MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF THI QAR
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION FOR
HUMANITIES

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
جـــــــامعـــــــة ذي قـــــار
كـــــــلية التربية للعلوم الانسانية

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دراسة في تسلسل الكلمات في كتابات متعلمي اللغة الانكليزية في العراق

Misordered Words: A Study in Iraqi EFL Learners' Written Production

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الكلمات المفتاحية: ترتيب الكلمات، اخطاء، انواع، اللغة الانكليزية، كتابات

Key words: word order, errors, types, EFL, written production.

الخلاصة

يتناول هذا البحث تحليل أخطاء ترتيب الكلمات لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المقالات المكتوبة لأغراض الامتحان. أعطيت أخطاء ترتيب الكلمات هنا تعريفًا محددًا يستهدف التغييرات التي تؤثر على الموضع الصحيح للكلمات في الجملة، بشرط أن تكون هذه الكلمات جميعها موجودة في تلك الجملة. كما تم أخذ نوع اخطاء الترتيب وجنس المتعلم ودرجة الامتحان في الاعتبار. لاحظت الباحثتان أن هناك أنواعًا معينة من الأخطاء كانت أكثر تكرارًا من غيرها. كما لوحظ ان نوع الخطأ يمكن أن يكون متعلقًا بدرجة الممتحن. نوع الخطأ في ترتيب الكلمات له صلة أكبر بالدرجة مقارنة بعدد الأخطاء. ووجدت الباحثتان أيضًا أن تنوع مواضع ظهور كلمة ما وعدد الاخطاء في ترتيبها يتزايدان طرديا ؛ فكلما كان العنصر أكثر مرونة كلما ازدادت اخطاء ترتيبه في الجملة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، لاحظت الباحثتان أن العامل الابرز في اخطاء ترتيب الكلمات كان اللغة الأم لأفراد العينة.

Abstract

The current paper analyzes Iraqi EFL learners' word order errors (WOE) in essays written for exam purposes. Word order errors here were given a specific definition targeting changes that affect the correct placement of words in a sentence, provided these component words all exist in that sentence. The type of WOE, subject gender and exam score were also taken into account. The researchers noted that certain kinds of error were significantly more frequent than others. The type of error can be related to subject score. The type of WOE has more connection to score than the number of errors does. The researchers also found that the degree of flexibility of an element goes hand-in-hand with the number of WOE's; the more flexible an element is the more it is misplaced. Moreover, certain types of WOE's exhibit higher recurrence with one gender rather than the other. In addition to that, the researchers noted that a prominent factor of WOE's was subjects' mother tongue.

1. What is word order?

Word order (WO) is defined as the syntactic arrangement of words in a sentence, clause, or phrase; i.e., the order in which words appear in a sentence. It can also apply to the various ways that languages organize the components of their sentences in relation to one another (O'Grady et al, 1996:2016). Bettinsoli (2006: 11) prefers to label WO as a *topological* property of languages that refers, in a given sentence, to the ordering of subject (S), object (O) and verb (V).

Six logical ways of ordering subjects, objects and verbs are possible, and these are: SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV. The number of possible orders permitted in a given language signals the first type of variation across languages. English, for example, typically uses an order in which both the verb and the object are preceded by the subject, which in

turn implies that English is an SVO language. According to Hudson (2000, as cited in Jiang, 2009: 2), this topological property is one of the three basic syntax components including grouping, feature, and WO. WO has gained the most attention from researchers among the three components of syntax due to its impact on the intelligibility of language.

2. The importance of WO

For the majority of people, the soul of language resides in the grammar. According to Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) language is regarded as a form of action confined by rules, and grammar is, therefore, a subdivision of those rules that control the configurations assumed by a language's syntax. For instance, WO rules in English allow us to accept the following sentences as grammatically correct:

1) Where is she going?
2) The boy kicked the ball.

The same rules, however, oblige us to reject sentences containing typical errors of EFL learners such as the following:

*3) *Where she is going?*
*4) *The ball kicked the boy.*

By changing the WO in a sentence the syntactic relationships between the elements change. The first sentence in the second pair, although grammatically incorrect, is likely to be understood. These sentences, however, cannot be acknowledged as right in the output of EFL Learners. English has established a tolerable defined WO, indicating without fail what the subject of a sentence is in the vast majority of cases.

