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**Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research**  
**University of Babylon**  
**College of Basic Education**  
**Department of English**



## **Lexical Relations Functionalizing in Fourth Preparatory School English Textbook**

A Thesis Submitted to the Council of College of Basic Education/  
University of Babylon in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a  
Foreign Language

**By**

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**2023 A.D**

**1445 A.H**

بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ

﴿يَرْفَعُ اللّٰهُ الذّٰیْنَ اٰمَنُوْا مِنْكُمْ وَاَلَّذِیْنَ اُوْتُوْا الْعِلْمَ

دَرَجٰتٍ وَّاللّٰهُ یَمَّا تَعْمَلُوْنَ خَبِیْرٌ﴾

(سورة المجادلة/11)

**In the name of God, the most gracious, the most  
merciful**

**﴿Allah will raise in ranks those who believed from  
among you and those who are given knowledge and  
Allah is All-Aware of what you do ﴾**

**(Al-Mujadila, verse 11)**

**Translated by (Al-Hilali and Khan, 2016: 542)**

## **Dedication**

To everyone who made this work possible.

The researcher

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It is Him in the first place then the rest come, Allah who without him I would accomplish nothing. After Allah, I would like to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to my supervisor **Asst. Prof. Wafaa Mokhlos (Ph.D)** for her competent supervision. Deep thanks to the members of the jury for their cooperation. Special thanks and appreciation to all my colleagues who helped and supported me.

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## **Abstract**

Lexical relations are one of the most significant semantic relations when examining the meanings of words in the English language. They were primarily used to analyze word meanings in relation to one another within sentences. These relations differ according to the type of relationship a word may have with another word or words.

Since the textbook plays an important role in teaching learning process in EFL classroom, it is been noticed that highlighting lexical aspect is ignored in the process of evaluation English textbook. The current study is interested in the linguistic analysis of the lexical relations in Iraqi fourth preparatory English textbook. It concentrates on the investigation of the types and the functions of these relations.

The aim of the study is to find out the most frequent type of these relations and the most important linguistic functions in the content of English textbook. In order to achieve the aims of the study, the researcher construct a checklist and analyzed the whole units in the textbook and literature focus section in the English textbook.

The results show that the most frequent type of lexical relations in the textbook is homonymy, and they show the linguistic functions of these relations in the English textbook. In light of the results , the researcher recommends teachers to pay attention to lexical aspect in EFL classroom. The researcher also suggests conducting similar studies concerning the other books in the series of English textbooks "English for Iraq" for preparatory and intermediate stages.

## Table of Contents

<b>Subject</b>	<b>Pages</b>
Acknowledgments.....	III
Abstract .....	VIII
Table of Contents .....	..IX
List of Tables .....	XII
List of Figures.....	XIII
List of Abbreviations.....	XIV
List of Appendices.....	XV

### Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Statement of the Problem.....	1-2
1.2 Research Questions.....	3
1.3 Aims of the Study.....	3
1.4 Limits of the Study.....	3
1.5 Value of the Study.....	3
1.6 Procedures.....	4
1.7 Definitions of Basic Terms.....	4-5

### Chapter Two: Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.1 An Introductory Note.....	6
2.2 Language and the Concept of Semantics.....	6-7
2.3 Lexical Relations.....	8-9
2.4 Characteristics of Lexical Relations.....	10-11
2.5 Kinds of Lexical Relations.....	12
2.5.1 Synonymy.....	12-13

<b>2.5.2 Classification of Synonyms .....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>2.5.3 Antonymy.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.5.4 Kinds of Antonymy.....</b>	<b>15-16</b>
<b>2.5.5 Hyponymy.....</b>	<b>17-18</b>
<b>2.5.6 Meronymy.....</b>	<b>20-21</b>
<b>2.5.7 Homonymy.....</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>2.5.8 Classification of Homonymy .....</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>2.6 Origins of Homonyms.....</b>	<b>24-25</b>
<b>2.7 Polysemy.....</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>2.8 The Distinctions Between Homonymy and Polysemy.....</b>	<b>26-27</b>
<b>2.9 Meaning in English.....</b>	<b>28-29</b>
<b>2.10 Lexical Function.....</b>	<b>29-30</b>
<b>2.11 Textbook.....</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>2.12 Advantage and Disadvantage of Using Textbook.....</b>	<b>31-32</b>
<b>2.13 The Role of Textbook in Classroom.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>2.14 Previous Studies.....</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>2.13 Comparison of the Previous Studies with the Current Study....</b>	<b>37</b>

### **Chapter Three: Methodology**

<b>3.1 An Introductory Note.....</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>3.2 Research Design.....</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>3.3 The Population and the Sample of the Study.....</b>	<b>42</b>
<b>3.4 Instrument of Data Collection.....</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>3.5 Validity of the Checklist.....</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>3.6 Reliability of the Results.....</b>	<b>44</b>

**3.7 The Statistical Instruments.....45-46**

**Chapter Four: Results and Discussions**

**4.1 An Introductory Note..... 47**

**4.2 Results Presentation..... 47**

**4.3 Discussion of Results..... 64-65**

**Chapter Five: Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies**

**5.1 An Introductory Note.....65**

**5.2 Conclusions.....65**

**5.3 Recommendations.....66**

**5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies.....67**

**References.....69**

**Appendices.....77**

**Abstract in Arabic..... 82**

## List of Tables

<b>Title</b>	<b>Pages</b>
<b>3.1 Textbook's Units ,Topics , and Number of Lessons.....</b>	<b>42-43</b>
<b>3.2 Reliability Coefficient.....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>4.1 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (1)...</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>4.2 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (2)....</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>4.3 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (3)....</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>4.4 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (4)....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.5 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (5)....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>4.6 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (6)....</b>	<b>56</b>
<b>4.7 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (7)....</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>4.8 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (8)....</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>4.9 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in The whole textbook Units.....</b>	<b>61</b>
<b>4.10 Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Literature focus Section.....</b>	<b>62</b>

## List of Figures

<b>Title</b>	<b>Pages</b>
<b>Figure (1) Hyponyms of Bird .....</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>Figure (2) Meronyms of Car .....</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>Figure (3) Percentages of Lexical Relations in The Whole Textbook.....</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>Figure (4) Percentages of Lexical Relations in Literature Focus Section.....</b>	<b>63</b>

## List of Abbreviations

EFL.....English as a Foreign Language

## **List of Appendices**

<b>Title</b>	<b>Pages</b>
<b>Appendix (1) The Initial Form of the checklist.....</b>	<b>77</b>
<b>Appendix (2) The Final Form of the checklist .....</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>Appendix (3) Names of Jury Members.....</b>	<b>81</b>

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.1 Statement of the Problem

Language is not only a random collection of lexical items or words (Bloomfield, 1961). So, from a semantic perspective, they are arranged by specific semantic relations. These relations are called meaning, lexical, and sense relations.

