Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

كلية الدراسات العليا

Investigating the Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Using Vocabulary

(A Case Study of Second Year in Secondary Level in Blue Nile State)

تقصي الصعوبات التي تواجه دارسي اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية في استخدام المفردات

دراسة حالة طلاب السنة الثانية في المرحلة الثانوية بولاية النيل الأزرق

A thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for M.A. Degree in English Language (Linguistics)

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2018

Quranic Verseَ

Preface

(Allah will rise up, to (suitable (ranks (and degrees), those of you who believe and who have been granted) mystic) Knowledge. And Allah is well-acquainted with all ye do).

Quran Verse (11:58)

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Dedication

To my great family, especially, my mother and my wife.

Acknowledgments

ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating the difficulties faced by EFL students in using vocabulary. It aims at highlighting the difficulties of vocabulary, and find possible solutions that can eliminate difficulties of vocabulary. The research adopted the descriptive, analytical method. The data were obtained by using two instruments: the questionnaire for 20 teachers in secondary schools and the test was given to16 students of 2nd year in secondary school. The data were computed and statistically analyzed (by using the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) Program, version). The research findings revealed that the main problems of vocabulary faced by EFL students in using vocabulary are problems of collocations, antonyms & synonyms, homonyms and ploysemy. Also, phrasal verbs and word formation (suffix & prefix). In addition, the results have shown that the way of how to overcome these difficulties. The research study recommended that teachers should give clear explanation to the new word, revise the previews words while teaching a new lesson. Also they need to know more about vocabulary especially in semantics.

مستخلص البحث

تهدف هذه الدراسة تقصي صعوبات المفردات التي تواجه دارسي اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية في استخدام المفردات. و تهدف إلي القي ضوء صعوبات المفردات و إيجاد حلول التي يمكن عن تقلص صعوبات المفردات. البحث تبني منهج الوصفي والإحصائي و جمعت معلومات هذا البحث بوسيلتين: بالاستطلاع لعشرين معلم لغة انجليزية في المدارس الثانوية و اختبار لستة عشرة طالب السنة الثانية ثانوي.تم تحليل وحوسبة البيانات إحصائيا باستخدام برامج الحزمة الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعي (SPSS). أوضحت نتائج الدراسة بأن معظم المشاكل المفردات التي تواجه دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في استخدام المفردات هي مشاكل الانتظام, المناقضات, والمترادفات, واللفظة المجانسة. و أيضا العبارات الاصطلاحية, وتكوين الكلمة (السوابق و اللواحق) بالإضافة إلي توضيح الطرق كيفية تخلص من هذه الصعوبات . علي ضوء تلك النتائج توصلت الدراسة للتوصيات الآتية: يجب علي المعلمين شرح المفردات الجديدة شرحا واضحا و مراجعة المفردات التي درست في الدرس السابق أثناء تدريس الدرس الجديد.كما توصي الدراسة بان المعلمين يحتاجوا عن يعرفوا الكثير عن المفردات و خاصة في علم دلالات الألفاظ.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. 0 Background of the Study

Speaking is in many ways undervalued skill, perhaps this is because we can almost all speak and so take the skill too much granted. Oral communication is often thought of as popular form of expression that uses the un-prestigious colloquial register. Using vocabulary supports EFL students to keep social solidarity, pass examinations, and motivate them to speak with confidence.

Investigating difficulties of vocabulary, therefore, supports EFL students to understand that a word changes its meaning semantically, facilitate using vocabulary and find suitable solutions to difficulties of vocabulary in meaning that hinder EFL students to be motivated while using vocabulary. Because of the difficulty of vocabulary faced by EFL students in using vocabulary, this research aims at finding the easiest ways in which EFL students may get better understanding of vocabulary in their semantic function in using vocabulary . The research will consider the difficulties and there solution and then focus on the techniques or ways that facilitate the process of using vocabulary. The procedures that will be used in this research are questionnaire in collecting data and statistical analysis.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Many EFL students at secondary schools are encountered by a lot of difficulties in using vocabulary especially in the meaning of words. Because EFL students try to use the English words the same way as they use them in their mother language. This process of substitution hinders EFL students to speak freely. As Michael

McCarthy said in (2003) vocabulary is the experience of most language teachers that the single, biggest component of any language course is vocabulary. No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The research aims at achieving these objectives:

1. To highlight the difficulty of vocabulary in semantics field, lexical relations and word formation that encounter EFL students in learning vocabulary in.

2. To find possible solutions in order to eliminate the difficulty of vocabulary to EFL students learning in vocabulary.

1.3 Questions of the Study

This study addresses the following questions:

1. What extant do 2nd year students of secondary schools face difficulties in using vocabulary?

2. What are the areas of difficulties of using vocabulary from teachers points of view ?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

The study hypothesizes the following:

1. Students at secondary school 2th year face difficulties in using vocabulary, especially in lexical relations (collocation), semantic fiends (phrasal verbs), and word formation (suffix & prefix).

2. The areas of difficulties are antonyms, homonyms and compounds in using vocabulary.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will be of a great importance in finding the difficulties of vocabulary in meaning and in lexical relations and in word formation, at the same time focus on suitable solutions to the difficulty of vocabulary in meaning to support EFL students in using vocabulary. And it will motivate students in using vocabulary. Also it well facilitate the process of leaning communication at secondary schools, moreover, the research will high light the ways of how EFL students can form the words beside explaining the lexical relations .

1.6 Methodology of the Study

The study will use the descriptive and analytical methods. To collect data for the research questionnaires will be given to samples of twenty teachers and test to different students in the class

1.7 Limits of the Study

This study is limited to investigate the difficulties face EFL learners in using vocabulary in 2nd year at secondary level 2018-2019 in Blue Nile state in El-Rosseris locality in Ganese Shareg

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Previous Studies

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0 Introduction

Vocabulary in oral communication seems to be the backbone of any speech between speakers. Therefore, there is no communication without vocabulary, since communication is the process of creating meaning between two or more people through the expressions and interpretation of message. Expressions mean a public demonstration of the idea or feeling within the mind of the communicators. As Sadra Cleary said, in her book (the communication Handbook in 1999). So, because of the importance of vocabulary in communication. This chapter present review of vocabulary, it attempts to build a conceptual background of lexical relations, semantics and word formation.

2.1 Lexical Relations

Alexander Gelbukh (2012:20) wrote that Wanner (2004) states, that lexical function is a concept which can be used to systematically describe "institutionalized" lexical relations. We will consider the notion of institutionalized lexical relations first and show its relevance to collocation.

Wanner clarifies that **" a lexical relation is institutionalized** if it holds between two lexical units L1 and L2 and has the following characteristics: if L1 is chosen to express a particular meaning M, its choice is predetermined by the relation of M to L2 to such an extent that in case M and L2is given, the choice of L1 is a language specific automatism.

Institutionalized lexical relations can be of two types: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. *Paradigmatic relations* are those between a lexical unit and all the

other lexical units within the language system (as between synonyms and hyponyms, etc) and *syntagmatic relations* are those between a lexical unit and other lexical units that surround it within a text.

Institutionalized lexical relations in (Wanner, 2004) posses the quality of association present between habitually co-occurring words or collocations.

2.1.0 Collocation

Clare West (2010:100) defined collocation as a pair or group of words that are often used together in a way that sounds natural and correct . These combinations sound natural to native speakers, but students of English have to make a special effort to learn them because they are often difficult to guess. Some combinations just sound " wrong" to native speakers of English. For example, the adjective *fast* collocates with *car* but not with *a glance*.

Learning collocations is an important part of learning the vocabulary of a language. Some collocations are fixed, or very wrong, for example **take a photo,** where no word other than *take* collocates with *photo* to give the same meaning. Some collocations are more open where several different words may be used to give a similar meaning, for example **keep to/ stick to the rules**. Here are some more examples of collocations.

You must **make an effort** and study for you exams (NOT do an effort). Did you **watch TV** last night? (NOT look at TV).