In typological words, English has a rigid SVO WO, notes Thompson (1978:25);

English is a language in which WO signals basic grammatical relationships. Specifically, it is a language in which, in main clauses, there must be a noun

phrase (NP) immediately preceding the verb and that noun phrase is the subj ect even if it is unmarked.

Jespersen (2006: 66) contradicts Thompson by claiming that no grammatical rules of WO can be exclusively observed in all situations; there is a certain flexibility in that regard, and much depends on what the speaker thinks at all times. He will still have a tendency to say what is most important to him first. On the other hand, he may sometimes purposely—more or less consciously—hold back an idea in order to create a greater impact, if its presentation is well planned. Jespersen also maintains that the main grammatical use of WO is that it gives us the answer to the correct interpretation, as in the following examples (ibid: 67).

5) Jack saw Henry and
6) Henry saw Jack

In the above pair of sentences, *Jack saw Henry* describes a very different situation from *Henry saw Jack.* WO is a grammar function that plays an important role in structuring the knowledge of a sentence since it is "one of the key tools that languages give speakers to convey who is doing what to whom" (Gershko-Stowe & Goldin-Medow, 2002: 377).

3. Major types of WO

The basic elements of a sentence structure are the Subject (S), Verb (V) and Object (O). SOV and SVO represent the most common WOs among languages. Yet, all possible WOs are present in at least some languages (Dryer, 2007:61). English has an SVO WO which is characterized as fixed. The positioning of the clause's key elements is strictly controlled. There are two parts of clauses that Carter and McCarthy (2006) consider to be important to how information is structured within them, what Jespersen (2006:65) prefers to name topic and predicate, also termed the theme (or subject) and the rheme (or comment). The theme heads the clause in English and usually signals for who or what the clause is about. The rheme,

as the central part of the message, supplies the important information about the topic and is located after the subject, in the second part of the clause.

The following examples show variation of element positioning.

7) My friend (S) usually (A) enjoys (V) travelling (O).

8) Usually (A) my friend (S) enjoys (V)) travelling (O).

9) My friend (S) enjoys (V)) travelling (O), usually (A).

(the adverb) has the freedom Only one of the components of the sentence of moving from one position to another (but not complete freedom), the others do not, not in any of the three variants. Their position may change, but only in a limited number of cases such as relative clauses where the relative pronoun comes first. Certain sentence components are more stable than others. Stability of these component positions, though generally undisturbed, is varied. Fixedness changes along a continuum that begins with the verb and ends with the adverb, the verb being the most stable. The subject, object and complement lie along that continuum, in between the two extremes.

The adverbial is the most peripheral and movable element and can occur either initially or finally (Quirk et al., 1985: 51). Many adverbials, however, can also occur medially. Parrott believes that the rules governing the place of adverbs in sentences are complex and unpredictable, since the meaning of adverbs and what information the speaker or writer needs to explain need to be taken into consideration (2000: 64). Some adverbs are a central part of a phrase; for example, adverbs of degree, quantity and manner are fairly uncompromising in their position. Other adverbs (e.g. place, time and frequency) may refer to entire clauses or to broad parts of clauses, although their position is more dynamic.

At the adjectival level, Swan (2005:8, 15) and Wallawork (2016:29) point that two key positions can be used for the plurality of adjectives in a sentence. Typically, the first position is with a noun, normally before it, to describe it. This position is called attributive. Swan goes on mentioning that the second position is after linking verbs such as *be*, *seem*, *look*, etc.

(known as the predicative position) (ibid). To place the adjective after the noun, Wallawork (2016:29) contends, a relative clause must be used. If more than one adjective is used, they should be placed in a certain order. To that, Swan (2005:15) adds that words that describe come before words that classify, beginning with the words that convey an opinion, attitude and judgement. The order of descriptive adjectives is not entirely fixed. Adjectives of origin and material usually come last. Others of size, age, shape and color often come in this order: *size, age, shape, color, origin , material then noun.*

4. WO deviation

There are certain cases when English represents non-SVO WO. These cases include questions, passive form, sentences with infinitives, participles, and gerunds, in addition to sentences containing relative clauses. In a Yes/No question, the subject, is followed by an auxiliary or modal verb, such as be, may, will, shall, etc., as seen in the statement/question pair below.

10) Sarah (S) is preparing (V) a meal (O).

