



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**College of Graduate Studies**

**College of Languages**



# **Role of Using Lexical Relations in Developing Vocabulary and Fluency**

(A Case Study of 3<sup>rd</sup> Year of Languages Students Majoring in English as  
a Foreign Language at Sudan University of Science and Technology)

دور إستخدام المتعلقات المعجمية في تطوير الذخيرة اللغوية والطلاقة اللفظية

دراسة حالة دارسي اللغة بالسنة الثالثة بكلية اللغات جامعة السودان

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for PhD  
Degree in English Language (Applied Linguistics)**

**By**

**Selma Eltejani Ali Ibrahim**

**Supervised by:**

**Dr. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed**

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# **Dedication**

My great pleasure to dedicate this effort to my beloved parents, husband and children.

# Acknowledgments

I am very much indebted to Prof. *Mahmoud Ali Ahmed*, my supervisor for his patience and efforts in bringing out this research.

Thanks are also due to my colleagues and everyone helped in this research.

## Abstract

The present study was carried out to investigate *Role of Using Lexical Relations in Developing Vocabulary and Fluency*. The most important hypotheses are: The teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary and enhances their fluency, also undergraduates' syllabuses do not include sufficiently lexical relation items. The study adopted a mixed-method approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This situation has the effect of allowing the instruments used in the research to go together in a complementary manner. For this reason, an experiment, questionnaires, and class observations were used for data collection. The proposed experiment will be conducted at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages. Two groups will be adopted, the experimental and control group, on basis of a pre-test and a post-test. The tests will be set in such a way as to account for a greater part for lexical relations, namely synonyms. The (SPSS) program version 19 was used for data analysis. The key findings are summarized and a concise set of recommendations such as : Teachers should understand and assess the role of lexical relations introduce them to their students after careful consideration also Tutors should utilize lexical relations to reduce anxiety amongst their students which might ensue as result of lack of understanding and inability to cope with the text in question and the classroom as a whole and, Teachers should encourage students to make their own glosses in order to inculcate and entrench the concept of lexical relations.



## Abstract (Arabic Version)

### مستخلص الدراسة

تهدف هذه الدراسة الي معرفة دور إستخدام المتعلقات المعجمية في تطوير الذخيرة اللغوية والطلاقة اللفظية. ومن أهم فرضيات الدراسة إن تدريس المتعلقات المعجمية يرتقي بالذخيرة اللغوية والطلاقة اللفظية للطالب الجامعي، أيضاً نجد أن المناهج الدراسية لا تحتوي علي قدر كافٍ من عناصر المتعلقات المعجمية. اتبعت في هذه الدراسة الازدواجية بين كل من المنهج الوصفي التحليلي والتجربة ، وهذا يتيح الفرصة لوسائل جمع المعلومات الفاعلية في جمع المعلومات بكل دقة ووضوح. ووسائل جمع البيانات المستخدمة في هذه الدراسة هي الاستبانة والتجربة والملاحظة. وقد طبقت التجربة في طلاب جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا – كلية اللغات وهناك مجموعة تجريبية ومجموعة ضابطة أُجري عليهم اختبار قبلي وبعدي التي وضحت مفهوم المترادفات كإحدى عناصر المتعلقات المعجمية. وقد أُستخدم برنامج التحليل الاحصائي للعلوم الانسانية النسخة 19 لتحليل بيانات الدراسة مما ساعد في ايجاد الحلول ، ومن أهم التوصيات التي توصلت إليها الدراسة يجب علي الأساتذة الاهتمام بمعرفة وتقييم دور إستخدام المتعلقات المعجمية وتقديمه الي طلابهم ، وكذلك يجب علي الأساتذة إستخدام المتعلقات المعجمية للتقليل من توتر الطلاب وعدم المقدرة علي فهم النص خاصةً والتماشي مع الاسئلة المطروحة بصورة عامة. وأخيراً يجب علي الأساتذة تشجيع الطالب الجامعي علي تدوين الملاحظات والتعليقات لإسترجاع وترسيخ مفهوم المتعلقات المعجمية.

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# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

# Chapter One

## Introduction

### Background

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

### 1.1 Context of the study.

Discovering and understanding the use of words which have the lexical relations such as synonym is important for the accurate and effective choice of words in communication and translation. A lexical relation is a culturally recognized pattern of association that exists between lexical units in a language. One such relation is what is generally termed as *paradigmatic* relation. Paradigmatic is complex in that the word *happy* is synonymous with the simple set: “*happy, joyful, and glad*”. To further illustrate this phenomenon the temperature set “*cool, cold, lukewarm, warm and hot*”. This underlying structure can be thought of as *scale*. Another good example which can be taken as a part of the paradigmatic relations is what is termed as the “*Opposites*”. This can be illustrated with reference to the field of social relation set of pairs: “student-teacher” patient-doctor” as an underlying structure.

Lexical relations have yet a fourth part known as *generic specific* terms with the set of “whole-part”, which can be exemplified by “*house, walls, roof*”. This can be grouped under the underlying structure: tree.

A paradigmatic term is a term that describes the substitutional relationships that a linguistic unit has with other units. For example in the

sentence below “*I killed a rat*”, each of the words can be exchanged with a number of other words without changing the basic syntactic arrangements: “*You* reared a rabbit, *they* walked the dog, *He* nursed a parrot, *she* fed the cat.

The importance of paradigmatic relations relies in the fact that it is one of the significant criteria in the classification of words into various categories such as nouns, verbs, pronouns. Judging by the example above items which can substitute “I” will be pronouns and those which can substitute “killed” will be verbs.

What adds to the importance of paradigmatic relations is that they are not only realized at the syntactic level but other linguistic levels, too. To further illustrate this point, at the phonological level, the phonemes /p/, /k/ and /f/ can be substituted for /f/ in the context of /it/ as in (poked, cracked, flapped, etc).

Paradigmatically related items are often referred to as the *system*, and so linguist in handling issues in relation to the system they talk about pronoun systems and verbal system.

On the other hand, *syntagmatic* is a term that refers to the sequential characteristics of language. In constructing words and sentences a certain order will be followed in arranging individual items. For example in forming /dog/ the phonemes of the word dog has to be uttered in that order. Any other order would make the sequence unacceptable or would give a different meaning. One more thing to mention is that each phoneme of the word *dog* is referred as *syntagm*.

Like paradigmatic, syntagmatic relations can operate at all linguistic levels. In the phrase *thewoman* which consists of a determiner plus noun,

we can put a variety of items between the determiner *the* and the noun *woman*, but we are not allowed to reverse or swap them.

The paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations together constitute the identity of an item within the linguistic systems as the whole. To illustrate this point, every linguistic item *phoneme*, *morpheme*, *word* can be characterized or identified by: 1. where it is able to occur with other units sequentially (its distribution), and 2 referring to the set of terms with which it can be interchanged (substituted).

Which relation is stronger? The syntagmatic relation is stronger and can easily dominate the paradigmatic relation. Consider the following example: The *butter* became *rancid*. In this example the paradigmatic is weak enough, that it can only permit the occurrence of one or two substitutions: the oil became rancid or the cheese became rancid. However, the example: the *huge* money, the adjective huge can be substituted by a number of adjectives. Consider the following example: The doge barked. What else can bark? It is obvious that the syntagmatic relation overwhelms or directs the paradigmatic relation since the scope of the latter is so narrow.

It follows from the above presentation of facts over the syntagmatic versus paradigmatic relations that they represent an important area in semantics suggesting that students should be well aware of. In order to enhance the students' vocabulary this area has to be carefully handled and taken care of in the syllabus. The size of a person's working vocabulary is both a measure of educational attainment and a key to academic and career success. Vocabulary development, for example, is crucial to success in reading. Research shows that the proportion of "difficult" words in a text is the single most important predictor of the difficulty of

the text, while the size of a person's vocabulary is the best predictor of how well that person can understand the text (Anderson and Free body 1981)

Strategies for fostering vocabulary development fall into two broad categories: teaching strategies for vocabulary *directly* and learning new words *indirectly*. Generally, school-age children learn about 3,000 new words a year, but only about 10 percent of these words come from direct vocabulary instruction. The rest come from their everyday experiences with oral communication, listening to text read aloud, and reading a wide variety of texts independently.

Researchers conclude that teachers can have the biggest impact on vocabulary by increasing the amount of incidental word learning (Nagy and Herman 1987).

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The problem with most undergraduate studies as far as the area of vocabulary is concerned is their strong belief that vocabulary can be developed by frequently using their dictionaries. Though this concept is true to a large extent, dictionaries are not the sole tools for building vocabularies.

Syllabuses followed at undergraduate level should cater to include in huge parts whole section of lexical relations in order to help students get a better grasp of the English language. Areas, such as synonym are entirely neglected though students study parts of that in their linguistic courses. Some of the students know the theory but hardly think of applying that into their speech or writing.

In order for the undergraduates to become fluent in writing and speaking they should be exposed to a substantial amount of vocabulary learning and teaching taking into account the representation of elements of lexical relations such as syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. These should be

studied practically considering enough training of their use through carefully controlled exercises.

Tutors themselves particularly new ones have to be exposed to good training in handling such courses particularly at lower grades of undergraduate courses.

### **1.3 Objectives**

One of the prime objectives of the present research is to draw attention to the importance of including the study of lexical relations as part of the syllabus at undergraduate level in order to boost the standards of the students. This should incorporate as part of the portion allocated to teaching vocabulary. Enhancing students awareness of semantic concepts as synonym and antonym and how can be used in different contexts can have the effect of maximizing their vocabulary and hence their fluency.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study is significant in a number of ways. First it draws attention to the inclusion of lexical relations in the syllabus at undergraduate level for the purpose of boosting students' vocabulary and increasing their fluency. A second important factor, as far as the researcher knows is that very few if ever studies were carried out in this realm. So to this end, the present study is a pioneering one, and more studies are expected to follow in its footprint.

A third factor is that it draws attention to problems associated with syllabus design and teacher training at university level. First and second years syllabuses are entrusted to national designers who perhaps with no adequate knowledge in the area of linguistics and how elements as lexical relations can be accounted for in the syllabus. Syllabuses designed abroad

are comparatively better designed and provide the essential dose in this respect.

### **1.5 Questions**

1. To what extent can the teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary and enhances their fluency?
2. To what extent do undergraduates' syllabuses include lexical relation items?
3. To what extent are the tutors trained to handle such issues as lexical relations?

### **1.6 Hypotheses**

1. The teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary and enhances their fluency.
2. Undergraduates' syllabuses include lexical relation items
3. Tutors teaching English language at undergraduate level are not trained to handle such issues as lexical relations.

### **1.7 Limits of the study**

As the teaching of all lexical relations is potentially difficult to be done in one study, this research, accordingly will be restricted to handling syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations namely in the area of synonyms. Other areas such as hyponyms will be suggested for other researchers.

### **1.8 Methodology of the Study**

In this study, experimental methods will be adopted. The proposed experiment will be conducted at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages. Two groups will be adopted, the experimental and control group, on basis of a pre-test and a post-test. The tests will be set in such a way as to account for a greater part for lexical relations, namely synonyms. A questionnaire will be administered to both teachers and students. Furthermore, some language classes will be



observed. The researcher will also confirm the validity and the reliability of the research tools before their application.

### **1.9 Summary of the chapter**

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.

# **Chapter Two**

## **Literature Review and Previous Studies**

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **Overview**

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue of lexical relations and the hurdles they most probably pose to comprehending written discourse or texts. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

#### **Part One: Theoretical Framework**

#### **Part Two: Previous Related Work**

#### **2.0 Preview**

Though the present study sets out with the prime objective of exploring through probing handling and investigation the question of lexical relations in semantics, the study will take as its point of departure the examination in broad general terms the issue of lexical semantics. This is due to the fact that lexical relations are a sub-discipline of lexical semantics. It is also believed that starting primarily discussing lexical semantics will provide a solid ground for the investigation of the core issue of the study, namely lexical relations.

To begin with, the academic discipline which is concerned with the study of the meaning of words is called Lexical semantics. Lexical semanticists are thus interested in a number of issues as far as discipline is concerned:

- (i) What words mean,
- (ii) Why they mean what they mean
- (iii) How they are represented in the speakers' mind
- (iv) How they are used in texts and discourse.

Some of the neighboring disciplines with which lexical semantics intersects include:

- Philosophy
- Psychology
- Anthropology
- Computer science, and
- Pedagogy

Within linguistics, it crucially overlaps with what is traditionally referred to as lexicology, which is the overall study of the vocabularies of languages, encompassing topics such as morphology and etymology and social, regional and dialectal aspects of the vocabulary (Cruse,

Hundsnurscher, Job & Lutzeier, 2002, Hanks, 2007, Geeraerts, 2010). Lexical semantics also provides the foundation for various fields of applied research, such as research in language acquisition and learning, i.e. as how native speakers and learners of foreign languages acquire lexical knowledge (e.g. Robinson & Ellis, 2008, Gullberg & Indefrey, 2010, Pütz & Sicola, 2010), with computational linguistics (e.g. Pustejovsky, 1995, Asher & Lascarides, 2003) and with lexicography — the art and science of dictionary-making (Béjoint, 2010)

## 2.1 Fundamental Issues in Lexical Semantics

Hereunder, five issues that are of central importance to the theories of lexical semantics will be discussed. The key questions to be posed here are as follows:

- (i) What is the nature of meaning in language?
- (ii) What is the relation between words and their meaning?
- (iii) How are meanings of words learnt and stored?
- (iv) How are meanings of words communicated and understood by language users?
- (v) How and why do meanings of words change?

As far as the meaning of “word” is concerned, different interpretation and explanation have been provided by linguists. It is define as a unit in writing which proceeded with a space and followed by a space. However, in the present research a word is taken to be more than one word as in the case of *in spite of*, *at all*, *computer science*, *all of a sudden*.

It is the **context**, in this study, that governs the meaning of the words not any of the definitions provided so far. Below are examples to illustrate this phenomenon:

- (1) The *mouse* ran across the floor
- (2) I always use the touch pad – never the *mouse*.
- (3) I like *white* wine
- (4) I don't like *white* coffee
- (5) I *closed* my savings account with the local bank yesterday.
- (6) I *closed* the door and went away.

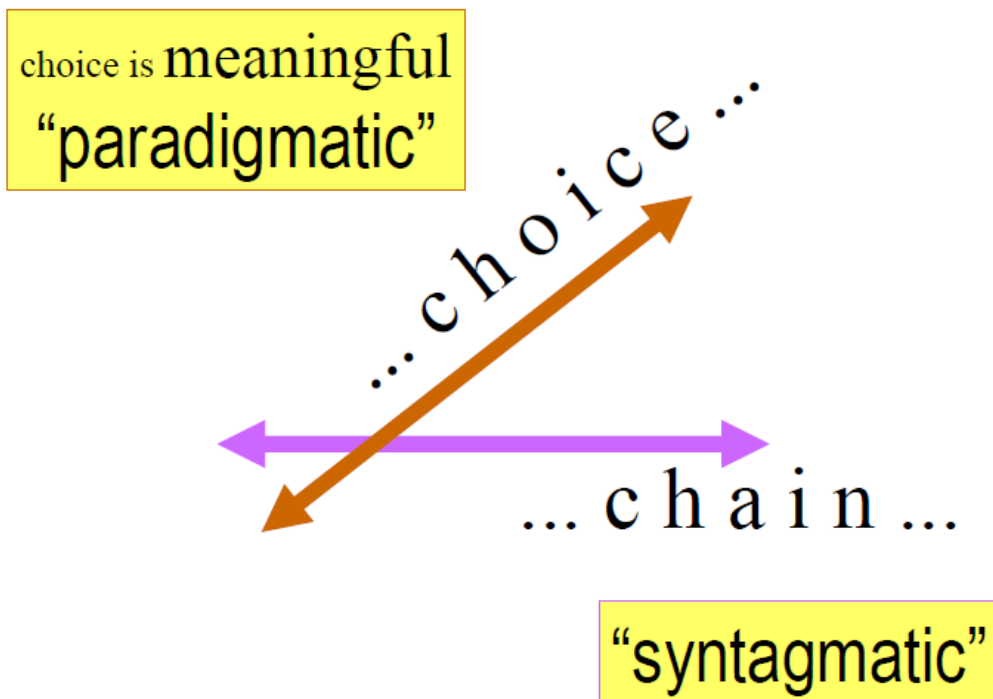
The contextual variants of *mouse*, *white* and *closed* are interesting in different ways. *Mouse* in (1) and (2) differ with respect to the entities they refer to in the different contexts – an animal and a computer device, respectively. *White* in (3) and (4) is used about beverages, but the color of the two beverages that are described as *white* are quite different, the color of whitewine is yellow, and the color of white coffee is light brown. Finally, in (5) and (6) the closing of an account is clearly different from

the concrete closing of a door, and an interesting question in relation to this is of course what kind of entities can be closed. Contextual variation of this kind is at the heart of lexical semantics.

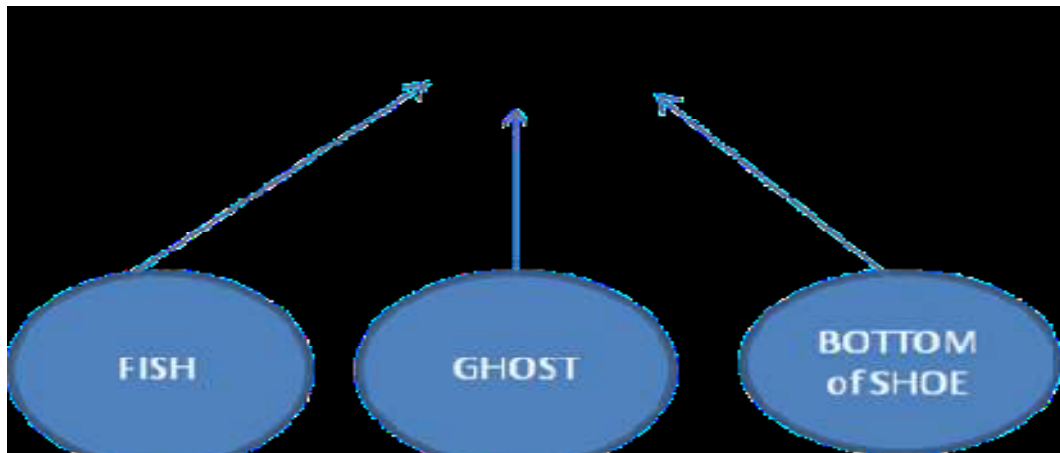
### 2.1.1 Paradigmatic vs. Syntagmatic Relations

Paradigmatic is a term that describes the **substitutional** relationships that a linguistic unit has with other units. For example in the sentence below each of the words can be **exchanged** with a number of words without changing the basic **syntactic** arrangement.

- (i) I gave her a gift
- (ii) You gave him a book
- (iii) He played the guitar
- (iv) We sat under a shady tree
- (v) The child threw the ball



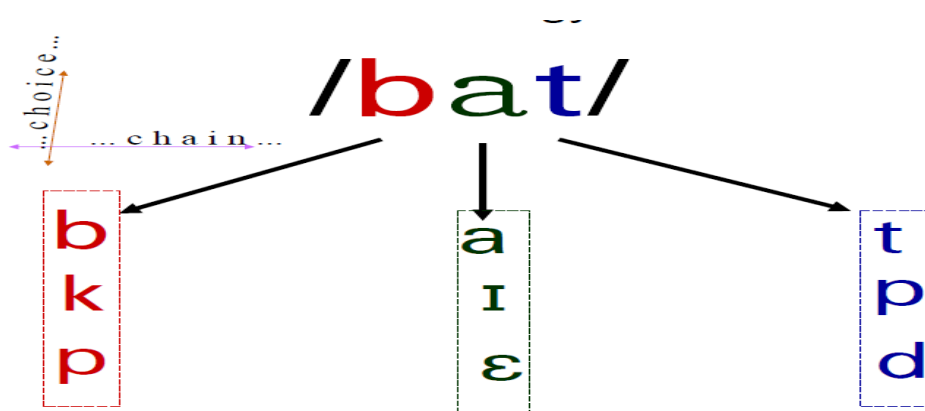
## Representation of the lexical item “Sole”



The importance of paradigmatic relations lies in the fact that it can be used as a criterion for the classification of words into various categories such as: *noun*, *verb*, *pronoun* etc. Items that will be used to substitute for (I) will be pronouns where those used for substituting (gave) will be verbs.

Paradigmatic relations are not realized at syntactic level only. They can be realized at all levels of the language. The following entities are in phonological paradigmatic relations: The phonemes /p/, /k/ and /f/ can substitute /f/ in the context of /-it/ as in (poked, cracked, flapped, etc)

### Phonemes/Phonology: Contrastive Units



Sets of paradigmatically related items are often referred to as **SYSTEMS**, and so linguists talk about the “consonant systems”, “the pronoun systems”.

Syntagmatic is a term that refers to the **sequential** characteristics of language. Upon constructing words or sentence we follow a certain order in arranging the individual items. For instance, in forming /rat/ we are obliged to utter the same phonemes in that order; any other order would make the sequence unacceptable or entirely different in meaning. Each phoneme of the word /rat/ is referred to as *syntagm*.

Like paradigmatic relations, Syntagmatic relations can operate at all linguistic levels. In the phrase “The cat” we can put a variety of items between “*the*” and “*cat*” but we are not allowed to reverse them.

Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations together constitute the identity of an item within the linguistic systems as a whole. In other words every linguistic item (phoneme, morpheme, word, etc) can be identified by:

- (i) Where it is able occur sequentially with other units (its distribution)
- (ii) Referring to the set of terms with which it can be interchanged (substituted)

Syntagmatic relation is stronger than paradigmatic and can become more dominant over it. Consider the following example:

-The *butter* became *rancid*.

In this particular example the paradigmatic relation is extremely weak as it can only allow for two substitutions. May be “the oil became rancid or cheese.” But in the example: *The high mountain*, the adjective *high* can be substituted by hundreds other adjectives. Consider the following:

The dog *barked*

What else can bark? It is only the dog that can bark. So the scope of relations is paradigmatically narrow.

### **2.1.2 Sense Relations**

A **sense relation** is a paradigmatic **relation** between words or predicates. That is a substitutional relation. Two major types of **sense relations** can be distinguished: **Sense relations** of inclusion, esp. hyponymy and synonymy. **Hyponymy** is a sense relation that holds between a more specific predicate and a more general one. For example, *dog* is a hyponym of *animal*, because all dogs are also animals, but not vice versa. **Synonymy** is a sense relation. It holds between two words or

phrases with the same meaning, like *gift* and *donation*. Hyponymy is the converse of hyperonymy. **Sense relations** of exclusion, esp. complementarity and antonymy (both of which are instances of the **relationship** of incompatibility).

### 2.1.2 Synonymy

By definition synonymy is the semantic relation between two words that have the same (or nearly the same) as was already explained. Considering the great historical eras the English language was destined to undergo, one could safely consider the English language to be peculiarly rich in synonyms. From the time of Julius Cæsar, Britons, Romans, Northmen, Saxons, Danes, and Normans fighting, fortifying, and settling upon the soil of England, with Scotch and Irish contending for mastery or existence across the mountain border and the Channel, and all fenced in together by the sea, could not but influence each other's speech. English merchants, sailors, soldiers, and travelers, trading, warring, and exploring in every clime, of necessity brought back new terms of sea and shore, of shop and camp and battlefield. English scholars have studied Greek and Latin for a thousand years, and the languages of the Continent and of the Orient in more recent times. The clergy or churchmen have introduced words from Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, through Bible and prayer-book, sermon and tract. From all this it results that there is scarcely a language ever spoken among men that has not some representative in English speech. The spirit of the Anglo-Saxon race, masterful in language as in war and commerce, has subjugated all these various elements to one idiom, making not a patchwork, but a composite language. Anglo-Saxon thrift, finding often several words that originally expressed the same idea, has detailed them to different parts of the common territory or to different service, so that we have an almost unexampled variety of words, kindred in meaning but distinct in usage, for expressing almost every shade of human thought.

Scarcely any two of such words, commonly known as synonyms, are identical at once in signification and in use. They have certain common ground within which they are interchangeable; but outside of that each has its own special province, within which any other word comes as an intruder. From these two qualities arises the great value of synonyms as contributing to beauty and effectiveness of expression. As interchangeable, they make possible that freedom and variety by which the diction of an accomplished writer or speaker differs from the wooden uniformity of a legal document. As distinct and specific, they enable a master of style to choose in every instance the one term that is the most [viii] perfect mirror of his thought. To write or speak to the best purpose, one should know in the first place all the words from which he may



choose, and then the exact reason why in any case any particular word should be chosen. To give such knowledge in these two directions is the office of a book of synonyms.

Describing Milton's diction Macaulay writes "'His poetry acts like an incantation. Its merit lies less in its obvious meaning than in its occult power. There would seem, at first sight, to be no more in his words than in other words. But they are words of enchantment. No sooner are they pronounced, than the past is present and the distant near. New forms of beauty start at once into existence, and all the burial places of the memory give up their dead. Change the structure of the sentence; *substitute one synonym for another*, and the whole effect is destroyed. The spell loses its power; and he who should then hope to conjure with it would find himself as much mistaken as Cassim in the Arabian tale, when he stood crying, 'Open Wheat,' 'Open Barley,' to the door which obeyed no sound but 'Open Sesame.' The miserable failure of Dryden in his attempt to translate into his own diction some parts of the 'Paradise Lost' is a remarkable instance of this."

Macaulay's own writings abound in examples of that exquisite precision in the choice of words, which never seems to be precise, but has all the aspect of absolute freedom. Through his language his thought bursts upon the mind as a landscape is seen instantly, perfectly, and beautifully from a mountain height. A little vagueness of thought, a slight infelicity in the choice of words would be like a cloud upon the mountain, obscuring the scene with a damp and chilling mist. Let anyone try the experiment with a poem like Gray's "Elegy," or Goldsmith's "Traveller" or "Deserted Village," of substituting other words for those the poet has chosen, and he will readily perceive how much of the charm of the lines depends upon their fine exactitude of expression.

In our own day, when so many are eager to write, and confident that they can write, and when the press is sending forth by the ton that which is called literature, but which somehow lacks the imprint of immortality, it is of the first importance to revive the study of synonyms as a distinct branch of rhetorical culture. Prevalent errors need at times to be noted and corrected, but the teaching of pure English speech is the best defense against all that is inferior, unsuitable, or repulsive. The most effective condemnation of an objectionable word or phrase is that it is not found in scholarly works, and a student who has once learned the rich stores of vigorous, beautiful, exact, and expressive words that make up our noble language, is by that very fact put beyond the reach of all temptation to linguistic corruption.

The great mass of untrained speakers and writers need to be reminded, in the first place, *that there are synonyms*—a suggestion which they would not gain from any precision of separate definitions in a dictionary. The

deplorable repetition with which many slightly educated persons use such words as "elegant," "splendid," "clever," "awful," "horrid," etc., to indicate (for they cannot be said to express) almost any shade of certain approved or objectionable qualities, shows a limited vocabulary, a poverty of language, which it is of the first importance to correct. Many who are not given to such gross misuse would yet be surprised to learn how often they employ a very limited number of words in the attempt to give utterance to thoughts and feelings so unlike; that what is the right word on one occasion must of necessity be the wrong word at many other times. Such persons are simply unconscious of the fact that there are other words of kindred meaning from which they might choose; as the United States surveyors of Alaska found "the shuddering tenant of the frigid zone" wrapping himself in furs and cowering over a fire of sticks with untouched coal-mines beneath his feet.

