental sampling technique (Given, 2008). It, however, was not applied in this study. Afterwards, although the method of qualitative data analysis has not yet well formulated (Sugiyono, 2007 p.243), this study applied the 1984 Miles and Huberman's Model data analysis consisting of *data reduction*: gathering samples of the students' English Paragraph Writing, diagnosing, describing, explaining and assessing/correcting their sentence crimes/errors: sentence fragments, run-on sentence: fused sentences and comma splices (Corder, 1967; 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 analysed (Sugiyono, 2007 p.247-253; Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2019).

Results

The Sentence Crimes or Sentence Boundary Errors produced forms the most beautiful processes of learning English as a Foreign Language in Indonesian language teaching context though the processes of learning it are not as striking and stunning as imagined. The facts indicated that the teaching of Writing Skills II lasting for 16 meetings whose each meeting took 120 minutes still left some critical writing problems (issues) in constructing the correct sentence and complex structures of English grammatically as illustrated in clustered column chart below.

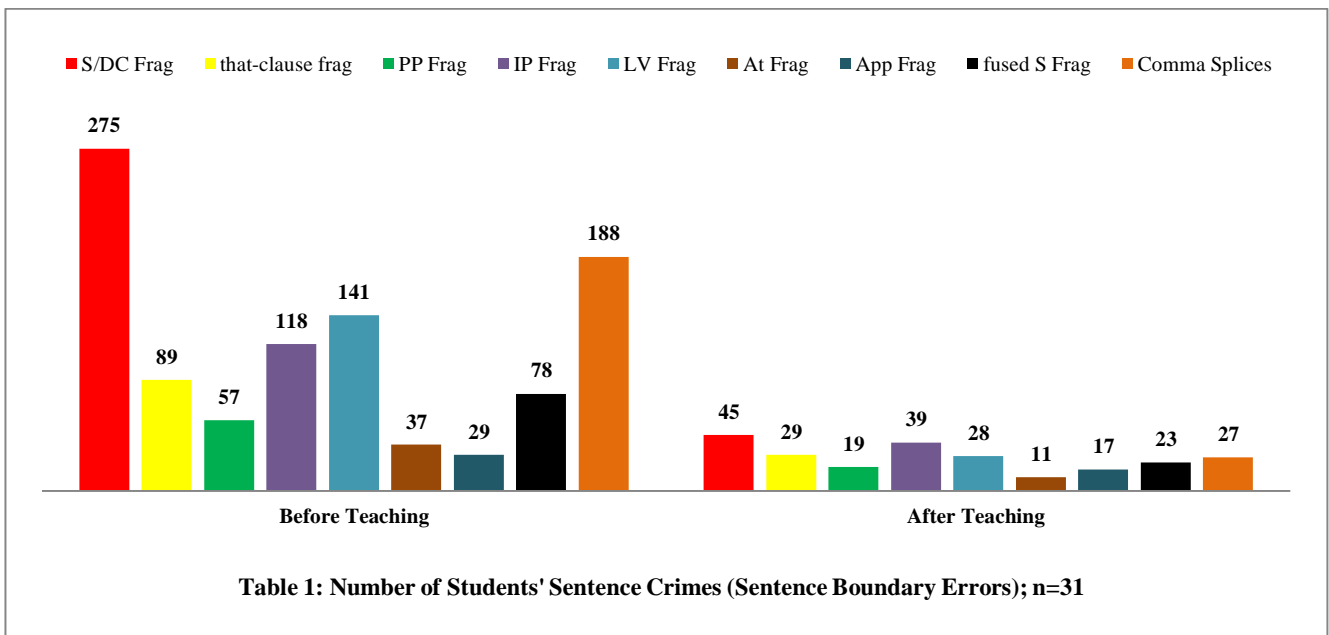


Figure 1. : Number of Students' Sentence Crimes

Briefly explicating, the total number of sentence crimes/errors produced by the students, before teaching the Writing Skills II including the theoretical rules of sentence structures and their complex structures was 1,012. The surge of this number designated the imperfect and incomplete learning. Consequently, the errors degraded the students' sentence-level accuracies as well as blurred the meaning sent. The critical digits above indicated that the Comma Splices, S/DC, IP and LP Fragments play a significant role in distorting the meaning of the sentences. That was then followed by that-clause, Fused Sentence, PP, At, and App Fragments disrupting the grammatical correctness of the students' complex syntactic structures of English. In contrast, after teaching, these digits, 238, were the total number of the sentence crimes/errors produced. The decrease or the fall in errors signified that there were significant and realistic changes in the students' language learning behaviour and these changes in behaviour cannot be, one of them, separated from the teacher's errors commitment with the adequate teaching method applied (Corder 1967, p. 160–170) affecting the students' consistency of producing their sentence structures correct grammatically. It could be clearly seen that the discrepancies between the total numbers of errors before and after instructing the cruxes of sentence and complex structures of English as theoretical rules for "diagnosing and correcting" the EFL Student's Sentence Crime/Errors signified that the teaching of the Cruxes of sentence and complex structures in the Writing Skills II was totally helpful and completely impinged on the students' sentence-structure-level accuracies and meaning communicated.

