

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.0 Introduction:

This chapter deals with the theoretical framework of this research, the definition of vocabulary (the researcher provides more than one definition according to different points of views and several opinions), also some types of vocabulary. The definition of meaning also presents in this chapter in addition to the notion of lexical meaning.

It also discusses the notion of sense relations, different types of lexical semantic relations with the definition of each one of them and also this chapter provides some examples of these relations to make it clear and understandable.

2.1 What is Vocabulary?

According to Universal College Dictionary (1997:878) it has many definitions:

- a. The stock of words used by or known to a particular person or group.
- b. a list or collection of words and often phrases usually arranged in alphabetical and order defined .
- c. The words of language.
- d. Any collection of signs or symbols constituting a means or system of non verbalcommunication.
- e. The set of forms, techniques or other means of expression.

There isother definition of the word *vocabulary*.In Longman Dictionary of cotemporary English (1990:117) vocabulary is “wordsknown,learnt, used, etc...”

Most of the previous definitions agree with that the term vocabulary usually involves words.

Graves (2000) (cited in Taylor 1990) defined vocabulary as“theentire stockof words belonging to a branch of knowledge or known by an individual”. He also stated that “the lexicon of language is its vocabulary, which includes words and expressions” (cited by Yusuf 2014), whereas Oxford Dictionary of English

Etymology (1966:984) defined vocabulary as “list of words with their meaning attached; range of words in a written language, etc....”

2.1.1 Types of Vocabulary:

There are different types of vocabulary: listening vocabulary which refers to all words we hear and understand when listening to a speech, speaking vocabulary which includes all the words we use in our everyday speech, writing vocabulary which is made up of all the words we use in writing and reading vocabulary which consist of all the words in print that we recognize or figure out .Nation (1990:20) divided vocabulary into:

1- Respective vocabulary: Knowing a word involves being able to recognize it when it is heard(what is the sound like?) or when it is seen (what does it look like)

And having an expectation of what grammatical pattern the word will occur. This includes being able to distinguish it from a word with a similar form and being able to judge if the word forms right or looks right.

2- ProductiveVocabulary: Knowing a word involves being able to produce the word, how to write and spell it, how to use it in grammatical pattern along with the word it usually collocates with. It also involves not using the word too often if it is typically a low frequency word and using it in a suitable situations using the word to stand for the meaning it represents and being able to think of suitable substitutes for the word if there any .

2.2 Definition of Meaning:

Semantics is defined as the study of meaning; but what is meaning? Philosophers have debated the question with particular reference to the language, for well over 2000 years. Lyons (1981:136).

So because of the variety of points of views towards the definition of “meaning” no one has produced satisfactory answer to it; but we find Lyons (1981:136) defined meanings as “ideas or concepts which can be transferred from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the hearer by embodying them”, where as in Oxford Advanced Dictionary (2010:920) meaning is “the thing or idea that a sound, word, sign etc ... represents”.

Another definition found in Universal Learner's Dictionary (1980:445) is that "meaning is the sense in which statement, action, word, etc is intended to be understood.

2.3 Lexical Meaning:

Lyons (1981:144) stated that "every language contains a vocabulary or lexicon which is complementary to the grammar in that the vocabulary not only lists the lexemes of the language {indexed by means of their citation-forms or stem forms, or in principles in any other way that distinguishes one lexeme from another}, but associates with each lexeme all the information that is required by the rules of grammar".

So it has to show how words do and how sentence meaning relate to other words and sentence [sense relation], and it has to predict ambiguity in both words and sentences. The term sense is used to contrast with reference. A reference deals with the relation between the linguistic elements, words, sentences, etc and the non-linguistic world of experience. Sense relates to the complex system of relationships that hold between the linguistic elements themselves.

2.4 Lexical Semantics:

Saeed (1997:1) stated that "semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language". It describes language as it is actually used. Also Palmer (1976:1) confirmed that "semantics is a technical term used to refer to the study of meaning, and since meaning is a part of language, semantics is a part of linguistics". As what the researcher has mentioned in chapter one most of the learners depend on translation when they come to recognize a certain lexeme, so a person's linguistic abilities are based on knowledge that he/she has including how to know the meaning of individual words and sentences; i.e. a person should know more about language and also more about the ways of vocabulary learning because it is better than mere translation.