Such poverty of language is always accompanied with poverty of thought. One who is content to use the same word for widely different ideas has either never observed or soon comes to forget that there is any difference between the ideas; or perhaps he retains[x] a vague notion of a difference which he never attempts to define to himself, and dimly hints to others by adding to his inadequate word some such phrase as "you see" or "you know," in the helpless attempt to inject into another mind by suggestion what adequate words would enable him simply and distinctly to say. Such a mind resembles the old maps of Africa in which the interior was filled with cloudy spaces, where modern discovery has revealed great lakes, fertile plains, and mighty rivers. One main office of a book of synonyms is to reveal to such persons the unsuspected riches of their own language; and when a series of words is given them, from which they may choose, then, with intelligent choice of words there comes of necessity a clearer perception of the difference of the ideas that are to be expressed by those different words. Thus, copiousness and clearness of language tend directly to affluence and precision of thought.

A good example of synonyms, antonyms and prepositions to be used here is the word: ABANDON

<b>SYNONYMS</b>			
abdicate	desert	Leave	resign
abjure	Discontinue	quit	retire from
Cast off	forego	Recant	retract
cease	forsake	relinquish	surrender
cede	forswear	renounce	vacate
depart from	give up	repudiate	withdraw from

*Abandon* is a word of wide signification, applying to persons or things of any kind; *abdicate* and *resign* apply to office, authority, or power; *cede* to territorial possessions; *surrender* especially to military force, and more generally to any demand, claim, passion, etc. *Quit* carries an idea of suddenness or abruptness not necessarily implied in *abandon*, and may not have the same suggestion of finality. The king *abdicates* his throne, *cedes* his territory, *deserts* his followers, *renounces* his religion, *relinquishes* his titles, *abandons* his designs. A cowardly officer *deserts* his ship; the helpless passengers *abandon* it. We *quit* business, *give up* property, *resign* office, *abandon* a habit or a trust.

*Relinquish* commonly implies reluctance; the fainting hand *relinquishes* its grasp; the creditor *relinquishes* his claim. *Abandon* implies previous association with responsibility for or control of; *forsake* implies previous association with inclination or attachment, real or assumed; a man may *abandon* or *forsake* house or friends; he *abandons* an enterprise; *forsakes* God. *Abandon* is applied to both good and evil action; a thief *abandons* his designs, a man his principles. *Forsake*, like *abandon*, may be used either in the favorable or unfavorable sense; *desert* is always unfavorable,[2] involving a breach of duty, except when used of mere localities; as, "the Deserted Village." While a monarch *abdicates*, a president or other elected or appointed officer *resigns*. It was held that James II. *abdicated* his throne by *deserting* it.

ANTONYMS			
adopt	defend	occupy	seek
advocate	favor	prosecute	support
assert	haunt	protect	undertake
cherish	Hold	pursue	uphold
claim	keep	retain	vindicate
court	maintain		

### 2.1.3 Meaning and Grammar

Drawing a clear-cut distinction between meaning and grammar, grammar has two parts: Morphology deals with the structure of words, e.g. the fact that unfriendliness consists of four parts (called 'morphemes'), each of which has a meaning, and laugh-ing of two morphemes. If a morpheme is added to a word and yields a word of a different kind this is called a derivation, e.g. the formation of adjective beautiful from noun beauty, noun decision from verb decide, verb widen from adjective wide, and verb untie from verb tie. If a morpheme just adds some extra element of meaning to a word which is required by the grammar of the language, then it is called an *inflection*, e.g. the verb kill inflects for past tense,

becoming killed, and the noun horse inflects for plural number, becoming horses.

The second component of grammar, syntax, deals with the way in which words are combined together. In English an adjective must come before a noun and an article before the adjective—we can get the old lion, which is a noun phrase (or NP). A verb (or a verb phrase, such as was sleeping) must in English be preceded by a noun phrase—we get *The old lion was sleeping*, which is a clause.

A sentence may consist of one just clause (it is then called a simple sentence) or it can be a complex sentence, combining a number or several clauses. There may be a main clause and a subordinate clause, joined to it by a conjunction, which can indicate reason (*The old lion was sleeping because he was exhausted*) or temporal sequence (The old lion was sleeping after eating the hunter) and so on.

Underlying both words and grammar there is semantics, the organization of meaning. A word can have two sorts of meaning. First, it may have ‘reference’ to the world: red describes the color of blood; chair refers to a piece of furniture, with legs and a back, on which a human being may comfortably sit. Secondly, a word has ‘sense’, which determines its semantic relation to other words, e.g. narrow is the opposite (more specifically: the antonym) of wide, and crimson refers to a color that is a special sort of red. (We say that crimson is a hyponym of red).

Every morpheme has a meaning. The ending *-er*, added to a verb, may derive a noun which refers either to the agent (e.g. baker) or else to an instrument intended for the activity (e.g. mower). Some morphemes have different meanings with different kinds of word: un- indicates an opposite quality with an adjective (e.g. kind, unkind), but a reverse action with a verb (tie, untie).

Meaning is also associated with the way in which words are combined to make phrases, clauses and sentences. Compare *The dog bit the postman* and *The postman bit the dog*, which involve the same word meanings but quite different sentence meanings because of the different syntactic arrangements.

As language is used, meaning is both the beginning and the end point. A speaker has some message in mind, and then chooses words with suitable meanings and puts them together in appropriate grammatical constructions; all these have established phonetic forms, which motivate how one speaks. A listener will receive the sound waves, decode them, and—if the act of communication is successful—understand the speaker’s message.

The study of language must surely pay close attention to meaning. We consider the meanings of words, and their grammatical properties, and see how these interrelate. When a speaker of a language encounters a new

word they may first of all learn its meaning, and will then have a fair idea of the morphological and syntactic possibilities. Or they may first of all learn something of how to use the word grammatically, and this will help them to work out its meaning.

If a child or adult learner hears the word *boulder* for the first time and discovers that it refers to a large rock, they will know (from analogy with *pebble, rock, stone*) that it must be able to take the plural ending -s, and that it will probably not take the ending -en (*which occurs in widen, blacken*).

Suppose that the verb *begin* is first encountered in a sentence like *He'll soon begin to understand grammar*; that is, the verb is followed by a clause introduced by *to*. Other verbs have this grammatical property, e.g. *He started to read my book, He hopes to finish it*. But the meaning of *begin* is similar to that of *start*, which is why it is scarcely surprising that it can be followed by a clause whose verb ends in -ing (*I began cooking dinner an hour ago*) just as *start* can (*I started writing my thesis yesterday*). And the meaning of *begin* is different from that of *hope*, which is why it should not be surprising that *begin* cannot be followed by a clause introduced by *that*, in the way that *hope* can (e.g. *He hopes that he will finish it*).

There is, as we have said, a principled interaction between the meaning of a word and its grammatical properties. Once a learner knows the meaning and grammatical behavior of most of the words in a language, then from the meaning of a new word they can infer its likely grammatical possibilities; or, from observing the grammatical use of a new word, they may be able to infer a good deal about what it means.

#### **2.1.4 Semantic Types and Grammatical Word Classes**

A language is intensively filled with words, each with a meaning; some meanings are large, others small. The words can be grouped together in a natural way into large classes that have a common meaning component. I will refer to these as **semantic types**. Verbs *begin, start, commence, finish, cease, stop, continue* and a few others all make up one type. (Rather than manufacture some high-sounding label for a type, I generally name it after one of its more important members—calling this the **BEGINNING** type.) Adjectives such as *big, broad, short, shallow* comprise the **DIMENSION** type. And so on, for forty to fifty more types, which between them cover the whole of the vocabulary of a language.

At the level of semantics words can be arranged in semantic types, with a common meaning element. At the level of grammar, they can be arranged in word classes (traditionally called 'parts of speech'), with common morphological and syntactic properties.

Languages differ in the weightings they assign to different parts of grammar. Some languages have a simple morphology but make up for this by having complex rules for the ways in which words are combined. Other languages have long words, typically consisting of many morphemes, but a fairly straightforward syntax. For every language we can recognize word classes, sets of words that have the same grammatical properties, although the nature of these properties will vary, depending on the grammatical profile of the language.

There are two sorts of word classes—major and minor. The minor classes have limited membership and cannot readily be added to. For instance, there are just seven **Personal Pronouns** in English (*me, us, you, him, her, it, them*—see §2.1); new pronouns do not get coined in a hurry. (As a language evolves some pronouns do disappear and others evolve, but this is a slow and natural process. Old English had *thou* for second person singular; its context of use became more and more restricted and it was finally replaced by *you*, which was originally used just for second person plural.) Most minor classes do not have any independent referential meaning (they do not correspond to any object or quality or activity) but serve just to modify words from the major classes, and link them together into phrases, clauses and sentences. Articles (*a, the*, etc.) and Linkers (*and, because, after*, and so on) are minor classes in English, whose functions and meanings should be fully covered within a comprehensive grammar of the language.

Then there are major word classes—such as Noun, Verb and Adjective—which have a large and potentially unlimited membership. It is impossible to give an exhaustive list of the many thousands of nouns, since new ones are being coined all the time (and others will gradually be dropping out of use). Two words that belong to the same class may have almost exactly the same grammatical properties (*monkey* and *baboon*, for instance, or *black* and *red*) and will only be distinguishable through definitions in a dictionary.

For every language a number of major word classes can be recognized, on internal grammatical criteria. Latin has one class (which we can call A) each member of which inflects for case and number, another (B) showing inflection for case, number and gender, and a third (C) whose members inflect for tense, aspect, mood, person and number. Note that it is possible to give entirely morphological criteria for the major word classes in Latin. But English is much less rich morphologically and here the criteria must mingle morphological and syntactic properties. One major word class in English (which we can call X) can have the inflection -ed (or some variant) on virtually every member. A word belonging to a second class (Y) may be immediately preceded by an article and does not need to be followed by any other word. Members of a third open class (Z)

may be immediately preceded by an article and must then normally be followed by a word from class Y.

We can make cross-language identification between classes A and Y, calling these Nouns, between B and Z, calling them Adjective, and between C and X, calling them Verb. The identification is not because of any detailed grammatical similarity (the criteria employed for recognizing word classes in the two languages being rather different) but because the classes show semantic congruence. That is, most nouns in Latin would be translated by a noun in English, and vice versa. (There are just a few exceptions—where English has a noun *hunger* there is a verb in Latin, *esurio* ‘to be hungry’. Interestingly, English has a derived adjective *hungry*, formed from the noun, and Latin also has an adjective *esuriens* ‘hungry’, derived from the verb.)

There is a relationship between semantic types and grammatical word classes. Each major word class is essentially a grouping together of semantic types. The types are related to classes in similar (but not identical) ways in different languages. The Noun class always includes words with concrete reference (*house, foot, grass, star, fire, hill, boy, city, etc.*). It usually also includes kin terms, but in some languages these words belong to the Verb class (after all, *John is Tom's father* indicates a relationship between John and Tom, comparable to *John employs Tom*).

Verbs have different grammatical properties from language to language but there is always a major class Verb, which includes words referring to motion (*run, carry, etc.*), rest (*sit, put*), affect (*hit, cut, burn*), **attention** (*see, hear*), **giving** and **speaking**.

Many semantic types belong to the same word class in every language. But for others there is quite a bit of variation. Words to do with liking (*love, loathe, prefer, etc.*), for instance, belong to the Verb class in some languages, to the Adjective class in other languages, and even to the Noun class in a few languages.

### 2.1.5 Semantic Roles and Syntactic Relations

A verb is the centre of a clause. A verb may refer to some activity and there must be a number of participants who have roles in that activity (e.g. *Sinbad carried the old man*); or a verb may refer to a state, and there must be a participant to experience the state (e.g. *My leg aches*).

A set of verbs is grouped together as one semantic type partly because they require the same set of participant roles. All GIVING verbs require a Donor, a Gift and a Recipient, as in *John gave a bouquet to Mary, Jane lent the Saab to Bill*, or *The Women's Institutes supplied the soldiers with socks*. All ATTENTION verbs take a **Perceiver** and an **Impression** (that which is seen or heard), as in *I heard the crash, I witnessed the accident, I*

*recognized the driver's face.* Affect verbs are likely to involve an Agent, a Target, and something that is manipulated by the Agent to come into contact with the Target (which *I call the Manip*). A Manip can always be stated, although it often does not have to be, e.g. *John rubbed the glass (with a soft cloth), Mary sliced the tomato (with her new knife), Tom punched Bill (with his left fist).*

We are here working at the semantic level, and it should be stressed that each type has a quite distinct set of roles. There is nothing in common between Gift (that which is transferred from one owner to another) and Impression (an object or activity that is seen or heard), or Perceiver (a person who receives visual or auditory sense impressions) and Agent (a person who wields a Manip to come into contact with a Target), and so on. There are about thirty semantic types associated with the Verb class. Some verbs, such as those in the giving and affect types, have three semantic roles. Some, like attention, have just two. And some have just one (corporeal verbs like breathe, and motion verbs like fall). Altogether, it is necessary to recognize forty or fifty semantic roles.

Turning now to syntax, we find that every language has a limited number of syntactic relations. Subject and Object are probably universal relations, which apply to every language. But just as the criteria for the major word classes Noun and Verb differ from language to language, so do the ways in which syntactic relations are marked. In Latin, for instance, the Subject occurs in nominative case (e.g. *domin-us* 'master-nominative') and the object in accusative case (e.g. *serv-um* 'slave-accusative'). Words can occur in many different orders in a clause in Latin, so that *Dominus servum videt, Servum videt dominus, Videt dominus servum,* etc. all means 'The master sees the slave'. In English, nouns have no case inflection and grammatical relations are shown primarily by word order, Subject before the verb and Object after it.

The roles of each type, at the semantic level, are mapped onto syntactic relations, at the grammatical level. For attention verbs, for instance, the Perceiver is grammatical Subject and the Impression is marked as Object. There are quite often several different ways in which semantic roles may be associated with grammatical relations. With the giving type either the Gift may be Object, as in *Jane lent the Saab to Bill,* or the Recipient may be, as in *Jane lent Bill the Saab;* for both of these clauses the Donor is Subject. It is also possible to have Recipient as Subject, and then a different verb is used: *Bill borrowed the Saab from Jane.* Borrow is the semantic converse of lend; both verbs belong to the giving type and involve the same three semantic roles.

For affect verbs the Agent is usually the Subject and the Target the Object, with the Manip marked by a preposition such as *with*—*John hit the pig with his stick.* But we can have the Manip in Object slot (this often



carries an implication that the Manip is less strong than the Target, and likely to be more affected by the impact)—John hit his stick against the lamppost. Or, as a third alternative, the Manip can be placed in Subject relation—*John's stick hit* Mary (when he was swinging it as she walked by, unnoticed by him); use of this construction type may be intended to imply that John was not responsible for any injury inflicted.

Verbs fall into two broad subclasses—those that require only one role (intransitive verbs) and those which require two or more roles (transitive verbs). There is considerable difference between intransitive subject and transitive subject. We will need to refer a good deal to these relations, so it will be useful to employ abbreviatory letters for them, and for object:

S—intransitive subject

A—transitive subject

O—transitive object

If a verb has only one role, at the semantic level, then it must be mapped onto S relation, at the syntactic level. Some of the roles in S slot can control the activity in which they are involved (e.g. walk, speak) but other S roles exercise no control (e.g. break, die, grow).

If a verb has two or more roles, one will be mapped onto A and another onto O. It is the role which is most relevant for the success of the activity which is put in A relation; compare Bill tried to borrow the Saab from Jane with Jane tried to lend the Saab to Bill. And it is the non-A role which is regarded as most salient for the activity (often, the role which is most affected by the activity) which is put into O relation—compare *Mary cut the cake into slices* with *Mary cut slices of the cake*.

There is a subset of transitive verbs which require a further argument (sometimes called E, for extension to the core). The extended transitive (or ditransitive) verbs in English include give, show and also put. (One cannot say just *\*I put the teapot*, it is necessary to specify where it was put, e.g. on the table or here.)

A number of verbs have dual transitivity; that is, they can be used both transitively and intransitively. These ‘*ambitransitive*’ (or ‘labile’) verbs fall into two types. Some *ambitransitives* identify O in transitive with S in intransitive use, as in *John (A) broke the glass(O)* and *The glass(S) broke*. Others identify A with S, as in *Mary (A) has eaten lunch (O)* and *Mary (S) has eaten*.

Besides the major intransitive and transitive clause types, there is a minor but important type, copula clause. This involves two further grammatical relations:

CS—copula subject

CC—copulas complement

In English, the CS has similar properties to S and A; however, in some languages CS is like S and unlike A, and in at least one language it is like

A and unlike S. What follows the copula verb (generally *be* or *become*) is the CC; for example, the CC is enclosed in brackets in *My son is [a doctor]*, *You are [generous]*, *The dog is [in the garden]*. It is important to note that the CC is a type of noun phrase in grammatical relation with the (copula) predicate, similar to S, A, O and CS. A Copula Complement has sometimes been described as a ‘nominal predicate’; this is not a useful designation, and can be highly confusing.

The core syntactic relations are Subject, Object and Copula Complement. Other, peripheral relations are in English marked by a preposition— these can refer to a place or time setting (*in the morning*, *at the races*) or to some additional participant (*for Mary*, *with a hammer*).

### **2.1.6 Noun, Adjective and Verb Types**

There are four types to be considered here:

1. Types associated with Noun Class
2. Type associated with the Adjective Class
3. Introduction to Verb types
4. Primary and secondary verbs

The lexical words of a language can be grouped into a number of semantic types, each of which has a common meaning component and a typical set of grammatical properties. One of the grammatical properties of a type is its association with a grammatical Word Class, or Part of Speech.

One preliminary point should be stressed: semantic types are not mutually exclusive. The central representatives of a type tend to be frequently used words with a simple, general meaning; these do have unequivocal membership. But words of more specialized meaning may combine the semantic properties of more than one type. Offer, for instance, relates both to giving (the most frequent kind of offer is an offer to give something) and to speaking (the person offering will usually employ words, although gestures could be used instead). Bite is basically a corporeal verb, alongside eat, chew and swallow, but it can also be used—like cut—as an affect verb, e.g. *He bit/cut through the string*; it has slightly different grammatical properties in the two senses—a direct object when corporeal and preposition through when affect. Generally, when a verb shares the semantic characteristics of two types, it will also blend their syntactic properties.

#### **(1) Types Associated with the Noun Class**

There are five major types associated with the grammatical class Noun in English:

(A) Concrete Reference, e.g. *girl*, *horse*, *wrist*, *piece*, *grass*, *star*, *fire*, *hill*, *city*, and *table*. This type can be divided into HUMAN; other

ANIMATE; (body and other) PARTS; INANIMATE. INANIMATE may be further subdivided into: FLURA; CELESTIAL and WEATHER (e.g. *sun, wind, shade*); ENVIRONMENT (*air, water, stone, oil, gold, forest*); ARTEFACTS (*building, market, door*). One subgroup of human relates to rank (*lady, lieutenant, chief*); another to social group (*nation, army, crowd, company*); and another to KIN TERMS (*father, daughter, uncle, wife*). Members of this type are almost all basic noun roots, although there are a few which are derived from verbs (e.g. *building*).

(B) Abstract Reference. Subtypes here include: time (time itself, as well as words referring to position in time, e.g. *future, yesterday*, and units of time, e.g. *month, moment, night, summer*); place (place, together with words referring to position or direction, e.g. *front, edge, north*, and to units of measurement, e.g. *mile*); quantity (number, amount, age, size, length, etc.); variety (e.g. *type, character, shape* and types of shape such as *circle, line*); language (sound, word, sentence, noun); and general abstract terms such as *idea, unit, problem, method, result, truth*. Members of this type are also predominantly basic noun roots although there are some derived stems, e.g. *distance, height, and truth*.

(C) States (and Properties). This covers both the mental (pleasure, joy,; ability, sagacity) and the corporeal (e.g. *ache; strength*) domains. Some are basic nouns (e.g. *anger, hunger*) but many are derived from adjectives (e.g. *jealousy*) and a few from verbs (e.g. *delight*).

(D) ACTIVATES. Some are basic nouns, e.g. *war, game*, but most are derived from verbs, e.g. *decision, speculation, whipping, sale*. For almost every activity noun there is a corresponding verb, even if it is not always cognate e.g. *play for game*.

(E) SPEECH ACTS, e.g. *question, order, report, description, talk, promise*. In each case there is a related verb; this is usually cognate, e.g. *answer, congratulate (ion)*, although there are some exceptions, e.g. *question/ask*.

Every language has words of these five types, but they do not always belong to the Noun class. In the Australian language Dyirbal, for instance, almost all nouns are concrete. Dyirbal has an ample supply of words dealing with states, properties, activities and speech acts, but they all belong to the Verb and Adjective classes; For example, the English words *anger, game* and *question* must be translated into Dyirbal through adjectives (*'angry'*) and verbs (*'play', 'ask'*). Dyirbal has only a few words with abstract reference, including some nouns like *'summer'* and *'night'*. Reference to size is through dimension adjectives, and general reference to number through the interrogative *'how many?'* There are in Dyirbal no words—of any word class—directly corresponding to English *time, past, idea* or *problem*. (There is also a distinct word class which

includes specific time words such as ‘*long ago*’, ‘*yesterday*’, ‘*always*’, ‘*not yet*’.)

In a fair number of languages it is appropriate to recognize kin terms as making up a distinct type. Sometimes kin is associated with the Verb class (e.g. ‘X fathers Y’). In other languages kin functions as a grammatically marked subset of Noun, in that a kin term must take an obligatory possessive affix (that is, one cannot just say ‘mother’, but must specify ‘my mother’, ‘her mother’, etc.).

In English almost all the CONCRETE, ABSTRACT and SPEECHACT nouns have a plural form (exceptions include those referring to non-discrete material, e.g. *mud*, *milk*). ACTIVITY nouns that refer to a discrete act may form a plural, but others, referring to a mode of activity, sound infelicitous in the plural (compare *many mistakes* with lots of *ineptitude*, rather than \**many ineptitudes*). STATE nouns seldom have a plural form—one does not hear \**many hungers* or \**three jealousies*. (Pleasure has a plural used in restricted contexts, e.g. It is one of my few pleasures, but note It gave me much pleasure, not \**It gave me many pleasures*.)

The main significance of the five Noun types lies in the verbs with which they can occur. Thus, the object of experience, used in its literal sense, is generally a state noun, or an activity noun derived from an affect verb (*He experienced hunger/a whipping*). The object of postpone will normally be an activity or speech act noun (*They postponed the sale/the order*). Punch requires a CONCRETE OBJECT. But discuss can have any type of noun as head of its object NP.

## **(2) Types Associated with Adjective Class**

The following semantic types are associated with the grammatical class Adjective in English:

- (i) DIMENSION, e.g. *big, great, short, thin, round, narrow, deep*
- (ii) PHYSICAL PROPERTY, property, e.g. *hard, strong, clean, cool, heavy, sweet, fresh, cheap, quiet, noisy*; this includes a corporeal subtype, e.g. *well, sick, ill, dead; absent; beautiful, ugly*.
- (iii) SPEED-quick (*at*), fast (*at*), and slow (*at*), rapid, sudden.
- (iv) AGE-*new, old, young, modern*
- (v) COLOR, e.g. *white, black, red, crimson, mottled, golden*
- (vi) VALUE, e.g. (a) *good, bad, lovely, atrocious, perfect*; (b) *odd, strange, curious; necessary, crucial; important; lucky*.
- (vii) DIFFICULTY, e.g. *easy, difficulty, tough, hard, simple*
- (viii) VOLITION, e.g. *deliberate, accidental, purposeful*
- (ix) QUALIFICATION, with a number of subtypes
  - (a) DEFINITE, a factual qualification regarding an event, e.g. *definite, Probable, true, obvious*

(b) POSSIBLE, possible, expressing the speaker's opinion about an event, which is often some potential happening, e.g. *possible, impossible*

(c) USUAL, the speaker's opinion about how predictable some happening is, e.g. *usual, normal, common*

(d) LIKELY, again an opinion, but tending to focus on the subject's Potentiality to engineer some happening, e.g. *likely, certain*

(e) SURE, as for (d), but with a stronger focus on the subject's control, e.g. *sure*;

(f) CORRECT, e.g. correct, right, wrong, appropriate, sensible. These have two distinct senses, commenting (i) on the correctness of a fact, similar to (a) (e.g. *That the whale is not a fish is right*), and (ii) on the correctness of the subject's undertaking some activity (e.g. *John was right to resign*).

## 2.1.7 Introduction to Verb Types

### (A) Subject and Object

Each semantic type associated with the verb class takes a number of semantic roles. A giving verb involves Donor, Gift and Recipient; a speaking verb can demand reference to Speaker, Addressee, Message and Medium. Not every verb from a type necessarily requires all of the roles—some motion verbs take just one role, the thing Moving (e.g. *John is running*), while others also take a second role, the Locus with respect to which motion takes place (e.g. *Mary passed the school*). As already described in, semantic roles are mapped onto syntactic relations. If a verb has only one core role this always corresponds to S (intransitive subject) at the level of syntax. S has a wide semantic range—compare JOHN ran away, THE STONE *rolled down the hill*, FRED *is winking*, PETER *is sleeping*.

If a verb has two or more semantic roles then one will be mapped onto A (transitive subject) and one onto O (transitive object) syntactic function. There is a semantic principle determining which role corresponds to which function. Basically, that role which is most likely to be relevant to the success of the activity will be identified as A—this is the Speaker for speaking verbs, the Agent for affect verbs like hit, and the Perceiver for attention verbs (e.g. *JOHN tried to watch Mary*).

Where there are just two core roles, then that which is not mapped onto A will become O, e.g. John in all of *The nurse sat John up*, *Fred kicked John*, *Mary watched John*. If there are more than two roles, that which is most saliently affected by the activity will be mapped onto O. A role that is not identified as A or O will be marked by an appropriate preposition; e.g. *John shot the deer with a rifle*.

Some semantic types include alternative lexemes which differ (only, or largely) in that one focuses on a particular non-A role as most salient (and in O function) while the other focuses on a different role (which is then O). Mention and inform both belong to the speaking type, requiring Speaker, Addressee and Message. But mention focuses on the Message (and the consequences of telling it) whereas inform focuses on the Addressee (and the consequences of telling them the message). Compare:

(7) *John (A) mentioned the decision (O) to Mary (and there was then no going back on it)*

(8) *John (A) informed Mary (O) of the decision (with the result that she fainted away)*

Some verbs from semantic types that have three core roles appear in two kinds of construction, with alternative roles being mapped onto O, e.g. *John (Donor: A) gave all his money (Gift: O) to Mary (Recipient)* and *John gave Mary (O) all his money*. The two constructions have different semantic implications—the role identified as O is focused on, as particularly salient in this instance of the activity. Only an NP which has definite and specific reference is likely to be suitable to be O. Thus, one might say *John gave all his money (O) to good causes* but scarcely *\*John gave good causes (O) all his money*, simply because good causes are too vague and general to be a suitable candidate for the syntactic function O.

It is important to stress that there is nothing mechanical about ‘alternative syntactic frames’ such as those just illustrated for give; semantic conditions always apply. Compare

(9a) *Mary sent a present (O) to the doctor*

(9b) *Mary sent the doctor (O) a present*

(10a) *Mary sent John (O) to the doctor*

(10b) *\*Mary sent the doctor (O) John*

Send actually straddles the giving and motion types. The doctor in (9a/b) is in recipient role, and can be coded into O syntactic slot, as in (9b). But in (10a/b) send is being used as a motion verb, with the doctor simply a destination (parallel to *Mary sent John to Geneva*). Such a destination NP is not saliently affected by the activity, and is thus not a candidate for O slot. (Sentence (10b) could only be used if John were being sent to the doctor as something like a present, as in *Mary sent the doctor a slave/a new assistant*.)