According to Kenworthy (1991), the description of a word's meaning is difficult, and the field of study that focuses on the detailed description of a word's meaning in modern linguistics is lexical semantics. Lexical semantics is completely concerned with exploring how words relate to one another in terms of their meanings.

Lexical relations, which include synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, homonymy, meronymy, and polysemy, are one of the important subfields of lexical semantics. The significance of lexical relations is primarily evident in a variety of communicative events and situations, particularly when a word's meaning needs to be clarified or extended. Sometimes, speakers will define terms based on their relationships while employing them in everyday speech or in any other context.

Trask (1999) makes the generalization that a word's meaning is tied to the meaning of other words in ways that may be easy or difficult. For instance, the word "young" is more closely associated with "old" than with "lazy" . Furthermore, the word " *rose*" is related to the *flower*, the *lilac*, and the color *red* in many ways.

Instead of describing a word's meaning in terms of its component characteristics, one could instead do so by considering how it relates to other words, or, in other words, by looking at its lexical relations.

These relations are said to be one of the challenges or issues that English students have while learning and understanding these relations and these issues may include that they cannot differentiate between the types of these relations, their meaning, or their functions especially when they frequently choose the wrong lexical item for the context in which it is used, resulting in inaccuracies in their spoken communication.

The other problem that faces EFL students is when writing essays, they complain of the lack of words and how to relate the meaning of a word with another words because meaning is not in isolated words and learning words alone will not help students enhance their lexical competence. Understanding the various relationships between words is also necessary.

English textbooks, being one of the most important resources for teaching and learning materials in the EFL classroom, have an impact on language learners' performance and ability. Because they are the most often utilized learning materials for imparting knowledge and skills, textbooks are seen as one of the elements that influence learners' performance since they help language acquisition (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Accordingly, to the best knowledge of the researcher there is a gap in highlighting these lexical relations, and they have not been fully investigated from a linguistic perspective in English textbook. In order to fill this gap, it is crucial to conduct a linguistic analysis of the teaching and learning syllabuses followed in the English textbook to investigate the types and functions of these relations adequately and precisely in

order to provide teachers and students with a better understanding of the English language.

## **1.2 Research Questions**

1. Which type and subtype of lexical relation is the most frequent in the fourth preparatory English textbook?
2. What are the functions of lexical relations in the fourth preparatory English textbook?

## **1.3 Aims of the Study**

This research aims at:

1. Finding out the most frequent types of lexical relations in the fourth preparatory English textbook.
2. Pinpointing the functions of lexical relations in the fourth preparatory English textbook.

## **1.4 Limits of the Study**

This study is limited to:

1. the fourth preparatory English textbook "English for Iraq" (2017) .
2. semantic relations, which include synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, homonymy, meronymy, and polysemy.

## **1.5 Value of the Study**

1. This study is important because it enables teachers and students to know the meanings of these lexical relations and show the differences among them.

2. The study is valuable since it helps the students recognize new words and the relations among them and motivates them to recognize the context in which new words are used.

3. This study may draw the attention of language teachers to the significance of the lexical aspect in the EFL classroom and help them improve their communicative abilities.

## **1.6 Procedures**

The following steps are taken to fulfill the study's objectives:

1. Reviewing the literature on English lexical relations.
2. Reviewing teaching materials (activities) which are found in the sample of the study, i.e. (Fourth preparatory English textbook).
3. Constructing analytical tool and analyzing teaching materials in the textbook and identifying the important lexical relations.
4. Constructing a percentages table for the gathered data.
5. Interpreting the results and drawing conclusions.

## **1.7 Definitions of Basic Terms**

**1. Lexical relations:** Lexical relations, according to Bolinger (1968), are the relations between the meanings of various words. It investigates how the lexicon is structured and how lexical items' meanings relate to one another (Palmer,1976).

**The operational definition** refers to lexical items meanings relate to one another in fourth preparatory school textbook .

**2. Lexical function:** Lexical function is defined as the function which associates with a specific lexical unit or with a group of lexical expressions (Mel'čuk and Mili'cevi'c, 2020)

**The operational definition** of Lexical function refers to part that a specific lexeme contributes to the meaning of utterance that the speaker tries to convey depending on relations between words ,and expressions.

**3. Textbook:** The textbook is defined as a book that serves as a shared source of knowledge for systematic subject analysis as well as a teaching and learning resource (Graves, 2000).

**The operational definition :** Textbook is the main and simplest means that helps students understand a set of written teaching materials in the EFL classroom.

**Chapter Two**  
**Literature Review**  
**and**  
**Previous Studies**

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.1 An Introductory Note**

This chapter consists of two sections. The first section is a theoretical background on lexical relations in the English language. The second section is an overview of previous studies.

#### **2.2 Language and the Concept of Semantics**

Language is a vital instrument for interaction and communication on a global level. Because of its influence in a number of fields, including science, education, engineering, medicine, journalism, and technology. English is considered the language spoken by most people all over the world (Rao, 2019) .

Since meaning is essential to language fundamental existence, many linguists claim that language cannot be fully explained without it. (Mackey, 1965).

The branch of linguistics that focuses on the study of English meaning is semantics (Crystal, 2003). Semantics is defined by different authors. It is the study of the relationship between linguistic expressions' form and meaning in order to describe the meaning of linguistic expressions. In other words, it has been noticed that this term refers to the study of the meanings of both words and sentences (Kreoger, 2018).

According to Kempson (1977), semantic theory must meet the following three requirements:

1- It must describe the nature of word meaning and sentence meaning in all languages and explain how they relate to one another.

2-It must be able to anticipate ambiguities among sentences in a language, whether they are in words or sentences.

3-It needs to describe and explain the linguistic systemic relations between words and sentences.

As stated by Barrier (2016), semantics is a field of study that concentrates on the meaning of words, phrases, or any other type of representation or conveying of ideas.

Riemer (2010) mentions that semantics is considered as one of the primary subfields of linguistics. It focuses on the investigation of meaning of words, sentences, and various linguistic expressions. Finding out the meanings of words, their relations with one another, and how those meanings connect to one another is an essential goal of semantics. It differentiates the conventional meaning from other meanings. As a result, semantics is a tool for defining linguistic statements' meaning and showing how this meaning varies depending on the grammatical structure or context in which they occur.

Semantics, a subfield of linguistics, is concerned with the study of meaning, changes in meaning, and the rules that control the relations between sentences or words and their meanings as mentioned by Boucharence (2008). It also refers to the study of how signs and symbols relate to the meanings they convey.

According to Stringer (2019), semantics is the study of how language is used to represent meaning. The goal of semantics is to clarify how

speakers and listeners use language to encode and decode literal meanings.

Nerlich (1992), states that The word *semantick* appeared for the first time in the 17th century when it was used to describe the meaning of "divination" in the phrase "semantick philosophy". The American Philological Association's report from 1894 contained the first use of the English notion of semantics. It is not a conventional term, but it has recently been added to English.