This car has a very powerful engine. It can do 200 km an hour. (NOT strong engine). There are some ancient monuments nearby. (NOT antique monuments).

Sometimes a pair of words may not be absolutely wrong, and people will understand what is meant, but it may not be the natural, normal collocation. If someone says *I did a few mistakes* they will be understood, but a fluent speaker of

English would probably say **I made a few mistakes**.

2.1.1 Why learn Collocations?

Learning collocations is a good idea because they can:

1- Give you the most natural way to say something

*: smoking is **strictly forbidden** is more natural than smoking is **strongly forbidden**.*

2- Give you alternative ways of saying something, which may be more colorful/expressive or more precise*: instead of repeating it was very cold and very dark , we say it was bitterly cold and pitch dark.*

3/ improve your style in writing; instead of saying ***poverty causes crime,*** you can say poverty ***breeds crime***; instead of saying a ***big meal*** you can say *a **substantial meal.*** You may not need or want to use these in informal conversations, but in writing they can give your text more variety and make it read better.

2.1.2 Types of Collocation

In the section above 2.1.1 we found the reason of why English speakers learn collocations. Therefore, Michael McCathy (2005: 12) claims that there are many different types of collocations here are some examples.

a- Adjectives and nouns.

Notice adjectives that are typically used with particular nouns. Jean always wears red or yellow or some other **bright colour**. We had a brief chat about the exams but didn't have time to discuss them properly. Unemployment is **a major problem** for the government at the moment. Improving the health service is another **key issue** for government.

b- Noun and verbs:

Notice how nouns and verbs often go together. The examples below are all to do with economic and business.

The economy boomed in the 1990s. [the economy was very strong].

The company has grown and now employs 50 more people than last year.

The company has expanded and now has branches in most major cities.

The two **companies merged** in 2003 and now form one very large corporation.

c- Noun + noun.

There are a lot of collocations the pattern *a………. of……*

As Sam read the lies about him ,he felt **a surge of anger**. [literary: a sudden anger feeling]. Every parent feels **a sense of pride** when their child does well or wins something. I felt a **pan of nostalgia** when I saw the old photos of the village where I grew up.

d- Verbs and expressions with preposition.

Some verbs collocate with particular prepositions.

As Jack went on stage to receive his gold medal for the judo completion you could see his parents **swelling with pride**. [looking extremely proud].

I was **felt with horror** when I read the newspaper report of the explosion.

When she spilt juice on her new skirt the little girl **bust into tears**. [suddenly started crying].

e- Verbs and adjectives.

Adjectives often have particular adverbs which regularly collocate with them.

They are **happy married**.

I am **fully aware** that there are serious problems. [I know well].

Harry was **blissfully unaware** that he was in danger. [Harry had no idea at all, often used about something unpleasant].

f- Verbs and adverbs.

Some verbs have particular adverbs which regularly collocate with them.

She **pulled steadily** on the rope and helped him to safety. [pulled firmly and evenly]. He **placed** the beautiful vast gently on the window ledge. I love you and want to marry you, Derek **whispered softly** to Marsha. She **smiled proudly** as she looked at the photos of her new grandson.

Anke ludeling (2008:353) pointed out that whereas collocation graphs directly build on observable oc-occurrence of lexical units in large text corpora, *lexical references systems or terminological ontologies* (e. g WordNet), thesauri (e. g Roget's Thesaurus)and related systems build sometimes additionally on expert knowledge of lexicographers in order to define *sense relations* (e . g synonymy, antonyms, and homonym) between words, or *conceptual relations* between concepts (e .g hyponymy and metonymy). As in the case of collocation graphs, but unlike in the case of co-occurrence and sentence graphs, sense relations are meaning based. The difference between collocation graphs and the type of networks to be surveyed in this section relates to the distinction made by Halliday/Hasan (1976) between unsystematic lexical cohesion based on collocation and systematic lexical cohesion on sense relations.

2.2 Sense Relations

 Howard Jackson (2000:91) defined sense as an internal meaning relation, and then he said that sense relations hold between words within the vocabulary. The two most obvious sense relations are those of 'sameness' and 'oppositeness', called

synonymy and antonymy respectively. Other sense relations hyponymy, meronymy relate words hierarchically, showing how a word with a general meaning includes the meaning of other words with more specific meaning. *Hostility* has a relation of synonymy with ***antagonism*** and ***enmity***, and a relation of antonymy with ***friendliness***. ***Tree*** is in a hierarchical relation with ***plant***, a more general term, and with ***beech*** and ***oak***, more specific terms.

2.2.0 Antonyms

According to Frank Robert Palmer (1981:94) the term ANTONYMY is used for oppositeness of meaning'; words that are antonyms. Antonyms is often thought of as the opposite of synonymy, but the status of the two are very different. For languages have no real need of true synonymy, and , as we have seen, it is doubtful whether any true synonymy exist. But antonyms is a regular and very natural feature of language and can be defined fairly precisely. Yet, surprisingly, it is a subject that has often been neglected in books on semantics and it is not even usually given a place in dictionaries. However, there are different kinds of 'oppositeness' and we must clearly distinguish them. To begin with, English abounds in pairs of words such as wide/narrow, old/young, big/small, etc. These, all of them are adjectives, have in common the fact that they may be wide or very wide and one road may be wider than another. We have, that is to say, gradation of width, age, size, etc, all indicated by such adjectives as these. Some more examples.

Alvin is watching television now.

Alvin isn't watching television now.

Charles W. Kreidler (2013:67-68) stated that two sentences that differ in polarity like these are mutually contradictory. If one is true, the other must be false. Two

sentences that have the same subject and have predicate which are **antonyms** are also mutually contradictory.

15a The television is on now.

15b The television is off now.

16a Mr Adam is an old man.

16b Mr Adam is a young man.

17a The road is wide here.

17b The road is narrow here.

Lexemes like *on* and *off, old* and *young, wide* and *narrow* are pairs of antonyms. Antonyms are opposite in meaning, and when they occur as predicates of the same subject the predications are contradictory. Antonyms may be nouns like Communist and non-Communist or verbs such as advance and retreat, but antonymous pairs of adjectives are especially numerous.

English has various pairs of measuring adjectives:

Long   short   tall   short

High   low   wide   narrow

Old   young   deep   shallow

Old   new   thick   thin

They are measuring adjective because they can be combined with expressions of measurement: four feet long, two meters high, nineteen years old, etc. We note, first, that these adjectives, like others relating to size (e.g big/small, heavy/light) are antonymous, and, second, that their meanings are very much dependent on the topics, for instance. In each of the pairs of measuring adjectives above, one number

is marked and one unmarked. The unmarked number is also the global **member** of the opposition. For example, in the pair *old* and *young, old* is the global, unmarked adjective. It is used with units of time to express age. When we say the baby is four days old, we are not saying that the baby is old, and in saying the box is three inches deep we are not saying that the box is deep. (which is the global member of the pair long/short? Wide/narrow? We sometimes say things like "she is 40 years young " but this precisely a marked expression. Presumably, she is 40 years young is equivalent in truth-value to she is 40 years old.

2.2.1 Meronymy

According to William Croft (2004:159) meronymy is like every other sense relations, meronymy is viewed as a relation between contextually construed meanings (or more precisely, by pre-meanings created by boundary construal). However the relationship is less straight forward than hyponymy, and it is not easy to select the optimum way of expressing it. The problem stem from the fact that the essential relations, the part whole relation, does not hold between construed classes of elements, but between specific individuals belonging to those classes. Also the relation itself is subject to construal, unlike the hyponymic relation between two classes. Given two classes, the definition of hyponymy can decide whether hyponymy holds or not: there is no need for separate construal of the relation. In the case of meronymy, on the other hand, a part –whole relation between two entities is itself a construal, subject to a range of conventional and contextual constrains. So, let us examine the following characterization of meronymy:

If A is a meronymy of B in a particular contexts, then any member a of the extension of A maps onto a specific member b of the extension of B of which it is construed as a part.