### 2.1.8 Grammar vs. Lexicon

What is done by morphology in one language may be achieved through syntax in another. Latin (a language with fairly free word order) marks

subject and object by nominative and accusative cases, respectively. English puts the subject before the verb and the object after it. Some languages have derivational morphemes that correspond to separate lexemes in other languages. Consider the following:

(a) Warao, from Venezuela, has a verbal suffix *-puhu-* corresponding to the modal verb *can* in English. From *ruhu-* 'sit' is derived *ruhu-puhu-* 'can sit', which takes the full range of tense-aspect verbal inflections (Osborn 1967). To achieve the same semantic result, English must use the two verbs *can* and *sit* in syntactic construction within a VP.

(b) Dyirbal, from north-east Australia, has a verbal affix *-yarra-* 'start'. Thus *jangga-yarra-nyu* ('eat-start-past') is a single word, with the same meaning as *started eating* in English, a construction that has started as main verb and eating as a complement clause to it (Dixon 1972: 249).

(c) The Uto-Aztecan language Luisen̄o has derivational affixes *-vic̄u-* 'want to' and *-ni-* 'make, force to'. From *nge'e* 'leave' can be derived *nge'evic̄u* 'want to leave', *nge'e-ni* 'make leave' and even *nge'e-vic̄u-ni-vic̄u* 'want to make want to leave' (Langacker 1972: 76–7). *Luisen̄o* can achieve by a single verb what in English requires constructions involving one, two or three complement clauses.

Many other examples could be given of a concept that is expressed by a derivational process in one language but only as a separate lexical verb in another. It is not, however, the case that anything which is a verb root in one language may be a derivational morpheme in another. Ideas like 'lean', 'stir', 'swallow', 'discuss' and 'remember' are always expressed by separate lexical verbs, in every language. This question will be taken further in the next section.

### 2.1.9 Semantic Mapping

Formally semantic mapping is defined as visual representation of knowledge or a picture of conceptual relationship. Antonacci (1991:25) states that it is "a graphic arrangement showing the major ideas and relationships in text or among word meaning" Sinatra et al, (1984: 76) "a categorical structuring of information in graph form". Johnson et al (1986:68).

It is a visual strategy which shows the major ideas of a certain topic and how they are related (Raymond C. Jones, 2006). In this study, word mapping, concept mapping and story mapping are used in teaching reading to display the interrelationships among ideas, words and the components of the story. "Semantic mapping generally refers to brainstorming associations which a word has and then diagramming the

results" (Sokmen, 1997:250) Johnson, Pittelman & Heimlich describe it as "categorical of information in graphic form" (1986:779).

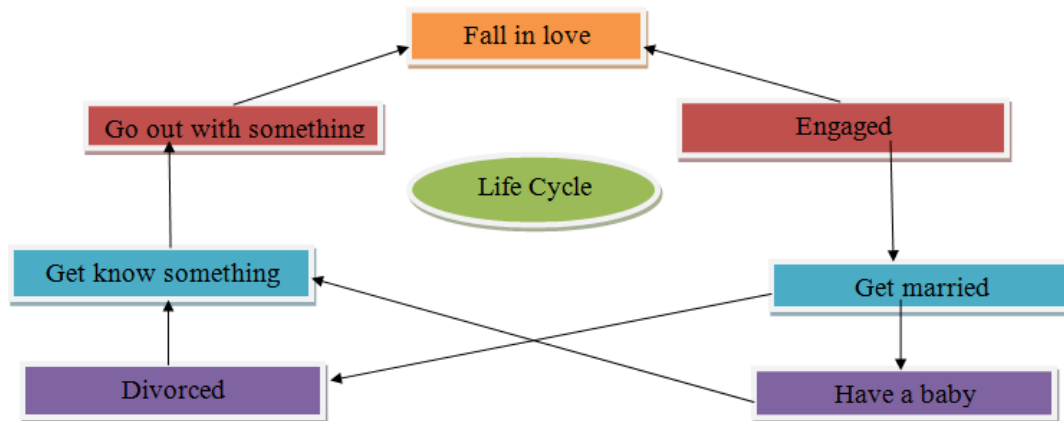
Developments in "lexical semantics" have prompted the development of the "semantic field theory", "semantic networks" or "semantic grids" "strategies which organize words in terms if interrelate lexical meanings. The "semantic field" theory suggests that the lexical content of a language is best treated not as a "mere aggregation of independent words" but as a collection of interrelating networks or relations between words (Stubbs, cited in Amer, 2002). It is noteworthy that words may be grouped together (related to each other) according to different criteria. Animals, for example, may be grouped in terms of physical features; they may be grouped in terms of nonphysical features such as pet, wild, food, etc. (Gairns and Redman, 1986). Semantic elaboration consists of a series of techniques as semantic feature analysis, ordering, pictorial schemata and semantic mapping (Ellis, 1995; Sokmen, 1997).

Semantic mapping and semantic analysis draw learner prior knowledge and use discussion to elicit information about word meaning. Semantic feature analysis is similar mapping. With the exception that it uses argil rather than a map graph display following examples will illustrate the two techniques.

Types of Transport	One Wheeled	Two Wheeled	Four Wheeled	Foot Powered	Motor powered	On land	In the water	In the air
Bicycle	-	+	-	+	?	+	-	-
Car	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	-
Boat	-	-	-	?	+	-	+	-
Plane	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+
uni-cycle	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Motorbike	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-

**Figure: (1)** semantic feature analysis for "means of transport" (Neisel, 2000)





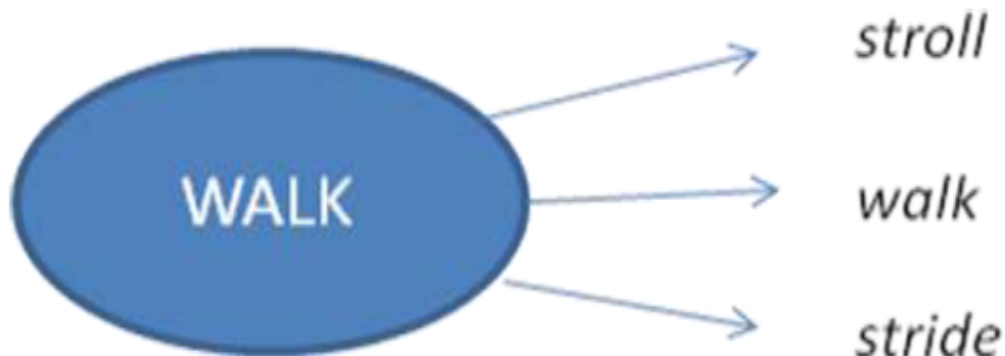
**Figure. (2)**Semantic mapping for "human life circle" (Gairns &Redman, 1986)

Semantic elaboration focuses on word meaning association attached on words. Words appear to be organized into semantically related sets in mind and thus the associations attached to a word will affect the way that it is stored in the brain, furthermore, knowing arrange of association for a word helps understand its fullmeaning and helps recall the word form or its meaning in appropriate context (Nation,2001).

Various terms have been used in the literature to refer to the term semantic mapping .In language, learning the term semantic mapping is usually used to refer to" brainstorming associations which a word has and then diagramming the results".(Evely Hatch & Cheryl.B,1995:387). The concept of semantic mapping in this study, however, differs from this definition. It refers to the identification of whether given semantic features are inside or outside the semantic boundary of a word.

Semantic mapping is also a useful strategy that can be introduced to learners at any level of proficiency. It involves drawing a drawing a diagram of the relationships between words according to their use in a particular text. Semantic mapping has the effect of bringing relationships in a text to consciousness for the purpose of deepening the understanding of a text and creating associative networks for words. It is best introduced as a collaborative effort between the teacher and the class. Such a diagram "visually shows how ideas fit together. This strategy incorporates a variety of memory strategies like grouping, using imagery, associating and elaborating and it is important for improving both

memory and comprehension of new vocabulary items."(Rebecca, L.1990:62).



Semantic mapping is a strategy that can be used in all disciplines to demonstrate the relationships between ideas. It is an activity that helps bring into consciousness relationships among words in a text and help deepen understanding by creating associative new works for words, (Marianne, C, .M.2001:288).When teaching vocabulary explicitly, it can be used as a tool for students to discover the relationships between vocabulary words. As semantic mapping builds o prior knowledge, and is an active form of learning, it can be a very effective teaching tool.

In general, teachers need to decide what framework and strategies they should choose to focus o based on their student's needs, learning styles, proficiency level as well as the task's requirements. Thus, frameworks are not fixed and can vary from context to context.

In addition, semantic mapping activity enables learners to see connection between words. This is often a used device in helping to remember new words; (Paul Nation, 1994:124).Semantic Elaboration facilitates the creation of links and semantic networks, as well as deep level of processing. One of procedures based on semantic elaboration is semantic mapping, which serves as a visual reminder of likes between words; these techniques are also suitable for presenting and revising collocations. (Visnja, P.T, .2008:22). Semantic mapping generally refers to brainstorming associations which a word has and then diagramming the results, (Norbert, S, & Michael's, 1997:250). Teaching a concept to others

when the pupil brainstorming will increase student retention of information greatly. Be sure to discuss the ideas in the map at length. By discussing them as well as writing them down, the teachers are catering to different learning styles, and ensuring that all students are increasing their knowledge of vocabulary. A semantic map is any graphic devices that illustrates the range of meaning of word or words either within one language or between two (or more) languages, (David, R.Z, 1983:35).

Recently, semantic mapping is one the new approaches; it is a process for constructing visual displays of categories and their relationships. That is it a categorical structuring of information in graphic form. It is an "individualized" content approach which allows students to relate new words to their own experiences and prior knowledge. Semantic maps can be formed from individual or group contributions or through teacher directed or independent activities. As an instructional strategy, semantic mapping involves a variety of basic memory and comprehension techniques (such as making associations, grouping, and using visual memory of the semantic map) that incorporate relating old knowledge to new, (<http://www.longwood>,530).

From these definitions given above, semantic mapping is a visual strategy for vocabulary expansion and extension of knowledge by displaying in categories words related to one another. Semantic mapping is an adaptation of concept definition mapping but builds o students' prior knowledge or schema. While it draws on prior knowledge it recognizes important components and shows the relationships among the components. Through semantic mapping the students attract to use their imagination to find the connection between word which helps them to retain their schemata of English vocabulary, remember the new given-words from their teacher and they can get the new word by themselves when they fill in semantic map. Semantic mapping is an attractive strategy which make the students interested in and creative, because learning through semantic mapping is different from the traditional vocabulary learning, it have to use some media such as picture, shape and color.

### **2.1.10 The Importance of Semantic Mapping Strategy**

According to Jones, (2006:57), "mentioned that semantic mapping can be a helpful reference for students to use in clarifying confusing points as

they are reading". Once students are familiar with the nature of the semantic maps they can create their own during reading or post reading activity. Williams,(1994:60) said that semantic mapping enable students not only to visualize relationships, but to categorize them as well as a direct teaching strategy that includes brainstorming and teacher lead discussion, semantic mapping provides opportunities for schema development and enhancement as well as prediction hypothesizing and verification of content when used as a pre reading activity. It is also referred to as a web or concept map.

The teacher can introduce semantic mapping to the class in different appearances. They can be shown as circles, squares or ovals with connecting lines. The students read an assigned text.

Through class discussion the teacher writes the main idea of the text in the middle of the top circles that are connected to the main idea by lines. This activity can also be used in cooperative groups individually.

Harvey et al, (2000:105) "added that semantic mapping strategies are valuable instructional tools unlike many tools that just have one purpose; semantic mapping is flexible and endless in application". One common trait found among semantic strategy is that they show the order and completeness of a student through process-strengths and weakness of understanding become clear evident.

Many semantic maps show different aspects of an issue. Semantic maps use short words or phrases, which one ideal for many types of learners, including English language readers with intermediate proficiency.

Thomas, (1999:76) explains that semantic mapping is a strategy. It assumes that there are multiple relations between a concept and the knowledge that is associated with the concept.

Thus for any concept there are many types of associations:

- a. Association of class the order of the concept falls into.
- b. Association of property; the attributes that define the concept.

He said that the major purpose of semantic maps is to allow students to organize their prior knowledge into these formal relations and this to

provide themselves basis for understanding what they are about to read and study.

Comprehension can be thought of as elaboration of prior knowledge.

Heimlich and et al, (1986:89) explained that a semantic map is one type of graphic organizer. It helps students visually organize and graphically show the relationship between one piece of information and another. This strategy has been identified by researchers as an excellent, effective technique for increasing vocabulary and improving reading comprehension.

As a pre-reading activity semantic mapping can be used to activate prior knowledge and introduce key vocabulary. As a post reading activity words are categorized and new concepts can be added to the original maps to enhance understanding.

### **2.1.11 Sense Relations and Collocations**

Definition and collocation are both essential techniques of vocabulary teaching. Definition is the commonest way of communicating meaning during speaking and writing. A study of sixteen Biology and Chemistry lectures by Flowerdew, (1992), cited in Nation (2001), reflected that about twenty definitions per lecture were made. This study shows that definition is a major technique of conveying the meaning of words and terminologies not only in language classes but also in other disciplines too. French (1983:46) also stated that: "Defining words by means of other words is a technique needed by teachers." To meet its purpose genuinely, however, researchers such as Ellis (1995), Chaudron (1982), and Mckeown (1993) in Nation (2001), recommended that definition has to be specific, direct, unambiguous and simple. Definition composed of words and phrases as difficult as the target vocabulary item to be defined may be counterproductive. It is, therefore, a technique that requires skills and expertise of teachers.

While definition is concerned with establishing a single word's meaning, collocation takes definition for granted and is concerned with the words that typically appear together with the target vocabulary. Words are not randomly put together to form strings and phrases. There is always a choice of one lexical item over the other in terms of its collectability. McCarthy, (1990:13) explains the importance of collocation as: "The

relationship of collocation is fundamental in the study of vocabulary; it is a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others." When our focus is on definition, for example, we may explain the word 'dream' as: 'A dream is like a film in your head that you have sometimes when you are a sleep'. When learners hear such definition, their main purpose is to decode the stream of words and match an L1 equivalent translation to the word being defined. But they are less likely to notice and retain collocating verb 'have' and collocating adjectives 'bad, recurrent, sweet', etc.

Hence, the inclusion of collocation enables learners to make use of the word dream and say: 'I had a dream about ...; I had a bad /recurrent dream or sweet dreams!' Therefore, it can be concluded that definition followed by collocation provides meaning and how the word is used in productive skills (writing and speaking).

### **2.1.12 Vocabulary Network**

The principle of vocabulary network, also known as word web, word map, mind map, word association, explains that beyond sameness, oppositeness and inclusion of meanings of words, there is an intricate and complex interconnection or network among group of words. McCarthy (1990) writes that semantic relationship in terms of synonymy and antonym tends to simplify the complex nature of the mental lexicon.

According to Schmitt, (2000) words are not stored in the mind in isolated pattern, but in an organized and systematic manner. That organization is conveniently explained as association or network. The mental lexicon, how words are stored in the mind, is metaphorically described as "a dictionary, a thesaurus, an encyclopedia, a library, a computer" all of which refer to a principled organization of facts (McCarthy, 1990:34).

In making use of vocabulary network technique, Harmer (1990:165) suggests that a word item, for example, "HOUSE" is selected and given in a box at the centre of a sheet of paper and students are encouraged to build a network of arrows connecting it to many possible words that have semantic association in any way. See a more complicated network for the word 'BEDROOM' in

Gairns and Redman,(1986:97). Below is given a simple example of word network (Ur, 1996:69):

The vocabulary network technique is believed to function as a convincing framework of organizing lexical items. Carter and McCarthy (1988:441) state: "knowing a word means knowing its place in a network or associations with other words in a language." In a study of vocabulary learning strategies, Ellis (1994: 553) generally concluded that "any attempt to form an association involving the target word aided retention."

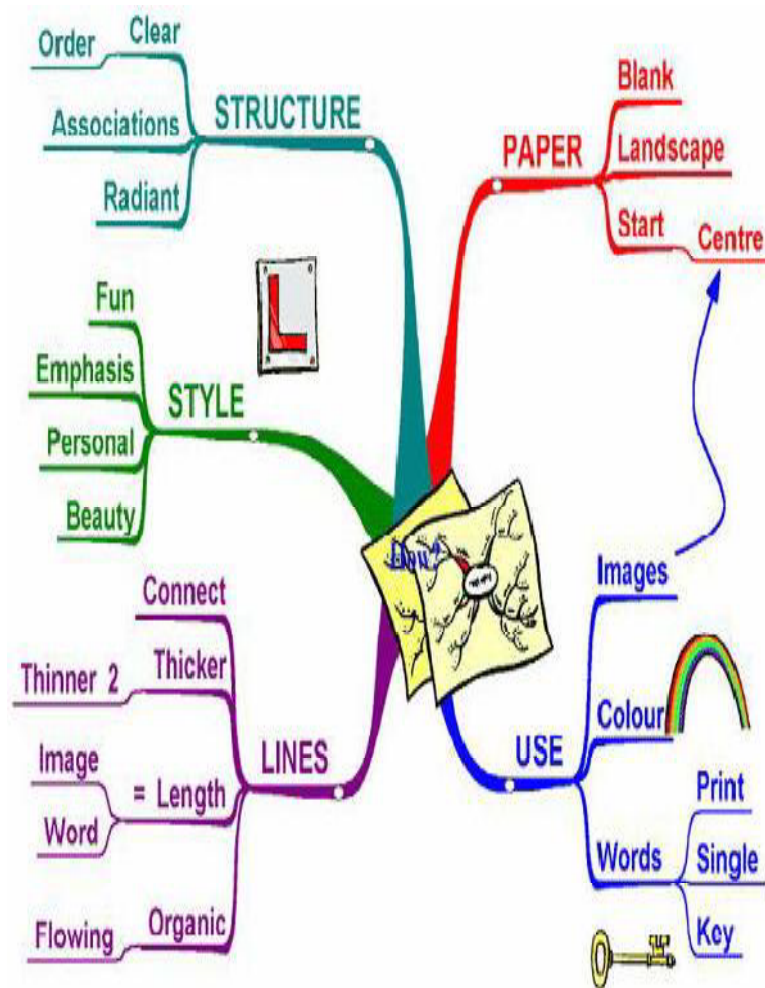
### **2.1.13 Sense Relations and Mind Maps**

Most of the vocabulary learning approaches are linear. They consist of writing down words and phrases or making endless vocabulary lists. Also both approaches used in the research are of a linear kind. Even though the linear vocabulary organization surely helps to a certain extent, the human mind does not work like this. The human mind works on more levels, engaging many dimensions. Using mind maps gives the learners a chance to organize the vocabulary in a unique and creative way and therefore to learn it more easily. As the mind maps follow the way the human mind processes, it may also help in vocabulary learning.

Mind maps were popularized by Tony Buzan (2003); however, the concepts of semantic "networking" and "concept maps" were used even earlier (Jonassen, Carr, Yueh, 1998). Mind maps are based on the visual representation of a certain topic or an idea. The advantage of mind maps is the ability to develop an idea on more levels, being able to add something here and there without any need to rewrite the whole concept. It helps to develop ideas logically and with the use of colors and images it makes the information more transparent. There is also a possibility to connect various pieces of information on different levels and therefore to visualize related ideas, which would not be possible in linear notes. Therefore, mind maps can be used for note making during lectures or at meetings, public speech planning, decision making, problem solving or in this case, for vocabulary organization.

According to Buzan, (2003) the human brain remembers items that are at the beginning of the learning period, called "the primacy effect" and items at the end of the learning process, called "the regency effect". Then it remembers the items that are connected to some words or patterns already stored in the mind. Finally, the human brain remembers items that are of a particular interest to the learner, or items that are in some way outstanding or unique. The primacy and regency effects cannot be

avoided or strengthened, however, the connection among vocabulary already known and the new words can make a great difference in the learning process. Also making difficult words or phrases unique and more noticeable can make learning of the particular item easier. "Mind maps combine notes taken from the external environment (lectures, books, journals and the media) with notes made from the internal environment (decision making, analysis and creative thought)" (Buzan, 2003:140). The process of creating the mind map is simple and can be done very easily. Mind mapping has only few characteristics, apart from them; there is plenty of space for creativity.



In the centre of a paper there is usually an image representing the subject, however, also a key word for a chosen topic can be used. The main themes come from the central picture through main branches. All the other themes are connected to the main themes or to each other. As it is

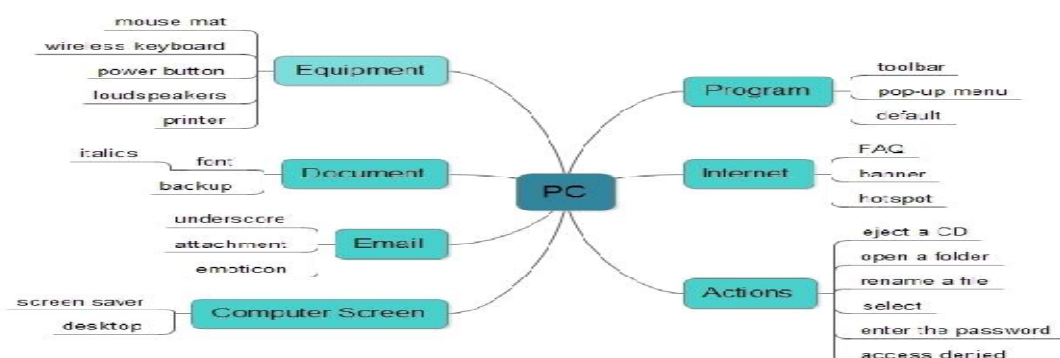


visible in the picture above, thanks to the usage of colors and images the mind map is better organized and therefore, it is easier to follow the flow of ideas. It is important to use mainly key words, not the whole sentences or long phrases, so the mind maps stays tidy and well-ordered.

*The Mind Map harnesses the full range of cortical skills – word, image, number, logic, rhythm, color and spatial awareness – in a single, uniquely powerful technique. In doing so, it gives you the freedom to roam the infinite expanse of your brain. (Buzan, 2003:84)*

In language learning process, mind maps can be used in many ways, particularly the ability to add some new word which was not included in the learning materials; however, the learner finds it very useful.

In order to organize given vocabulary, the learners can create their own mind map with given vocabulary and then study from their personalized learning materials. Also the process of the creating of mind maps is very important, because even at this point, the learners are thinking about the links between the words and phrases and are already learning something. Learners can organize the vocabulary according to various semantic fields or grammatical features. The students engaged in the research were given these mind map samples, so they could get some inspiration and do not lose time while coming up only with the structure. Also the students were encouraged to include Czech equivalents to English words, phrases or images where necessary, so they could study more easily from the mind map.



**Figure: (3)** a mind map for PC (computer) (Nouns),

[Http://1.bp.blogspot.com/.](http://1.bp.blogspot.com/))

### **2.1.13 Sense Relations and Nature of Vocabulary Knowledge**

To have a limited vocabulary is like a barrier that prevents students from learning a language (Norbet Schmitt, 2000: 22). Without a sufficient vocabulary, some one cannot communicate effectively or express ideas because we think with word. We also speak, listen, read and write with words. Words help us communicate our ideas and they also help us to understand other people's ideas. It also implied that vocabulary takes an important role in improving our skills in English. A good vocabulary goes hand in hand with someone ability to think logically and to learn easily and quickly.

Vocabulary consists of knowing how to use words, which represent image, (Joseph, et al, 1974:26). It can be concluded that a learner of a foreign language will speak fluently and accurately, write easily, and understand what he reads or hears if he has enough vocabulary and has a capability of using it accurately.

Vocabulary is the key to student understanding what they hear and read in school; and to communicate successfully with other people, (Joseph, et al, 1974:14). For this reason it is very important for the student to quickly build up a large store of words. Research studies have shown the strong links between having an extensive vocabulary and achieving school success. ([http:// esl.fis.edu/portents/advice/vocab.htm](http://esl.fis.edu/portents/advice/vocab.htm)).

Vocabulary is central to language and is great significance to language learners; Murcia says that "words are perceived as the building blocks upon which knowledge of the second language can be built" (Heinle, 1991:296). It is implied that in learning vocabulary, students are ought to practice it very often and they cannot practice or build that language if they are lock of vocabulary.

Many definitions can be found about vocabulary from some expert, but the writers only choose several of them which are important to discuss."Vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write.

Without an extensive vocabulary and may discourage from making use of language opportunities around them." (Richards, as people may know, is just a word but actually vocabulary not just builds from a word but also from another word that convey one meaning. Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word:

For example, *post office* and *mother-in-law*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi- word idioms such as *call it a day*, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from an analysis of the component words. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary 'items' rather than 'word' (Pennyur, (1999:60). Vocabulary is a group of words on a certain language as a part of teaching- learning as a foreign language. Words means the memory of the situation in which they have been observed and understood, brought out by the context in which they are used, (Robert Lado, 1994:118).

It means that to know a word is to be able to use it or to understand in situation in which the person has not experienced it before. In language learning and teaching, vocabulary is the important aspect besides other language component such as grammar and pronunciation. Factor in all language teaching, student's must continually be learning words as they learn structures and they practice the sound system, (Edward, D.A, et al 1977:149).

#### **2.1.14 Acquisition of Word Meaning**

Children acquire word meaning in two stages: a fast initial stage in which novel words fitted into categories and a slower stage in which words within the categories are differentiated. (Miller & Gilda, 1987). The process of meaning acquisition is summarized by (Aitchison, 1987) in three stages:

- a. Attaching a label word to a concept
- b. Categorization
- c. Building connection between related words in L2 vocabulary acquisition, it seems of word before more figurative senses and that much of L1 meaning information is transferred over to L2 (Ijaz, 1986). Ijaz

finds that the core meaning senses of words are transferred whereas typical meanings are not. (Kern, 1989), finds that Hebrew learners of English tend to know the literal meaning senses of words that are used literally and figuratively: (Mason,1986) argues that knowledge of multiple meaning senses of a word is closely related to understanding the most common sense. All these pieces of evidence suggest that words have a core meaning sense that is relatively universal and is likely to be acquired before other figurative senses. Meara (1999) states that what teachers really need is not so much a more detailed understanding of words but, a very much deeper understanding of lexicons.

### **2.1.15 What is a word**

A word is a single unit that bears one or multiple meanings. In contrast with morphemes a word can always stand isolated as well as it can be combined with other words to build more elaborated utterances. The characteristics that all the words share are the written and the phonological forms; furthermore they are subjects to grammatical rules. Words carry multiple meanings, depending on the context, and they also affect words that surround them, in a grammatical as well as semantic sense. Therefore, when thinking about words it is not possible to isolate them and study them separately without any context. On the contrary, it is important to judge them carefully by taking into account their position in a sentence, their word forms and also it is necessary to focus on the words that surround them.

A word is not an easy concept to define; therefore here is a theoretical overview of terms that would help to get closer to this notion. Therefore, the first part of the research is not focused only on the Czech/English translation. It also tests the student's ability to use the word correctly in a sentence.

When thinking about words in a context there is a need to distinguish tokens and types. This terminology is used to count how often particular words occur in a text. Tokens include all forms and count a word as many times as it occurs in the text. On the other hand, the number of types is a total number of different word forms; however, these forms are counted only as one word. The proportions of types and tokens are called type-

token ratios and are mainly used to measure the vocabulary development of native speakers as well as second language learners (Read, 2000:18). Another distinction of words is based on the meaning. First, there are function words that do not bear any particular meaning, such as articles, prepositions, conjunctions or auxiliaries. Second, there are content words, such as nouns, full verbs or adverbs. Unlike the function words, the content words have particular meanings and therefore, they are usually the main subjects of vocabulary testing. Function words are, on the other hand, tested under the heading of grammar. However, even the content words are problematic when it comes to their multiple forms. They could be divided into two groups: lemmas and word families. Lemmas do not change their meaning even when there are some inflectional endings added to the base word, e.g. walk, walked or walking. On the other hand, when the inflections change the meaning of the word or the word class of the base, they are called derived forms and they belong in a word family. These sets of word forms are for example: family, unfamiliar and familiarize.