The French linguist Michael Breal, a professor of comparative grammar, first used the term "semantiqu" in 1883 in an article titled "the Intellectual laws of the language: a sketch on semantics." Informally, this idea was also used in 1878 in the letter which was introduced to Angelo de Gubernatis. Breal's work in comparative philology serves as the origin of semantics (Breal ,1991).

According to Crystal (1981), the historical development of words is related to the conventional study of meaning. Green (2007) asserted that the historical development of meaning and how it might change depending on the periods in history have been a part of semantics.

As a result, there are two major reasons for the change in meaning. Historical change is the first, and the psychological process is the second, as listed by Geeraets (2010).

## **2.3 Lexical Relations**

Lexical relations are the semantic relations which words contract with each other within the linguistic system on the basis of their sense. (Finch, 2000).

Using shared and distinctive characteristics, sense relations attempt to classify lexemes in order to describe lexical relations. Its task is to explain the relations between the meanings of various language expressions (Kreidler,1998).

Considering that words are containers for meaning, which they are referred to as lexemes and other times as lexical items , they can also be related to one another (Yule, 2020) . In everyday conversation, the speakers use the relationships between words to clarify their meanings. For instance, if someone asks what the word **conceal** means, we can simply respond, "It's the same as **hide**," or we might explain that **shallow** means "the opposite of **deep**," or the meaning of **pine** "a kind of **tree**". As a result, each word's meaning is described in terms of its relationship to other words rather than its own attributes. This method is used in the semantic characterization of language and considered as a way to analyze lexical relations.

The individual senses of a lexeme might have various sets of relations with other word senses, as stated by Jeffries (2006). Sense relations are the relationships between various word senses. A word sense can enter into a variety of sense relations based on the relationships between words. These various sense relationships are more in common than what their conventional names would imply.

Similar to this, Trask and Stockwell (2007) assert that there are numerous ways in which word meanings might be connected. Words do not have meanings on their own; rather, a word's meaning is frequently significantly tied to the meanings of other words. some of the most significant of these connections between meanings are referred to as sense relations.

Although the common term "relation" is not entirely clear, in its most basic usage it refers to shared membership in a defined set. The term "relation" covers more than only semantic relations; it also refers to phonetic relations, including rhyme and alliteration, morphological relations, including inflectional variants, and morpho-syntactic relations, including association with a grammatical category (Murphy, 2003).

## 2.4 Characteristics of Lexical Relations

Murphy (2003) indicates that there are a number of characteristics of lexical relations which include the following :

**1. Productivity** : This feature means that new relations can be formed simply. The ability to easily make new instances of relations at any time, or the fact that relations are productive, is one sign that relations are rule-generated. For instance, new reversive antonyms can be created with the verbal prefix *dis-*, as in :

" Increased sophistication in analyzing biochemicals and manipulating genetic stocks also allowed bioscientists to "**disendanger**" species " (Murphy, 2003).

**2. Binariness** refers to the fact that some lexical relations, like antonymy, can only have one real antonym per word, whereas other relations, like synonymy, can relate to a group of words (i.e., a word can have many synonyms) "e.g., *black/white* rather than *black/gray/white*" (Murphy, 2003).

**3. Variability** : This feature means that relations among words changes according to the meaning of word and context. For instance, *luggage* and *baggage* are not semantically identical. They are only synonyms to the degree that they have semantically identical senses or uses. When

referring to portable containers loaded with (often) personal belongings to be transported, as in (a), *luggage* is a synonym for *baggage*. When empty containers are referred to as *luggage*, as in (b), they are not interchangeable (Murphy, 2003).

a. "Check your baggage/luggage with the gate agent".

b. "I bought a new set of luggage/\*baggage for my trip".

**4. Semi-semanticity** : If a certain relationship is thought to exist between two words, it can depend on semantic or non-semantic factors, including grammatical category, co-occurrence in text, and similarity in morphological form. For example, even though *happy* and *joy* signify essentially the same emotional state, they are not acceptable as synonyms because *happy* is an adjective and *joy* is a noun. Many linguists, including Katz, Justeson, and others, had not asserted this feature. The similarity of grammatical categories is less essential to these relations, and semantic relatedness is their primary requirement. For example, the words " *dead* – *live* "represent the concept of opposition in spite of having different classifications (Murphy, 2003).

**5. Uncountability** : It is difficult to determine how many different forms of semantic relations there are. Since semantic relations are an open class, it is hard to list or count them all. For instance, the adjectives *hot* and *cool* are completely opposite when referring to temperatures, but they are alike when discussing clothing (*hot* or *cool* new swimwear). Of course, there are different definitions of *hot* and *cold* in these two relationships which reveals that there is no limit to the number of senses a word can have. There are an infinite number of potential relationships between the senses of any two words (Murphy, 2003).

**6. Predictability** : This feature means that Semantic relations are predictable when they adhere to a set of generalized patterns and guidelines. Word relations follow common patterns, demonstrating that semantic relations are governed by rules. In terms of senses, register, and commonality, *dead* and *(a)live* are more similar than *deceased* and *alive*. Due to the fact that only cold perfectly duplicates *hot's* characteristics on the scale of temperature, *hot* is better contrasted with *cold* than with *cool* (Murphy, 2003).

**7. Universality** : When describing the lexicon of any language, the same semantic relations are applied. Every language uses the same kinds of semantic relations, and every language uses the same semantic relations to relate concepts. For instance, in English, French, German, and Italian, the word that means "chair" was the most common response to the word that means "table." The answer to "dark" was "light," while the answer to "soft" was "hard" (Murphy, 2003).

## **2.5 Kinds of Lexical Relations**

### **2.5.1 Synonymy**

A synonym is defined by Farghal (1998) as a word that differs phonologically but has a similar meaning.

Two or more lexical items are said to be synonymous if they reveal an extensive degree of overlap in what is referred to as the basic component of meaning, as asserted by Thakur (1999).

According to Harrison (1981), synonymy can be identified by an interchangeable process that occurs when one expression is substituted by another in a particular context.

Salkie (1995) confirms that synonym refers to a word that has identical meaning as another word in the context. It includes the occurrence of lexemes that fairly holds in some way, partial or the same meaning. When two words are synonymous, "lexical items bear a special sort of semantic resemblance to one another," which makes it permissible to employ them interchangeably in specific contexts without significantly changing the meaning of the context.

If two lexical items may be substituted for one another without changing the meaning of the utterance, they can be regarded as synonymous (Aitchson, 2010).

" He snapped the twig in half. "

"He broke the twig in half. "

A linguist can create a picture of words with the same meaning by looking at replaceable items.