Hence, finger is a meronymy of hand because for every entity properly describable

as a finger (in the default construal), there corresponds some entity property describable as a hand (also in the default construal), of which it is construed as a part. Some examples of meronymy:

The relationship of meronymy is a part whole concept ; if X is a meronymy of Y, X is part of Y, and Y is a holnoymy of X. Therefore elbow is a meronymy of arm, and arm is a holonymy of elbow. As further examples, not that wheel is a meronymy of car and bicycle (and many other vehicles).

2.2.2 Synonymy

Synonymy is usually defined as sameness or extensive similarity of meaning concerning two or more expression (cf. lyons 1995: 60, Crystal 2003: 164). Another definition is given by Cruse (2002: 486): "we shall take synonymy, then, to be a relation of similarity/identity of meaning between sense associated with two or more different lexical forms". The meaning of word consist of the descriptive meaning, also called the denotation, and the descriptive meaning, or connotation. The descriptive meaning is the central meaning, or the summary of semantic features of an expression (cf. Gramley & Patzold:(2003: 25).

2.2.3 Degree of Synonymy

Claus Arnold (2015:3) believes that degree of synonymy may be considered rather as signpost than as clear cut categories, as basically each case of synonymy has its very own characteristic. In the literature on synonymy, one usually finds three major degrees, absolute synonymy, descriptive (or propositional) synonymy and near synonymy (or plesionymy). According to Lyons (1995: 61), two (or more) lexemes qualify as absolute synonymys if they satisfy all of these three conditions: first, all their descriptive meanings are identical; second, they are synonymous in all contexts; and third, they have identical meanings on all dimensions of meaning,

descriptive and non descriptive. In practice, it is very rare to find sets of words in any language which are absolute synonymys , but of words whose meanings are so closely related that we can consider them to belong to the same semantic field.

2.3 Semantic Field

Alexsander Kastovsky (1986:135) claims that semantic field theory has had a long tradition in Germany and has been promoted in English-speaking countries above all by John Lyons and Adrienne Lehrer. In Lehrer (1985 :283) we find the following definition of a semantic field:

A semantic field is a set of lexemes which cover a certain conceptual domain and which bear certain specifiable relation to one another. As stated by Moura (1998: 107), indeterminacy "occurs when to a linguistic form more than one semantic representation may be attributed, i.e., when the mapping between form and meaning is not univocal." Therefore, indeterminacy refers to all cases in which meaning is not clearly determined, in order, it encompasses a large range of semantic phenomena such as homonymy and polysem.

2.3.0 Homonymy and Polysemy

Charles W.Kreidler (1998:36-37) claims that lexeme is a conjunction of form and meaning. The form is fairly easy to determine; in writing it is a sequence of letters, in speech a sequence of phonemes. But meaning is more difficult to determine. In **homonymy**, such as **bank** 'a financial institution' and **bank** 'the the edge of a stream; pronunciation and spelling are identical but meanings are unrelated. In other pairs, numerous in English, such as *steak* and *stake*, pronunciation is identical but spelling is different, reflecting the fact that the words were once different in their phonological form. English also has pairs of **homographs,** two words that have different pronunciations but the same spelling: for example, **bow**,

rhyming with **go** and referring to an instrument for shooting arrows, and **bow** rhyming with **cow** and indicating a bending of the body as a form of respectful greeting.

Lexicographers and semanticists sometimes have to decide whether a form with a wide range of meaning is an instance of polysemy or of homonymy. A **polysemous** lexeme has several (apparently) related meanings. The noun **head**, for instance, seems to have related meanings when we speak of the head of a person, the head of a company, head of a table or bed, a head of lettuce or cabbage. If we take the anatomical referent as the basic one, the other meanings can be seen as derived from the basic one, either reflecting the general shape of the human head or, more abstractly, the relation of the head to rest of the body.

Dictionaries recognize the distinction between polysemy and homonymy by making a polysemous item a single dictionary entry and making homophonous lexeme two or more separate entries. Thus *head* is one entry and *bank* is entered twice. producer of dictionaries often make a decision in this regard on the basis of etymology, which is not necessary relevant, and in fact separate entries are necessary in some instances when two lexemes have a common origin. The noun *pupil*, for example has two different senses, 'part of the eye' and 'school child'. Historically these have a common origin but at present they are semantically unrelated. Similarly, *flower* and *flour* were originally 'the same word', and so were the verbs to *poach* (a way of cooking in water) and to *poach* ('to hunt [animals] on another persons hand'), but the meanings are now far apart and all dictionaries treat them as homonyms, with separate listing. The distinction between homonymy and polysemy is not an easy one to make. Two lexemes are either identical in form or not but relatedness of meaning is not a matter of yes or no; it is a matter of more or less.

Examine the different occurrences of the verb *ask* in the following sentences:

6 Fred asked Betty where his gold clubs were.

7 Fed asked Donna if she had seen his clubs.

8 Fred asked Charles to help him find his clubs.

Sentences 6 and 7 are about questions, request for information. The utterances behind sentences 6 and 7 would be something like "where are my gold clubs, Betty?" and "have you seen my clubs, Donna?" respectively. Sentence 8 is not a request for information but a request for a kind of action. The utterance behind sentence 8 might be something like "help me find my clubs, Charles." A request for action is prospective: the asking naturally precedes whatever the other person asks. A request for information sought: it is about what the addressee may know at the time of asking.

The distinction between polysemy and homonymy will not figure prominently in the present account, because it has few, if any consequences in term of boundary effects, or the nature of the delimited units.

William Croft (2004:111) maintain that homonymous sense are given separate main headings, that is to say, they are treated as separate words that have, accidently, the same spelling and/or sound. Polysemic senses are listed under a single main heading and are treated as different meanings of the same word. The distinction can be viewed either diachronically or synchronically. The more traditional distinction is the diachronic one: homonymous units are derived from distinct lexical source, and their orthographical/phonological identity is due either to the loss of an original distinction due to the language change, or to borrowing, whereas polysemic units are derived from the same lexical source, being the result of processes of extension such as metonymy and idioms.

2.3.1 Idioms

What are idioms?

Michael McCarthy (2015:6-7) claims that idioms are expressions which have a meaning that is not obvious from the individual words. For example, the idiom drive somebody round the bend means **make somebody angry or frustrated**, but we cannot know this just by looking at the words.

The best way to understand an idiom is to see it in context. If someone says: This tin open's driving me round the bend! I think I'll throw it away and get a new one next time I'm in town.

Then the context and common sense tell us that drive round the bend means something different from driving a car round a curve in the road. The context tells us the tin opener is not working properly and that it's having an effect on the person using it.

2.3.2 Types of Idioms

1- Verb +object/complement (and or adverbial).

e.g kill two birds with one stone.

Means produce two useful results by just doing one action.

2- Prepositional phrase: e.g in the blind of an eye.

Means in an extremely short time.

3- Compound: e.g a bone of contention.

Means something which people argue and disagree over.

4- Simile 'simli' (as+ adjective + as, or like + noun).

e.g as dry as bone.

Means very dry indeed.

5- Binomial (word +and +word) e.g rough and ready.

Means crude and lacking sophistication.

6- Trinomial (word + word + and – word) e. g

Cool, calm and collected.

Means relaxed, in control, not nervous.

7- Whole clause or sentence. E.g to cut a long story short.

Means to tell the main points, but not all the fine details.

Laurel J, Brinton (2000:100) maintains that **idioms** are not like free syntactic phrases which can be accounted for the syntactic and semantic rules of grammar, but are rather more like single words in word formation.