It is also necessary to stress that there are also homographs, words that share the same word form, however, have at least two different meanings, for example the word bank which could state for sloping land along a river as well as a financial institution.

Words also create larger lexical items that have to be learnt together. One word can have a very different meaning in a combination with another word. There are for example phrasal verbs that combine verbs with prepositions and create a new meaning of this construction (e.g. look after, take over). Similarly many work compound nouns (e.g. full moon, bedroom) as well as idioms (piece of cake). While the meaning of compound nouns could be easily decoded from the words used, idioms are phrases that in a particular combination mean something different and therefore the meaning cannot be inferred, only learnt.

Finally, all these terms teachers and learners should bear in mind when dealing with vocabulary. There is not a simple answer to what a word is and there is a huge difference in learning or teaching different words, taking into account their word classes, word forms, their positions in

sentences, possibility of multiple meanings in different contexts and the way they affect other words that surround them in a sentence.

### **2.1.15 Importance of knowing a word**

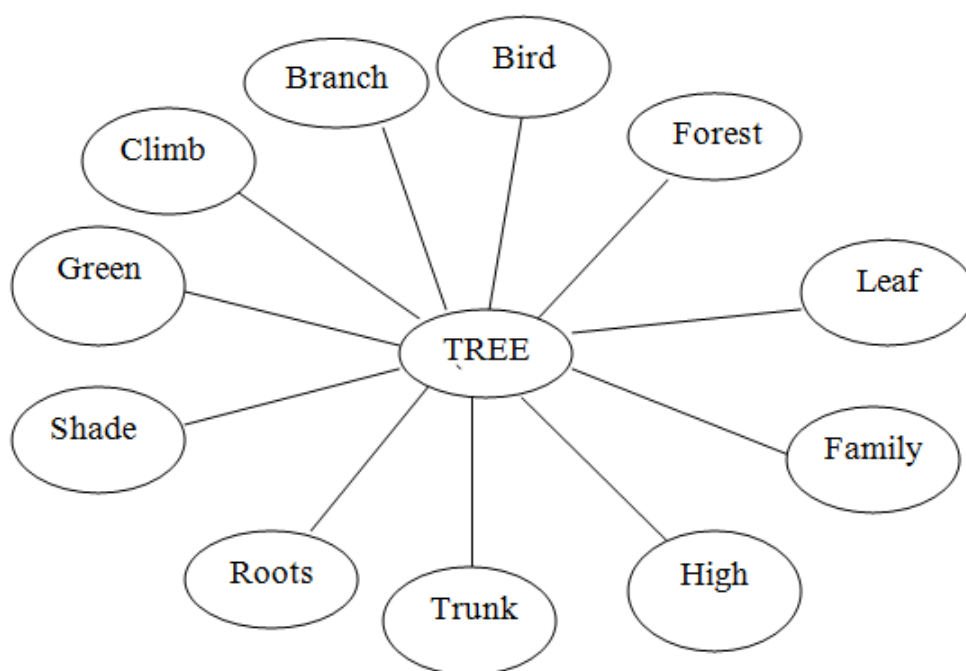
The previous subchapter has already dealt with what a word is and how it can be categorized. It has also suggested that a word does not carry only one particular meaning and that there are more messages a word expresses. There is a definition by Coady, (1993) who clearly summarizes what it means to know a word. According to him knowing a word involves:

*knowing the degree of probability of when and where to encounter a given word and the sorts of words to be found with it, the limitations imposed on it by register, it's appropriate syntactic behavior, its underlying form and derivations, the network of associations it has, its semantic features, its extended or metaphorical meanings . . .*

The view that you know a word if you can give an L1 equivalent is hopefully history. Therefore, all the elements that are included in "knowing a word" by Coady need to be incorporated in the process of vocabulary learning. However, knows a synonym sufficient? Is recognizing the word and understanding its meaning enough? Is using the word correctly in a sentence enough? All these questions touch closely on the necessity to gain more knowledge about a word in order to understand it in a text or to actually use it. Formerly the skills concerning the usage of vocabulary were called active and passive; active skills including speaking and writing, and passive skills consisting of reading and listening. However, these terms are misleading because even when learners are listening or reading it does not mean they are not doing anything. Therefore, the new terms emerged: productive and receptive (or receptive-interpretative) skills.

Receptive skills allow the learner to work with a text, when reading, seeking for specific information by skimming or for general information by scanning. The process of interpreting a text is very complicated because most likely the text does not only consist of words the learner

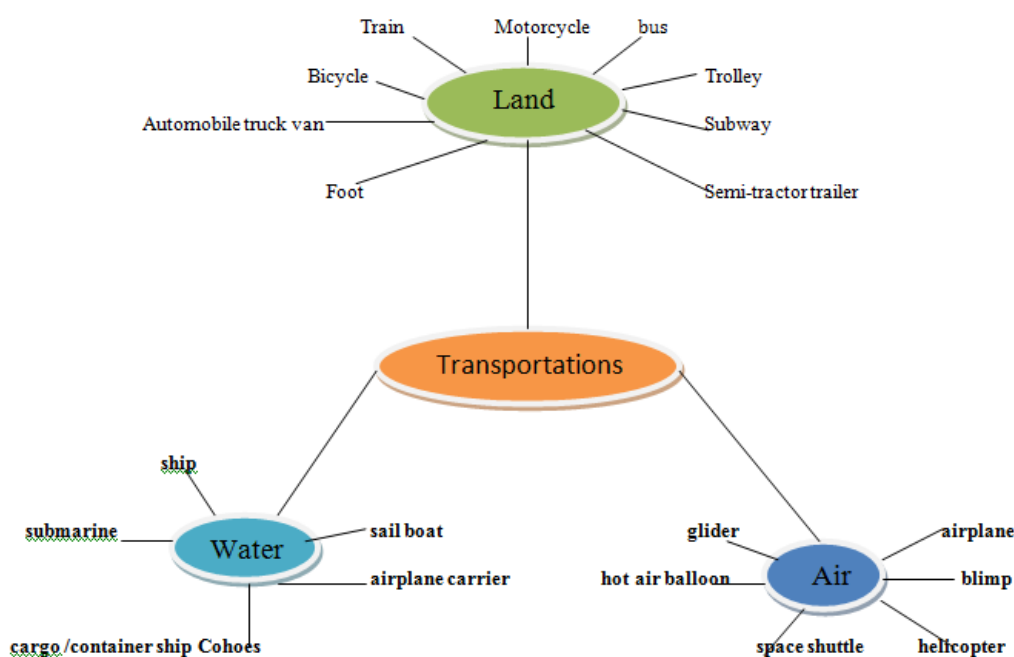
knows. Therefore when the learner reads or listens to some text, it is necessary to deduce the meanings of unknown words from the context and to discover their function and discourse patterns. Surely, the input has to be adequate to the learner's level and also the learner has to be trained to use the productive skills effectively. In real life it is very likely that learners encounter vocabulary and grammatical structures they have not encountered before, therefore at that moment they have to deal with them in order to understand at least the general idea of the text or the utterance.



When learners feel the need to express themselves, in written or spoken form, they have to integrate their productive skills. As the motivation for the receptive tasks is to understand, here it is to communicate and express one's ideas. This process is creative and therefore it requires deeper knowledge than interpreting a text. At this stage the learner has to apply the knowledge of the vocabulary as well as the grammar needed to be understood. On one hand, it may seem more difficult to put together all the rules and vocabulary (and it probably is). However, on the other hand the learner is the one that decides which words to use and if there is a knowledge gap, more advanced learners may substitute a missing word with a synonym or to paraphrase the meaning of the word. Nevertheless,

this is only possible from a certain level of the learner's language knowledge.

Since it is clear that learners need different skills to understand a written text and different skills to express their ideas orally, these skills need to be properly trained. Learners have to think in advance how much they want to know about the word and for which purpose. Is it sufficient to work out a vague meaning from the context? Or is it also necessary to know the rules that closely apply to this word in order to use it in one's own speech? These questions have to be answered by learners as well as teachers, because they have a huge impact on the vocabulary assessment. When learners are asked to study a number of words, they have to know for which purpose, in which way will the words be tested. It is not possible to study from L1 - L2 word list and then expect that learners can use it correctly in their utterances.



Finally, knowing a word is not an easy concept to define. It involves for instance knowing L1 translations, word class, word forms, collocations or register. Some of these help learners to interpret a text they encounter and some are there to help them produce their own utterance. Therefore, it is important to know what the learner actually wants to learn and what the purpose is, as it is impossible to acquire all the knowledge at once.



### 2.1.16 Lexical Competence

Admittedly, the question "What constitutes vocabulary knowledge?" is a very complex one; and there has not been a conclusive answer to it. Researchers could only offer sets of assumptions as to what constitutes vocabulary knowledge. What are available as an answer to the question at the moment are sets of assumptions. Some of that are believed to constitute vocabulary knowledge, as identified by researchers are:

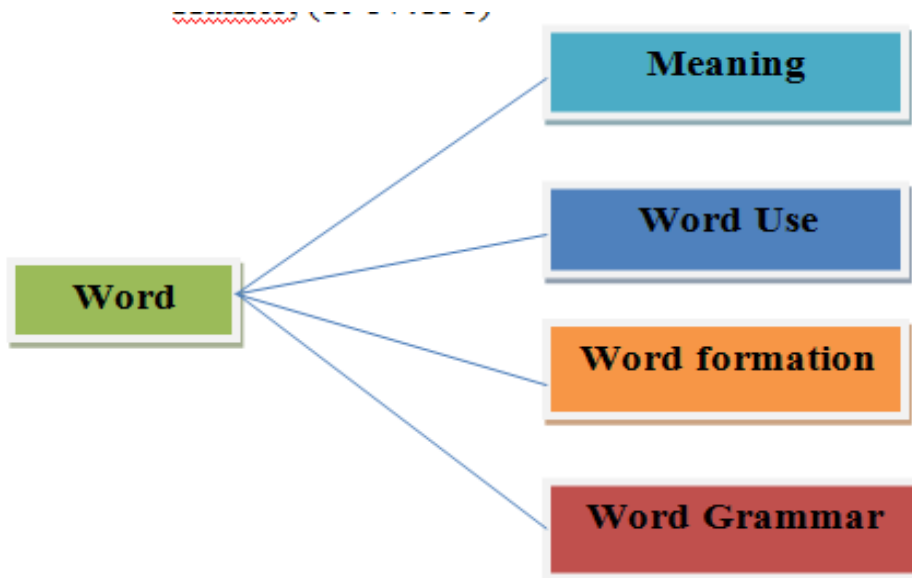
Richard, (1985:30)

- a. Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words we know the sort of words most likely to be found associated with word.
- b. Native speakers of a language continue to expand their vocabulary in adult hood where as there is comparative little development of syntax in adult life.
- c. Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variation of function or situation.
- d. Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behavior associated with the word.
- e. Knowing a word entails knowing of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.
- f. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that and other words in the language.
- g. Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic value of a word.
- h. Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.

Wallace, (1986:9-11)

- a. Ability to retrieve vocabulary appropriately that has been taught.
- b. Use of vocabulary appropriately in the given situation.
- c. Use of vocabulary at the right level of formality.
- d. Possessing the right kind of word (vocabulary) for one's.
- e. Using vocabulary in an idiomatic way.

- f. Using vocabulary in a meaningful way.
- g. Correct use of a dictionary.
- h. Correct use of grammatical form, spelling, pronunciation or stress.



He summarizes knowing a word as: Meaning in context relation, metaphor and idiom collocation, spelling and punctuation, part of speech, prefixes and suffixes, register and style, Nouns countable and uncountable, etc verb complementation, adjectives and adverbs position, etc

From these sets of assumptions, it may be inferred that lexical competence comprises two main kinds of abilities: The ability to comprehend the meaning of unfamiliar words from context and store them (comprehension), and the ability to retrieve words from memory own context (production), currently, many researchers in the area perceive lexical competence as consisting of these two abilities although there are some who insist that "lexical competence must be understood as competence for use rather than knowledge of words" (Ooi and Lee Kim-Seoh, 1996:52)

### **2.1.17 Vocabulary Development**

Several kinds of principles of vocabulary development are described by Gunning (1992:159). Their description is as follows:

#### **1. Building experiential background**

The most effective step to build vocabulary is described to provide students with a variety of rich experiences, for examples, taking children to a supermarket, Zoo, museum etc.

#### **2. Relating vocabulary to background**

It is essential to relate new words to experiences that student's may have had. Students were asked to respond to new words that required some sort of personal judgment or observation.

#### **3. Building relationship**

Show how new words are related to each other. For example; students are about to read a selection about autobiographies and biographies that include the unfamiliar words accomplishment, obstacles and nonfiction along with autobiography and biography. Instead of simply presenting them separately, demonstrate how they are related to each other.

Autobiography and biography are two similar types of nonfiction, and they often describe the subject's accomplishments and obstacles that he/she had to overcome.

#### **4. Developing depth of meaning**

There are two methods of developing depth of meaning:Definitions and simulation, Definition, however, may provide only a superficial level of knowledge, while simulation is the thoughtful level of knowledge.

#### **5. Presenting several exposures**

Gunning (1992:163) suggests that students study new words at least ten times. It also helps if words appear in different context so that student's experience their shade of meaning.

#### **6. Creating an interest in words**

In experiment program, Gunning, (1992:163) awarded student's the title of "word wizard" if they come on an example of a taught word outside of the class and reported to the group. Children virtually swamped their teachers with instances of seeing, hearing or using the words as they

worded toward gaining points on the word wizard chart. On some days every child in the class comes in with a word wizard contribution. Children occasionally cause a minor disruption, for example, at an assembly when a speaker used one of the taught words and the entire class would use buzz recognition.

#### 7. Promoting transfer

Students have to learn thousands of words, so teachers also have to show them to use the tools of vocabulary acquisition: (1) Context clues, (2) morphemic analysis and (3) dictionary skills, context clues refers to words or phrases, stated or implied, in a sentence, a paragraph or a passage that help student's to understand new and difficult vocabulary. Morphemic analysis refers to the ability to determine a word meaning through examining its prefix, root or suffix. Dictionary skills refer to skills of looking up words, obtaining appropriate definition and deriving the correct pronunciations.

Nation cited in Cameron (2001:85), lists basic techniques by which teachers can explain the meanings of new words, all of which can be used in the young learner classroom:

#### *By demonstration or pictures*

1. Using an object
2. Using a cut-out figure
3. Using gesture
4. Performing an action
5. Photographs
6. Drawings or diagrams on the board
7. Pictures from books

#### *By verbal explanation*

8. Analytical definition
9. Putting the new words in a definition context
10. Translating into another language

### **2.1.18 The Importance of Vocabulary**

Vocabulary is requisite for learning the main language skills. Mona, 2009:74 as cited in Krashen (1989: 439) points out, "A large vocabulary

is, of course, essential for pastry of language." Mona, 2009:74 as cited in McGinnis and Smith (1982:236), also point out that "without words a student seldom cannot understand what is being communicated to him nor can he express his thoughts to other". In this respect, Mona, 2009:74 as cited in Pittleman and Heimlich (1991:37) also claim that vocabulary knowledge is important in understanding both spoken and written language they state:

It is not surprising that vocabulary knowledge or knowledge of word meanings is critical to reading comprehension. In order for children to understand, what they are reading? They must know the meanings of the words they encounter. Children with limited vocabulary knowledge will experience difficulty comprehending both oral and written text.

In support of the crucial role that vocabulary plays in reading comprehension, Crow (1986:243) claims that for adult L2 of FL readers the biggest difficulty in reading is not the concepts of a text, but the words representing these concepts. Mona, 2009:74 as cited in Hague (1987:218), also claims that, to read, a reader must know words to become a better reader, a reader must learn more words" Howell and Morehead (1987:51) go so far as to say that word meanings may account for up to 70% of the variability between students who do and students who do not score well on comprehension tests.

Research has provided overwhelming evidence that even among adult's word recognition accounts for a sizeable amount of variance in reading ability. e.g., Bortelson (1986:184) Gough and Tunmer 1986:43)

Morrison, (1984:154), Petfetti, (1985:42) Research has also shown that there is a correlation between word knowledge and reading comprehension Mona,2009:74 as cited in e.g. Barr (1985: 25) Hoover and Gough (1990:15) Kitao (1988:59) and that when FL readers vocabulary is improved Mona,2009:74 as cited in e.g. Czikó (1980:111)

Davis. (1989:56) McDaniel and Pressley (1986:112), the role vocabulary plays in listening comprehension has also been emphasized by Mona, 2009:74 as cited in McCarthy (1995:31) who found that lexical knowledge is significantly related to listening comprehension.

Mona, 2009:74 as cited in Personke and Yee (1971:22) highlight the role that vocabulary plays in writing by saying, "Fluency in writing is almost dependent upon a large store of words which can be written without thinking".

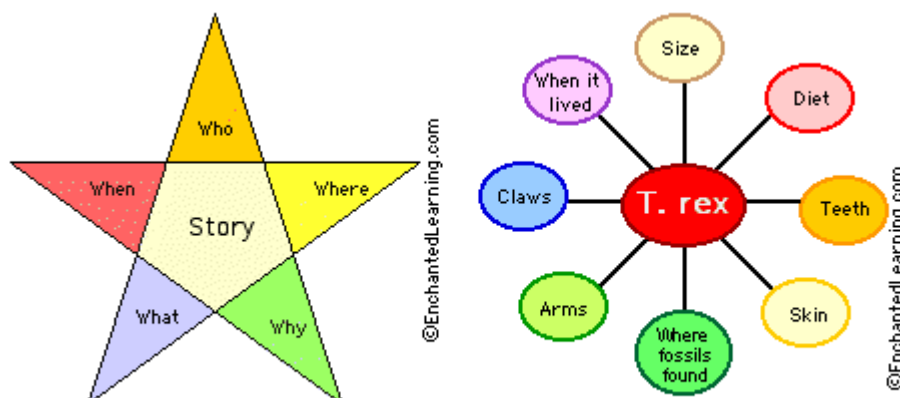
The importance of vocabulary to general an academic achievement has also been recognized by Mona.2009:74 as cited in Zientarski and Pottorff, (1994:48). They claim that students who "Possess larger vocabularies tend to achieve greater success in their content courses." In support of this, Mona, 2009:74 as cited in Anderson and free body (1981:209) reported a strong relationship between vocabulary and academic performance.

As shown above, vocabulary is an essential component of language and we would be totally mistaken if we ignore teaching it.

### (i) Star Diagram for improving vocabulary

Star diagrams are a type of graphic organizer that condense and organize data about multiple traits, fact, or attributes associated a single topic. Star diagrams are useful for basic brainstorming about a topic or simply listing all the major traits related to a theme.

Brainstorming is an essential step in teaching to prepare students for learning lexical items or new forms or even information. This classroom technique should be adopted by all practitioners.



Another more important diagram for brainstorming is what is generally known as spider-diagram:



### 2.1.17 Semantic Relations: Pattern-based Relations

In recent years, several scientific disciplines such as cognitive science, generative linguistics, artificial intelligence (AI), and computational linguistics have showed growing interest in the many facets of semantic relationships. Some of the representational problems investigated by the AI community in the 1990s (Allen 1995) have found new application grounds with the emerging Semantic Web challenges. Nowadays, several conferences dedicated to specific problems of knowledge acquisition and knowledge representation such as the International Knowledge Capture Conference and the International Semantic Technology Conference,<sup>2</sup> to name a very few, bring together scientists from diverse research communities. For example, in 1997, a workshop entitled *Beyond Word Relations*<sup>3</sup> examined a number of relationship types with significance for information retrieval beyond the conventional topic-matching relationship (Green et al. 2002).

Pattern-based semantic relation extraction frequently involves four main steps: (A) defining the semantic relation of interest, (B) discovering the actual patterns which explicitly express such relation in text as well as the syntactic conditions under which the meaning of the targeted relation is realized, (C) searching for instances of the relation using the patterns, and

(D) structuring the new instances as part of a new or existing ontology (or terminological database).

### **(A) Relations of interest**

Pattern-based approaches are used to find relations such as *located-in*, *book-authored-by*, *birthdates-of* (Blohm and Cimiano 2007; Ravichandran and Hovy 2002). The work of Alfonseca et al. (2006) explores a multitude of relations using the same general approach, such as *employee-organization*, *painter-painting*, *film-director*, etc. As shown in Malaisé et al. (2005), in terminology, the main relations of interest are those revealing definitional properties of terms. Some relations have been studied much more than others. Among the many studied relations is hypernymy (or *is-a*) (Caraballo 1999; Ravichandran and Hovy 2002), meronymy (or *part-whole*) (Winston et al. 1987; Berland and Charniak 1999; Girju et al. 2003; Pennacchiotti and Pantel 2006), definitional relations (Pasca 2005) and causality (Barrière 2001; Khoo et al. 2002; Girju 2003; Marshman and L’Homme 2006; Pennacchiotti and Pantel 2006). The *hypernymy* relation has long been at the center of interest since it structures taxonomies and ontologies. Linguistic relations of synonymy and antonymy are also being studied. The distinction between conceptual and linguistic<sup>9</sup> relations is not always taken into account in the literature. They are then grouped under the generic label “semantic relations”. Nevertheless, the methods involved in the extraction of conceptual or linguistic relations are generally the same.

The field of pattern-based approaches to semantic relations extraction is currently very active. The new semantic relation classification task at SemEval 2007 (Girju et al. 2007) is another sign of renewed interest in this area, interest which had started in the late 1980s with much work on machine readable dictionaries (MRDs). With electronic texts now largely available, most pattern-based work has moved from MRDs to corpus, and even recently to the Internet and to very large datasets such as the Terabyte Corpus at TREC. Huge heterogeneous datasets certainly bring their own idiosyncrasies, questions and problems.

The main challenges pertaining to semantic relation extraction have been summarized by Pantel and Pennacchiotti (2006).

The following desiderata outline the properties of an ideal relation harvesting algorithm:



- *Performance*: it must generate both high precision and high recall relation instances;
- *Minimal supervision*: it must require little or no human intervention;
- *Breadth*: it must be applicable to varying corpus sizes and domains; and
- *Generality*: it must be applicable to a wide variety of relations (i.e. not just *is-a* or *part-of*).

This introduction to *Probing semantic relations* does not give complete answers to these challenges but rather presents the general problem areas of pattern-based semantic relation extraction and more specifically emphasize the challenging task of discovering these linguistic patterns in texts.

### **2.1.17 Lexical Relations and the Concept of Cohesion**

The concept of cohesion is the semantic relationships that exist within the text and which qualifies it as a text. It includes five categories: Conjunctions, reference, lexical, ellipsis and substitution (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 4).

Accordingly, cohesion is the network of lexical and grammatical relation that organizes and creates a text. This relation is considered to be a surface relation which connect words or expressions that we see or hear. In another attempt to explain the concept of cohesion Widdowson (1987: 26) stated that *"The notion of cohesion, then refers to the way sentences and parts of sentences combine so as to ensure that there is a prepositional development"*

This definition explains that cohesion is achieved by certain tools which we can refer to as cohesive devices. Moreover, Mathews et al (1990) defined cohesion as "the overt relation of one sentence to another through the use of reference devices and logical connectors".

According to them, student may, for instance, produce a composition in which all the sentences are grammatically correct, but which lack coherence. So that in a piece of writing the ideas should move in a smooth line through the ordering of ideas in the paragraph and linking the sentences with transitional devices.

In other words, cohesion is the connectivity on the surface or sentential level and coherence is the connectivity in terms of content and

organization and on a broader level such as paragraph or discourse level. In(1998: 2).

On the other hand, there may be no use of cohesive ties in a text but it may be still coherent. It seems that cohesion is controversial concept in writing. There is a dispute on the role cohesion plays in textual coherence.

Generally, there are two types of cohesion: sentence cohesion and discourse cohesion. Where the former category is concerned, Crystal (1997) points out that cohesion is a property of words that constitute a unit, within a sentence or individually into which no other word can be inserted. This can be illustrated by the case of superlative form " the most intelligent " where no word is permitted between " the " and" most" or between "most" and "intelligent" without violating the well formedness of the phrase. Another kind of cohesion that takes place within the sentence is reported by Halliday and Hassan (1976: 7-8). They point out that in a sentence such as:

*\*If you happened to meet the admiral, don't tell him his ship's gone down.*

The cohesion effect given rise by the pronoun ' him' and ' his' attracts less notice within a sentence because of cohesive strength of grammatical structure. Thus since the sentence hangs together already, the cohesion is not needed in order to make it hangs together.

Many linguists have discussed the issue of cohesion, but their opinions on this linguistic phenomenon vary. Some (such as Crystal 1987: 119) argue that the cohesion is achieved between its meaning and its superior forms, and to call a series of sentences a text means to assert that the sentences show a certain kind of mutual dependence. Others (such as leech etal 2001: 82) refer to cohesion as a way of combining ideas into arrays using clauses and phrases in order to form the text.

Concerning the concept of cohesion, a review of theoretical resources reveals that it has significantly been one of the most productive areas in the examination of texts (Thompson 2006). Stemming from Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion theory, cohesion is regarded as a semantic relation; it refers to the relations of meaning which exist within a text. It "... Occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another" (Halliday&Hasan 1976: 4). For readers to be able to understand the semantic relations within and across sentences

in a text, and decode some elements, such as nouns, pronouns and demonstrative adjectives, they have to examine all the other surrounding elements included in that text. Furthermore, the theory explains that cohesion denotes the continuity which is created between parts of the text through employing some specific elements which can be lexical or grammatical. In this respect, Mahlberg (2009) in her explanation of cohesion has presented the notion of the property of connectedness. Indicating the flow of information within a text, such connectedness is reflected by the choice of vocabulary items and grammatical linking words that contribute to textual relations.

Most researchers assert that cohesion has a significant impact on the comprehensibility of texts, and highlight the role which should be played by readers to use text features in order to recognize the information presented in these texts. For example, Hoey (1991) asserts that readers are required to look at the surrounding sentences to interpret the cohesive devices included in a text. Correspondingly, Stoddard(1991), by defining cohesion as a mental construct, believes that readers are expected to exert mental effort to interpret cohesive devices used within texts.

Ultimately, the term 'cohesion' is sometimes confused with 'coherence' which has to do with sense. Osisanwo (2005: 43) clarifies that cohesion differs from coherence. He illustrates **with these sentences:**

*\*{He phoned the police }                      coherent but not cohesive*

*\*{The midnight guests had come}*

*\*{He phoned the police because the midnight guests had come}*

*Cohesive and coherent.*

The cohesive device used in the above text is 'because'; it gives the reason why the police was phoned. Thus, this makes a complete text. The parts are well connected and it's meaningful

### **2.1.18 Types of Cohesion**

According to Halliday and Hasan ( 1976:29), cohesion is classified into two broad types: grammatical and lexical. While the grammatical type is realized by various grammatical devices used to make relations among sentences more explicit, the lexical one is established through the structure of vocabulary; by relating words in terms of their meaning. Both types of cohesion and their divisions are presented in table 1, based on (Halliday & Hassan 1976 in Hussein 2014: 17). Since the main focus of the current study is on examining the use of grammatical cohesive devices by Sudanese

university learners of English as a foreign language, an elaborate explanation of grammatical cohesion only will be presented.