Perfect synonyms are uncommon. In other words, it is extremely rare for two lexical items to have the exact same meaning in every situation. Such synonymy between informal and formal vocabulary words can occasionally be observed. For instance, the illness more commonly known as German measles is referred to as rubella in medical literature. However, lexical items typically only partially overlap one another, and they are only interchangeable in specific situations.

Returning to the words *break* and *snap* in the sentences, "He snapped his fingers." and "He broke his fingers", it seems that they are not the same thing. And even though the sentence " He broke the record for the 100-meter sprint" , is appropriate, the sentence "He snapped the record for the

100-meter sprint." would look strange for the majority of English speakers (Aitchson, 2010).

According to Jelnes (1986), words are synonyms when they share the same concept and entirely represent the same idea. Additionally, they must belong to the same category and be found in the same position without changing the meaning of the expressions or sentences in which they are used.

## **2.5.2 Classification of Synonyms**

### **1. Total (Strict ) Synonymy**

Lyons (1979) states that total synonymy occurs when a group of words completely replaces another group of words in a given context without altering the meaning. Interchangeability in all contexts and identity with both cognitive and emotional import are considered the criteria for "total synonymy" (Cruse, 1986). Jackson (2013) asserts that the term "strict synonymy" is used to refer to the definition of synonymy as "interchangeable in all contexts," and many linguists doubt whether this form of synonymy even takes place in language.

### **2. Partial (Loose) Synonymy**

Although synonyms are words with the same meaning, according to Delahunty and Garvey (2010), it is extremely uncommon that any two words have the exact same meaning. Gairns and Redman (1986) confirms that the term synonymy refers to "partial synonymy". Although total synonymy is uncommon, partial synonymy occurs frequently. Two lexemes share a number of meaning variations are widely used like some words that have very similar meanings but are not exactly identical, for example the words *hide* and *conceal* (Lobner,2013). When some words

can replace one another in a different range of contexts but not exactly the same, or when the words share " the same general reference" , the words in this case are called loose synonyms, for instance, " big/large, refuse/decline, freedom/liberty", but there are certainly differences in how loose they are. In this sense, a synonymy is a meaning relation that exists between a large number of lexical items in the English vocabulary(Jackson, 2013).

### **2.5.3 Antonymy**

Fasold and Linton (2016) states that If the semantic meanings of two words are opposed, they are said to be antonyms. For example, the words short and tall are opposites. According to Lott (1988), an antonym is a word or phrase that is semantically opposed to another word or phrase; for instance, "person" and "unperson." In simple terms, as defined by Hu (2001, p. 164), "antonymy is the name for oppositeness relation."

Antonymy means contradiction in meaning, and it also has something associated with word meaning. If the value of just one semantic characteristic differs between the meanings of two words, they are antonyms. "Dead" and "alive", "hot" and "cold", and "above" and "below" are all antonyms. With the exception of having opposite values for a particular semantic characteristic, the meaning of each member of each pair is probably the same (Parker and Riley). For instance, "big/small, ice/hot, and beautiful/ugly". These terms have opposite meanings, and these opposite meanings can be categorical or continuous.

An antonym is "a relation between words, not concepts," according to Gross et al. (1988). Additionally, antonymy is described as a lexical relation that is "specific to words rather than concepts" by Justeson and Katz (1991).

This kind of lexical relation can be used in various parts of speech, as asserted by Jaheed (2021), verbs (fall, rise), nouns (lose, gain) adverbs (early, late), propositions (inside, outside) , and adjectives (shorts, tall), are examples of elements in a sentence that may have an opposite, whereas fragments like (to), pronouns (they), auxiliaries (do), determiners (a, the) , and complementizers (that) do not have opposites.

#### **2.5.4 Kinds of Antonymy**

**1- Complementary Antonymy (Binary):** If there is an either-or relationship between the two terms of a pair of semantic opposites, or if the two antonyms exhaust all options in a given conceptual domain (for example, asleep-awake, dead - alive, live - die, pass - fail), then they are complementary or binary antonyms .In these situations, the meaning of one lexeme is equivalent to the other lexeme's negation (Kortmann ,2020).

**2- Gradable Antonymy :** Gradable antonyms are examples of contraries that either implicitly or clearly refer to the field that will be used for grading or the standard of comparison (Maienborn et al. , 2019).

Contraries, or just antonyms, are various other terms for gradable antonyms. Despite that, the term "antonymy" can also be used to refer to "oppositeness" in a broader sense. "Hot and cold", and "old and young" are some examples of gradable antonyms, and also some pairs of nouns like "beginning and end", " war and peace", etc. (Kortmann ,2020).

The majority of gradable antonyms consist of adjective pairs. In the sense that one of the two contrasting lexemes can appear in more contexts than the other, some of these pairs exhibit some asymmetry. Therefore, the words old or long are used, rather than young or short, to indicate a person's age or the length of an object, respectively. The terms in pairs

like old-young and long-short differ in their degree of markedness: the term having a broader range of uses is referred to as unmarked (old, long), while the phrase with a more constrained use is marked (young, short) (Kortmann ,2020).

**3-Relational antonymy** : Also known as converse , is another category of antonyms. They express the same situation from different viewpoints, for example," John is Mary's teacher vs. Mary is John's pupil". Other examples include pairs of deverbal nouns ending in -er and -ee (such as *employer* and *employee*, *examiner* and *examinee*), comparative forms of adjectives (older and younger, longer and shorter), pairs of verbs like *give* and *take*, *buy* and *sell*, and pairs of prepositions like *above* and *below* (Kortmann ,2020).

**4- Directional antonymy** :The fourth sort of antonymy, directional oppositeness (reverses), refers to a change in direction (particularly motion in different directions), rather than various viewpoints on the same circumstance. "Open-close", "push-pull", "come-go", "leave-return", and " button-unbutton" are a few examples of this kind of antonym (Kortmann ,2020).

### **2.5.5 Hyponymy**

The semantic notion of "inclusion" is referred to as hyponymy according to Halliday and Hassan (1976). It's a technique for connecting words in a text. This relation involves two lexemes; one is a particular instance of the other's more common word.

I want a *hot drink*. I prefer *tea*.

In this case, the relation between "hot drink" and "tea" is hyponymous since "tea" is regarded as a component of the overall "hot drink".

According to Harmer (2001, p. 19), "the relationship that defines the meaning of words to each other" is hyponymy.