2.4 Word Formation

In the above section 2.4 -2.4.0 we looked about idioms. In this section we will consider the word formation which Zeki Hamawand (2011:9-11) said word formation studies the creation of new words and the principles involved in doing so. It involves different processes which are used to build new lexical items from the existing ones. Each word formation process results in the production of a specific type of word. Word formation is a crucial tool in the hands of speakers because it helps them to create words which symbolize, the experience they encounter in the world. Each word reflects a special conceptualization which represents in turn a different mental experience. In this way, morphology is concerned first and foremost with the process of forming words, that is, how words are formed from smaller units and how the smaller units interact in speech. In the course of forming words, two major process take place: **derivation** and

compounding. These two powerful process of forming words are referred to as **concatenation.**

2.4.0 Derivation

Derivation is the morphological process of forming new words from an existing one by the addition of a bound morpheme. Derivation assigns a lexical item a semantic property so that it can fulfil a given discourse function. For example, in *selfish* the bound morpheme –*ish* has a double import. First, it changes the part of speech of the word it drives. It changes its part of speech from a noun *self* into an adjective selfish. Second, it affects the meaning of the word it drives. In the example*, ish* implies disapproval by describing someone as caring only about himself or herself and not about others. However, not every bound morpheme causes a change in word class. The bound morpheme *re*, for example, drives *rewrite* from *write*, both of which are verbs. Within derivation, there are two branches of morphological process: derivation by *affixation* and derivation by *non affixation.*

Affixation is generally regarded as the process of attaching affixes, such as affixes, pre-affixes or infixes to a base' (Bauer 1983: 18). An affix is usually defined as a bound morpheme which occurs only in combination with other morphemes, such as roots or bases (Bauer 2003: 13, Katamba and Stonham 2006: 44). Since the present study deals with the process of creating new words, only derivational affixes are of relevance here.

We will look first at the words made with affixes, affixes are of two sorts in English**: prefixes**, which come before the stem (e,g prefix 'un' + stem 'pleasant' unpleasant ') and **suffixes**, which come after the stem (e,g 'good' + suffix 'ness' = 'goodness').

Affixes have one of the three effects on word stress;

1- the affix itself receives the primary stress (e ,g 'semi' + 'circle'= 'semicircle': 'ality' + 'person'= 'personality').

2- the word is stressed as if the affix were not there (e, g pleasant' ' unpleasant'; 'market', marketing').

3- the stress remains on the stem, not the affix, but is shifted to a different syllable (e ,g 'magner, 'magnetic').

2.5.1 Suffixes

Suffix is the process of adding a morpheme after the stem. Peter Roach (2009:83-85) said that there are so many suffixes that it will only be possible here to examine a small proportion of them: we will concentrate on those which are common and **productive** that is, are applied to a considerable number of stems and could be applied to more to make new English words. In the case of the others, foreign learners would probably be better advised to learn the 'stem + affix' combination as an individual item.

One of the problems that we encounter is that we find words which are obviously complex but which, when we try to divide them into stem + affix, turn out to have a stem that is difficult to imagine as an English word. For example, the word 'audacity' seems to be complex word- but what is its stem? Another problem is that it is difficult in some cases to know whether a word has one, or more than one, suffix: for example, should we analyze 'personality' from the point of view of stress assignment, as / person+aliti / or as / person+al /? In the study of English word formation at a deeper level than we can go into here, it is necessary for such reason to distinguish between a stem (which is what remains when affixes are removed), and a **root,** which is the smallest piece of lexical material that a stem can be

reduced to. So, in personality; we could say that the *suffix* 'ity' is attached to the stem 'personal' which contains the **root** 'person' and the suffix 'al'; we will not spend more time here on looking at these problems, but go to look at some generalizations about suffixes and stress, using only the term 'stem' for the sake of simplicity.

Suffixes carrying primary stress themselves;

In the examples given, which seem to be the most common, the primary stress is on the first syllable of the suffix. If the stem consists of more than one syllable there will be a secondary stress on one of the syllables of the stem. This cannot fall on the last syllable of the stem and is, if necessary, moved to an earlier syllable. For example, in 'Japan' the primary stress is on the last syllable, but when we add the stress –carrying suffix 'ese' the primary stress is on the suffix and the secondary stress is placed not on the second syllable but on the first: 'Japa'nese.

'ee': 'refu'gee'   'evacu'ee'

'eer'; 'mountai'neer' 'volun'teer'

Suffixes that do affect stress placement.

'able;' comfort' /'comfortable/.

'age';' anchor' /'anchorage/

'al'; 'refuse' (verb) /'refusal/

Suffixes that influence stress in the stem:

In these examples primary stress is on the last syllable of the stem.

'eous'; 'advantage' /advan'tageous/

'graphy': 'photo' /pho'tography/

'ial':' proverb' /pro'verbial/

Finally, when suffixes 'ant' 'ance' and 'ary' are attached to single syllable stems, the stress is almost always placed on the stem (e,g 'guidance','sealan', 'dietary'). When the stem has more than one syllable, the stress is on one of the syllables in the stem. To explain this we need to use a rule based on syllable structure, as was done for simple words in the previous chapter. If the final syllable of the stem is strong, that syllable receives the stress. For example: / im'portant/ ·'/cen'tenary/.

Otherwise the syllable before the last one stress; /in'heritance/ ·'military/.

2.4.2 Prefixes

We will look only briefly at prefixes. Their effect on stress does not have the comparative regularity, independence and predictability of suffixes, and there is no prefix of one or two syllables that always carries primary stress. Consequently, the best treatment seems to be to say that stress in words with prefixes is governed by the same rules as those for polysyllabic words without prefixes.

2.4.3 Compound Words

The words discussed so far in the above sections 2.5.0-2.5.2 have all consisted of stem plus an affix. We now pass on to another type of word. This is called compound, and its main characteristic is that it can be analyzed into two words, both of which can exist independently as English words. Zeki Hamawand (2011:201-202) sees that compounding is the process of together two free morphemes, be the noun, adjective or verbs, to make a compound word, a brand-new word. Some compounds are made of more than two words, but we will not consider these. As with many of the distinctions being made in connections with stress, there are areas of uncertainty. For example, it could be argued that 'photograph' may be divided into two independent words, 'photo' and 'graph'; yet

we usually do not regard it as a compound, but as a simple word. If, however, someone drew a graph displaying numerical information about photos, this would perhaps be called a 'photo-graph' and the word would then be regarded as a compound. Compounds are written in different ways: sometimes they are written as one word (e,g armchair; 'sunflower'); sometimes with the word separated by a hyphen (e,g open-minded; cost-effective); and sometimes with two words separated by a space (e,g desk lamp', 'battery charger'). In this last case there would be no indication to the foreign learner that the part of words was to be treated as a compound. There is no clear dividing line between two word compounds and pairs of words that simply happen to occur together quite frequently.

As far as stress is concerned, the question is quite simple. When is primary stress placed on the first constituent word of the compound and when is on the second? Both patterns are found. A few rules can be given, although these are not completely reliable. Perhaps the most familiar type of compound is the one which combines two nous and which normally has the stress on the first element, as in:

'typewriter' /'typewriter/

'car ferry'   /'car ferry/

'sunrise'   /'sunrise/

2.5 Previews Studies

1-**Abdelnasir Babo (2011) conducted a study on the "Influence of Vocabulary Awareness on Developing EFL Learners writing Skills in Secondary Level"** at Sudan University of Science and Technology. The main objectives of the study are to find out what hinders the learners to engage in writing using the new lexical items, to discover the reasons of behind learning lexical items, for writing and to draw attention of both teachers and learners to the importance of semantic

properties of lexical data. The researcher used reading and writing test to collect the data, which were designed for secondary school students. The main findings of this study show that teachers do not equip students with techniques for developing broad varied vocabulary for their writing ability. Also it shows that syllabus do not put emphasis on the development of learning and teaching vocabulary which results in effective writing.

2-A study was conducted by Osman Ali (2010) "Investigate the Problems of English Language Vocabulary learning that arise to EFL Students at Secondary Level" at Sudan University for Science and Technology. The purposes of the study is to investigate the problem of ambiguous shapes, sounds and their different meaning; homonym, homophones, and polysemy. The researcher used two instruments; a test for students and a questionnaire for teachers. The major findings of the study were: Polysemy and homonymy cause problems in students' understanding, and teachers under training often face problems in understanding polysemy and homonymy.