11) Is (V) Sarah (S) preparing (V) a meal (O)?

12) A meal (O) is being prepared (V) (by Sarah (S)).

As example 11 shows, the complex verb phrase *is preparing* splits. The resulting WO becomes VSVO. And in Example 12, the object appears first in the sentence and the WO becomes OV(S).

As for *Wh- questions*, the basic SVO WO is changed as follows: an auxiliary verb or do moves to the left of the subject so it precedes the subject. Furthermore, as exemplified in the following statement/question pair, the questioned phrase, for example, an object, appears at the beginning of the sentence in the form of a *Wh-phrase*:

13) The students (S) bought (V) some books (O).

14) What (O) did (V) the students (S) buy (V)?

This pair shows that the usual SVO order of the statement shifts to the OVSV order in the related question. For the creation of alternate questions that resemble either Yes/No or *Wh*-questions the same rule applies (Quirk et al., 1985: 87).

Another English structure in which the basic SVO WO can be changed is the relative clause. The relative clause is a structure which provides descriptive information about a noun phrase in a sentence. In the next example, the relative clause is used to supply descriptive information rather than being a second independent sentence. The relative clause *which the student lost* takes place immediately after the noun *a book* and gives descriptive information about a book.

15) The teacher (S) found (V) a book (O) which (O) the student (S) lost (V).

In addition, the main clause, *The teacher found a book*, demonstrates the basic SVO pattern of sentence elements. The relative clause *which the student lost*, however, displays OSV WO. As with English *Wh*-questions, a *Wh*-phrase in a relative clause must occur at the beginning of the clause. That is why relative clauses often exhibit non-SVO WO. In the above example, *which* refers to a book in the main clause and represents the object of the verb *lost* within the relative clause (Berent as cited in Pavić, 2013: 9).

Another case of WO deviation appears in sentences containing infinitive clauses, such as *to write*, *to travel*, etc. The structure is illustrated in the following sentence.

16) The author (S) decided (V) to write (V) a short story (O).

Normally, the infinitive doesn't have its own explicit subject. The subject of the infinitive *to write* is missing but is understood to be the author, which is the explicit subject of the main verb *decided*. Sentences containing participial clauses vary in different ways from the basic SVO WO. Below, one of the differences is shown.

17) Finishing (V) the book (O), the student (S) completed (V) the assignment (O).

The participle *finishing* appears first in the sentence and is followed by its object, *the book*. The main clause, *the student finished the assignment*, contains normal SVO order. The participle clause is interpreted to mean that the student finished the book and the student completed the assignment. But without an explicit subject, the non-SVO order of the participial clause creates a sentence exhibiting VOSVO order.

Despite looking identical to a participle, a gerund clause serves a different function; a subject or object within a sentence. Example 18 contains the gerund clause *playing that game*.

18) The students (S) liked (V) playing that game (O).

Playing that game serves as the object of the verb *liked*. Yet, the gerund clause itself contains a verb (gerund) with its own object *that game*. So, despite the fact that this gerund clause is the O in an SVO structure, internally it has an VO form (Pavić,2013:9).

... playing (V) that game (O).

WO deviation is thus not a deformity that distorts a sentence or hinders its comprehension. It is simply a variation which occurs in a limited set of cases which may reflect certain purposes intended by the speaker, as Jespersen noted in Section 2.

. Word order errors 5

Errors made by learners of a second/foreign language is a topic that has drawn the attention of linguists, behaviorists, psychologists and many others. One of the pioneers to address the topic of errors was Fries (1945). He concluded that errors created in a second/foreign language are inherently present in the mother tongue. His ideas were focused on American structural linguistics, which compared the target and source

languages from a behavioral perspective. Thus, in order for a new structure to be formed, a second behavior is developed from a system of patterns learned in the mother tongue, over the shallower sections and more slowly in the deeper sections. Broughton et al. (1980:46) note that student WO errors is a hotly debated topic. A behaviorist, for example, would contend that through making mistakes the learner is practicing the wrong things and developing undesirable habits, therefore, learners should never be exposed to the position of making errors. A mentalist view suggests that errors are unavoidable, that learners at any given point of their growing competence possess of an interim grammar which is by definition imperfect, that we actually learn from our mistakes. As a consequence, the systemic comparison of languages clarifies all of the challenges that learners face. Related items are easy to remember, while dissimilar items result in a negative transition and, as a result, errors. Lado with Fries (1945) that the mother tongue has a great effect on (1957) agrees learning foreign languages, which leads to a learner's first language perhaps being one of the sources of errors.