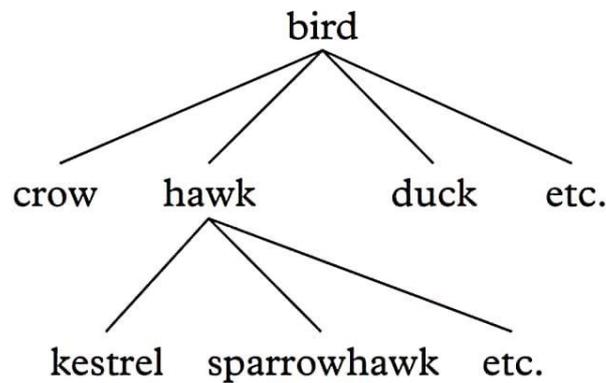


Figure (1) Hyponyms of bird

Cruse (2006) defines hyponymy as the symmetrical relationship of sense, for example, between *dog* and *animal* and between *daffodil* and *flower*. According to Bussmann (1996) and Hearst (1992), hyponymy is considered the semantic class that pertains to the lexical relations that take place between words. A hyponymy is a lexical item or phrase whose sense is found within another lexis. Its hypernym or hyponym is referred to as a *superordinate*. (Goatly, 2012; Eco, 1986)

Another example that is used in the description of verbs is provided by Richards and Schmidt (2010) : the word "walk" refers to a particular sort of movement, while the word "move" is a broader category that includes more specific categories like "walk," "run," "swim," and so on. The category defined by the superordinate term includes the category denoted by the hyponym as a subcategory; therefore, the category of actions of movement also includes subcategories of acts of *walking*, *running*, and *swimming*.

According to Trask (1999), the concept of hyponymy refers to the logical relationship of entailment that exists between either words or sentences. For instance, a rose is a flower; however, the opposite is not correct. Similar to this, Brinton (2000) provides a different example between the claims made in the sentences: "Alan lives in Canada" entails " Alan lives in Toronto". The fact that "Alan lives in Canada" does not necessarily mean he does so in Toronto.

There are a number of fundamental characteristics of hyponymy. According to Cruse (1986), as ( cited in Geeraerts (2010:83)), hyponymy plays a major role in defining. By considering the idea of inclusion, which forms the core of hyponymy, it is possible to determine the definitional significance of hyponymy, and in addition to being significant for noun descriptions, hyponymy also plays a role in the descriptions of verbs and, to a lesser extent, adjectives, as confirmed by Griffiths (2006).

One of the most important characteristics of hyponymy is that it represents a 'one-way' relation that is not always simple, i.e., one proposition implies another while the opposite is incorrect. This aspect helps in the construction of an idea of lexical structure (Radford et al., 2009).

The relation between hyponyms and their closer or farther superordinates is significant in the cognitive structure of thinking and writing, as asserted by Peters (2004). It permits us to ascend and descend the "ladder of abstraction" in a persuasive piece of writing. Peters(2004), continues by saying that hyponymy assists the writers with expanding their ideas, formulating claims, and creating cohesion in their writing.

Jeffries (2006) states an additional feature of hyponymy is that it reflects the hierarchical nature of specific vocabulary categories, which is useful for describing language.

Additionally, hyponymy is a patchy relationship that reveals how human language can organize some features of human experience in a fairly detailed way while leaving other areas of experience just vaguely related and not existing. For instance, the gendered words sister and brother, which refer to both male and female, do not exist in English Jeffries (2006).

### 2.5.6 Meronymy

Mathews (1997) confirms that this term refers to the relation that takes place between lexical items where the things, objects, etc. signified by one are components of those denoted by the other; for instance, "sleeve" is a meronym of "coat," "dress," or "blouse".

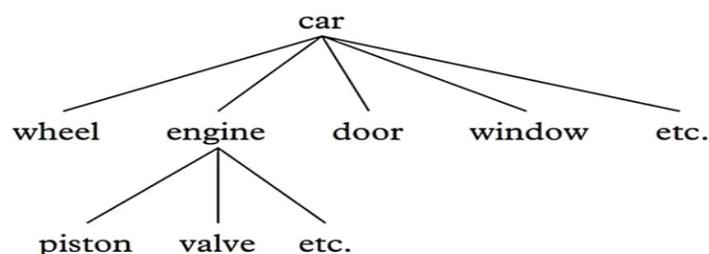


Figure (2) Meronyms of Car

Saeed (2016) states that the term "meronymy" refers to a part-to-whole relation between lexical items. As a result, *page* and *cover* are

considered meronyms of a *book*. Sometimes the word "book" as a whole is referred to as a **holonym**.

This relation can be identified by using sentence structures like "X is part of Y" or "Y has X," as in "A *page* is part of a *book*" or "A book has pages." Meronymy reflects taxonomies like hierarchical classification in the lexicon.

Meronymic hierarchies lack consistency and clarity more than taxonomies. Meronyms differ, for instance, in how crucial a component is to the whole. Some are common but not essential, like the collar as a meronym of a shirt, while others are optional, like the cellar as a meronym of a house. Some are necessary for typical examples, such as the nose as a meronym of the face(Saeed, 2016) .

Transitivity is another way that meronymy differs from hyponymy. Meronymy may or may not be transitive, but hyponymy is constantly transitive. Nail as a meronym of finger and finger as a meronym of hand are examples of transitive verbs. A window has a pane, and a room has a window, but pane is not a meronym of room since the speaker cannot say A room has a pane. This is an example of a non-transitive phrase. Or a hole is the meronym of a button, and a button as meronym of a shirt. However, since shirts have holes, the speaker wouldn't want to claim that a hole is a meronym of a shirt (Saeed, 2016).

Meronymy and hyponymy are different in some ways that give each relationship its own entity. One of the primary distinctions, according to Meyer (2009, p. 175), is that although hyponymy indicates the idea that anything "is a kind, type, or sort of," meronymy indicates the idea that the concept "is a part of." Their differentiation is now sufficiently evident. A

dog is a type of animal, but it is not a part of an animal; a hand belongs to a body, and it is a part of a body.

The semantic features of a more general word serve as part of the description of a more specific word in a hyponym, whereas in a meronym, the semantic features of the whole serve as part of the description of the part in an exclusive relationship that holds between co-meronyms (Jeffries, 2006).

### **2.5.7 Homonymy**

The term is defined by Rothwell (2007, p.8) as "a word that is spelt the same way as another word but sounds differently, to a word that is spelt the same way and sounds identical too, and to a word that sounds the same as another word, but is spelt differently".

Homonyms are words that have different origins and meanings but the same spelling and pronunciation, such as "steer" (to guide), "steer" (young bull), and "bark" (of dog, of tree), as stated by Potter (1971). A homonym is defined as "one of ambiguous words whose different senses are far apart from one another and not obviously related to each other in any way" (Hurford and Heasley, 1983).

According to Bebbington (1970), a word is a homonym if its pronunciation and spelling remain the same, but its meaning alters.

The definition of a homonym, as stated by Neufeldt and Guralink (1988), is "a word with the same pronunciation as another, but with different meaning, origin, and typically, spelling; for example, bore-boor".

According to Gramele and Patzold (1992), homonymy is the existence of several lexemes with the same pronunciation or spelling but have unrelated meanings.