3-Mahdi Hamad (2014) conducted a study on the "Investigating of ESP Vocabulary Difficulties Encountered by EFL learners" at Sudan University for Science and Technology. The main purposes of the study are to describe and produce an analysis of the ESP specialized vocabulary, to help the EFL learners to overcome the problems of the specialized vocabulary, and provide the theoretical framework of ESP specialized vocabulary. The researcher used a questionnaire to the teachers of ESP to collect the data. The findings of the study are the ESP specialized vocabulary, in fact, creates some difficulties to EFL learners, the ESP courses at Universities do not solve the problems of the ESP specialized vocabulary, and the difficulties of specialized vocabulary affect the students' process in the study. Also, the ESP teachers need more training in order to improve and develop their performance and competence.

Comments

This study shares some points of view in vocabulary and the importance of understanding vocabulary. There are differences between previews studies and this one, the previews studies used a questionnaire as a tool to data and thus study used both a questionnaire and a test as tools to collect data. There are similarities between this study and the previews studies mentioned above first all the researchers from the same field deal with factors related to learning English as a foreign language. Some factors are common between most of the previews studies and current study such as teachers need more training on developing broad varied vocabulary.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented the review of vocabulary, and it attempted to build a conceptual background of lexical relations, some semantics concepts and word formation. First, the chapter reviewed lexical relation and defined the term lexical relation including its types, collocation, and sense relation. And secondly, it touched the definition of semantic field and some of the lexemes or words in its area. And finally, the chapter investigated word formation as well as its definition.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology of the Study

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology of the Study

3.0 Introduction

This chapter aims at describing the research methodology, gives a full description of the data beside the population and procedures that will be followed in collecting data.

3.1 Research Subject

The sample of the study consisted of twenty students of the second year at the secondary school of Ganese Shareg in Blue Nile state in El-Rosseires locality.

3.2 Research Tool

The data of this study will be collected by examining students who are EFL students at secondary school. In this study, the researcher will use two tools (a test and a questionnaire) for data collection which were designed for English learners in the 2th year. The test is designed for ten students and the questionnaire for another ten students.

Both the test and the questionnaire aim at seeing the students' awareness of lexical relations through collocations, antonymy, and synonymy. Also, the tools try to investigate the students' awareness of semantic field " homonymy and idioms". Finally the two mentioned tools aim at knowing the students' awareness of derivation through affixation (suffix and prefix).

3.3 Procedures

The researcher will distribute the test to the students and give them enough time in order to answer the questions. After that the researcher will collect the papers from

them to know how do they answer the questions. At the same time the other ten students will have the questionnaire. Finally the test and the questionnaire will be analyzed. The next chapter will consider the data analysis and the results of tools.

3.4 Validity and Reliability

The validity of the test and the questionnaire is verified by five experts doctors of PHD holders in English language at the college of languages Department of English In Sudan University for Science and Technology. And the tools were changed and amended, because they recommended some changes and amendments in the test and the questionnaire.

3. 5 Statistical Reliability

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

3.6 Summary of the Test

This chapter provides a full description of research, tools, procedures and the sample of the students as well as the validity and reliability of the tools.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will provide data analysis for the study and test its hypotheses. The four hypotheses will be discussed in isolation. All statements are analyzed referring to the hypotheses they represent.

4.1 Analysis of the First Tool: Teachers' Questionnaire

After the step of checking questionnaire's reliability and validity, the researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (20) English teachers of secondary schools in Blue Nile state, and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2, 1) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

. Alpha-Cranbach coefficient.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their responses on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

In this study the validity calculated by using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Re liability}}$$

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using Alpha-Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed (20) questionnaires to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient; the results have been shown in the following table:

Scale	Reliability	Validity
Alpha-Cronbach	0.85	0.92

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2017

It is noticed from the results of the above table that all reliability and validity coefficients for the sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), some of them are nearest to one. This indicates the high validity and reliability of the responses, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

4. 2 Statistical Instruments

In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, the following statistical instruments were used:

1**.** Graphical figures.

2. Frequency distribution.

3. Mean .

4. Non-parametric Chi-square test by using SPSS and EXSEL

Statement (1): Derivation (suffix and prefix) depress EFL students.

Table No. (4.1)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Responses of Statement No.(1)

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	11	55
agree	5	25
uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	**02**	**100**

Figure (4.1)
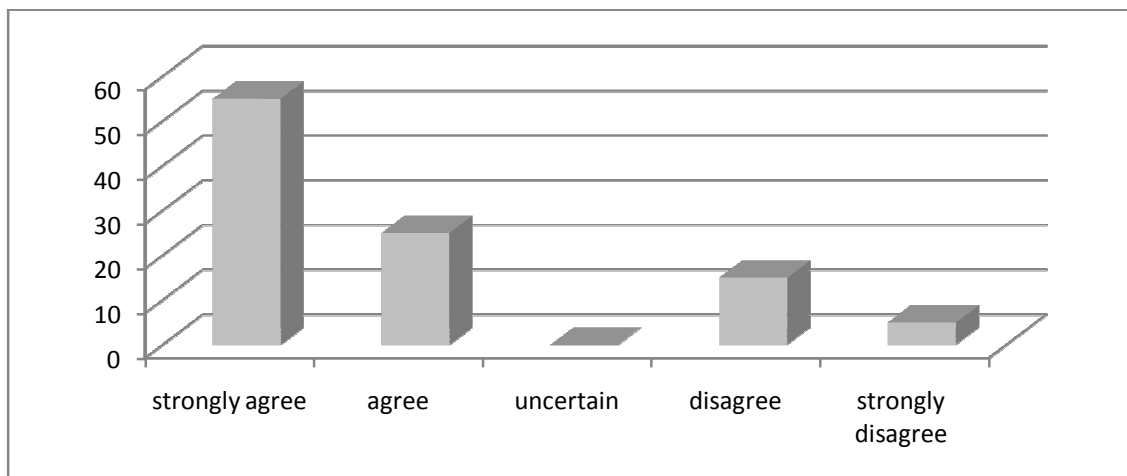
The above table No.(4.1) and figure No. (4.1) show that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50%) strongly agreed with that **"Derivation"** (suffix and prefix) depress EFL students. There are (6) persons with percentage (30%) agreed with that, and (0) person with percentage (0%) was not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (15%) disagreed, and (1) person with percentage (5%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (2): Synonyms cause difficulties in learning oral communication .

Table No. (4.2)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Responses of Statement No.(2)

Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	10	50
agree	7	35
uncertain	1	5
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	1	5
Total	**02**	**100**

Figure (4.2)
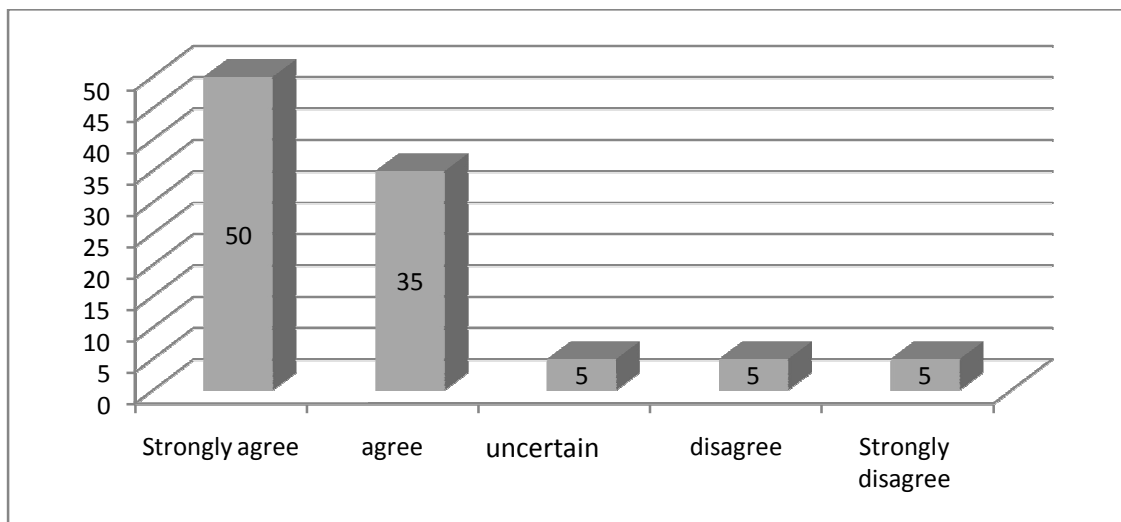
The above table No.(4.2) and figure No. (4.2) show that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50%) strongly agreed with that **"Synonyms cause difficulties in learning oral communication .."** There are (7) persons with percentage (35%) agreed with that, and (1) person with percentage (5%) was not sure that, and (1) person with percentage (5%) disagreed, and (1) person with percentage (5%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (3): Knowing many antonyms help speaker of EFL