The previous studies showed that lexical semantics as an academic discipline originated in the early nineteenth century, but that doesn't mean the matter of words meaning hadn't been discussed earlier.

Lexical semantic relations show relationships among word meanings, so it is the part of semantics that deals with the meanings of words.

2.5 Sense Relations:

Lexical semantic relations or “sense relations” show the relationship between words and their meanings. According to the meaning we can differentiate between two distinctions: the first is the “reference” which shows the external meaning of a word (what the word refers to in the physical world), while the other is the “sense” that indicates the internal meaning of a word (its content) .

Sense relations can indicate many kinds of relations such as sameness or oppositeness.

Lexical relations can be discussed from paradigmatic and syntagmatic point of view which deals with meaning in different directions , these relations are being used to describe words or collocations ; the mutual expectancy of words or the ability of word to predict the likelihood of another word occurring .These relations are relevant to each other . They overlap with each other in terms of the relationship between the meaning of the word in the physical world and the experience of the way it can co-occur with other words.

From the previous point of views the researcher confirms that sense relations study the association between words and their relevant to each other and also this study neglects the idea of each word separately has one meaning, so the awareness of these relations should be taken in consideration by the learner because it plays an important role in the nature of the vocabulary and show the way of its learning.

Palmer (1976:84) divided these relations into three types:(symmetric, transitive and reflexive).

1- We can have symmetric relation if the relation is equal in both directions as in “Ali is married to Mona” / Majid is Hassan’s cousin” equal Mona is married to Ali and Hassan is Majid’s cousin.

2- We can get transitive relation between three arguments as in some spatial terms like (in front of) in the two sentences:Nadir is in front Ahmed and Ahmed in front

of Galal so Nadir is also in front of Galal. Other spatial terms having this feature include: behind, above, below, south of, north of and inside.

Dongola is north of Atbara and Atbara is north of Khartoum; so Dongola is also north of Khartoum.

3- If the argument has a relation with itself, we say that it has a reflexive relation. Two verbs are used here which are *equal* and *resemble*. e.g : Mona *resembles* herself / four *equals* four

These words can also express transitive and symmetric relations, examples:

- a. Ali resembles Ahmed {symmetric}.
- b. Amna resembles Hala and Hala resembles Mona, so Mona resembles Amna *transitive*.

Also Palmer (1976:85) stated that “relations that can never be symmetric, transitive or reflexive are asymmetric, intransitive and irreflexive respectively”.

The researcher sheds lights in these three types in the following examples:

- a. Asymmetric: Ibrahim is the father of Adil, so Adil can never be the father of Ibrahim.
- b. Intransitive: Ibrahim is the father of Adil and Adil is the father of Yousuf , so Ibrahim can never be the father of Yousuf .
- c. Irreflexive: we can never say Ibrahim is the father of himself .

2.6 Hyponymy:

Lyons (1968:85) stated that “the term hyponymy is not a part of the traditional stock-in-trade of the semanticist; it is of recent creation by analogy with *synonymy* and *antonymy*. Although the term may be new, the notion of hyponymy is traditional enough; and it has long been recognized as one of the constitutive principle in the organization of the vocabulary of all languages. It is frequently referred to as inclusion”.

Palmer (1986:85) explained the term hyponymy in the notion of {inclusion} in the sense that (tulip) and (rose) are included in (flower), and (lion) and (elephant) in (mamal). Similarity (scarlet) is included in (red). Inclusion is thus a matter of

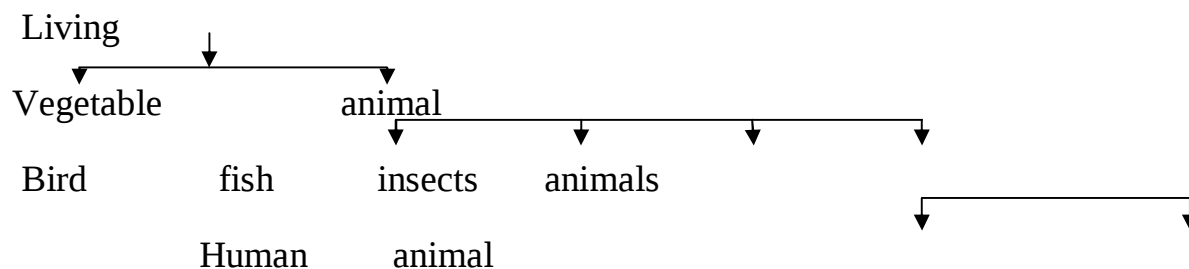
class membership. The “upper” term is the superordinate and the “lower” is the term hyponym. Also Lyons (1977:291) explains that the difference between the term *hyponymy* and the term *inclusion* is that while the former is used in semantic the latter is often used in logic, so “hyponymy” is a relation of inclusion and “hyponym” includes the meaning of a more general word.