## **2.5.8 Classification of Homonymy**

### **1. Complete Homonyms**

These kinds of homonyms share the same sound and spelling, i.e., their identity encompasses spoken as well as written forms. For example, bank (embankment) and bank (location where money is held) (Lyons, 1982; Allan, 1986). It is a type of homonym in which words fulfill all of the conditions required to complete them. They would be phonetically, graphically, and syntactically identical. They are articulated in the same way, have the same shape, and have the same part of speech. (Kortmann,2020).

### **2. Partial Homonyms**

They are those in which the identity is expressed through a single medium, as in homophony and homography. As a result, homophones and homographs are classified as partial homonyms (Crystal, 2003).

#### **A-Homograph**

Bejan(2017) states that homonymy in written form is referred to as homography : V. tear [t] / N. tear [ti] ; V. wind [waind] / N. wind [wind] ; V. wound [waund] / N. wound [wund]. Homonyms having different pronunciations but the same spelling are referred to as homographs. Homonygraphs are words that have the same spelling but not necessarily the same sound, as asserted by Greenbaum and Nelson (2009). (3) row

('line of items') when it rhymes with no, or 'quarrel' when it rhymes with how.

## **B-Homophone**

Homonymy derives from the Greek "homofonos," where "homo" means "the same" and "phon" means "a sound," literally "samesounding" (Fromkin and Rodman, 1988). This type of homonyms is defined by different authors as follows :

A homophone, according to Hornby et al. (1974, p. 416), is "a word pronounced like another but different in meaning or spelling; for example, sum / some, new / knew ". Homophones are defined as "words with two spellings and two meanings but only one pronunciation", (Masterson, 2000, p. 30 as cited in Salman (2013) ).

A case of homophony occurs when two lexemes with different meanings have the same sound shape. Homonyms with the same sound but distinct spellings are referred to as homophones. For instance, "threw / through, write / right, there / their, whole / hole, to / two –too". (Bejan,2017,p.156-157)

## **2.6 Origins of Homonyms**

### **1. Foreign Influence**

Since a lot of words were acquired from other languages as the English language developed, there are a large number of homonyms in the language. The borrowed lexemes occasionally overlapped with lexemes in the recipient language because they were modified to the English language's phonetic system and also affected by sound alterations (Cruse, 2000).

For instance, *fray*<sup>2</sup> ('a discussion or fight'), an existent noun in English deriving from Middle English *fray*, overlaps with *fray*<sup>1</sup> ('being worn through e.g. textiles'), a verb from French *frayer* (Latin *fricare*) (Lyons, 1977)

## **2. Phonetic Convergence**

Rodd (2013) states that the most common cause of homonymy is sound convergence.

As a result of phonetic alterations, words that had various forms before fell together and become the same in spoken language; they sometimes even coincide in writing. This type of homonymy is most common in languages with a large number of monosyllabic lexemes, such as English.

## **3. Semantic Divergence**

Homonymy can also be caused by sense-development going in different directions. When the meanings of a lexeme diverge so much that no relationship can be identified between them, polysemy is replaced by homonymy, and the unity of the word is lost. These homonyms are known as secondary homonyms.

"This type of homonymy is the exact opposite of the process discussed in the previous section: reinterpreting homonyms as if they were one word with two senses." In one stage, two words combine to generate one form, while in the other, one lexeme splits into two, which is the more usual case (Lyons, 1977).

## **4. Coincidence**

Sigar (1999) adds another source of homonyms. By a simple change in sound, two words may coincidentally become homonyms. Even though

their meanings are unrelated, the two words yearn "to desire" and yearn "to mourn" have the same pronunciation.

## **2.7 Polysemy**

According to Moore (2000), the Greek terms poly (many) and semy (meaning) are the origins of the term polysemy. Polysemy is described as the 'multiplicity of meaning.' A polysemy is defined as a single lexeme that has two or more related senses (Bejan,2017). For example, the lexeme head, which has several senses :

"He hit his head on the ceiling".

"the head of the page/ pin"

"the head of our Department"

Because the meanings 'body part,' 'upper end,' and 'position of authority' are all related, the lexeme *head* is a polysemy having three senses.

Culpeper (2005), confirms that polysemy refers to a word with numerous meanings that may be distinguished by using a dictionary or based on the context in which they are used. When two words, "generalization and specialization," represent the link between the word's several meanings. The idea claims that a single word can have two meanings. the primary meaning, which is thought to be a component or a subset of the word's overall meaning, and the secondary meaning, which is the most prevalent and significant one and this kind of relation is called linear relation.

## **2.8 The Distinctions Between Homonymy and Polysemy**

James (1983) suggests a number of parameters, which are shown below:

1. Multiple semantic specifications for the same lexical item exist when there is polysemy. Contrarily, homonymy refers to a case in which multiple morphological specifications exist that have the same phonological and/or orthographic representation (James,1983).
2. Homonyms are not etymologically related, in contrast to polysemy, which has a single and unique etymological ancestor.
3. Finding a core of meaning is the greatest way to solve the homonymy and polysemy conundrum, and homonymous items that share this core meaning should unquestionably be classified as polysemous (James,1983).
4. A polysemic term will have a number of synonyms, each of which corresponds to a different meaning. It will also include a list of antonyms. It is tempting to assert that polysemy exists where the antonym is the same (Pexman, 2004).
5. Homonymous forms are not likely to maintain their ambiguity over the course of a longer discourse, but this could not be true for polysemous terms (Kreidler, 1998).
6. While the context of polysomes may be relatively similar, the context of homonyms consists of quite distinct vocabularies .
7. When a word has several meanings, they are often listed in a dictionary as a single entry with examples of usage in various contexts. When a word has homonymy, its dictionarial entries are listed as independent listemes. In typical dictionaries, homophones have their own entries (James, 1983)

## 2.9 Meaning in English

According to Nida (1975), there are four main ways that various semantic units' meanings can be connected to one another: inclusion, overlapping, complementation, and contiguity.

### 1. Inclusion

It's possible to say that inclusion in relation to one word is included inside the meaning of another. Poodle, for instance, is a part of the word "dog," and dog is a part of the term "animal".

### 2. Overlap

The overlap principle states that "the tendency for meaning to overlap is one of the most obvious features of relatedness of meaning." It is true that one word can explain or convey a diverse meaning.

It is also known as the same sound, but different Meaning. The pair of terms is typically referred to as a synonym. Overlap, however, is not a synonym because their meanings are distinct. For instance, the word "head" can mean many things. The first sense is to a bodily component of ours. The second is that the meaning changes to "headmaster" if the word "head" is added to it, indicating the head of the institution.

### 3. Complementation

"Words that involve a number of shared features of meaning but show certain marked contrast and often opposite meaning" are said to follow the complementation principle. Contrast, often even the opposite, is a characteristic of the complementation principle.

complementation occurs in three different ways for meaning relations: opposing, reversives, and conversives.