Table No. (4.3)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Responses of Statement No.(3)

| Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	4	20
agree	8	40
uncertain	1	5
disagree	4	20
strongly disagree	3	15
Total	**02**	**100**

Figure (4.3)
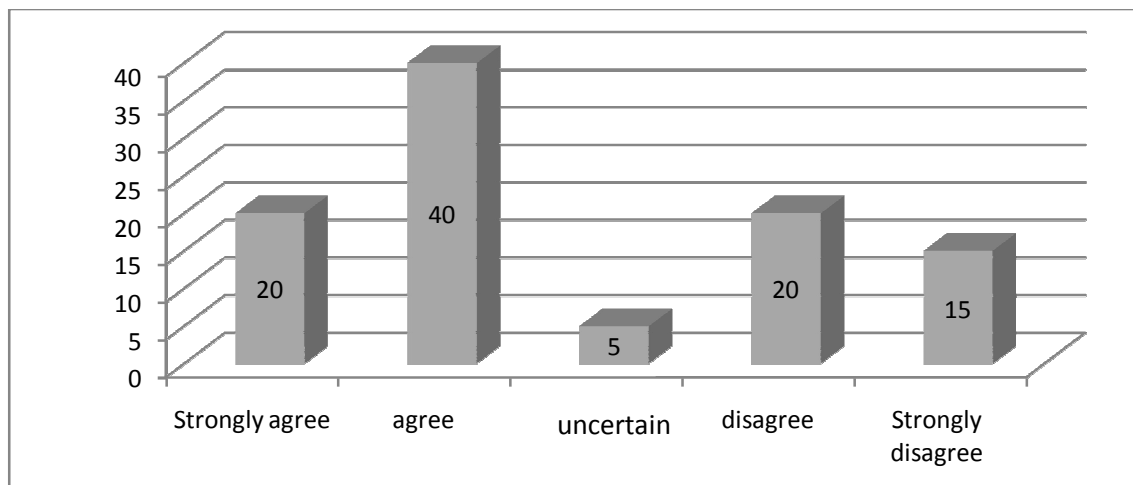
The above table No.(4.3) and figure No.(4.3) show that there are (4) persons in the study's sample with percentage (20%) strongly agreed with that " Knowing many antonyms help speaker of EFL."There are (8) persons with percentage (40%) agreed with that, and (1) person with percentage (5%) was not sure that, and (4) persons with percentage (20%) disagreed, and (3) persons with percentage (15%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (4): Awareness of homonymy eases the understanding in communication

Table No. (4.4)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Responses of Statement No (4)

| Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	2	10
agree	7	35
uncertain	3	15
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	5	25
Total	**02**	**100**

Figure (4.4)
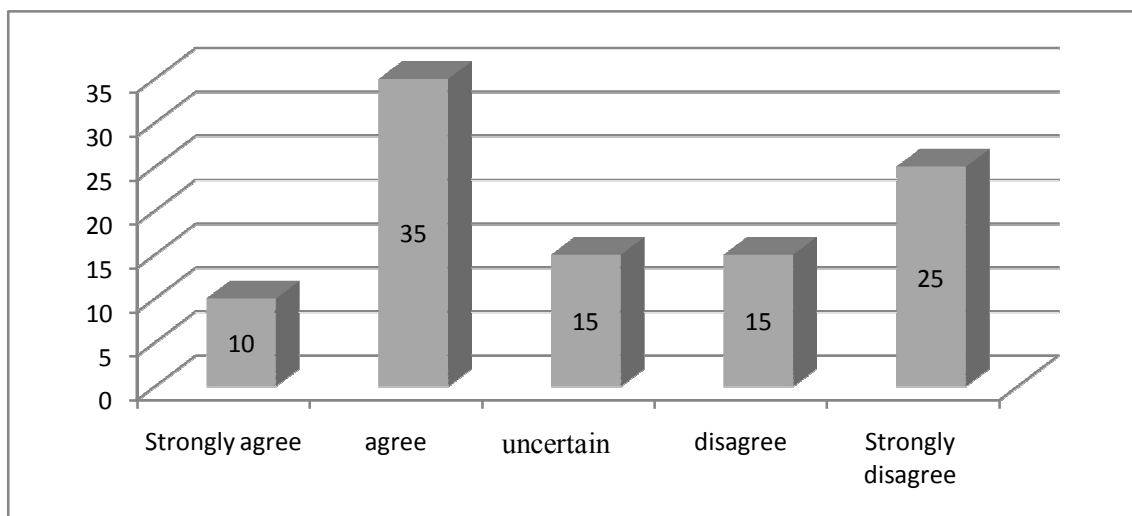
The above table No.(4.4) and figure No.(4.4) show that there are (2) persons in the study's sample with percentage (10%) strongly agreed with that " Awareness of homonymy ease the understanding in communication " There are (7) persons with percentage (35%) agreed with that, and (3) persons with percentage (15%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (15%) disagreed, and (5) persons with percentage (25%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (5): Learning collocation assists oral communication

Table No. (4.5)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Responses of Statement No.(5)

| Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	10	50
agree	2	10
uncertain	1	5
disagree	3	15
strongly disagree	4	20
Total	**02**	**100**

Figure (4.5)
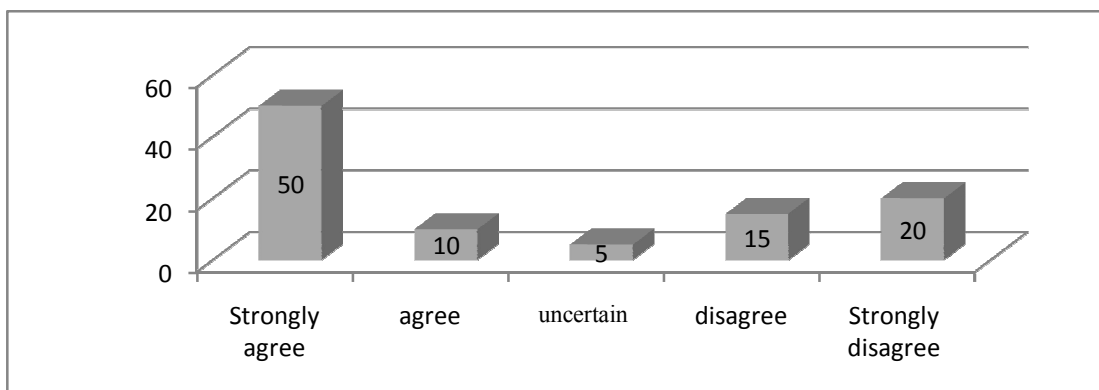
The above table No.(4.5) and figure No.(4.5) show that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50%) strongly agreed with that " Learning

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collocation assists oral communication ." There are (2) persons with percentage (10%) agreed with that, and (1) person with percentage (5%) was not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (15%) disagreed, and (4) persons with percentage (20%) strongly disagreed.