Saeed (1997:68) suggests the following examples to explain the term “hyponym”:

- Dog and cat are hyponyms of animals.
- Sister and mother are hyponyms of woman.

A word can appear several times in hierarchy. For instance, the word “animal” can be used as a superordinate to itself and other to contrast with birds, fish and insects.

Palmer’s figure illustrates this point clearly:



Aitchison (1978:89) stated that “each entry has under it a list of hyponyms (i.e lexical items subsumed under it). Its main drawback is that it doesn’t distinguish between the stylistic or social variables which control the choice of synonyms).

2.7 Synonymy:

As Palmer suggested in (1976:88) “ synonymy refers to the sameness of meaning , so we say for the set of words having the same meaning {synonymous} or they are {synonyms} of one another .

Hence when we find two or more words have the same meaning such as : boy /lad , big / large , dislike / hate we say that they are synonyms .

Saeed (1997:65) stated that “synonyms are different phonological words which have the same or very similar meanings. Some examples might be the pairs below:

Couch / sofa, boy / lad, lawyer / attorney, toilet / lavatory.

So different words can have one meaning; Hill (1969:47) stated that “different lexemes may be connected to a single semantic unit. This relationship is generally called {synonymy}.

English is very rich of synonyms because of borrowing “it has often been suggested that English is particularly rich in synonyms for the historical reason that its vocabulary has come from two different sources, from Anglo- Saxon on the one hand and from French, Latin and Greek on the other. Palmer (1976:88).

Therefore we noticed that many words have their Latin origin synonyms as in: buy / purchase, world / universe, eye / ophthalmic, kingly / royal, etc.

Although synonyms is defined as the “sameness of meaning” we find that some semanticists think that there cannot be real synonyms; Palmer (1976:89) stated that “it can however, be maintained that there are no real synonyms, that no two words have exactly the same meaning would both survive in a language.

- *There are at least five ways in which synonyms can be seen to differ:*

1- Some sets of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language,example: the term {fall} is used in United stateswhile British use {autumn}, so it is a matter of people speaking different forms of the language having different vocabulary items .

2- Synonyms belong to different styles as in kid {informal}, child {formal} and offspring {very formal}, so these are more difficult to deal with because there is a far less clear distinction between the styles than between the geographically defined dialects.

3- Some words maybe said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meaning as in: freedom and liberty, hide and conceal and politician and state man, so words

may have different emotive meanings in different societies. For this reason we can find that word like {liberal} is a good word in Great Britain but it is a bad word in South Africa and in some parts of the United States.

4- Synonyms have different collocations {they occur only in conjunction with other words} as in beautiful and handsome; rancid butter and addled eggs.

5- Many words are close in meaning {their meaning overlap}, so they have loose sense of synonymy as the word {govern} which can have a set of possible synonyms: direct, control, determine and require. (ibid).

We can test synonyms by two ways:

a- *substitution*: substituting one word for another; it has been suggested that true or total synonyms are mutually interchangeable in all their environments; thus we can say *wide* road or *broadroad* {when we are talking about roads}, but there are some words are interchangeable in a certain environment only as in the above example we can say that road may be broad or wide, but an accent only broad.

b- *oppositeness* : The fact is that any two words appear to have the same antonyms is a reason for treating them as a synonyms , but also these two words can be interchangeable in a certain environment ; example :

The word *superficial* can be the opposite of both *deep* and *profound*, but *shallow* can't be the opposite of both; it is only the opposite of *deep*.