The opposite term has associations with a status (e.g., dead X living), quantity (e.g., many x few), circumstance (e.g., single x married), time (e.g., day X night), and movement (e.g., go X come, enter X exit). The word that might reverse the earlier situation is called a reversive. For instance, quarrel versus peace. Additionally, the actor's movements might be seen with the conversives, such as selling x buying and taking x giving.

#### 4. Contiguity

The result of comparable meanings is contiguity. Each interpretation is related to others by at least sharing an essential component. According to Pateda (2010), distinguishing characteristics such as whether an object is alive or not, countable or uncountable, functional, familiar with humans, character, size, and colors might reveal the contiguous meaning.

The phrases bench, seat, chair, and sofa are examples that provide additional explanation. The distinctive characteristics include the type of material (wood or cork), whether a hand chair is there or not, and the expensive or cheap.

## **2.10 Lexical function**

Wanner (1996) states that a lexical function is essentially a specific meaning whose expression is contingent on the lexical unit to which it applies rather than independent. Thus, lexically limited lexical expression of some meanings is the central concept of lexical functions.

In other words, a simple standard lexical function corresponds to a very broad and abstract meaning that can be lexically represented in a wide range of ways, the specifics of which are decided in each instance by the lexical unit used to express the meaning.

A Standard Lexical Function is, by definition, a *deep-lexical unit*, appearing in the representation of the deep syntactic -level; therefore, to characterize function, it is necessary to specify:

1. its meaning/its semantic relation to its keyword of given lexical unit .
2. its deep syntactic -part of speech .
3. the necessary semantic properties and the deep syntactic -part of speech of a given lexical unit
4. (where relevant) the deep syntactic -relation linking a given lexical function to a given lexical unit.

According to Wanner (1996) there are some semantic aspects of (lexical functions) which are the following:

1. Lexical functions are by no means semantic units,
2. Lexical functions tend to be related to some components in the definitions of their keywords,
3. an lexical function can have several semantic subtypes,
4. an lexical function can return different elements of its value contingent on different semantic "facets" of the keyword,
5. Lexical functions are deep-lexical units

Lexical functions are also helpful in choosing the referring expressions in anaphorical relations in a way that avoids boring repetitions and simultaneously ensures the highest level of text cohesion. As a result, when referring to an *ambush*, you can do so by characterizing the participants as *attackers* as in the examples below :

*"An Indonesian patrol was caught in an ambush. The attackers fired three rockets at the soldiers and sprayed them with automatic fire".*

## **2.11 Textbook**

Textbooks are books that cover a certain subject and are used as a reference for teaching and learning, typically in a school or university (Richards & Schmidt 2010).

Since it provides a framework or a guide for both teachers and students on how to achieve the course objectives, a textbook can be viewed as one of the most crucial components of English classes (Turhan & Kirkgoz, 2000).

The media serves as a tool for teachers' instructional activities. Typically, it is employed to facilitate teachers' explanations of instructional materials. A textbook is typically the most widely used of these materials because it is convenient to buy, transport, and learn from. The textbook is still the school's main resource, despite the fact that many different forms of media can compete with print resources (Sholichatun, 2011).

## **2.12 Advantage and Disadvantage of Using Textbook**

The most popular source used in the classroom for knowledge, concepts, and principles on a particular subject is a textbook . The simplest and least expensive option to assist teachers in managing the educational process is to use a textbook, which comes with ready-made resources(Fitriya & Fitria, 2001).

On the other hand, a textbook has some weaknesses that can cause problems for the teachers and students during the teaching-learning process. First off, since a textbook is intended to be the only source of information, students can only see one side of an idea or issue. The textbook is also out-of-date and outmoded. This circumstance renders the information meaningless.

Second, textbook questions are frequently of a low level. Due to this circumstance, the pupils come to believe that education is nothing more than a collection of points of information. Fourth, the textbook does not require teachers to adapt their lessons to each student's unique characteristics and interests, nor does it take into account the student's prior knowledge. Fifth, the reading level of the textbook is excessively high, making it impossible for the student to read or comprehend the reading text's crucial elements. Finally, some textbooks contain all of the solutions to the questions. The students tend to view learning as an accumulation of right answers as a result of this issue (Fredericksen and Collins, 1989).

However, because they have already prepared the necessary teaching materials, textbooks give teachers a ready source of resources to do the real work for their pupils (Callahan, 1966). Textbooks can also help teachers organize their lesson plans and keep their lessons on topic by acting as a reference point. Textbooks are especially helpful in giving support and stability to new, inexperienced teachers who have little confidence in their ability to conduct ELT sessions in a communicative setting (Callahan, 1966).

According to O'Neil (1982), textbooks can serve as a point of reference for their educational process and serve as a way to monitor their growth.

Students can also use textbooks to review material that has already been taught. It is also one of the more affordable and practical ways to get access to expertly packed educational materials.

The learning and teaching process for students and teachers, as well as the standards for every classroom environment, can be framed by textbooks, though. At their worst, teachers can stop planning their lessons and start relying solely on the textbook. In essence, the teacher appears to lose out due to themselves. Instead of teaching the language itself, a teacher "teaches the books" (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994).

### **2.13 The Role of Textbook in Classroom**

When dealing with the material that needs to be taught to the students, a textbook is crucial to the teaching-learning process. Richard (2001) makes reference to the function of textbook materials in language instruction. It must contain the following:

1. A source of inspiration and ideas for class activities.
2. Assisting less experienced employees who are still developing their confidence.
3. A syllabus (which outlines the learning objectives in advance).
4. An informational source for presentations (both oral and written),
5. A textbook is a book that is meant for "instructional use".
6. A source of exercises for communicative practice and engagement; g. A resource for students to consult for grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.

## **2.14 Previous Studies**

### **1- Al-Azzawi (2007)**

#### **"The Effect of Using, Semantic Relation as a New Technique on Learners Achievement in Listening Comprehension"**

The study's objective is to experimentally examine the impact of a new technique called "semantic relations on learners' achievement in listening comprehension". 'The posttest-only control group' experimental design is used to create an experiment that will achieve the study's goal. Balqees preparatory school for girls were divided into two parts at random. The t-test formula is used to statistically examine the test data for two independent samples. It is discovered that the experimental group performs better than the control group in terms of listening comprehension, and that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. It is concluded that a new approach to teaching listening comprehension that incorporates semantic relations enhances the ability and performance of learners in this skill.

### **2. El-Gizoli et.al (2015)**

#### **"Investigating the Use of Lexical Semantic Relations to Enhance Vocabulary Instruction at the 3rd Grade Secondary Level in the Sudan(A Case Study of Khartoum Locality Schools)"**

The purpose of the study is to analyze how lexical semantic relations are actually used in Sudanese secondary schools to better teaching of new words. Additionally, it covered teachers' perspectives on vocabulary instruction and their observations of students' reactions to the introduction of new words. The three portions of the questionnaire's percentage and frequency of replies were examined. Using SPSS software, the mean, t-

test, and standard deviation were computed. To ascertain any significance, the pre-test, post-test, and control group were compared. The study's primary conclusions were supported by an analysis of the structured interview.