Statement (6): Idioms are major problems to EFL students .

Table No. (4.6)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Responses of Statement No.(6)

| Valid	Frequencies	Percentage
strongly agree	10	50
agree	3	15
uncertain	1	5
disagree	1	5
strongly disagree	5	25
Total	**02**	**100**

Figure (4.6)

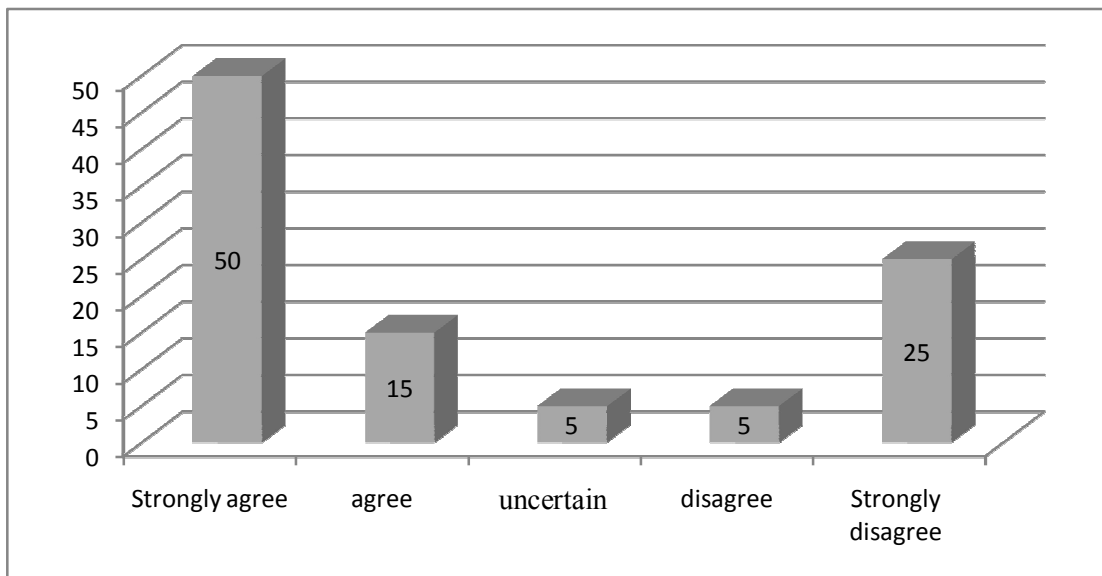The above table No.(4.6) and figure No. (4.6) show that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50%) strongly agreed with that " Idioms are major problems to EFL students . ." There are (3) persons with percentage (15%) agreed with that, and (1) person with percentage (5%) was not sure that, and (1) person with percentage (5%) disagreed, and (5) persons with percentage (25%) strongly disagreed.

Table (4.7) Chi –Square Test for Hypotheses

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Derivation (suffix and prefix) depress EFL students .	2.8	0.6	22	0.000
2	Synonyms cause difficulties in learning oral communication.	3.1	3.5	38	0.001
3	Knowing many antonyms help speaker of EFL	2.8	0.6	24	0.000
4	Awareness of homonymy ease the understanding in communication	3.2	3.5	33	0.001
5	Learning collection assists oral communication	3.2	4	33	0.000
6	Idioms are major problems to EFL students	2.8	0.6	26	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 1st statement was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12). This indicates that, there are statistically significant

differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Derivation (suffix and prefix) depress EFL students .

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 2nd statement was (38) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.1) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Synonyms cause difficulties in learning oral communication .

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 3rd statement was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Knowing many antonyms help speaker of EFL

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 4th statement was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which

supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Awareness of homonymy ease the understanding in communication

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 5th statement was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Learning collection assists oral communication."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's responses in the 6th statement was (26) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the responses of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which supports the respondents who agreed with the statement "Idioms are major problems to EFL students.

According to the previous results, the 4^{th}hypothesis is accepted.

4. 3 Analysis of the second tool – the diagnostics test

The Responses of the Test

The responses to the written diagnostic test of the 16 students of 2the year in Blue Nile state in El Rosseiris Locality at the secondary school for boys in Ganese Shareg were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation

and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each statement in the test is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following table will support the discussion.

4. 4 Statistical Reliability and validity for student's test

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the test using Alpha - Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the test from the above equation, the researcher distributed the attest to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient the results have been showed in the following table

	**Reliability**	_**validity**_	_**N**_
ALPH – CRONBACH	0.84	0.92	16

Validity = $\sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$.

From the above table its shown that the validity of the test is very high (0.92) . this indicate that if we repeat the test we are sure with 92% that its going to give us the same results

Question One: fill in the plank spaces by choosing the correct alternative in the practice

Table (4.8) shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the answers according to part (1)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	6	40%
Failure	10	60%
Total	16	100

Figure (4.7)
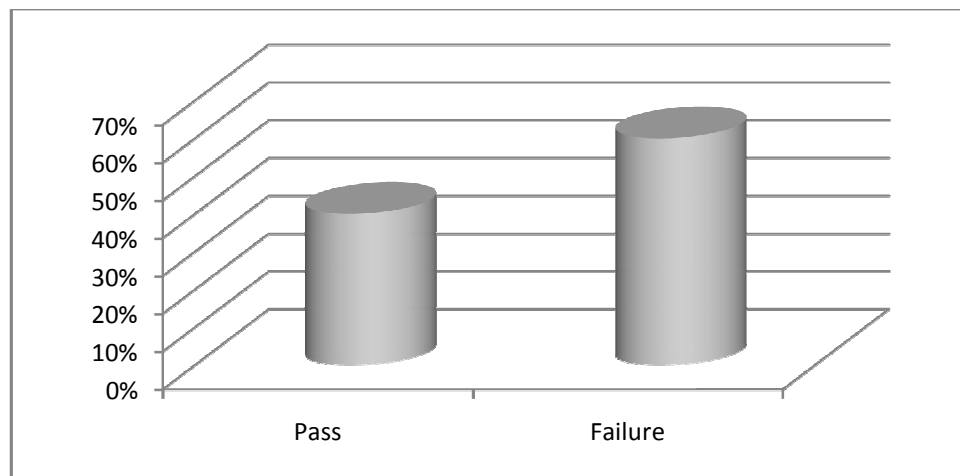
The above table and figure illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were failure which are represented by the percentage (60%).

Question Two: complete the following sentence by choosing the correct word from the box below

Table (4.9) shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the answers according to part (2)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	5	30
Failure	11	70
Total	16	100

Figure (4.8)

The above table and figure illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were failure which are represented by the percentage (70%).

Question three: draw a circle around (a, b or c)

Table (4.10) shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the answers according to part (2)