<b>Cohesion</b>			
<b>Grammatical</b>		<b>Lexical</b>	
<b>Reference</b>	Exophoric (situational)		<b>Reiteration</b>
	Endophoric(textual)		
	Anaphoric(to preceding text)	Cataphoric(to following text)	
<b>Substitution</b>		Repetition Synonyms Super ordinate General word	
<b>Ellipsis</b>		<b>collocation</b>	

Table 3 : Types of cohesion based on Halliday and Hassan (1976). Taken from (Abulgasim 2014: 17).

**(A) Grammatical Cohesion (Table 4: Types of GC)**

<b>Grammatical Cohesion</b>				
<b>Reference</b>		<b>Substitution</b>	<b>Ellipsis</b>	<b>Conjunction</b>
<b>Existential</b>	<b>Possessive</b>	<b>Nominal</b>	<b>Nominal</b>	<b>Additive</b>
I / me, you, we/us, he / him, she / her, it, they / them, one	My / mine Your / yours, our / ours, his, her / hers, its, their / theirs, one's	One / ones, same		And, and also, nor, or, or else, furthermore, by the way, in other words, likewise, for example, on the other hand and thus.
<b>Demonstratives</b>	<b>Verbal</b>	<b>Verbal</b>	<b>Adversative</b>	

This / that, these / those, here / there and definite article: the	Do		Yet, though, only, but, however, at last, in fact, rather, on the contrary, I mean and in any case
	Clausal	Clausal	Clausal
	So, not		So, then, therefore, because, otherwise, apart from this.
Comparatives			Temporal
Some, identical, similar(ly), such, different, other, else More, so many, better			Then, next, before that, first ... then, first, formerly ... finally, at once, soon, to sum up, in conclusion

### **(B) Reference**

Reference is one of the options used to create surface links between sentences. According to Halliday and Hasan(1976: 37), the features of reference cannot be semantically interpreted without checking some other features in the text. Similarly, Nunan(1993) confirms that referential cohesion plays a significant role in constructing cohesive ties between the elements which can be difficult, or even impossible to interpret if a single sentence is isolated from context. While pronominalisation is the most common referring device, there are other linguistic elements used to fulfill the same function, such as demonstratives and comparatives.

As illustrated in table 2, reference can serve exophoric and endophoric functions. Regarding the first one, the reader is required to look out of the text so as to interpret the referent. In other words, through exophoric reference, the reader is directed out of the text towards an assumed world shared between him/ her and the writer ( McCarthy 1991: 35) in order to retrieve the meaning of the sentences (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 33). An example of exophoric reference presented by Flower dew( 2013: 34), is " ... that picture is beautiful" in which that may refer to a picture hanging on the wall. The picture in this example is part of the context of situation,

even if it does not appear in the text anywhere else. Although it interacts with the cohesion system and contributes to text coherence ( Flower dew 2013), exophoric reference is not incorporated as a component of cohesion since it does not connect two elements together in a text ( Halliday and Hasan 1976).

Pertaining to endophoric reference, it exists when readers refer to elements within the text itself to recognize it (Brown and Yule 1983). It is categorized by Halliday and Hasan (1976:33) into two types: anaphoric and cataphoric. In the first type, readers review previous sentences to discover the referent, such as in the example: " look at the sun. It is going down quickly " ( Brown and Yule 1983: 193), where " it" indicates the previously mentioned noun; the sun. In contrast, readers in the second type examine the following sentences to realize the referent, as in the example: " it's going down quickly, the sun" (Brown and Yule 1983: 193), where " it" refers to the subsequently - mentioned noun; the sun.

As illustrated in Table 2, referential cohesion is classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976:37) into three sub-categories: personal, demonstrative and comparative. They enable writers to make several references to people and things within a text. Employed to identify people, objects or other things that are mentioned somewhere in the text. Personal reference items include: personal pronouns, possessive determiners and possessive pronouns. In the example: "*wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish*" (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 2), 'them' expresses an anaphoric reference which creates grammatical cohesion between the two sentences and can be interpreted only when readers refer back to the previous text.

Classified as the second type of reference, "demonstrative" is regarded as "...a form of verbal pointing ". It is expressed through determiners and adverbs and it is realized by means of location ( Halliday and Hasan 1976: 57); i.e. nearness in time, place, occurrence or relation. In the text: "*I like the lions, and I like the polar bears. These are my favorites*" (ibid), these is a demonstrative reference element acting as a grammatical cohesive device, i.e. linking the two sentences and expressing proximity to the speaker by referring to the animals mentioned in the first sentence. As for the definite article " *the*", which is included in the class of demonstrative reference, it cannot specify anything on its own because it has no content. Though it does not contain information in itself; as it

depends on something else in the text, "the" signals definiteness by creating a cohesive link between the sentences it occurs in and the link it refers to (Halliday and Hassan 1976:57).

Regarding comparative, the third type of referential cohesion, Nunan (1993) elucidates that, it is expressed by using adverbs and adjectives in order to compare and contrast items within a text. Including examples, Table 3 shows that comparative reference is categorized by Halliday and Hasan (1976:76) into two sub- categories: general and particular. While the general subcategory expresses resemblance between things with regard to identity, similarity or difference. The particular one demonstrates comparability between things in terms of quantity or quality.

Let us consider below the different types of comparative reference as pertaining to coherence as devised by Halliday and R. Hassan:

<b>Comparative Reference</b>			
<b>General</b>		<b>Particular</b>	
<b>Identity</b>	We have received exactly the <u>same</u> report as was submitted two months ago	<b>Quantity / enumerative</b>	There twice <u>as many</u> people there <u>as</u> last time.
<b>Similarity</b>	The candidates gave three <u>similar</u> answers	<b>Quality/ epithet</b>	There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dreamt of in your philosophy
<b>Difference</b>	A: would you like these <u>seats</u> ? B: No, I'd like <u>the other seats</u>		

Table 5: Types of comparative reference based on Halliday and Hassan (1976:76).

**(C)Ellipsis:**

Cohesive relation of ellipsis is a relation within the text and in almost every case, what is left unsaid is present in the text. In other words, if

something is ellipsis, then there is a presupposition in a sentence that something must be understood or reconstructed.

In spoken and written English, ellipsis and substitution are used as linguistic mechanisms which help specific linguistic structures to be expressed more economically, at the same time maintaining their clarity and comprehensiveness. These mechanisms include mainly those linguistic structures that enable the avoidance of repetition, either by choosing alternative ( usually shorter) words, phrases or by complete omission of words, phrases or clauses. These two cohesive relations will be defined and their overlapping will be limited here, since they are closely related (Vera M. 2010: 407).

The relation between substitution and ellipsis is very close because it is merely that ellipsis is "substitution" by zero. What is essential in ellipsis is that some elements are omitted from the surface text, but they are still understood. Thus, omission of these elements can be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text. (Harmer 2004: 24) defines it: " (...) words are deliberately left out of a sentence when the meaning is still clear". On considering the following example: "*penny was introduced to a famous author, but even before, she had recognized him*" It appeared that the structure of the second clause indicates that there is something left out " introduced to a famous author ", the omission of this feature kept the meaning still clear and there is no need of repetition. Carter et al (2000: 182), state that " ellipsis occurs in writing where usually functions textually to avoid repetition where structures would otherwise be redundant".

Starkey (2004) points out that on some occasions; ellipsis is used instead of substitution for the sake of conciseness.

For example:

*e.g.1- Everyone who (can) donate time to a charity should do so.*

*e.g.2- Everyone who can donate time to a charity should (0).*

In the first example, where substitution was used, the sentence was somehow wordy in comparison to the other sentence (e.g.2) which seems quite concise as Starkey explains.

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976: 142), ellipsis can be categorized into three categories, as illustrated below.

#### **(D) Conjunction**



Most researchers concur that conjunctions are words that bind a variety of language units together, though they define them a little differently. Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993) consider them as textual markers which facilitate the organization of discourse, whereas Hyland (2005), identifies them as frame markers, such as first, second and next, which are used to sequence information within a discourse. Likewise, Kopple (1985) believes that conjunctions are called text connectives, which are used to link units of a text. Showing relationships between sentences in a text, conjunctive ties are significant devices that make text comprehension proceed more efficiently (Donnelly 1994: 96).

Conjunction, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 226), is the fourth grammatical cohesion type which differs from reference, substitution and ellipsis in that it does not express anaphoric relations within a text. Still, denoting indirect cohesive relations through certain meanings, conjunctions presuppose the presence of other elements in the discourse. Conjunction is achieved to have grammatical cohesion in texts which show the relationship between sentences. They are different from other cohesive ties that they reach the meaning by using other features in the discourse. Because as Nunan (1993) points out, they use features to refer to the other parts of the text in order to make relationship between sentences extremely understood.

### **(E) Lexical Cohesion**

The recent attempt at studying vocabulary above sentences is Halliday and Hasan's description of lexical cohesion. According to them (1976:274), lexical cohesion is created for the choice of a given vocabulary and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality. Thus, Halliday and Hasan divide lexical cohesion into two main categories: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration can be identified through: repetition, general nouns, synonymy and superordination.

According to Halliday (1985: 642) lexical cohesion comes about through the selection of items that are related in some way to those that have gone before. This as Halliday states, may take the form of word repetition; or choice of a word related in some way to previous one- either semantically in case of the relation of synonymous sense, or collocation ally when the relation is based on a particular association known as co-occurrence

tendency. Nevertheless, cohesive devices do their job within intesentential, intrasentential relation, as well as between paragraphs as paragraphs connectors not sentence connectors, Hoey ( 1985) and Bander (1985).

In taking lexical cohesion into consideration, Nunan(1993:30) argued that:

*Lexical cohesion is, in many ways, the most interesting of all the cohesive categories. The background knowledge of the reader or listener plays a more obvious role in the perception of lexical relationships than in the perception of other types of cohesion. Collocation patterns, for example, will only be perceived by someone who knows something about the subject at hand.*

Lexical cohesion is the final type of cohesion dealt with in Halliday and Hasan (1976: 274). Unlike reference, ellipsis, substitution and conjunction, lexical cohesion is not associated with any special syntactic class of elements. It is therefore the most open-ended and least adequately defined of the five kinds. In lexical patterning, successive sentences can be expected to exhibit some relationships through their vocabulary.

**For example:**

1. Through repetition of a word or a phrase.

e.g. Ali went to the beach with some friends of him. The beach was really a nice place to go. The lexical item "beach" reiterated in the same form.

2. **Synonymy**: words of almost the same meaning e.g. commonly/popularly. e.g. Accordingly I took leave and turned to the ascent of the peak. The climb was perfectly easy.

In this example "climb" refers back to "ascent" of which it is synonym.

3. **Antonym** ( the relation of semantic contrast, e.g. high / low).

4. **Hyponymy** ( the semantic relation between a more general expression and related specific relations).

e.g. Henry has bought himself a new Jaguar. He practically lives in the car.

Here, car refers back to Jaguar, and car is super-ordinate of car.

5. **Collocation**(words which tend to occur with one another in certain contents, e.g. education, classroom, class and so on.

## **Part two:**

### **2.2 Previous Relevant Research**

This part is intended to link the research with the previous similar studies through comparing and contrasting them in the field of semantics, lexical relations and vocabulary learning.

The first study, in this connection, has been conducted by Omer Naeem Mohammed. Entitled: "The effect of teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping on EFL learners Awareness of vocabulary knowledge". It is submitted to Alimam Mohammed Ibin Saud Islamic University-Faculty of Journal Education, (International interdisciplinary journal was written in, 2013)

The study investigated the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction via using semantic mapping against the established traditional vocabulary teaching techniques in Saudi Arabia, the purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of semantic mapping as instructional strategy for teaching vocabulary items to EFL learners at Alimam Mohammed Ibin Saud of the strategy on EFL students achievement of lexical items the sample of the study consisted of 50 male students enrolled in two sections, which were randomly selected from four sections and randomly assigned to both experimental and control group. Therefore a quasi-experimental mode of inquiry was chosen internationally but its assignment on the groups was carried out randomly. The experimental group studied the lexical items via semantic mapping strategy, and the control group studied them in the traditional method. Vocabulary pre-test was given to both groups at the equivalent and homogenous. At the end of the experiment the same test was given to the experimental and control groups to investigate the effect of semantic mapping strategy on EFL student's achievement of lexical items. The researcher reached some recommended as follow:

- a. Teachers are advised to be committed to teaching new lexical items by preparing additional challenging and motivating vocabulary activities based on semantic mapping strategy.
- b. Teachers are advised to be eclectic in teaching new vocabulary by choosing the most appropriate strategy they should vary their strategies

according to the difficulty of the word and the level of the class they can sometimes combine more than one strategy according to the nature of the new word.

c. Teachers are encouraged to focus on international as well as accidental vocabulary learning.

d. It is recommended that teachers avoid translation as much as possible in teaching new lexical items.

e. It is worthwhile to replicate the study in another area in Saudi Arabia and to test the effectiveness of semantic mapping strategy on other EFL learner's levels as well as the student's attitudes towards such a strategy.

f. Carried out further research concerning the effect of semantic mapping on other language skills such as writing and reading skills.

The second study was carried out by, Siti NurVadila, Entitled: "Enriching student's vocabulary through semantic mapping technique" Syarif Hidayatullah Islamic University- faculty of Tarbiyah and teachers training- English department, (unpublished, B.A degree in English language was written in, 2011). The study was categorized as a collaborative classroom action research. The writer worked collaboratively with the English teacher in the class. The CAR was done based on Kemmis and McTaggart's design, the writer did two cycles in which each cycle consists of planning, acting observing and reflecting. The data were gathered through qualitative and quantitative data the quantitative data were gained by analyzing the interview and observation result, then, quantitative data were obtained from the student's vocabulary score of present and post-test and questionnaire. The result of questionnaire, it showed that there was improvement of positive responses in the teaching learning process during the implementation of semantic mapping strategy related to the results of the gained data, it can be concluded that the student's vocabulary enriched and also the students were motivated in learning English vocabulary. The objectives of the study were:

a. Find whether teaching vocabulary using semantic mapping can enrich the student's vocabulary or not.

b. Described the teaching learning process in the classroom especially the implementation of teaching English vocabulary through semantic mapping in enriching student's vocabulary.

Study (6)by: Mohammad Hasein Keshavarz, Entitled: "The effect of semantic mapping strategy instruction on vocabulary learning of intermediate EFL student's". It is submitted to (Iran University- Journal of faculty of letters and Humanities, No 49 was written in, 1998)

The study to investigate the effect of semantic mapping strategy instruction on vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate student's, a further concern of the study was to explore the probable interaction between the effect of teaching semantic mapping strategy and gender. Initially, 134 available male and female EFL students' participated in the study. The instruments utilized in the study were a nelson test and teacher male vocabulary test, which were employed at pre-test and posttest phases. Having established the homogeneity of the subject's in terms of general language proficiency the 120 selected students were divided in to four groups: two experimental (male- female) and two control groups (male- female). Then, in order to ascertain the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of vocabulary knowledge prior to the treatment, the vocabulary test was administered to the entire group. During the eight instructional sessions, the experimental groups received semantic mapping strategy instruction after reading each passage and then did the exercises, in the control group student's were not taught how to use semantic mapping strategy and they read the passages, did the exercises and activities and new words were introduced through contexts and exercises. At the end of experiment, the post-test was administered the results of which indicated that there was a significant difference among the means of the experimental and control groups. It was also revealed that there was no interaction between the effects of semantic mapping strategy instruction has a significant impact on vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate ELF student's regardless of their gender. The main findings of the study showed that: some implications for learners and teachers and syllabus designers, learning vocabulary through semantic mapping strategy would be more enjoyable and meaningful for the learners.

-The findings may encourage teachers who still believe in teacher

- Centeredness in language teaching to change their view points in favor of more learner-centered approaches. Syllabus designers to semantic maps in to the materials they develop the way they can introduce a lot of new words in a map and improve both memory and comprehension of the words.

The third study was conduct byMahnaz Saeidi, Entitled: "Teaching Vocabulary through Semantic Mapping as a pre-reading Activity across Genders". It is submitted to University of Islam Abad- Faculty of Education (Journal of English studies was written in, 2010)

The study has examined the effect of semantic mapping on teaching vocabulary across genders. The researchers selected 120 intermediate students after the administration of a standard proficiency test. A vocabulary test was also used to measure the student's vocabulary knowledge the experimental group received semantic mapping in the pre-reading stage, but the control group did not receive this treatment.

The results of the study, based on statistical analysis of the data, indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in vocabulary learning. As for the gender differences, the results indicated no significant difference between males and females. It can be suggested that semantic mapping can be used as an efficient methodology for teaching vocabulary, a technique which is equally effective for male and female EFL, Learners. The researcher formulated the following research questions were:

- a. Is there any difference between the performance of students who use semantic mapping as a pre-reading activity for vocabulary learning and the performance of those who do not use this technique?
- b. Is there any difference between the performance of male and female students who receive semantic mapping as a pre-reading activity for vocabulary learning?

# **Chapter Three**

## **Methodology**

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter describes and explains the methodology employed in this study and research method. It describes the practical project of the field study and the study tool and the procedure of collecting the data to inform the present study.

The chapter will further include as part of its components, four main sections:

1. The subjects of the study
2. The teaching/learning materials.
3. The theoretical principles on which the methodology is based.
4. Instrumentation and procedures of data collection.

#### **3.1 The Study Methodology**

To analyze the collected data and arrive at a solid conclusion, the study used a mixed-method approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This situation has the effect of allowing the instruments used in the research to go together in a complementary manner. For this reason, an experiment, questionnaires, and class observations were used to deal with the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 19 was used for data analysis.

#### **3.2 Study population and sample**

The study population was students and the teaching staffs of English, male and female at the Sudan University of Science and Technology. This experiment was conducted at the College of Languages. It is axiomatic that the undergraduate students enter university after spending eight years studying English at the basic and secondary levels of general education. All the students are aged 18 years old. They all speak Arabic as their first language, and all of them have studied English for 8 years at school. All the students who took part in the study experiment were gender-mixed groups.

The test used was similar to students test practiced on their text book and as Sudanese Secondary Certificate (see appendix 1). The test consists of true/false and multiple choice questions, such questions are good means to assess reading comprehension because they don't require production



(Nuttal1982). The students stay for 4 years at the university before graduation. There were 25 students per group and in addition to studying. Besides English, students also enroll in other courses including Arabic and French and course of Islamic studies to complete their undergraduate credit hours.

Most of the tutors, who participated in the experimentation process, are experienced Sudanese teachers. Some have taught at the university for 10 years, while a few have joined recently. As the students mix together for hours, they spend a lot of time speaking Arabic, and have little or no exposure to English outside the classroom, apart from that they may speak very little English or listen songs in English over their headphones. The type of songs they listen to are. They listen to the types of songs that appeal to the interest of young and have no formal diction.

### **3.3 Tools of the study**

To collect the desired information to inform the recent study, two types of tools have been adopted. One type is a questionnaire, which was distributed to a randomly selected group of Sudanese English language teachers at universities. A pre-test and a post-test, is the second tool used in this research and classroom observation, among others. The tests were administered to *first year* undergraduate students of Sudan University of Science and Technology. Students were, amounting to as many as a hundred were divided into two groups, namely experimental and controlled. Before the test, the experimental group has been subjected to a dose of exposure to linking devices which was positively reflected in their exam performance.

The descriptive and analytical method of investigation has been adopted in the present research. The well-known package of (SPSS) was employed for the data analysis to produce the wanted statistical end.

### **3.5 Questionnaire**

The teachers' questionnaire (TsQ.), consist of 15 multiple statements and two open-ended questions. It was divided into three parts (see appendix 3):

- i) Use of dictionaries (Monolingual and bilingual)
- ii) The syllabus at university (whether it caters for the issue of glosses)
- iii) Tutors' training ( to handle all the different parts of the contents adequately)

Part one i) includes 5 statements surveying students' use of dictionaries particularly bilingual ones, with Likert 4 points scale (strongly agree, Agree, disagree and strongly disagree).

Part two included also five statements surveying the tutors' attitude towards the syllabus, also with Likert 4 points scale.

Part three surveyed different issues ranging from tutors' training to teaching at the general education, with Likert 5 points scale.

The questionnaire papers were distributed to as many as a 100 tutors who send a considerable time responding to the different items. The papers were, and then collected after two days for conducting the desired analysis and evaluation

### **3.7 Research Experiment**

There were two groups in the present study, that is (A),(B) and The first one (A) as the experimental group, (B) a control group. Both members of the groups were daily exposed to reading comprehension for a couple of weeks. Then, for the remaining 45 days the tutor started to draw their attention to the question of lexical items, vocabulary with the aim of identifying the new lexis and trying to infer their meaning. Authentic material was included from time to time to make the work more challenging and have the students work hard through the selected texts.

#### **3.8 Validity of the questionnaire**

The questionnaires of this study, were validated by a jury consisting of five assistant professors specialized in English language. They based their comments on the following criteria:

- (1) The clarity of the items and instruction.
- (ii) The simplicity of items, and how far they related to the subject.
- (iii) The language used.

The jury made some remarks concerning some items and suggested modification for these items. Two items from TsQ. were omitted, and the researcher responded to their suggestions, and made the required modifications.

#### **3.9 Reliability of the questionnaire**

In statistics, reliability is the consistency of a set of measurements often used to describe a test. For the reliability of the questionnaires, the study used the split – half method: A measure of consistency where a questionnaire is split in two and the score for each half of the questionnaire was compared with one another. The questionnaires were distributed to 30 teachers of English at Sudanese universities. The coefficient correlation formula was used to calculate the correlation:

The analysis shows that there was strong positive correlation between the answers given to the items asked: = 084%

### **3.10 Procedures**

The questionnaire was administered to teachers by hand, and was given up to 20 days to respond to the questions, some were given to other teachers to distribute them. Two forms were returned unfilled, and some were lost.

### **3.11 Pilot Study**

The pilot study (P.S) was conducted to check out the instruments used before their final administration. A group of randomly selected ten teachers, they were requested to fill in the questionnaire and feel free to write or comment orally on any observation they think necessary with a view to check the following:

- 1- The appropriate length of time needed to fill in the questionnaire.
- 2- Clarity of the questions.

The researcher received no comments regarding the above points from the teachers.

*Table (3-5) summary of teacher's questionnaire*

<b>Variable measured</b>	<b>Measured by</b>
Classroom research-its nature	Item 1,2,,4,5 and 6
Syllabus at university	Item 1,2,3, 4, 5 and 7
Tutors training	Item 1,2,4,5 and 5

**Table No.(1) Academic status:**

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Teacher	35	70.0%
Doctor	5	10.0%
Professor	10	20.0%
Total	50	100.0%

**Table No.(2) Sex**

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Male	33	66.0%
Female	17	34.0%
Total	50	100.0%

**Table No.(4) Years of experience**

Valid	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	27	54.0%
5-10 years	8	16.0%
10-15 years	15	30.0%
Total	50	100.0%

### 3. 12 Classroom observation (Action Research)

The researcher visited some universities in Sudan and had a quick look at English language syllabus that was followed by these colleges. The researcher was also interested in attending reading comprehension sessions to get acquainted with the ways and the learning strategies students use to learn and retain new lexical items. The Classroom observations, which involved 10 tutors, were conducted by using check-list to note down observations. The check list covered the following items: explaining collocation exercises, their meaning, uses, grammar, vocabulary, checking understanding, praising, and telling jokes. As for vocabulary, students provide equivalent in Arabic, no more. No one particular strategy was used to show how they approach their vocabulary learning particularly the central issue of collocation.

#### Table No.(4)

Validity coefficient is the square of the islands so reliability coefficient is (0.84), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

No		Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	df	Sig	Scale
1	Vocabulary acquisition is considered the most important activity for EFL students	4.56	0.611	25.720	2	0.00	Strongly agree ,
2	Sentences with a lot of grammatical mistakes are more comprehensible than those with inaccurate vocabulary.	4.24	0.847	26.000	3	0.00	agree
3	The more learners are exposed to the target language in their reading, the more they develop their vocabulary.	4.24	0.981	44.000	4	0.00	agree

4	Authentic materials are of great value for increasing motivation and hence vocabulary learning.	4.52	0.580	21.280	2	0.00	Strongly agree
5	Collocations are difficult to learn because they are strongly culture-bound	4.44	0.644	15.520	2	0.00	agree
6	Focusing on reading can mislead and distract the learner's attention and make learning words while reading an insufficient method	4.36	0.722	32.720	3	0.00	agree

**Table (5)**

**Paired Samples Test**

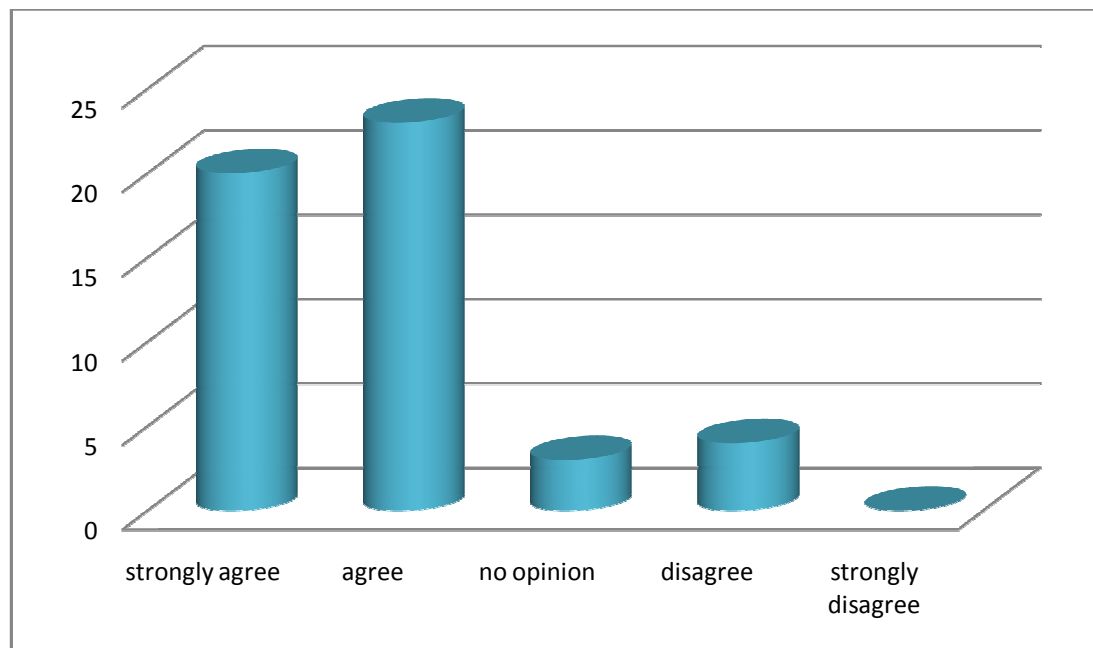
Pair	No	Mean	Std. deviation	T test	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Before	50	10.9	4.38	-5.713	49	0.00
After	50	12.01	2.38			

Note from the table above is that the t-test (-5.713) significant value (0.00) which is less than the probability value (0.05) this means that there are statistically significant differences in the degrees of students before and after the test.

**Figure No (1) Paired Samples Test**

Note from the table above is that the t-test (-5.713) significant value (0.00) which is less than the probability value (0.05) this means that there are statistically significant differences in the degrees of students before and after the test.

**Figure No (1) Paired Samples Test**



From the table and figure above that the distribution of the sample by the statement as follows strongly agree by (44%) agree by (28%) no opinion by (12%) disagree by (8%) Strongly Disagree by (8%)

**3.9 Cranach’s alpha method:**

Where reliability was calculated using Cranach’s alpha equation shown below:

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{N-1} \frac{(1 - \text{Total variations questions})}{\text{variation college grades}}$$

Cranach alpha coefficient = (0.70), a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study.