6. Types of error

Researchers in the field of applied linguistics classify errors based on different perspectives.

6.1 Errors of competence and performance

According to Corder (1973:132) errors of competence are related to the learner's cognitive development. They are systematic and the learner cannot correct him/herself. Errors of performance, on the other hand, are made by the learner due to certain conditions like stress, fatigue and emotional strain. They occur because of the carelessness of the learner and they are random. The learner knows the rules, therefore, he is able to correct him/herself. This corresponds to what is commonly called a fault.

6.2 Global and local errors

For Burt and Kipasky (1974, as cited in Touchie (1986: 76)) an error can be global or local, which can refer to a single word, part of the phase or the whole sentence. According to these two linguists, the global error is an error that affects the overall structure of the sentence and extremely hinders

communication. Brown (2007: 231) confirms that, adding that they prevent the hearer from comprehending some aspect of the message. For example, "*Well, it's a great hurry around*," in whatever context, may be difficult to interpret.

On the other hand, local errors unlike the global errors affect only one element and do not change the meaning of the statement. Muhammad and Dahlan (2019: 285) add that local errors do not prevent the message from being heard because there is only a minor violation of one segment of a sentence allowing a hearer/reader to make an accurate guess about the intended meaning.

6.3 Errors of sentence structure

Corder (1973: 277) classifies these errors into four kinds.

6.3.1 Omission

This occurs when an element is missing in the sentence.

*19) * He studying*

20) He is studying

6.3.2 Substitution

It occurs when the learner replaces one element of the sentence with another.

*21) *She have written her homework.*

22) She has written her homework .

6.3.3 Addition

This happens when the second/foreign language learner adds an element to the sentence.

*23)*He made me to pay his bills.*

24) He made me pay his bills.

6.3.4 Misordering sentence elements

This occurs when the learner puts elements of the sentence in incorrect positions.

*25)*They could have not succeeded.*

26) They couldn't have succeeded.

7. Sources of errors

Sources of errors made by second/foreign language learners are explained differently by different applied linguists. Touchie (1986:75) specifies two major sources of error. The first is interference from the native language, while the second can be attributed to intralingual and developmental factors. Corder (1975), Richards (1980) and Selinker (1972) are among the early linguists who have addressed the issue of sources of error in second/foreign language learning. Broughton et al (1980:136) point out that there is a source of error language learners bring with them into the learning process, namely their mother tongue. Even more importantly, the learning process itself is the source of other errors. Based on this account, errors are classified into the following three types.

7.1 Interlingual errors

Interlingual factor is considered as a significant source of learner errors. Selinker (1972: 214) puts forward the notion of 'interlanguage', arguing that the productions of a learner of a second language do not conform to what is expected of a native speaker. The error results, in this case, from the learner's native language or more precisely negative transfers the learner makes from his/her mother tongue to the second language he/she is learning.

7.2 Intralingual errors

Brown (2007:232) notes that one of the major contributions of learner language research has been its recognition of sources of error that extend beyond interlingual errors. It is now clear that intralingual transfer (within the target language itself) is a major factor in second language learning. Intralingual error is a prime factor of errors, where the students produce errors because of the wrong application of incomplete understanding. Richards (1971, as cited in Corder, 1975:208-9) subcategorizes these errors into the following three types.

7.2.1 Errors of overgeneralization

Brown (2007: 98) states that overgeneralization occurs when a second language learner applies a rule in that language so extensively that it

trespasses its limits of application. It is the incorrect application—negative transfer—of previously learned second language material to a present second language context. All generalizing involves transfer and all transfer involves generalizing(ibid:99).

*27) *She is the most happy girl in the class.*

28) She is the happiest girl in the class.

7.2.2 Simplification

The learner uses a procedure which aims at reducing the complexity of the target language by using simple structures instead of complicated ones.

*29) *What she gave to you?*

30) What did she give you?

7.2.3 Ignoring rules of limitations

The learners apply rules or structures in contexts where they must not be applied.

*31) *He can passes the exam.*

32) He can pass the exam.