2.8 Antonymy:

Antonyms refer to {oppositeness of meaning}. O'Grady (1987:269) stated that "antonyms are words or phrases that are opposites with respect to some components of their meaning". The pairs of words in this table provide some examples:

Dark	light
Boy	girl
Hot	cold
Up	down

In	out
Come	go

Palmer (1976:94) stated that “words that are opposite are *antonyms*”. So because antonyms are words which are opposite in meaning; it is useful to identify several different of its types:

Saeed (1997:94) listed two types of antonyms:

1- SimpleAntonyms:

This is the relation between words such that the negative of one implies the positive of the other. The pairs are also sometimes called {complementary pairs} because they complete each other;examples:

dead/alive, pass/fail hit /miss {target}.

2- Gradable Antonyms:

This is a relation between opposites where the positive of one term doesn't necessarily imply the negative of the other;Examples:

rich/poor, fast/slow , young/old , beautiful/ugly .

These all of them are adjectives, have in common the fact that they may be seen in term of degrees of the quality involved; other examples could be:

wide /narrow , big / small , tall / short .

Thus a road may be wide or very wide and one road may be wider than another. Also we can have intermediate antonyms in the gradable list {hot – warm – cool – cold};with {warm} and {cool} form antonyms themselves.

The researcher noticed that, these two types of antonyms are closes to each other, but absolutely there are differences between them, that is because if we say that person *hit* the target; it means that he didn't miss it {complementary}, but if we say that person is a *young*it doesn't mean that he/she is not old since he / she can be young or old {gradable}.

Lyons (1968:467) mentioned another type of antonyms in term of (converseness) , so he stated that “ the third sense relation which is frequently described in terms of { oppositeness } is that which holds between ‘buy and sell’ or ‘husband and wife’ so the word ‘buy’ is the converse of ‘sell’ and vice versa .

Aitchison (1978:88) confirmed that “the study of opposites is more complex, as there are some different types of opposites; for this reason the term {antonym} has been avoided. Some writers use it for all types of opposite, others for one kind only.

The most obvious type is a pair of words is a pair of words in which the negative of one implies the other:

- He is not married = he is single.
- He is not single = he is married.

A second type of opposite is one which is not absolute, but relative to some standard. Small and large, for examples, always imply some comparison:

- What a *large* mouse! (= what a large mouse in comparison to a normal – size mouse).
- What a *small* elephant! (= what a small elephant in comparison to a normal – size elephant).

A third type is when one word is the converse of the other. The choice of one opposite rather than another depends on the angle from which you view the situation being described:

I give you the book: You take the book. (ibid).

2.9 Polysemy and Homonymy:

Palmer (1976:100) stated that “sameness of meaning is not very easy to deal with but there seems nothing inherently difficult about difference of meaning. Not only do different words have different meanings; it also the case that the same word may have a set of different meanings”.

So the two terms are closed to each other therefore the learner should pay attention in distinguishing between them.

McCarthy (2002:14) suggested that “polysemy is concerned with the way words often have a number of different meanings”.

In the following examples there are many meanings were translated from the same word *fair*:

- It's only *fair* that we should share the housework.
- The Frankfurt Book *Fair* is very important even for most publishers.
- Our caravan gives us shelter through *fair*weather.
- His marks in his final exam were *fair* to disappointing.

* The reader probably needs a different word to translate *fair* in each sentence.

One element of polysemy in English is that the language is very flexible and words can sometimes be used as different parts of speech, therefore the word {fair} can become an adjective or a noun.

The awareness of polysemy is very useful for two main reasons mentioned by McCarthy (2002):

a- You need to be aware that the meaning you first learnt for a word may not be the one that it has in a new context.

b- Learning about the range of meaning that a word can have can help you, as it were, to learn several meanings for the price of one.

* On the other hand the term “*hyponymy*” is defined as the state of “several words with the same shape”.

Saeed (1997:63) distinguish between homonyms {the same phonological word}, homographs {senses of the same written word} and homophones {senses of the same spoken word}.

Knowing a word means knowing its sound and meanings. Both aspects are necessary, for the same sounds can sometimes mean different thing. When

different words are pronounced the same but have different meanings, they are called homonyms or homophones. They may have the same or different spelling. to , too and two are homophones since they are all pronounced as /tu:/ ; *will* as in last will and testament , and *Will* , the man's name and *will* to denote future tense mean different things but are spelt and pronounced identically . Homonyms may create ambiguity. A word or a sentence is ambiguous if it can be understood or interpreted in more than one way.