**3.10 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter described the methodology employed for gathering the data of the present study. Research instruments were described; instruments reliability and 50 validity were confirmed. Having finished with the methodology of the study, the next chapter will present data analysis, results and discussion.

# **Chapter Four**

## **Data Analysis, Results and Discussions**



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **Overview**

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, pre-test, post test and teachers' questionnaire.

#### **4.1 Analysis of the Experiment.**

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering vital questions on classroom interaction effect on the overall standards of the students. To answer these questions, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction. The following three hypotheses will be verified or confirmed in view of the analysis of the pre and post tests results as well as that of the questionnaire.

#### **4.2 Test of the Study Hypotheses**

To answer the study's questions and hence verify its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the pre-test and post-test as well as the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problem in question, namely expanding classroom interaction to reinforce communicative competence. To do that, we will give five degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer "agree", three degrees for each answer "neutral", two degrees with each answer "disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree". This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, we will use the non-parametric chi-square test to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions. The hypotheses to be tested are as follows.

1. The teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary and enhances their fluency.
2. Undergraduates' syllabuses include lexical relation items

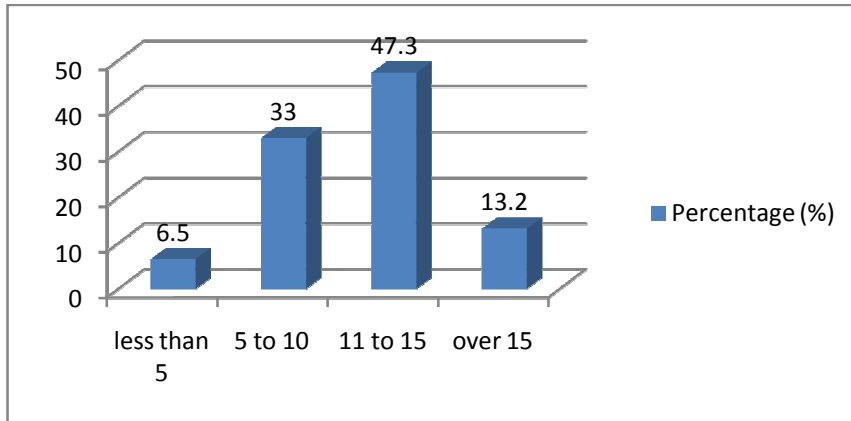
3. Tutors teaching English language at undergraduate level are not trained to handle such issues as lexical relations.

To maximize the issue of vocabulary learning certain language material relating to lexical relations was chosen for conducting the pre-test and post test, as the outcome of the two tests will also give insights into the type of teaching material to be used to enhance vocabulary enhancement. The material was taken from the students' syllabus making special use of a communicative course taught at some Sudanese universities, particularly Rabat University. As far as the pre-test is concerned, the first question was intended to check the students' vocabulary as regards describing of people's appearance. The question also calls on the students to use their language to describe clothing in relation to whether worn on the head, round the neck, top/bottom or half of the body. 17 marks were given to this question.

On the pretest, most of the students got a good mark (11 – 15) which indicates their good grasp of what the question meant and answered correctly and knew the place and the meaning of the clothing. The following is an example to clarify this part:

**Table (4-1) Pre-test question on vocabulary**

<b>Marks</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>less than 5</b>	6	6.6
<b>5 to 10</b>	30	33
<b>11 to 15</b>	43	47.3
<b>Over 15</b>	12	13.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>100</b>



It is evident from the table as well as the figure (4-1) that most students did very nicely and scored relatively good marks. This shows that the students have the knack for learning and get into interactive activities very well. So the tutors can draw on such solid facts to enhance classroom interaction. This can in part be said to contribute to confirming the first hypotheses.

**Q2** this question was general information about lexical relations in a form of true false statements. The students had to write (T) if the statement was true and (F) if it was false. This question was 7 Marks.

Table (4-2) (true-false)

<b>Marks</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Less than 5</b>	1	1.2
<b>5 to10</b>	28	32.9
<b>11to15</b>	38	44.7
<b>Over 15</b>	18	21.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>100</b>

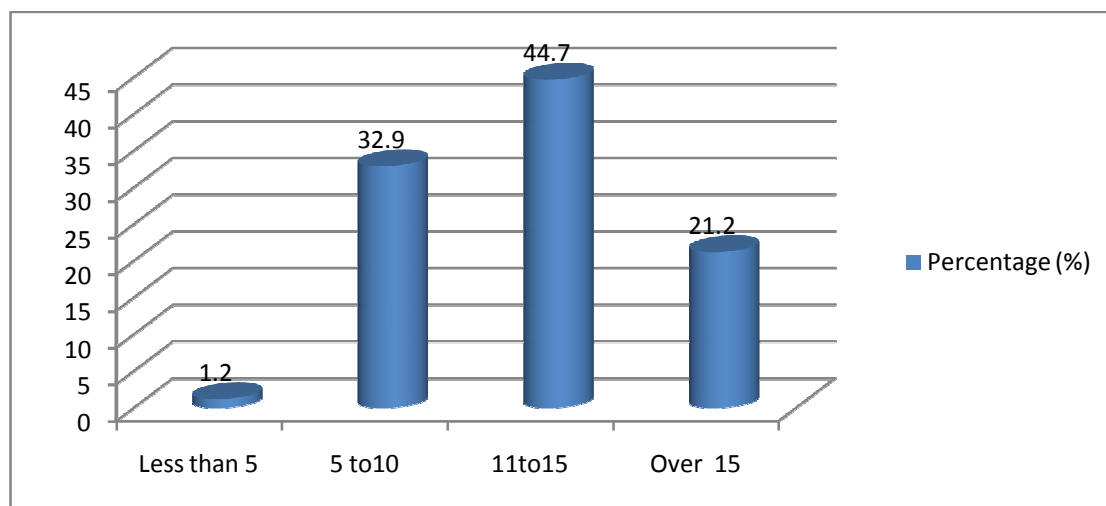


Figure (4-2) true/false

It is clear that the type of language which is used here for the students to work on via the pair true/false question has reflected the students' interest in it as viewed from the high marks they achieved. So this type of language can also be adopted for the purpose of enhancing the students' knowledge of lexical relations, increase their vocabulary and hence improve their interaction. Consequently, this result further confirms the first hypothesis which states that teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary and enhances their fluency.

Table (4-3) post-test

Marks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 4	11	12.1
4 to 7	80	87.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>100</b>

On the post test, 92% got very good marks (4 – 7). This shows how interested and concentrated the students were. This account for the fact

that the language used in the test reflects the students' interest and hence can be employed in classroom in order to enhance the students' vocabulary and grasp of lexical relations. It also indicates that the experiment group has benefited a lot from the type of training they received and boosted their standards.

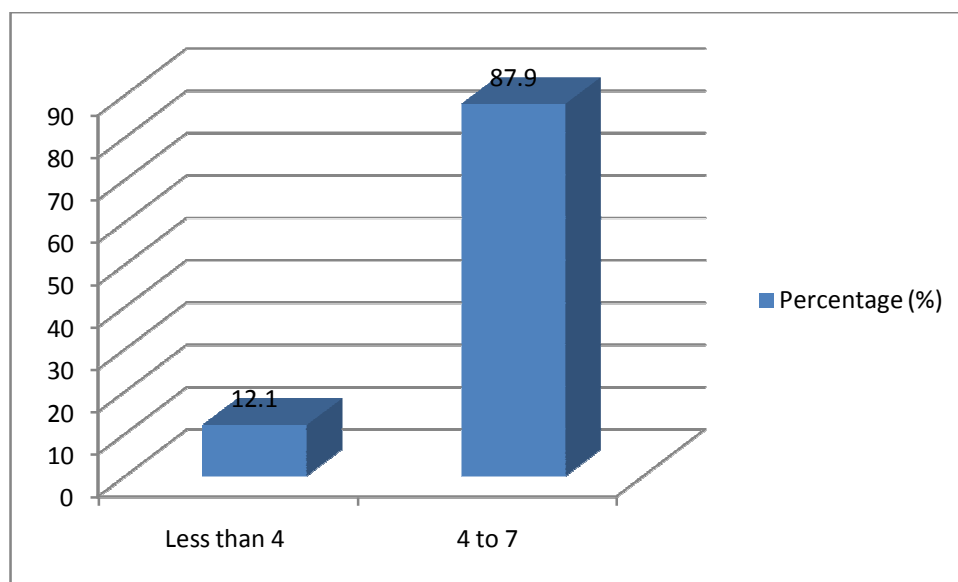


Figure (4-3) post-test reflecting the high marks scored by the students the thing which demonstrates their interest in the kind of language used in test, which can accordingly be utilized to enhance classroom interaction.

Table (4-4) Adjectives

Marks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Less than 4</b>	6	7.1
<b>4 to 7</b>	79	92.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>100</b>

The above encouraging results were achieved by the students in the post-test. Their demonstration in the test reflects their interest in adjectives

such an important area in the language and which can be developed and be utilized to fit within the general framework of the research. That is, it can be used to maximize knowledge of vocabulary, particularly collocations and hence lexical relations which consequently lead to lifting up the students overall language standard. It helps improve their oral production and hence this can be taken as a fact augmenting hypothesis two. It states as follows: **Undergraduates’ syllabuses include lexical relation items.**

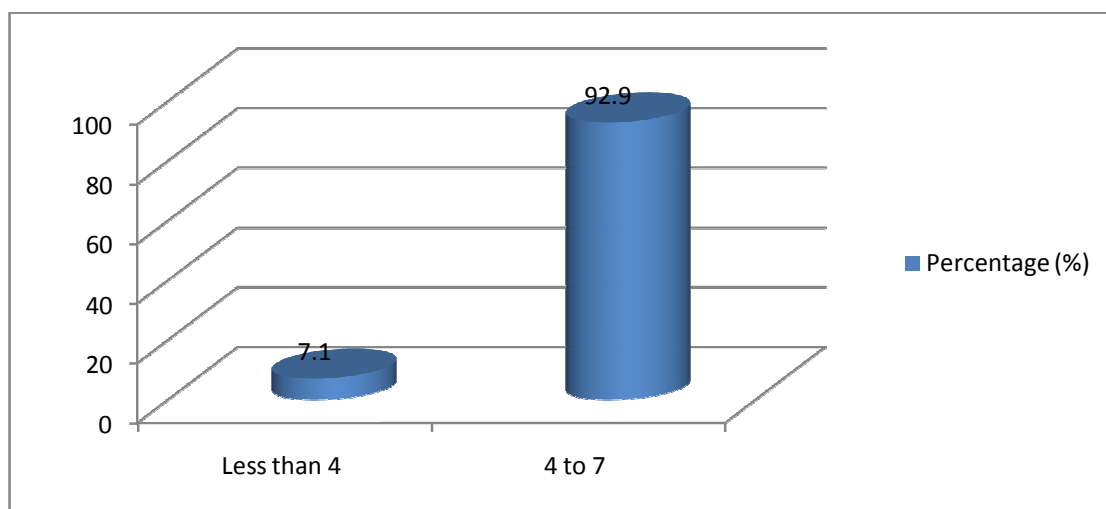


Figure (4-4) indicates the good marks achieved by the student in the question that tests the use of *adjective*.

Table (4-5) the English pronouns

Marks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
less than 2	52	47.1
2 to 5	39	42.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>100</b>

Judging by the results above, the figures reflect the students’ poor performance as far as the area of pronouns is concerned. The researcher can take care of this area by injecting a further dose to consolidate it.

For people learning English as a second or foreign language, pronouns can be difficult because they are expressed differently in their native language. “It” doesn’t exist in many languages, reflexive verbs are formed differently, and some languages only have one relative pronoun. Mastering English pronouns takes a lot of time and practice.

Native English speakers sometimes have a hard time choosing the correct pronoun in English because some of the pronouns are homonyms. For example:

- There is no difference between the subject pronoun “you” and the object pronoun “you.”
- There is no difference between the relative pronoun “who” and the interrogative pronoun “who,” but they are used differently.

The use of pronouns often involves anaphora, where the meaning of the pronoun is dependent on an antecedent. This applies especially to third-person personal pronouns, and to relative pronouns. For example, in the sentence *That poor man looks as if he needs a new coat*, the antecedent of the pronoun *he* is the noun phrase *that poor man*.

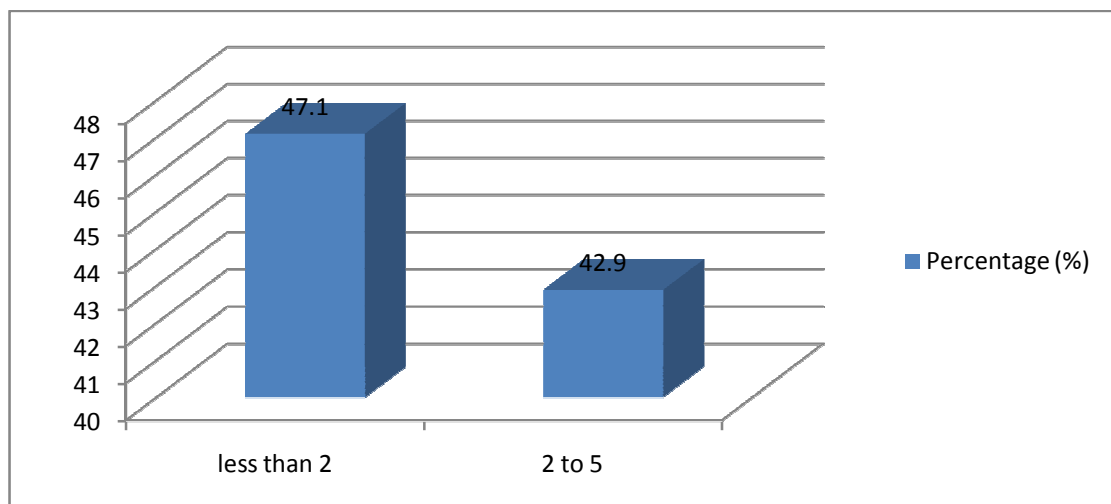


Figure (4-5) also reflects the poor results in the area of English pronouns the thing which calls for hard work both on the part of the tutors and the students.

*Table (4-6) Underlining the correct word or words*

<b>Marks</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Less than 2</b>	34	40
<b>2 to 5</b>	51	60
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>100</b>

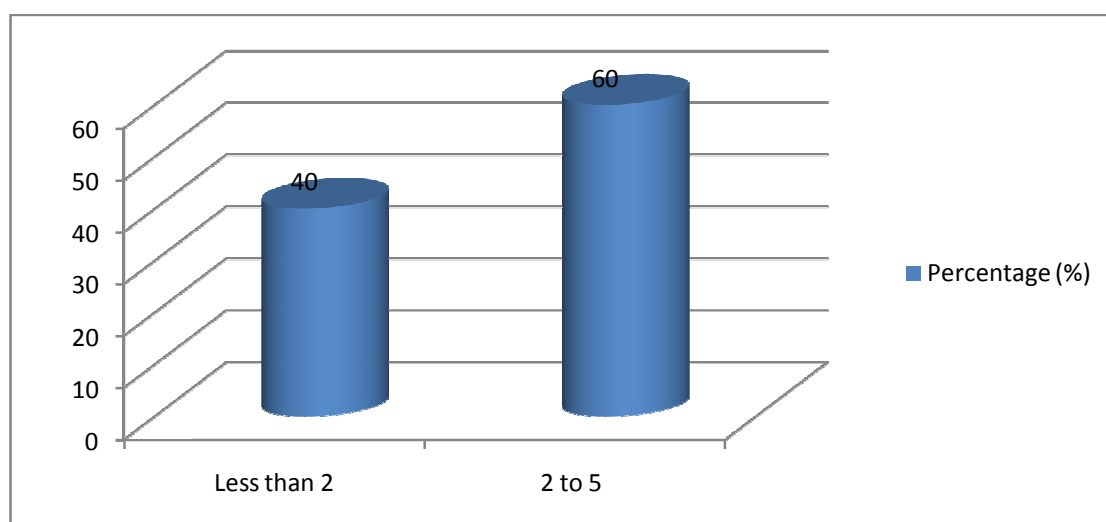


Figure (4-6) underlining the correct forms

It is apparent that the students have not attained good marks in this question which require them to draw on their background knowledge to select the right type of words. This question to be answered properly requires good word power. This kind of knowledge of vocabulary accumulates as a result of hard work both on part of the tutor and the student. The researcher, as per the outcome this question should exert much efforts to help students in this very important area which is essential for communicative competence. Students often instinctively recognize the importance of vocabulary to their language learning. As Schmitt (2010) noted, “learners carry around dictionaries and not



grammar books” Teaching vocabulary helps students understand and communicate with others in English. Voltaire purportedly said, “Language is very difficult to put into words.” I believe English language students generally would concur, yet learning vocabulary also helps students master English for their purposes.

Good communicative competence is generally needed to increase classroom interaction.

Table (4-7) knowledge of the five senses

Marks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 3	8	8.8
3 to 6	83	91.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>100</b>

Almost all students did very nicely in this part which requires students to identify the five senses. This will help when describing some facial expressions. This in turn has the effect of increasing their knowledge of the vocabulary and lexical relations. It is in part verifies the second hypothesis, . Undergraduates’ syllabuses include lexical relation items.

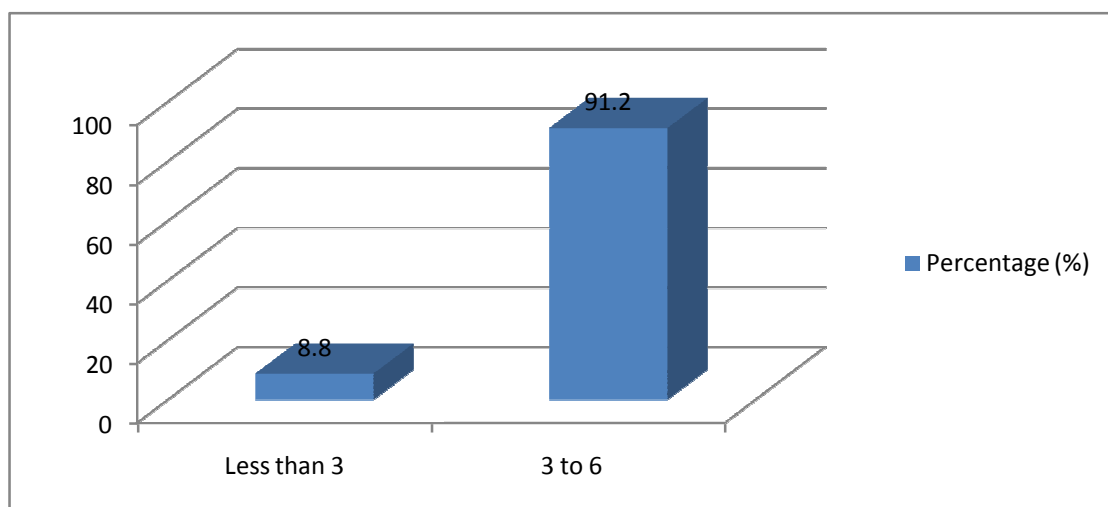


Figure (4-7) identifying the different parts of the face for describing facial expressions.

Table (4-8) Filling the spaces

Marks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 3	9	10.6
3 to 6	76	89.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>100</b>

On this part students were to complete the sentences by writing one of the words given. The question was to reflect the students knowledge on the five senses and the vocabulary used with them. The students had the words given to them, all they had to do is choose from the words above and put them in the suitable place according to their meaning. The question had 6 marks.

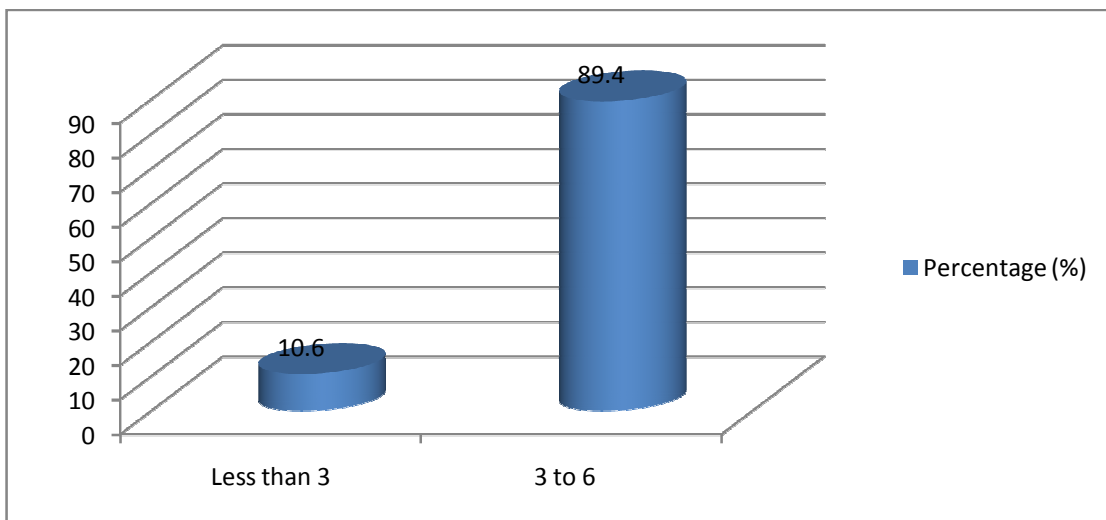


Figure (4-8) Filling the spaces with the words provide for them. Their performance was good as shown by the figure.

Table (4-9) underlining the correct verb

<b>Marks</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Less than 3</b>	16	18.8
<b>3 to 6</b>	69	81.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>100</b>

In this question the students had to put a line under the correct verb. The aim of this question was to get a hint on whether the students know how to separate the correct use of verb with someone or something or they use the same verb. This question has 6 marks.

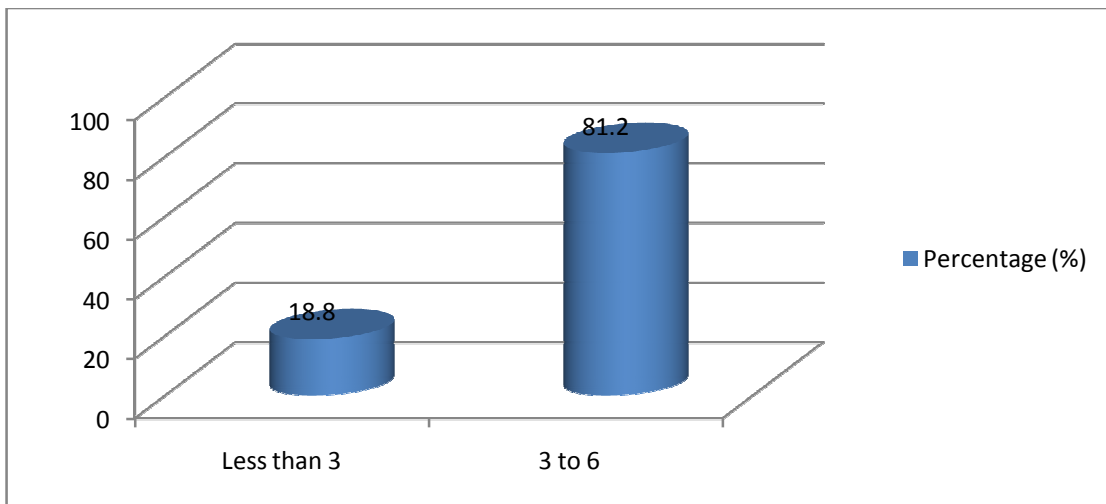


Figure (4-9) Students' performance is good.

Table (4-10) Describing a location from another location.

<b>Marks</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Less than 3</b>	9	10.6
<b>3 to 6</b>	76	89.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>100</b>

This question aims at showing how to describe a location from another location. This question needs concentration and it helps if the student put himself/herself in the position mentioned and finds the other position from that angle. This question has 7 marks. The question requires the students to get into a process of thinking and asking questions in order to arrive at the right answer. This mechanism is mainly intended to create some sort of dialogue among the students which will put them on the track for learning more vocabulary and recognizing new sets of lexical relations. Therefore, such drill should be consolidated if we need to maximize classroom interaction.

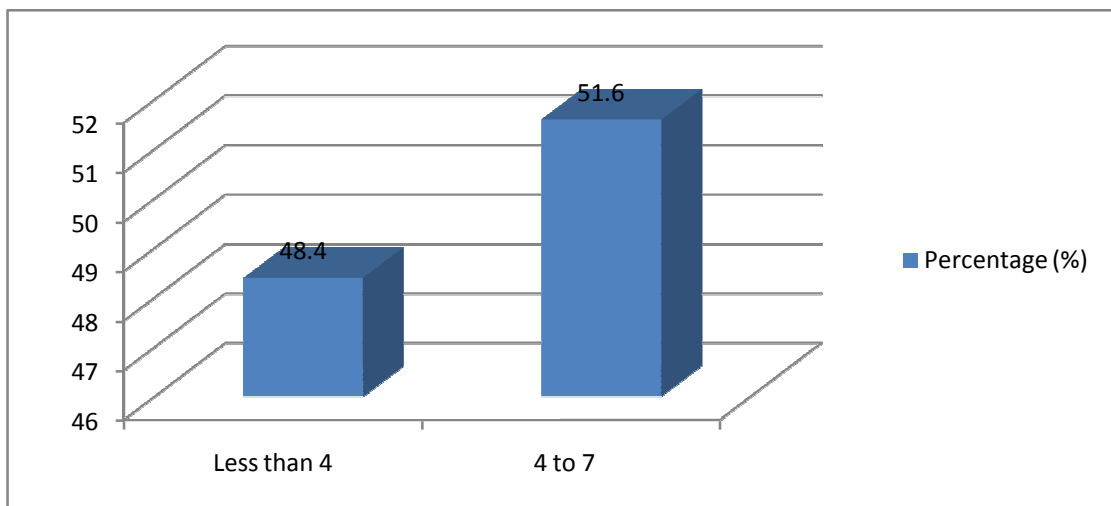


Figure (4-10) demonstrating a location from another location.

### 4.3 Analysis of the Questionnaire

It consists of fifteen interrelated parts related to surveying teachers' the issue in question, namely classroom interaction. The questionnaire mainly focuses on the teachers' attitude towards the issue of classroom interaction as a classroom technique to enhance communicative competence.

As many as 38 tutors or respondents have taken part by filling the forms. A number of variables have been taken into account as will be shown by the table and the graph below:

The questionnaire contains (15) chunks. Respondents are requested to answer along the lines of Likert scale as traditionally questionnaires are designed. on four hypotheses as follows :

- The first hypothesis includes the chunks ranging from 1 to 5
- The second hypothesis from 6 to 10
- The third hypothesis from 11 to 15

#### 4.1 Statistical methods

To realize the goals set for the study and to validate hypotheses, the following statistical methods have been employed:

- Charts.
- Frequency distribution of the answers
- Percentages.
- Alpha equation, to calculate the reliability coefficient.
- Median.
- Chi-square test for the significance of differences between the answers.

To further confirm the obtained results and check their accuracy the researcher used SPSS statistical software package.