Selinker (1972: 219-31), on the other hand, argues that there are certain strategies that could be the sources of errors:

1. Faulty teaching techniques
2. Techniques followed by the learner to learn a second language
3. Fossilization, which refers to the types of errors that are stable and are not manifesting any development.

8. Analysis

Participants 8.1

Subjects of this study are 76 third year English students, of the academic year 2017/2018, College of Arts, University of Baghdad.

Samples 8.2

Samples of the study consist of the seventy six students' essay exam papers. The samples were originally designed by the instructor for exam purposes, therefore, the outcome is expected to be more expressive of the subjects' linguistic behavior than it would be in a controlled environment.

The texts produced by the subjects are on different topics which relate to everyday life.

Data analysis 8.3

In order to obtain the most relevant results, the analysis identifies specific WOE's: those where elements of a sentence are all 'present' but misplaced. This excludes other definitions of WOE's introduced earlier since they involve more than just order (deletion, wrong word choice, etc.). WO is tackled in the most precise manner when all the elements are there in the sentence; otherwise how would their order be compared, and relative to which word's position? Replacing one word with another, even across different parts of speech, does not signal WOE either, simply because the slot and the word itself do not shift if a wrong word is selected. This could be more conveniently classified as a vocabulary error. Deletion also offers no room for comparing locations since the remaining elements would still be in their positions.

Subjects' WOE's in this study are located and analyzed, taking into account recognizing all errors in a sentence; which means the possibility of identifying multi error sentences. Other subjects' errors (e.g. misspells, punctuation) were disregarded and corrections were not provided since they are irrelevant to the purpose of the study.

Error percentage is calculated relative to the number of sentences; for example 50% error means that the number of errors is half the number of sentences.

Results and discussion 8.4

Inspecting subjects' essays reveals different WOE's; some of them local, others global. The errors ranged from misplacing *prepositional phrases* to misordering *subjects/verbs/objects* as a whole. The most recurring WOE is misplacing *prepositional phrases*, especially *adverbials*. There are two possible reasons for this: the effect of mother tongue (Arabic) where WO is flexible to a great extent, and the variety of slots an adverbial can occupy in English. The nature of the structure itself can be misleading; when an adverbial has more than one word as a phrase, it can be trickier to identify and classify and, therefore, locate.

Less frequent, but still also very recurrent, is misordering *subject/verb*. This can also be ascribed to interference of mother tongue where the verb comes before the subject or, in many other cases that are grammatically acceptable, the order can be very flexible.

Premodifiers, especially *adjectival* ones, and *auxiliary* verb WOE's come next in frequency. Less frequent are the negative word *not*, *question form with statement meaning or vice versa*, *conjunctions*, *determiners*, *wh-clauses*, *if-clauses*, *subject complement*, *objects of prepositions*, *comparative structures*, *postmodifiers*, *object/adverb*, *verb/adverb*, *conjunction/subject*, *verb/object*, *subject/verb/object*, *determiner/noun*, *qualifier/preposition/numeral*, and *there-clause*.

Noteworthy is that the relationship between failure in this exam and WOE's is not that direct. The increase in the number of WOE's does not result in failure. Some of the subjects who failed had 0% WOE's and some of those who passed had up to 20%. errors To be more precise, the number of subjects who failed and had 0% WOE's is more than those who passed and had the same percentage; 13, 11 respectively. However, none of the subjects who passed exceeded 20% WOE's. Yet, the number of subjects who failed and had 20% WOE's is more than those who passed; 3, 1 respectively. And the number of subjects with 0% WOE's who failed is more than those who passed. Students who had ≤50% WOE's all failed.

A stronger connection is found between the type of WOE and the result of the exam. Global WOE's accompanied failed subjects in ≈87% of the time. Thus, it is not having too many WOE's that is the direct factor of failure, it is the type of WOE (that distorts meaning and hinders comprehension) that makes subjects more prone to fail (13 subjects out of 15 failed).

Noteworthy, also, is the number of WOE's per topic. The absence of WOE's is seen in ≈56% of essays on *Euthanasia*, followed by 39% of those on *Allowing Uneducated People to Vote*, then 37.5% of those on *Soccer* and finally in 26.5% of those on *Private Colleges* (the topic most written on).