Discussions

As previously elucidated theoretically, the wrong assumptions and the lacks of understanding of or *insensitivity towards* the theoretical rules of English sentences and their complex structures caused them consistently produce the sentence crimes/errors. Firstly, the major students' insensitivity towards the English sentences' construction was the clauses' errors. Most of the students thought that a clause is a sentence consisting of a subject and a verb/predicate and this claim was totally correct. They, however, failed to understand that other than the claim, the clauses have certain 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 to understand 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).

Simply, 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 was broken and crippled, must collaboratively act as a team with an independent clause to complete its own 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 which is normally 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 itself is usually earmarked by question words (*wh*), *whether/if* and *that*, *ever*, infinitives, quoted and reported speeches. Similar to that, adverb clause which 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 definition, 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 the *that*-clause is a part of a content clause providing content commented upon or implied by its independent clause. The *that*-clause or exclusively known as “declarative content clause” acting as a subject and or direct object of a sentence. It also functions as a modifier of a verb, adjective or a noun.” The *that*-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 or those past participles ending in “*ed*” form were sentences. Theoretically, participle phrases, however, are adjectives which are formed from the verbs, and they serve as modifying a noun as a subject as in “a man *planning to work in Canada* should have 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, and they, therefore, are not sentences. *Fourthly*, the infinitive phrase, as most students thought 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 functions as an adjective because it modifies “the only one way.” The *to+ infinitive* is, for that reason, an infinitive phrase of a verb which is added with any complements functioning as modifiers. It is not a sentence, hence.

Fifthly, the lonely verb was also regarded as a sentence because of having a verb although it misses its own subject. In addition to it, the students have not fully realised yet that the lonely verbs emerge outside the groups’ words. The required independent clauses are, therefore, missing. *Sixthly*, afterthought occurred in the students’ perceptions and declared as a sentence due to introducing/providing good details/examples for previous information and it was usually begun with the expressions of “*especially, for example, for instance, like, such as, including, and except*.” *Seventhly*, though it was deemed as a sentence, appositives are grammatically groups of words acting as renaming the nouns right beside them. Appositives are not main clauses, and they, therefore, cannot stand alone describing complete thoughts. *Eighthly*, the ignorance of using the sentence signs such as (correct) punctuation marks of commas, semicolon, or colon, transitional words and phrases and or coordination conjunctions of FANBOYS caused the sentences (clauses) constructed ran together. This kind of fragment is traditionally recognised 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 using 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.

This finding supported or agreed with other previous researches disclosing that EFL students have not yet free from making critical sentence errors when starting writing in English. This condition is common and common for Indonesian students. These are in line with some previous researches disclosing that the sentences and complex structures of English which contained language errors such as punctuation marks, articles, subject-verb agreement, spelling, capitalization, and fragments (Sermsook, Liamnimitr, & Pochakorn, 2017); the determiners, subject-verb agreement, tenses, and prepositions (Jenwitheesuk; 2009); the verb tenses (Zafar, 2016); the lexical, syntactic and discourse level (Bennui, 2008); English grammar and the paragraph format (Hengwichitkul, 2006); the tenses, prepositions, word choice and comma errors (Phuket & Othman, 2015) and the Appositive Phrase, Infinitive Phrase, Participle Phrase, *That*-clauses, Noun Clause/Content Clause, Adjective or Relative Clause, Adverb Clauses, Types of Sentences, etc (Gomories, 2017) can distort and disrupt the meaning sent by a writer and confused the reader in understanding the contents of the writing. It is, therefore, essential to inculcate the complex syntactic structures of English by transformational grammar.

Conclusion

That is a fact that the sentence crimes/sentence boundary errors always paint the EFL students’ English writing particularly 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, learnt and practiced. Still, the supremacy of the L1 interference, the students’ lacks of understanding, insensitivity (ignorance) and grammatical complexities of English much of the time disrupt the ways the EFL students wrote the correct sentences and clauses. Linguistically, the sentence crimes/errors are the incorrect application of grammatical units significantly degrading the values and systems of the words, phrases, sentence, clauses, and or speech acts themselves (Richard et al., 2002). It is, therefore, required treatments 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 (very important and momentous) progress, meaningful attempts and better improvement made

by the students in qualifying their sentence-level accuracies and meaning sent although there were still found some critical sentence structures' 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 there are certain units of the sentence structures that have not been grammatically understood by the students. It, therefore, the teachers are required to improve the qualities of her/his teaching to avoid them making the same errors.

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