Table (4.11) the first chunk, which addresses the syllabus, pronunciation and spelling errors

No.	Items	Frequency and percentages				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Undergraduate students' Speech is marked by flagrant erroneous pronunciation of lexical items.	61 50.8%	36 30%	3 2.5%	9 7.5%	11 9.2%
2	Lack of accurate pronunciation affects Sudanese undergraduate's speaking fluency.	54 45%	34 28.3 %	8 6.7%	18 15%	6 5.0%
3	Correct spelling is required for correct pronunciation	66	37	9	4	4

	and hence peaking performance speed	55%	30.8 %	7.5%	3.6%	3.6%
4	Having a good understanding of lexical relations enhances Sudanese undergraduate students speaking ability.	57 47.5%	37 30.8 %	8 6.7%	13 10.8%	5 4.7%
5	Inability to pronounce the word correctly may affect the choice of the next words.	60 50%	36 30%	11 9.2%	10 8.3%	3 2.5%
Hypothesis		298 49.7%	180 30%	39 6.5%	54 9.0%	29 4.8%

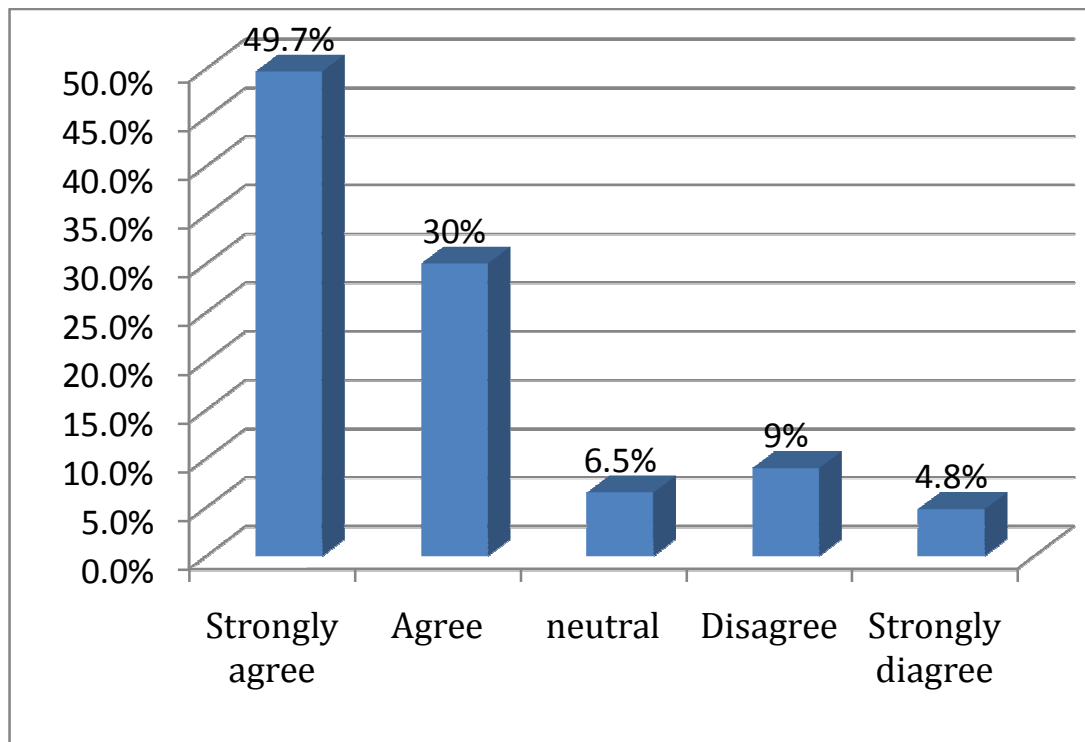


Figure (3): Percentages distribution of the first hypothesis phrases:

As is clear from table (4.) item (1) the majority of the respondents (50.8%) strongly agree that pronunciation is not adequately introduced, explained and practiced at undergraduate level English language program, (30%) agree, (2.5%) neutral, (7.5%) disagree, while 9.2% shown to be strongly disagree.

Judging by the percentage as shown above, the tutors are not pleased with the situation of the spelling across the syllabus or the English program.

Item (2) shows that the greater part of the respondents (45%) do strongly agree that the syllabus presents examples of pronunciation that do not reflect authentic communicative language. They are well aware that the language used make illustration is not at all a communicative one that you can be used in everyday life. Hence, such kind of medium or language is difficult for the students to commit to memory to use in authentic situations. Again, (28.3%) of the respondents agree, while (6.7%) showed a neutral attitude, and that (15%) disagree while (5%) do strongly disagree.

As far as the third item is concerned, it is apparent that the entire respondents (55%) strongly agree that Even if the examples pronunciation patterns or paradigms contained in the syllabus were numerous, they do not enrich students' speaking or communicative repertoire. The fact that having abundant examples, but they were not carefully selected and nicely presented and practiced their effect will probably be very restricted or limited. (30.8%) do agree further confirming the first slot, (7.5%) are neutral, which can also be viewed as supporting the first and second options. The following two options (3.3%) disagree and (3.4%) strongly disagree can be thought of as insignificant.

As for item (4) it is noticeable that the mainstream of the respondents (47.5%) strongly agree that Examples of pronunciations were not combined in universal topics selected from a wide variety of material to account for the language cultural dimension. This situation of cultural distance is not restricted to the Sudan, it holds true across the Arab world that they hardly think of the question of culture. The researcher works for a time there in Saudi Arabia and taught different syllabuses. The researcher observed that all illustrations in English language syllabuses that do not reconcile with local culture were crossed out. This sad fact is attributable to lack of awareness of the role culture plays in language learning. (30.8%) agree which means that the first element substantially reinforced, and (6.7%) are neutral only to additionally augment the first and second choice. (10.8%) disagree, and that (4.7%) strongly disagree.

As regard item (5) the majority of the respondents (50%) strongly agree that in broad general terms, the course lacks an in-depth treatment of grammar with clear presentations followed by extensive practice activities. This strong percentage accounts for the sole fact that the

majority of the tutors are not satisfied with the syllabus. It also reflects the fact that the English program needs to be updated with clear presentations, self-check exercises as shown in some international syllabuses “*Headway*”, and detailed explanations in the grammar reference followed by extensive practice activities. (30%) do agree substantiating the percentage shown in first option, while (9.2%) are neutral which also reinforces the first and second choices. (8.3%) disagree and (2.5%) strongly disagree, however the last two options can be considered inconsequential in relation to the first three choices.

**Table (4.11): Chi-square test results:**

No	Items	Chi-square value	P-value	Median	Trend
1	Undergraduate students’ Speech is marked by flagrant erroneous pronunciation of lexical items.	97.833	0.000	5	To strongly agree
2	Lack of accurate pronunciation affects Sudanese undergraduate’s speaking fluency	67.333	0.000	4	To agree
3	Correct spelling is required for correct pronunciation and hence peaking performance speed	123.250	0.000	5	To strongly agree
4	Having a good understanding of lexical relations enhances Sudanese undergraduate students speaking ability.	83.167	0.000	4	To agree
5	Inability to pronounce the word correctly may affect the choice of the next words.	93.583	0.000	5	To strongly agree



	<b>Hypothesis</b>	454.017	0.000	4	To agree

**Judging by the tables above, the following analytical points and observation can safely be stated:**

- The value of chi-square for the first item is (97.833) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and still referring to the table (4.1), this indicates that the difference are great as reflected in level (5%) the thing which safely leads to saying that the majority is in favor of the option “strongly agree”, which further solidifies the hypotheses of the present research.
- The value of chi-square for the second item is (67.333) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and with reference to table (4.1) that value indicates that the positive attitude is apparently towards “agree”.
- The value of chi-square for the third item is (123.250) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and likewise with reference to table (4.1) it indicates beyond doubt that there are significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study and the respondents are strongly in favor of “strongly agree”.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth item is (83.167) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and again as regards table (4.1) this shows that there are considerable variations at the level (5%) in relation to the choices which conspicuously favors the option “agree”.
- The value of chi-square for the fifth phrase is (93.583) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and owing to table (4.1), this indicates that there are significant differences at the level (5%) made by respondents and in favor of “strongly agree”.
- The value of chi-square for all items in the first hypothesis is (454.017), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05) and according to table (4.1) o and figure (4), this indicates that there are noteworthy variations at the level (5%) in relation to the overall choices and in favor of “agree”.

Table (8.2)Part two on tutors:

		FREQUENCY AND ERCENTAGES				
No.	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	Tutors handling of lower preparatory levels require enough training	68 56.7%	29 24.2%	12 10%	4 3.3%	7 5.8%
7	Tutors do not have adequate exposure to staff development programs	61 50.8%	37 30.8%	3 2.5%	11 9.2%	8 6.7%
8	English language tutors should be afforded of a chance to live in an English speaking community-immersion	65 54.2%	18 15%	5 4.2%	16 13.3%	16 13.3%
9	The prospect of the overall deterioration, namely social, political and financial made tutors apathetic to training	64 53.3%	35 29.2%	3 2.5%	13 10.8%	5 4.2%
10	Students' poor abilities and indifference to learning has in general, negatively affected tutors.	84 70%	24 20%	5 4.2%	2 1.7%	5 4.2%
<b>HYPOTHESES</b>		342 57%	143 23.8%	28 4.7%	46 7.7%	41 6.8%

As shown above in table (4.2) (item 6) the majority of the respondents (56.7%) strongly agree that tutors teaching preparatory year students do not have enough training to handle the material effectively, (24.3) agree whereas (10%) remained neutral, (3.4%) disagree and (5.8%) strongly disagree with the statement. This result reflects a sad situation that the teaching of English at preparatory year is handed over to less proficient agents which aggravates the already deteriorating situation even more. Educational polices at different universities should consider seriously the

question of the English language which has become a lingua franca and the first language science and learning.

Item (7) shows that the greater parts of the respondents have opted for (50.8%) strongly agree that as long as the problem is partly brought about by lack of training and that tutors do not have enough exposure to staff development programs which aims at developing their professional career, something must be done to improve that unwelcoming reality. (30.8%) agree, (2.5%) neutral, (9.2%) disagree, while (6.7%) of the respondents of strongly disagree.

As far as item (8) is concerned it is understandable that the majority of the respondents have had clear preference for (54.2%) and hence strongly agree that to Enrich their teaching career, English language tutors have to be sent abroad to live in an English –speaking community.

(15%) agree (4.2%) neutral, (13.3%) disagree and the same percentage strongly favors “agree”.

This result indicates that swap the situation for better the old polices of staff training at western universities have to be adhered to again. Many funds are actually funneled into the internal training channels without producing the desired effect. The situation could have improved if the funds have been transferred in favor of external training.

As for item (9) it is clear that the majority of the respondents (53.3%) strongly agree that the prospect of the overall deterioration, namely social, political and financial made tutors apathetic to training. Though the said hypothesis is not solid enough it is partly true that unless their basic needs of life amenities are attended to, tutors are not likely to be at relaxed situation in their classroom setting. (29.2%) agree (2.5%) neutral (10.8%) disagree, and (4.2%) strongly disagree with the said item.

This result shows that the above cited factors ought to be taken into consideration should the teaching situation improve.

As regards item (10) the bulk of the respondents have opted for strongly agree, that is (70%) that Students’ poor abilities and indifference to learning has in general, negatively affected tutors. Undoubtedly, handling indifferent students is immensely problematic and can at times become very depressing. Tutors will be totally unable to provide sorts of

remedies. (20%) agree, (1.6%) disagree, (4.2%) neutral and the same percentage strongly disagree with the cited item.

The value of chi-square for all the items in the second hypothesis is (583.283), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05), and with reference to table (4.2) and figure (4.2.1), this indicates that there is significant difference at the level (5%) between the choices the respondents opted for towards strongly agree. This situation further confirms the strength of the hypotheses. The figure (5.2.1) below is drawn to show the result in further practical levels.

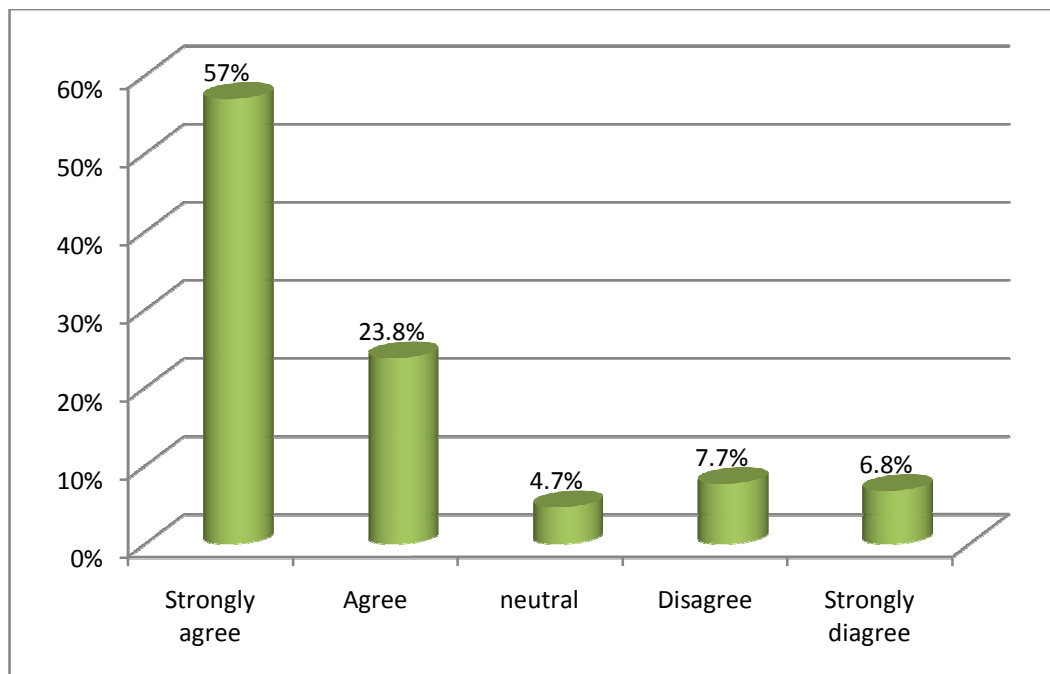


Table (8.2)Part two on tutors:

		FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES				
No.	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	Students enter university with a dreadfully poor standard of English allowing no chance for improvement, whatsoever. This was due to bad teaching at secondary schools, among others.	84 70%	21 17.5%	4 3.3%	5 4.2%	6 5.0%
12	The prospect of an unwelcoming future particularly unemployment	71	38	5	5	1

	has further weakened the students' spirits and desire to learn.	59.2%	31.7%	4.2%	4.2%	0.8%
13	Use of Arabic as medium of instruction at Sudanese universities has had the effect of making students indifferent to learning English.	80 66.7%	31 25.8%	4 3.3%	2 1.7%	3 2.5%
14	learning environment at university is not hospitable to help students practice their English language	74 61.7%	38 31.7%	3 2.5%	3 2.5%	2 1.7%
15	Broadly speaking, students are not good independent learners	60 50%	34 28.3%	17 14.2%	2 1.7%	7 5.8%
<b>HYPOTHESES</b>		369 61.5%	162 27%	33 5.5%	17 2.8%	19 3.2%

As shown in table (4.3) item (11) the majority of the respondents opted for (70%) strongly agree which confirms the hypothesis that preparatory year students come to university with dreadfully poor standards of English with no room for improvement, whatsoever, due to bad teaching at secondary schools. (17.5%) agree, (3.3%) neutral, (4.2%) disagree, whereas (5%) strongly disagree with the said item. This situation calls for quick remedy, namely teacher training at the secondary schools.

As far as item (12) is concerned the majority of the respondents have chosen the slot (59.25%) strongly agree that the prospect of an unwelcoming future particularly unemployment has further weakened the students' spirits and desire to learn. Though this parameter is not that strong, it generated many voices and the majority of respondents believed it to be one of the strongest reasons behind the worsening situations as seen from their option for strongly agree. (31.7%) agree, (4.2%) neutral, the same percentage ticked disagree whereas only (0.8%) strongly disagree.

Item (13) reflects that the majority of the respondents (66.7%) strongly agree that the use of Arabic as medium of instruction at Sudanese universities has had the effect of making students indifferent to learning English. (25.8%) agree, (3.3%) neutral, (1.7%) disagree and (2.5%) strongly disagree. The problem of Arabicsation has been drastically felt only recently. English was the medium of instruction at the secondary schools and universities. However, after it ceased to be the language of teaching at the secondary schools, the standards started to lower quite

significantly. The problem is to a greater extent connected with the intermediate or primary schools, too. In the late 1980s teacher training for intermediate school teachers has come to a halt as a number of universities has been opened. However, these universities have failed to give the strong training dose previously administered by teacher training institutes.

In connection with item (14) it is obvious that the majority of the subjects (61.7%) strongly agree that learning environment at university is not hospitable to help students practice their English language. (31.7%) agree, (2.5%) neutral, the same percentage goes for disagree, while (1.7%) strongly disagree with the said item. This problem can be solved through what is currently known as the English language clubs, where students are provided the chance to practice their English with their peers in a fairly welcoming atmosphere.

As long as item (15) is concerned we can see that the majority of the respondents (50%) strongly agree that broadly speaking, students are not good independent learners (28.3%) agree, (14.2%) neutral, (1.7%) disagree whereas (5.8%) strongly disagree. Despite pleasant situation provided by modern technology where tools of learning are accessible, students showed no signs of benefiting the said situation. Even if they had the chance to attend Western movies in English, they would never link that good situation with learning. They have at home lots of very advanced gadgets which can positively be used as tools for learning; however, they use them as time wasting tools.

#### 4.4 Analyzing the Questionnaire:

Table (4-11) Tutors' academic degrees:

<b>Degree</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage %</b>
Bachelor's	9	23.7
Master	26	63.4
PhD	3	7.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>100</b>

It is evident from the table that those holding masters' degrees constitute the highest frequency which is indicative in the results to be drawn from the questionnaire. They are the backbone of the College staff members and who handle most of the classes.

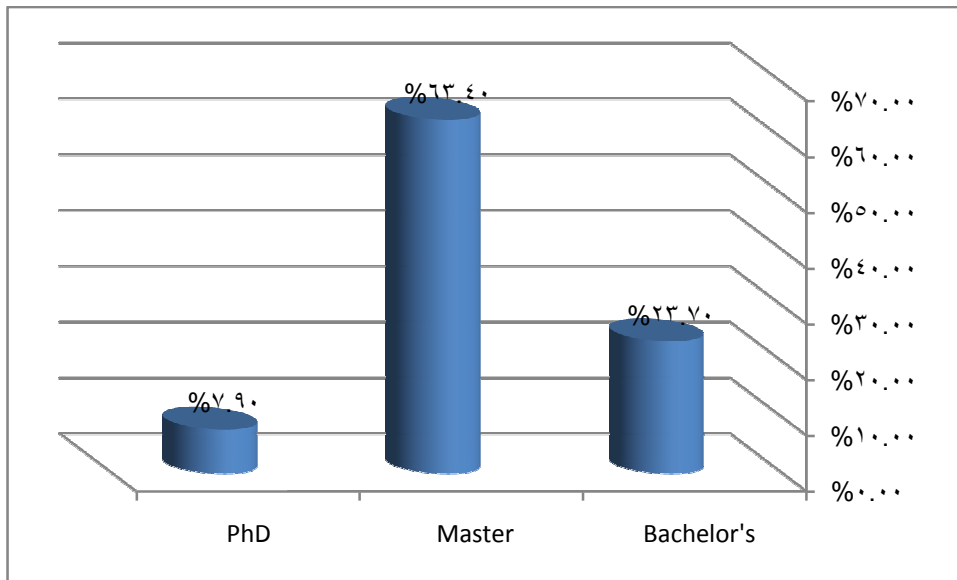


Figure (4-11) showing teachers' degrees

Table (4.12) Undergraduate students' Speech is marked by flagrant erroneous pronunciation of lexical items.

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	22.2%
Agree	13	28.9%
Neutral	5	11.1%
Disagree	8	17.8%
Strongly disagree	9	20.0%
Total	45	100.0%

Judging by the table (4-13), it is evident (90%) that undergraduate students' pronunciation is marked by flagrant mistakes. The syllabus at undergraduate level is not adequately designed to account for the issue of pronunciation by providing the right type of activities. So many tutors complain of this very sad fact. They attribute this annoying reality to the fact that all syllabuses particularly at first year are designed by local expertise who have no enough time or experience to design such syllabuses. Consequently, classroom interaction as part to be provided by the syllabus is totally missing.

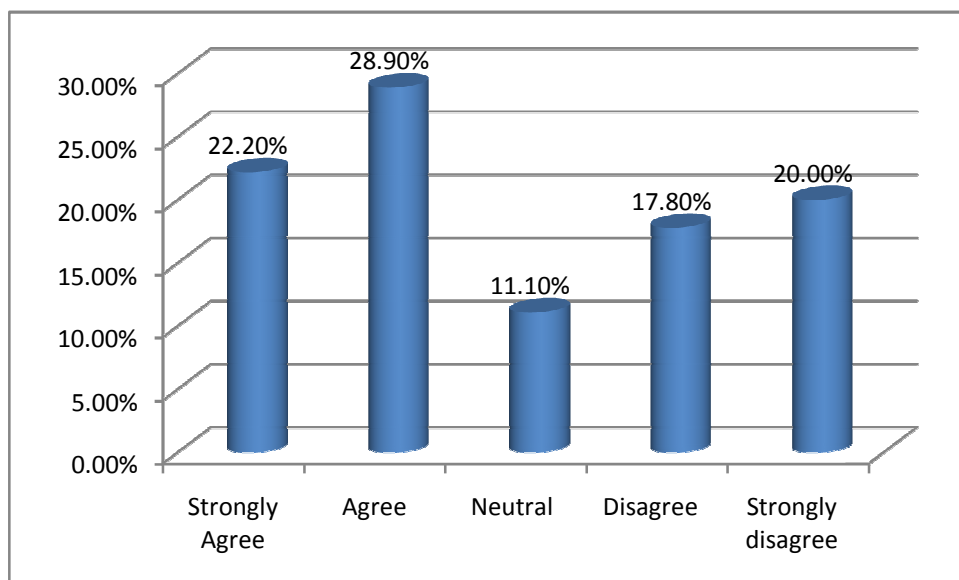


Table (4.12) Lack of accurate pronunciation affects Sudanese undergraduate's speaking fluency

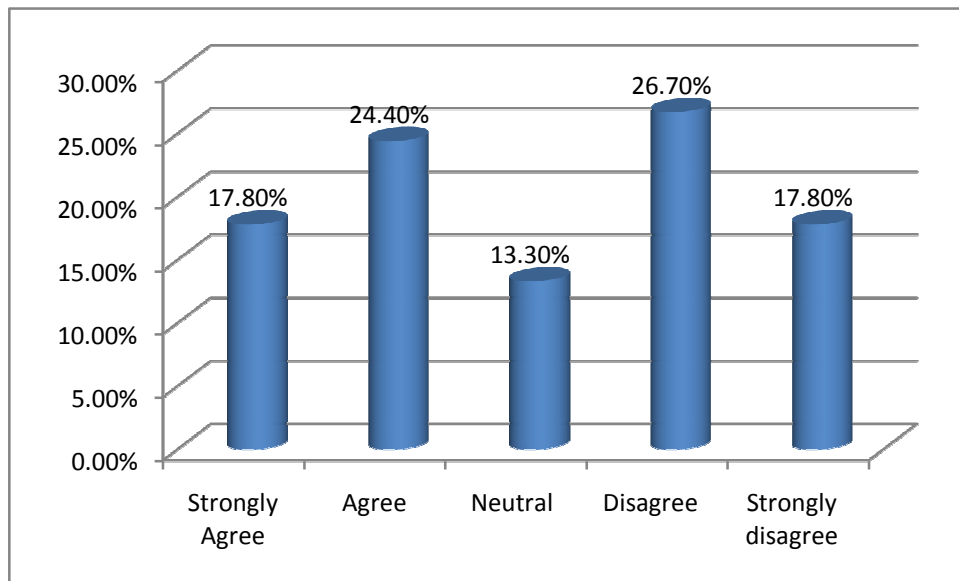
Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	19	42.2%
Agree	13	28.9%
Neutral	1	2.2%
Disagree	7	15.6%
Strongly disagree	5	11.1%
Total	45	100.0%



As it is apparent from the table above that Lack of accurate pronunciation affects Sudanese undergraduate's speaking fluency. Respondents made it clear that the pronunciation situation is not pleasant and a number of factors can be taken together to account for that. Some of the mistakes students make are of the type called fossilized; they owe their origin to early basic and secondary school stages of general education. Good pronunciation is one of the prime factors accounting for fluency and sharp communicative ability.

Table (4-14) Correct spelling is required for correct pronunciation and hence speaking performance speed

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	17.8%
Agree	11	24.4%
Neutral	6	13.3%
Disagree	12	26.7%
Strongly disagree	8	17.8%
Total	45	100.0%



It evident from the table above and the figure above that undergraduate English language syllabus if not adequately fitted with the sort of material which helps reinforces oral ability. Almost all respondents (90%) do agree that our syllabuses are responsible for the absence of the right material for the developing of oral ability. This result is congruent with the **first hypothesis** *the teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary* and enhances their fluency and hence confirms it quite conspicuously.

Table (4-15) Correct spelling is required for correct pronunciation and hence peaking performance speed

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	20.0%
Agree	15	33.3%
Neutral	4	8.9%
Disagree	9	20.0%
Strongly disagree	8	17.8%
Total	45	100.0%

It is apparent from the table above Judging by the table (4-15) above, and the figure below, that 90% of the respondents are in favor of the fact that Correct spelling is required for correct pronunciation and hence peaking performance speed and that the syllabus is intensively laden with formal language, the sort of language entirely unsuitable for developing everyday vocabulary which is needed for casual interaction. Formal language is only useful for academic writing the language of which is hardly used for everyday communication. This result also confirms the first hypothesis. To improve the syllabus, particularly communicative competence, heavily concentration should be geared to the teaching or inclusion in the syllabus communicative strategies, while not ignoring spelling factor.

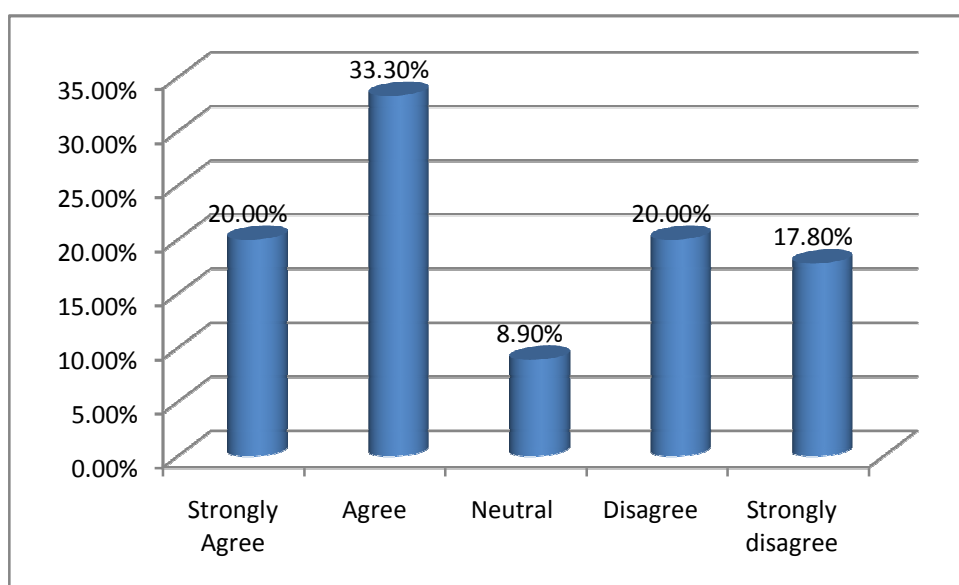


Table (4-19). Having a good understanding of lexical relations enhances Sudanese undergraduate students speaking ability.

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	4	8.9%
Agree	15	33.3%
Neutral	8	17.8%
Disagree	14	31.1%

Strongly disagree	4	8.9%
Total	45	100.0%

It is certain that good understanding of lexical relations enhances Sudanese undergraduate students speaking ability, 41.6% are neutral whereas 23.7% are not in favor of the statement. There is still a good majority who favors the statement.