When it comes to gender there is no direct correlation between the number of WOE's and gender. The complete absence of WOE's among females' and males' writings represents 31% and 35% of each group respectively. Results for having ≥ 49% WOE's are not similar, but not very different 90% and 100% respectively. A striking feature of female writings is Global WOE's. They are present in 13 out of 59 female essays, which makes 22% of total female essays, 21% of total female errors and ≈88.9% of overall GWOE's.

9. Conclusions

Analyzing WOE's based on the existence of all sentence elements is looking at writing from a different angle. It is seeing the 'biggest' picture. It also means assessing learners' written production in a different way and explicating their errors with a fresh perspective. Hence, the abovementioned analysis reveals that the learner is aware of what should be present in their writing, but they are at the same time unaware of the weight of that which is present. They may also be unaware of the roles of those elements. Moreover, the learner may even be incognizant of the part of speech of the words they are using and, consequently, misplacing them. We can resemble that to having the raw materials but not knowing how to use them or the order in which to mix them. The learner has to know where each piece of the puzzle goes. Consequently, they need to familiarize themselves more with parts of speech, the difference between the form and function of words—the majority of Iraqi EFL learners still believe that anything with ***–ing*** is a verb! There is need to adopt a more functional grammatical approach.

One of the sources of WOE's in this study is the influence of mother tongue. It is a major source of writing errors in general, as Ridha (2012: 41) noted. Again, such influence shows a lack of familiarity with the foreign language. This calls for an emphasis on the production of extended pieces of writing (and speaking as well) by learners, provided that it is unguided production. Avoiding the use of mother tongue during the teaching process is also of importance. The less room there is for the mother tongue, the more there is for the foreign.

The analysis also shows that most of the subjects who failed the test had global WOE's, and global WOE's render a text completely unintelligible. This means that the subject failed to identify the correct position of a word, its part of speech, function, or was strongly influenced by mother tongue transfer. Besides its very frequent appearance throughout the analysis, mother tongue effect was detected in 11 out of 18 global errors, and for the majority of these errors the source was mainly colloquial mother tongue (9 out of the 11 errors), not even standard mother tongue. What this indicates is that the subjects were translating literally from their first language (a feature of machine translation) which means that Arabic structures were copied into an English text (with no regard to context). Nevertheless, this analysis sees the glass half full; the subjects were able to provide all the required components of a sentence which shows their awareness of a basic requirement of sentence structure. The next step is to enhance their awareness of the multiple roles a single element can have and where this roles locate the element in a sentence.

	Count/Value/Percentage
Male Subjects	17
Female Subjects	59
Errors	94
Local Errors	76 = 80%
Global Error	18 = 20%
Number of students who passed	20 ≈ 26%
Number of students who failed	56 ≈ 74%
≤ 100% WOE's	1 ≈ 1%
≤ 50% WOE's	6 ≈ 7.8%
≥ 49% WOE's	70 ≈ 92%
= 0% WOE's	24 ≈ 32%

Table 1
Total Values Chart

WOE

	= 100%*	≤ 50%*	≥ 49%*	= 0%*	Local**	Global**
F	1/1.7/1	6/10/8	53/90/70	18/31/24	59/79/63	16/21/17
M	0/0/0	0/0/0	17/100/22	6/35/8	17/89/18	2/11/2

Table 2
Gender Based Account of WOE's

*** WOE Occurrences/Percentage by Gender/Overall Percentage**
**** WOE Type Occurrences/Percentage by Type and Gender/Overall Percentage**

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Appendix 1 Iraqi EFL learner's essay sample.

5/20

"Euthanas should be logalized"

In many Country in the World that Euthanas is illegal unlegal and no body can do That in any Situation, but in some Country as Said There is some people ~~has~~ take a pearmition to Euthanasia ecpicaly in the hard ~~ill~~ like Cancer.
severe illness c

I think that is normal thing the people asked for it if there are can't live any more, Maybe ~~the~~ There is in bad bain, p The people in the hospital whom can't be thinking for anything exapt the decael.

In Iraq that is not exaptabale acceptable because ~~the~~ Islam prevants Kill self for any reason, So we can ~~see~~ See many people suffring in the bad hospitals for a lotof dizises like Cancer, and ~~I can't~~ agree with Euthanas in this Stuation not anothe.

every Country in world should be logdlized this issue because no one can be carries big bain in his body and the Euthanas is the good reason for the people how can live any more.