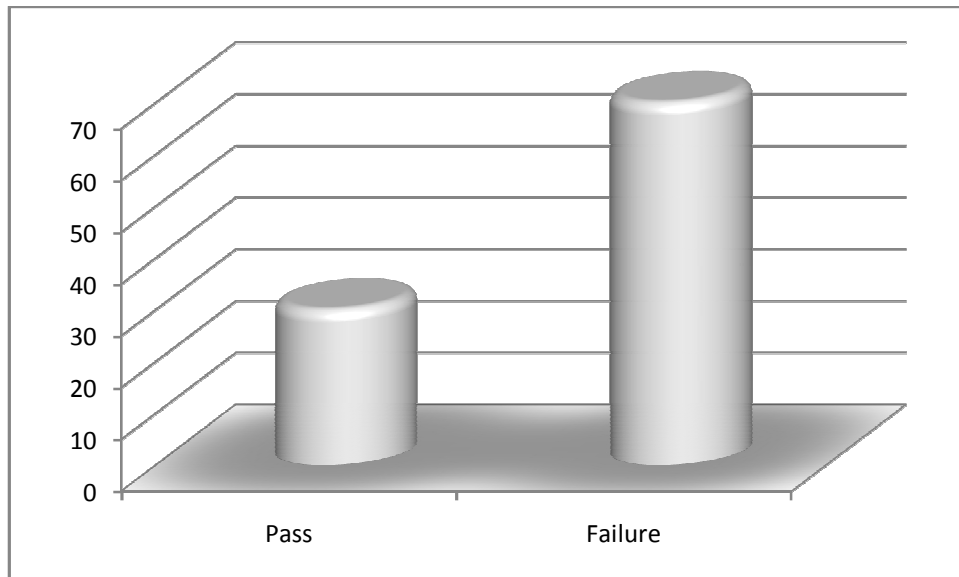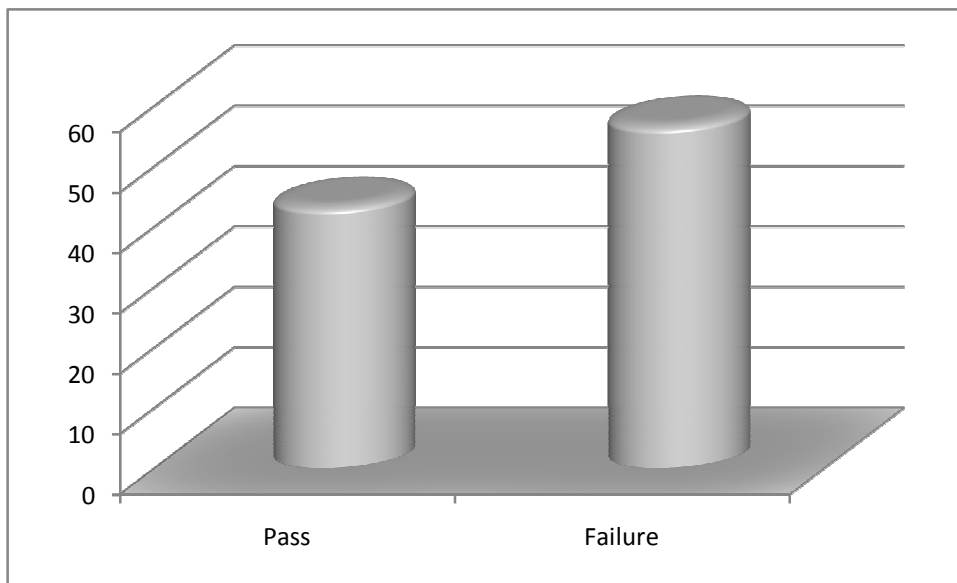| Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	7	43.3
Failure	9	56.7
Total	16	100

Figure (4.9)

The above table and figure illustrate the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were failure which are represented by the percentage (56.7%).

Table No (4.11) The Frequency Distribution and decisions for the Respondent's Answers of all questions

	Pass		Failure		
	frequency	*Percentage*	*frequency*	*Percentage*	
Question 1	6	40	10	60	**Accept**
Question 2	5	30	11	70	**Accept**
Question 3	7	43.3	9	56.7	

This table No.(4.11) its shown the summary of the results . For the **question one,** it's clear that the number of students who failed in the question one is greater than the number of students who pass the question (60%) so the hypothesis of the study related to question one is accepted.

This table No. (4.11) it's shown the summary of the results. For the **question two,** it's clear that the number of students who failed in the question two is greater than the number of students who pass the question (70%) so the hypothesis of the study related to question 2 is accepted

This table No. (4.11) it's shown the summary of the results. For the **question three ,** it's clear that the number of students who failed in the question two is greater than the number of students who pass the question (56.7%) so the hypothesis of the study related to question 2 is accepted

Table (4.12) one sample T-TEST for the questions of the study

Question s	N	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
1	16	0.5	11	15	0.00
2	16	2.6	15	15	0.01
3	16	5.1	15	15	0.00
For all	16	4.5	14	15	0.02

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (1) was (11) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (15) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (2) was (15) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (15) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. This means that our third hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (2) was (15) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (15) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. This means that our second hypothesis is accepted.

CHAPTER FIVE

Main Findings, Conclusion, Recommendation, and Suggestions for Further Studies

CHAPTER FIVE

Main Findings, Conclusion, Recommendation, and Suggestions for further Studies

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study. It includes summary of the study, findings, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the difficulties of vocabulary that encounter EFL students in learning oral communication.

The researcher hypothesized that, secondary students face difficulties in vocabulary. Also he hypothesized that possible solution to the difficulties can be eliminated by explaining how words are related in meaning in different contexts.

Chapter two covers the literature review. In chapter three, we have methodology of the study, chapter four explains the results in terms of tables and graph through statistical analysis. In chapter five, there are the summary of the study, conclusion, recommendation, and suggestions for further study.

5.2 Conclusion

This study was conducted for the following purposes: to highlight the difficulties of vocabulary, that face EFL students in learning oral communication, and find possible solutions which can eliminate the difficulties to EFL students.

In this study the researcher used two kinds of instruments: questionnaire and test to the data. The samples were 20 teachers from secondary schools and 16 students from the secondary schools 2nd year in Blue Nile state in El-Rosseires Locality in Ganese Shareg.

5.3 Summary of the Findings (Results)

After analyzing the data which is collected by the tools of the study the following results are obtained:

Students at secondary 2the year face difficulties in:

1-Lexical relations in (collocation), homonyms & idioms and in word formation (suffix & prefix).

2-The possible solutions to the difficulties of vocabulary can be eliminated by explaining how words are related in meaning in different contexts.

5.4 Recommendations

In the light of the results and the findings mentioned above, the researcher recommended the following:

1- Teacher must give clear explanations to new vocabularies.

2 - Teachers must revise the previews words while teaching a new lesson.

3 - Teachers need to know more about vocabulary especially in semantics.

4 – Every English teacher have to observe the difficulties of vocabulary.

5 .5 Suggestions for Further Studies

According to the study results and recommendation, the researcher suggests the following:

1-Teacher should relate the new words with surrounding environment of the school.

2- Teachers should motivate EFL students in learning vocabulary.

3-EFL students must be aware of the problems that concern vocabulary.

4- There should be many communicative activities in schools.

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APPENDICES

Appendix (1)

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

Questionnaire of M.A Degree

Dear teachers:

I will be grateful if you respond to the following statements, this questionnaire has been designed to collect the data about students' opinion. Investigating Difficulties of Vocabulary Encountered by EFL Students in learning Oral Communication". A case study of second year in secondary school in Blue Nile state.

General information:

Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neural	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1- Derivation (suffix & prefix) depress EFL students .					
2- Synonyms cause difficulties in using vocabulary .					
3- Knowing many antonyms helps speakers of EFL.					
4- Awareness of homonymy ease the understanding in communication					
5- Learning collocation assists oral communication .					
6- Phrasal verbs are major problems to EFL students. .					

Appendix (2)

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

Students' test

Dear students:

This test is a part of master's degree in English Language (Linguistic), please, answer this accurately and the information of this test will be treated confidentially for academic purpose only.

Please, answer the following questions :   time :35 minutes.

<u>Question one:</u>

Fill in the blanks (spaces) by choosing the correct alternatives in the brackets .

1- Last week, the car was…………………(quick / fast).

2- Mohjoub has no white book he has ………book. (black / big)

3- In our village, people like speaking about good things and also they like……………..bad things. (talking / running).

4- Don't speak too much speak ……………little. (very / many).

Question two:

Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct word from the box below.

Take off,   bank ,   expensive ,   ness ,   un

1- They usually go to the ………….of the river.

2- His father told him to ……………his hat.

3- These days everything is getting …………………..

4- What you say is ……………believable brother.

5- My grandfather told me that happi ………….cant be bought.

Question three:

Draw a circle round (a ,   b, or   c).

1- The word "little" goes with

 a- book   b- money   c-   both

2- The opposite of "clean " is ……

 a- dirty   b - beautiful   c- handsome

 3- The same meaning of " go " is……

 a- sit   b- jump   c-   walk

4-   The suffix " ful " is added to ……….to form an adjective.

 a-   good   b- use   c- bad