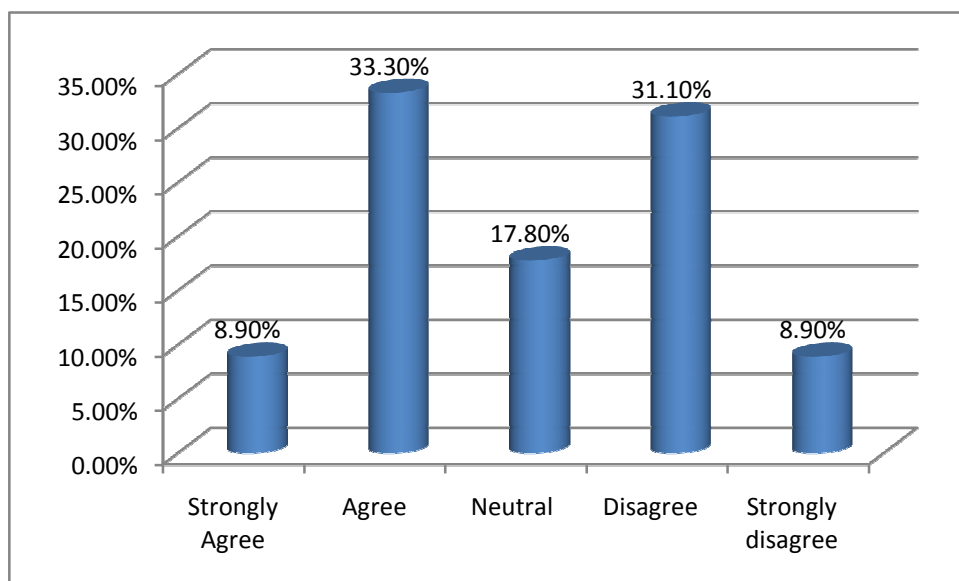


Table (4.20) Tutors handling of lower preparatory levels require enough training

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	22	48.9%
Agree	11	24.4%
Neutral	7	15.6%
Disagree	1	2.2%
Strongly disagree	4	8.9%
Total	45	100.0%

As shown by the table (4.20) all tutors do agree that classroom practitioners have to be energetic enough and trained in every aspect of their lessons right from the preparation phase to practice in classroom. Good preparation on the part of the tutor is probable to produce very

positive effect on the classroom interaction and language learning in general. Even the physical environment has continued to appear as an influential component on behavior and academic outcomes. McVetta & McCaskey(1978:100) point out that, the physical appearance and strategic location of furnishings, materials and equipment do make a difference in classroom management, student productivity and teacher effectiveness. The worst arrangement is the traditional "teacher desk up front facing rows of student desks" model. So preparation involves a number of factors not only the traditional lesson plan.

Motivation, wellness and attitudes are favorably impacted by color, personalized space and face-to face engagement. Seating arrangements that enable occupants to see the faces of the people speaking are judged more pleasant by teachers and students. These factors do, in fact, more productive environments.

For proper interaction to take place in the classroom a number of factors have to be present. One important factor is the tutor's ability to cite each student by their names. Addressing students by their names creates a lively atmosphere for learning. It has such a remarkable advantage for both the teacher and the students. As far as the teacher is concerned, this helps him avoid the possible confusion which likely to arise in identifying who should be responding.

(Table 4.21) Tutors do not have adequate exposure to staff development programs

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	5	11.1%
Agree	14	31.1%
Neutral	11	24.4%
Disagree	6	13.3%
Strongly disagree	9	20.0%
Total	45	100.0%

Staff development programs are essential plans for every successful institution as it helps practitioners to keep abreast with the modern invention in the field of their training and practice. There are departments attached in institutions whose main objectives and functions are to control the operations of the training and pertaining workshops. Training always represents the corner stone for the success of the institutions and hence they get their reputations as leading in that respect.

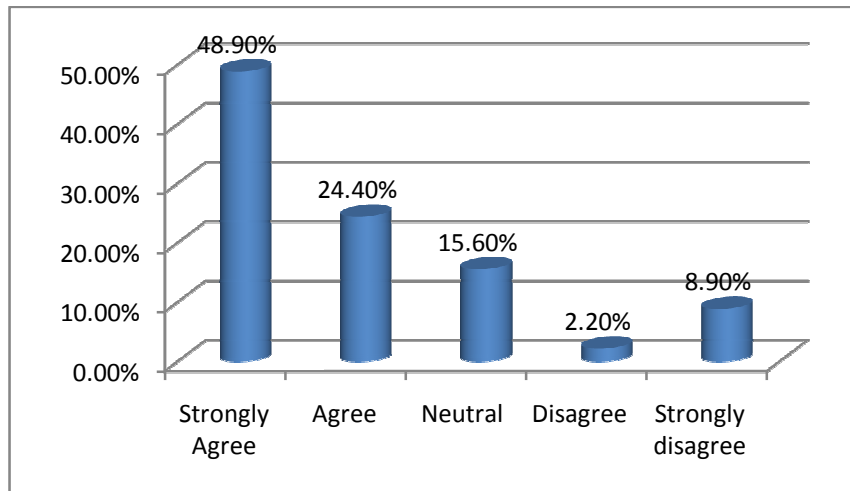


Figure (4-17) Tutors do not have adequate exposure to staff development programs

Table (4.22) English language tutors should be afforded of a chance to live in an English speaking community-immersion

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	16	35.6%
Agree	14	31.1%
Neutral	4	8.9%
Disagree	7	15.6%
Strongly disagree	4	8.9%
Total	45	100.0%

Undoubtedly the question of immersion or living in an English-speaking community as is the case in the present study, is a view which is considered by many to be the most effective element in enabling learners

to become well informed in the target language. Language immersion, or simply immersion, is a technique used in bilingual language education in which two languages are used for instruction in a variety of topics, including math, science, or social studies. The languages used for instruction are referred to as the L1 and the L2 for each student, with L1 being the native language of the student and L2 being the second language to be acquired through immersion programs and techniques. There are different contexts for language immersion, such as age of students, class time spent in the L2, subjects taught, and the level of participation by the native L1 speakers

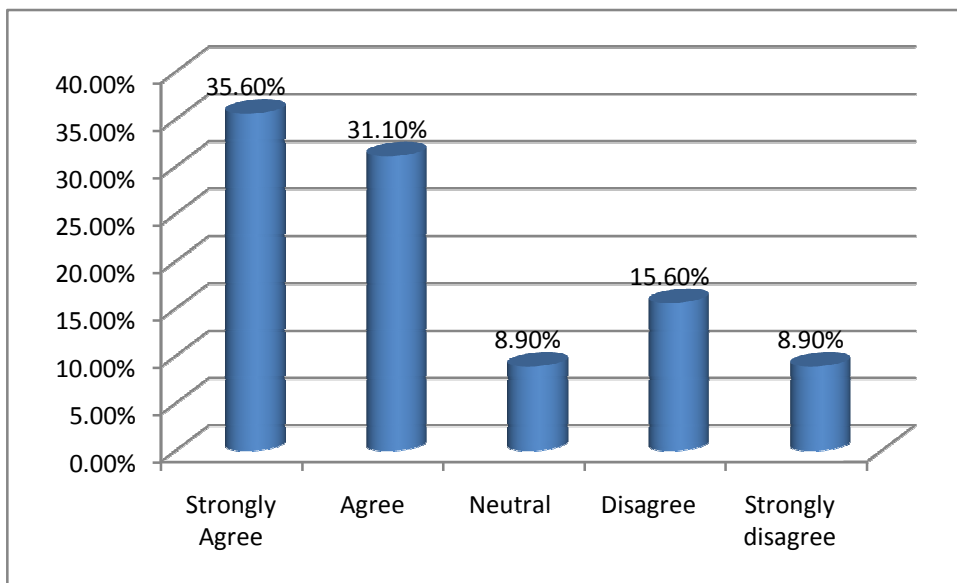


Table (4-23). The prospect of the overall deterioration, namely social, political and financial made tutors apathetic to training

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	26.7%
Agree	13	28.9%
Neutral	7	15.6%
Disagree	7	15.6%
Strongly disagree	6	13.3%
Total	45	100.0%

Great teachers help create great students. In fact, research shows that an inspiring and informed teacher is the most important school-related factor

influencing student achievement, so it is critical to pay close attention to how we train and support both new and experienced educators.

The best teacher-preparation programs emphasize subject-matter mastery and provide many opportunities for student teachers to spend time in real classrooms under the supervision of an experienced mentor. Just as professionals in medicine, architecture, and law have opportunities to learn through examining case studies, learning best practices, and participating in internships, exemplary teacher-preparation programs allow teacher candidates the time to apply their learning of theory in the context of teaching in a real classroom.

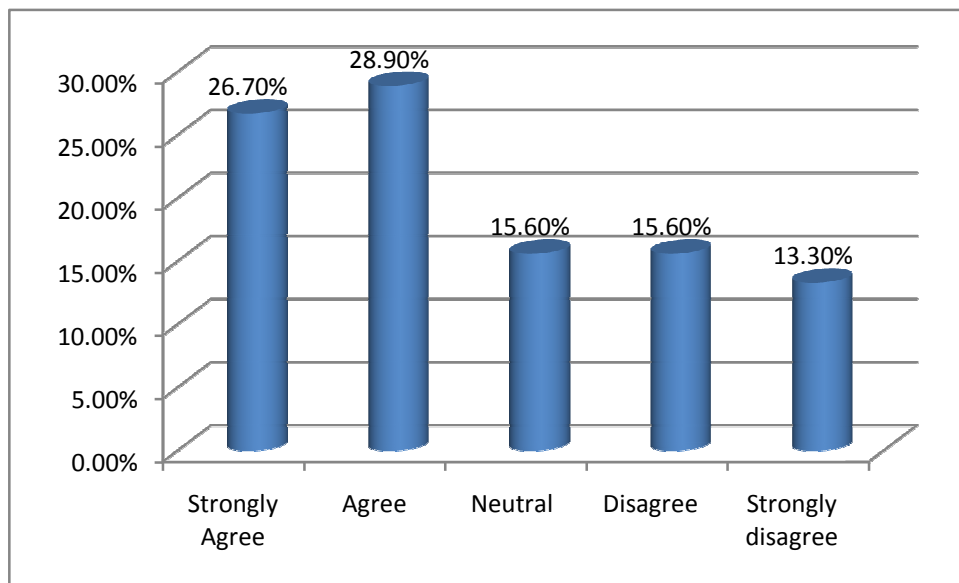


Table (4-24) Students' poor abilities and indifference to learning has in general, negatively affected tutors.

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	26.7%
Agree	15	33.3%
Neutral	6	13.3%
Disagree	6	13.3%
Strongly disagree	6	13.3%
Total	45	100.0%

Some tutors are overcommitted; they teach as many students as possible, or have jobs that take too much of their attention off your child; and the



most common sign of this is poor responsiveness. What makes tutors resort to after-school tutoring which can be very detrimental to both the tutor and the students? At universities, fortunately there is no such phenomenon, however, students who were exposed to such kind of study before they enrolled in college; they come with the aftereffect of that kind of tuition. They can be described as poor learners.

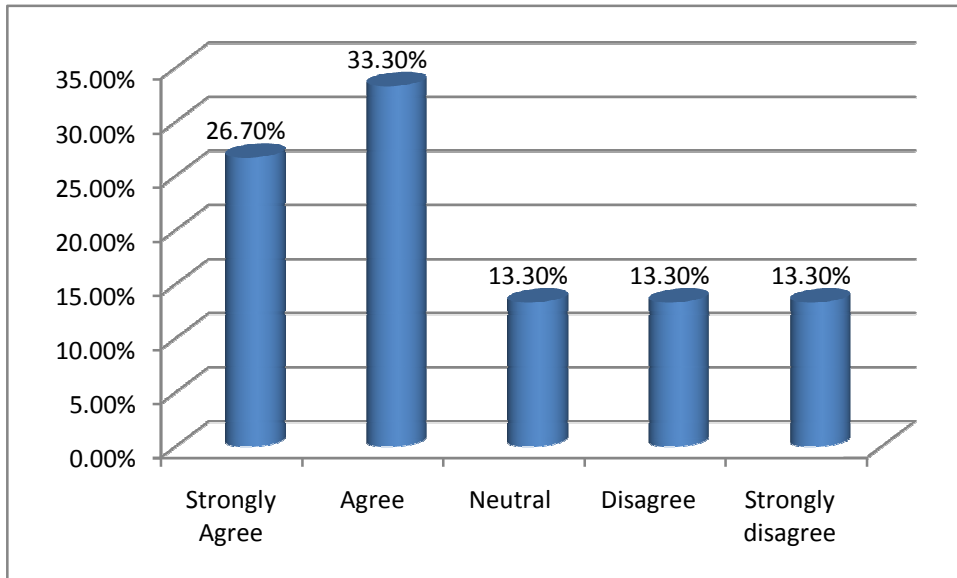


Table (4-25) Students enter university with a dreadfully poor standard of English allowing no chance for improvement, whatsoever. This was due to bad teaching at secondary schools, among others.

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	22.2%
Agree	18	40.0%
Neutral	3	6.7%
Disagree	8	17.8%
Strongly disagree	6	13.3%
Total	45	100.0%

One would hope that all teachers would strive to be excellent, effective teachers. However, education is just like any other profession. There are those who work extremely hard at their craft getting better on a daily basis and there are those that are just simply there never striving to

improve. Even though this type of teacher is in the minority, just a handful of truly bad teachers can hurt the profession. A lack of classroom management is probably the single biggest downfall of a bad teacher. This issue can be the demise of any teacher no matter their intentions. If a teacher cannot control their students, they will not be able to teach them effectively.

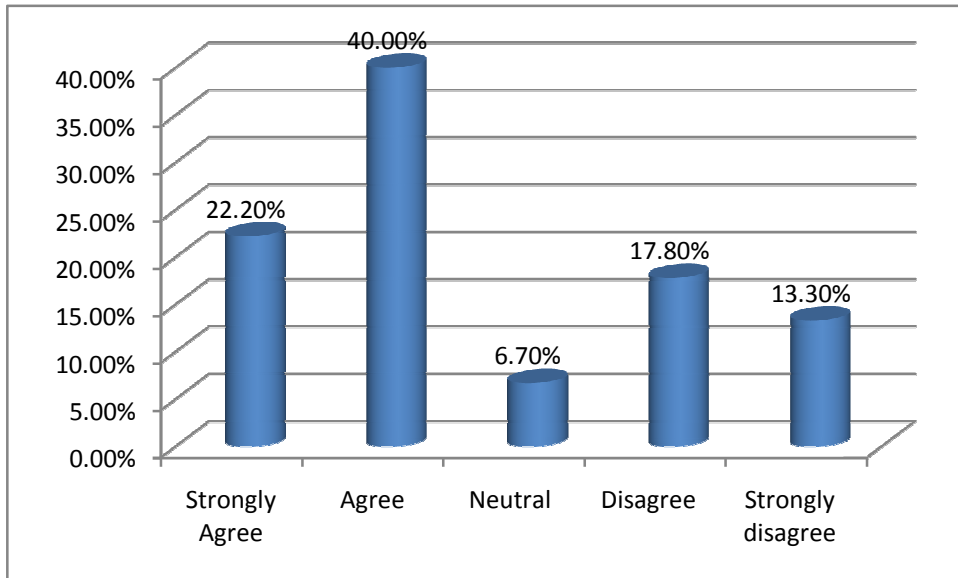


Table (4-26). The prospect of an unwelcoming future particularly unemployment has further weakened the students’ spirits and desire to learn.

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	20.0%
Agree	20	44.4%
Neutral	4	8.9%
Disagree	5	11.1%
Strongly disagree	7	15.6%
Total	45	100.0%

Being employed is important for young people in order to feel accepted in the society, thus not having a job can cause economic, cultural and social isolation. ... Moreover, studies have found that **youth unemployment** is

associated with increase in drug and alcohol use as well as higher levels of crime among young people.

Poor prospects for jobs have caused many students not be active and attentive enough to their classes. They just want to finish their study and go and look for whatever job. They know there are no jobs waiting for them in alignment with their specialization.

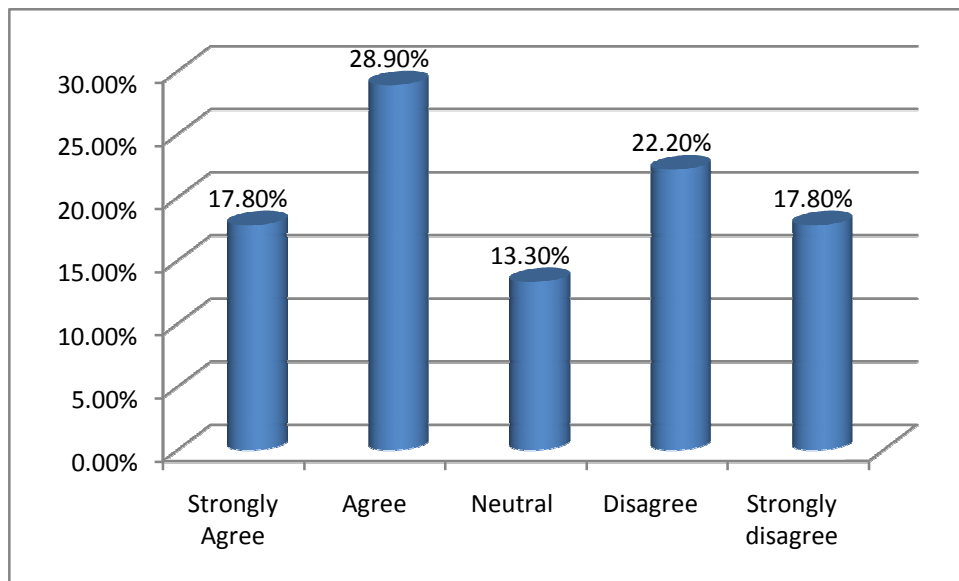


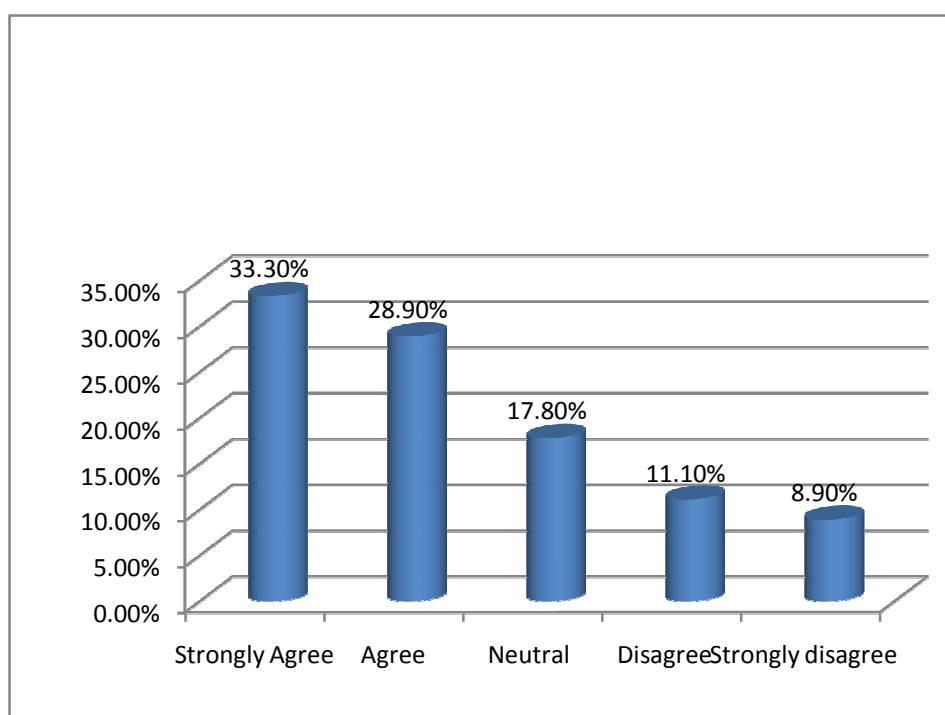
Table (4-27) Use of Arabic as medium of instruction at Sudanese universities has had the effect of making students indifferent to learning English.

Value	Frequencies	Percent
Strongly Agree	15	33.3%
Agree	13	28.9%
Neutral	8	17.8%
Disagree	5	11.1%
Strongly disagree	4	8.9%
Total	45	100.0%

Excessive use of L1 is considered by many to be one of the damaging factors to foreign language learning. Students who spent long time using

Arabic, for example in English classes will not develop effective communicative competence.

The majority of English language teaching takes place in classrooms where both the students and the teacher share the same L1 (first language). In these contexts, the L1 is often banned from the classroom, and for many good reasons. Many teachers and heads of department forbid the use of L1 because an all-English speaking environment is prized since it actively encourages communication in English. Another reason is that the L1 can easily take over if not restricted. While there are many reasons for banishing the L1 from the classroom, there are also good reasons for using it. What I believe is needed are clear guidelines for effective use of the L1. Below I set some guidelines in three levels; from basic to more in-depth.



#### 4.4 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the analyzed data of the study which consisted of: analysis of experiment, two teachers' questionnaire through tabulation of frequencies and percentages.

# **Chapter Five**

**Main Findings, Conclusions,  
Recommendations and  
Suggestions for Further Studies**

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Background

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

#### 5.1 Summary and Conclusions

This study sets out to explore the role of lexical relations in developing vocabulary and fluency in English classes. It aimed at investigating possible ways to boost students' communicative competence via classroom interaction after the removal of these encumbrances, and hence providing the healthy atmosphere for learning. It also surveyed tutors' views on the issue in question. This study is set out to answer the following questions:

- 1. To what extent can the teaching of lexical relations promotes undergraduates' vocabulary and enhances their fluency?**
- 2. To what extent do undergraduates' syllabuses include lexical relation items?**
- 3. To what extent are the tutors trained to handle such issues as lexical relations?**

To achieve the set objectives, the study adopted a mixed-methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. This allowed the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, was used to address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 20 was used for data analysis.

A number of results have been arrived at or attained which can be summed up as follows:

- (i)The undergraduate students, from Sudan University of Science and Technology, who were subjected to the test in this study, proved quite clearly that they do suffer from problems relating to the area in question, namely lexical relations of Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.

- (ii) Their problem has mainly arisen out of the syllabus pursued at the university particularly at lower level namely first and second year. They depend on learning syllabuses designed locally with huge limitations including the absence of such critical semantic areas as lexical relations.
- (iii) Tutors entrusted with the teaching operations at lower level have not received the right type of training to be able to handle the area in question quite effectively thus producing the desired effects.
- (iv) Lexical relations are very important in language learning as they contribute to facilitating the learning of communicative competence particularly oral abilities an area where many learners suffer much in communicating their ideas and thoughts orally.
- (v) As it was already stated that teacher should be given enough training to perform their classes effectively and provide their students with authentic material to further inculcate the concepts of lexical relations namely Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. These should be treated via practice from a course book to be understood well.

## 5.2 Conclusion

The study found that almost 90% percent of the students ignore from a practical view point the use of lexical relations. The few who were able to demonstrate part of the concept, they managed to pick it up from linguistic classes. On practical level none of the undergraduate students could use lexical relations effectively.

By reviewing similar works from across the globe, the study found that quite a number of students across the world have the same problems in using lexical relations. These are students in Asia in countries such as Saudi Arabia, Emirates, Bahrain, Indonesia and even Malaysia. So the problem seems to be global.

Lexical ambiguity is such an area that a number of the students who were subjected to the test in this study turned out to be suffering from. Lexical ambiguity is the presence of two or more possible meanings within a single word. Furthermore, it is called *semantic ambiguity* or *homonymy*. Compare to syntactic ambiguity. Lexical ambiguity is sometimes used deliberately to create puns and other types of word play, e.g. she is looking for a *match*.

"Depending on the relationship among the alternative meanings available for a particular word form, **lexical ambiguity** has been categorized as either polysemous, when meanings are related, or homonymous, when unrelated. Although ambiguity is graded, for words that are at one or the other end of this spectrum and thus are easy to classify, polysemy and homonymy have been shown to have differing effects on reading behaviors.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

As regards the findings arrived at in this study, the following recommendations are formulated and forwarded:

1. Teachers should understand and assess the role of lexical relations and introduce them to their students after careful consideration.
2. Tutors should utilize lexical relations to reduce anxiety amongst their students which might ensue as a result of lack of understanding and inability to cope with the text in question and the classroom as a whole.
3. Teachers should encourage students to make their own glosses in order to inculcate and entrench the concept of lexical relations.
4. Teachers should opt for using the lexical relations (synonyms, homonyms, etc.) for a further objective of creating a friendly or positive atmosphere in the classroom which happens as a result of grasping the subject matter.
5. Lexical semantics or relations should be thought of by teachers or tutors as an essential pedagogical technique of very paramount importance to increase vocabulary and hence communicative competence.
6. Excessive use of Syntagmatic and paradigmatic should be increased

### **5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies**

The following suggestions are forwarded by the present study:



1. A large scale study is required to substantiate the current one and hence assures the effectiveness of using lexical relations.
2. Excessive research on this area of semantics is largely recommended to portray lexical relations as synonyms as an important classroom tool.
3. In the current study lexical relations are barely touched upon and are mainly viewed as effective tools for reading comprehension. They can be used with other skills particularly academic writing.
4. A workshop or any influential project should be arranged for to further raising the awareness of tutors of the importance of lexical relations.

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# **Appendixes**



# SUDAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COLLEGE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

COLLEGE OF LANGUAGES-ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

## A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIVERSITY TUTORS AT SUDANESE UNIVERSITIES

Dear Colleague,

The main aim of this questionnaire is to collect data about your opinion concerning the **Role of Using Lexical Relations on Developing Vocabulary and Fluency** of Sudanese undergraduate students' speaking performance. Your contribution is important as the ultimate aim of the study is to help improve EFL learners speaking performance in Sudan universities in general. Please answer the following items carefully and honestly. This study is not an evaluation of your knowledge about teaching English. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

*Thanks.*

### **Part 1: Personal data:**

1. Name: (optional) \_\_\_\_\_

2. Highest degree earned:

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree

PhD

3 How many years have you been teaching English

1. year  2- 5 years  3. 6-10 years  4. More than 10 year

**Part 2: General statements:**

- Please choose only one answer for every question or statement.

Use the following scales:

*Strongly agree:* (If you strongly agree with the idea stated in the item).

*Agree:* (If you agree with the idea stated in the item).

*Disagree:* (If you disagree with the idea stated in the item).

*Strongly disagree:* (If you strongly disagree with the idea stated in the item).

No.	STATEMENT	RESPONSE			
		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1.	Undergraduate students' Speech is marked by flagranterroneous pronunciation of lexical items.				
2.	Lack of accurate pronunciation affectsSudanese undergraduate's speaking fluency.				
3	Correct spelling is required for correct pronunciation and hence speaking performance speed				
4	Having a good understanding of lexical relations enhancesSudanese undergraduate students speaking ability.				
5.	Inability to pronounce the word correctly may affect the choice of the next words.				
6.	Knowing the word form helpspractice the pronunciation of the word appropriately.				
7.	The depth and size of the students 'vocabulary has the effect of strengthening oraldemonstration				
8.	Knowing word association can be helpful in performing effective speech.				
9.	Good knowledge of synonyms is				

	essential for improving fluency.				
10	Semantics is not taught on practical levels at our universities to help produce the desired effect.				
11	Courses on lexical semantics are hardly considered as part of our Sudanese syllabus at universities.				
12	Lexical relations are poorly handled thus have very slender effect on improving vocabulary.				
13	Teaching courses in theoretical linguistics at undergraduate level should be assigned to old practitioners.				
14	Very little time is allocated to speaking practice at university level.				
15	The tutor goes on teaching all through the lecture without pausing to give opportunities to students to speak.				