O' Grady (1987:270) explained that “homophony exist where a single form has two or entirely distinct meanings.

- The following table shows some homophones in English:

Word	Meaning {A}	Meaning {B}
1- bat	A flying mouse like nocturnal mammal.	A piece of equipment use in cricket or baseball.
2- bank	A financial institution	A small cliff at the edge of the river.
3- club	A social organization	A blunt weapon.
4- plot	A plan of literacy work	A small piece of ground.
5- pen	A writing instrument	A small cage.

Also Palmer (1976:101) suggested that “there are some complications in the fact that we do not make the same distinction in writing and speech. Thus *lead* {metal} and *lead* {dog's lead} are spelt in the same way but pronounced differently, while *site* and *sight* /*rite* and *write* are spelt differently but pronounced in the same way. For the former the term “homography” may be used, for the later “homophony”.

There is a problem with words having many meanings, for example: can we say that “fan” is a one word having more than one meaning {polysemy} or there are two different words having the same form {homonymy}?

Also we find some semanticists agreed with the last point of view; such as O'Grady (1987:270) when he stated "polysemy and homonymy create lexical ambiguity in that the single form has two or more meanings".

Thus a sentence such a "John bought a pen" could mean either that he purchased an instrument or that he bought a small cage?

- How this problem can be solved?

Dictionaries can solve this problem by *entries*. Entries are based on *etymology* {the study of the sources of the words}.

Palmer (1976:102) stated that "dictionaries usually base their decision upon etymology. If it is known that identical forms have different origins, they are treated as homonymous and given separate entries; if it is known that they have one origin even if they have different meanings, they are treated as polysemic and given a single entry in the dictionary".

2.10 RelationalOpposites:

A quite different kind of "opposite" is found with pairs of words which exhibit the reversal of a relationship between items Palmer (1976:97).

If John sells to Fred, Fred buys from John and if Bill is Marry's husband; Marry is Bill's wife, but as the researcher explained in the section of *antonymy* there are many semanticists suggest the term *converseness* to be used here, So according to Lyon's point of view there is no difference between converseness and relational opposites.

There are several verbs that are pairs in this way: {buy/sell, lend / borrow, rent / let}. There are also nouns: husband /wife, parent /child, debtor /creditor.

A number of terms referring to spatial position such as: above / below, in front / behind, north of / south of, etc. In grammar, too, active and passive exhibit relational opposition, for if Tom hits Harry; Harry is hit by Tom (ibid).

2.11 Collocations:

It refers to the way words tend to co-occur with other words or expressions. For example, we normally say tell + the truth, but not (say the truth).

Firth (195:124) argued that “you shall know a word by the company it keeps” (cited by Palmer 1976).

For Firth this keeping, which he called *collocations*, was part of the meaning of a word; also other semanticists such as McCarthy and O’Dell (2002:8) defined collocations as “words are used with each other or collocate in fairly fixed ways in English.

In spite of the previous definitions of collocations, we find that Palmer (1976:76) argued that “collocation is not simply a matter of association of ideas. For, although milk is white we should not often say *white milk*; white paint is a quite common expression . May be because there are other different colors of paint but milk is nothing but white”.

* Students need to learn collocation because it will help them to speak and write English in a natural and accurate way. Learning collocation will also help them to increase their range of vocabulary. Students also can vary their speech in addition to their writing by selecting as many collocations as they can.

2.12 Idioms:

We cannot predict for any given language, whether a particular meaning will be expressed by a single word or by a sequence of words Palmer (1976:79). If an idiom is taken word by word, the meaning of the resultant combination is going to be opaque, so the meaning of the idiom is not related to the meaning of the individual words.

Idioms involve collocation of a special kind. Consider for instance the expression *kick the bucket* , we not only have the collocation of *kick* and *thebucket* , but also the fact that the meaning of the resultant combination is opaque as what it has been mentioned before , so it is not related to the meaning of a single word thus;*kick the bucket* = *die* .

A very common type of idiom in English is what is usually called the *phrasal verb*, the combination of verb plus adverb of the kind make up, give in, put down. The meaning of this combination cannot be predicted from the individual verb and adverb.

* Another examples of phrasal verbs could be:

Give up -----→ quit /stop.

Look for -----→ search /seek.

Cut off -----→interrupt.

Look forward -----→expect.

Carry on -----→continue.

Put in -----→dress.

Oxford Idioms Dictionary for Learners (157:161) provided some examples for idioms:

1. Be on your guard= be prepared for something.
2. Have a gun to your head = be forced to do something that you don't want to do.
3. Go hand in hand = be closely or connected with something.
4. You can lead a horse to water but you cannot make it drink (saying).

* Some examples to clarify the previous idioms (respectively):

1. We must all be on our guard against bomb attack.
2. He went back to his wife because he had a gun to his head.
3. Poverty tends to go hand in hand with disease.
4. This saying means “You can give somebody the opportunity to do something but you can't force him to do it if he doesn't want to do”.

So the awareness of idioms is very important and it should be taken into consideration by the learner, because as what it has been mentioned they can't be inferred by knowing the meaning of individual words.

Therefore, when you learn English idioms, you take English out of textbook and into the real world.

That is because in the real world there is natural English which can be spoken at an informal level and it is the idioms in the language that give it a natural, conversational and creative feel”.

Previous Studies:

This section deals with some related studies that dealt with the topic (sense relations and its role in learning vocabulary) but these studies are discussed with different points of views and different perspectives.

The researcher sums up two of these studies then gives some comments to show how these studies relate or partially relate to his study. Therefore the following researchers may be partially agreed with his study:

Elgizoli (2014) conducted study on (investigating the use of lexical semantic relations to promote vocabulary instructions at 3rd grade secondary school level in Sudan) and this study was processed to achieve the following aims:

1. To examine the actual use of lexical semantic relations among secondary school students and to what extent these relations are used to enhance vocabulary learning and teaching.
2. To examine the methods used to high light new words in texts.
3. To observe students attitudes towards the techniques used by teachers to present new words.

We also find that this researcher used test and questionnaire in dealing with his study.

The most major important findings were:

1. Teachers tent to use some semantic relations more than some others. Antonymy and synonymy are the most used by most of the teachers, whereas collocations, idioms and homonymy are the least type of relations.
2. Students and teachers’ book does not contain a single tip instruction or hint to guide the learners on how to use vocabulary learning strategies.
3. Most of the students claim that ‘synonymy and antonymy’ were the easiest part of the test although they achieved poorly in these two parts of the test.

Also this researcher recommends the following:

- a. Words should be grouped in different types of semantic field (lexical sets) such as: similar meaning, opposites, derivatives, idioms or multi words, verbs, inclusion and so on.
- b. The aim should be directed to increasing learners' (collocational competence) with the vocabulary they have already got.
- c. Students' awareness of words families should be raised.

A similar study was conducted by Mabrook (2011) under the title of {Improving Lexis in Secondary Schools in Saudi Arabia} and the most important objectives of this study were to find ways to improve school students knowledge of vocabulary by helping them to:

- a. Increase learners' stock of vocabulary by using the word relations like antonyms and synonyms.
- b. Help them to generate different words according to their parts of speech.
- c. Help them to guess the meaning from the context.

In dealing with this study we find that the researcher used the "test" as a method of data collections. The major and the most important findings of his research indicate clearly the students' text book is lacking of lexis usage therefore the students are not able to distinguish between suffixes and prefixes , also they are weak in word relations such as synonyms and antonyms and the study proved their effectiveness .

The researcher recommended that vocabulary building is related to the concept of building words.

Also he recommends the following:

- The teachers should provide students with multiple exposures to words meaning' in multiple contexts .
- The current curriculum in Saudi Arabia should consist of suffixes, prefixes, synonyms , antonyms , homonyms , to help the students to make coherent sentences .

In the present study the research focused on vocabulary learning through sense relations and the results reveals that the students need more practicing in some of

these relations such as ploysemy , homonymy and collocations and also the study showed their weakness in guessing the meaning through spoken and written Context , therefore the researcher recommended that the students should be given more exercises and practicing in these relations and also finding ways in how to guess the meaning through the context .

In comparisons with the previous studies, it should be said that there are some points of intersection between the two previous studies and the present one.