### **3. Cheng (2016)**

#### **"A Study on Lexical Sense Relations from the Perspective of Vocabulary Breadth and Word Frequency"**

The breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge are two essential elements that are fundamentally interrelated in the learning of a second language (L2). The size of the vocabulary is actually its breadth. It has been suggested that lexical sense relations, which are an integral aspect of vocabulary depth, can aid in the mastery of L2 words. Word familiarity is considered in terms of word frequency.

The goal of the study is to conduct a synthetical examination of how word frequency and vocabulary size in classroom settings affect the meaning development of L2 words. The integration of qualitative and quantitative features of words aims to provide some pedagogical implications to L2 vocabulary teaching and learning as well as to describe in-depth how students fit the words into their minds.

On the basis of the experiment, it concluded that Chinese adult L2 learners have the tendency to approach L2 words semantically, and vocabulary size and word frequency do affect L2 learners' association types.

#### **4. Aboud Alameh (2018)**

##### **"The Role of Identifying the Lexical Relations among Target Vocabulary Words through Blended Learning on EFL Students' Mastery in Using Target Vocabulary"**

The study's aim is to demonstrate how employing lexical units incorrectly from a semantic perspective leads to the creation of incorrect sentences, which then has an impact on the cooperative communication process. The objective of the study is to increase students' lexical awareness and development so that they can master the target vocabulary. To this end, it will employ an experimental approach, a true experiment, to analyze the data and verify the outcomes of employing various online and offline instruction and tasks.

The study's findings show that EFL students at LIU (Lebanese International University) frequently make substitutional (synonym) lexical errors, but the experimental group's results after receiving a blended pedagogic intervention with a systematic lexical and communicative approach outperformed those of the control group. Because of this, students' abilities to generate an organized written text and understand a reading text were more extensive in the posttest.

#### **5. Abdullzahra (2022)**

This study aims to find out the difficulty faced by Iraqi EFL university students in using lexical relation. It also aims to investigate Iraqi EFL university students' performance recognizing and producing the different lexical relation. The instrument which is used in this study is a test to examine the recognition as well as the production level of Iraqi EFL learners and applying the test to a random sample of students in using

lexical relation. The results represent the performance of group of students in using lexical relation.

## **6. Septiria (2022)**

### **"A Semantics Analysis of Lexical Relations In English Textbook Grade X By Kemendikbud RI"**

The aim of the study was to describe the kinds of lexical relations that can be found in the reading comprehension sections of the English Textbook for Grade X by Kemendikbud RI. A field of semantics that focuses on word meaning is called lexical relations. Words that have meaning relationships with other words are said to have lexical relations. There are six different categories of lexical relations, including homonymy, meronymy, polysemy, antonymy, and hyponymy. This study was descriptive-qualitative in design.

The English Textbook Grade X by Kemendikbud RI was used as the researcher's data source. The researcher examined thirteen passages from the English Textbook for lexical relationships. Otherwise, the researcher divided lexical relations into other categories. The findings of this study indicate that there are 34 examples of lexical relations in the English Textbook for Grade X by Kemendikbud RI. The use of words can be easily understood by readers who have a sufficient understanding of lexical relations.

## **2.15 Comparison of the Previous Studies with the Current Study**

There is no study that, in light of the aforementioned information, fits and completes all the aspects of the current study. They are different in some ways and similar in others. Each of them has particular characteristics that are not shared by the current study.

### **1. Aims**

The first previous study aims to experimentally examine the impact of a new technique called "semantic relations on learners' achievement in listening comprehension" . Gizoli et.al (2015) aim to to analyze how lexical semantic relations are actually used in Sudanese secondary schools to better the teaching of new words.

Cheng (2016) aims to conduct a synthetical examination of how word frequency and vocabulary size in classroom settings affect the meaning development of L2 words.

About Alameh (2018) aims to demonstrate how employing lexical units incorrectly from a semantic perspective leads to the creation of incorrect sentences, which then has an impact on the cooperative communication process. Abdullzahra (2022) aims to find out the difficulty faced by Iraqi EFL university students in using lexical relation.

Septiria (2022) aims to describe the kinds of lexical relations that can be found in the reading comprehension sections of the English Textbook for Grade X by Kemendikbud RI. The current aims to find out lexical relations and their functions in 4<sup>th</sup> preparatory English textbook.

## **2. Samples**

Regarding the kind of samples involved in each of the previous studies there are certain items that the researcher thinks he/she need it for his/her research. Al-Azzawi (2007) sample is Balqees preparatory school for girls were divided into two parts at random. El-Gizoli et.al (2015) includes teachers and students from secondary school. Cheng (2016) includes some pedagogical implications on a group of students. Aboud Alameh (2018) includes students at Lebanese International University.

Abdullzahra (2022) includes a group of Iraqi EFL university students. In Septiria (2022), the sample include reading comprehension sections of the English Textbook for Grade X. The sample of the current study is all the activities in fourth preparatory English textbook "English for Iraq".

**3. Instruments :** Basically, most of the previous studies have used tests such as Al-Azzawi (2007), Cheng (2016), Aboud Alameh (2018), and Abdullzahra (2022), while El-Gizoli et.al (2015) has used two instruments including test and questionnaire and Septiria (2022) has used model to analyze lexical relations in reading comprehension sections of English Textbook for Grade X. The instrument in the current study includes constructing a checklist for gathering data in fourth preparatory English textbook "English for Iraq".

## **4. Results**

The researcher compared between Septiria's (2022) study and the current study . In Septiria's (2022) study, the researcher examined for lexical relations in thirteen texts from the English Textbook. Furthermore, the researcher classified lexical relations into different groups. According to this study, there are 34 examples of lexical relations in the English Textbook for Grade X. The current study include 660 examples of lexical

relations in 8 units and 19 examples of these relations in literature section of the textbook.

The researcher didn't find previous studies concerned with the analysis of lexical relations in English textbook, except the last study by Septiria (2022).

# **Chapter Three**

## **Methodology**

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### **Methodology**

#### **3.1 An Introductory Note**

This chapter discusses research methodology and the steps the researcher carried out, starting with the research design, sample, the instrument used in the study, its validity and reliability, and the statistical methods utilized in the study.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

Research design is defined as the research strategy or blueprint that is particularly designed to respond to the study's questions and to manage variance (Dulock, 1993). The current study is designed as descriptive - qualitative study to find out lexical relations in fourth preparatory English textbook and answer the research questions. Descriptive research as demonstrated by Gravetter and Forzano (2010), includes measuring a variable or group of variables, often in their natural state. The descriptive approach focuses on describing each individual variable rather than the relationships between them. The objective is to describe a single variable or, if there are multiple variables, to produce independent descriptions for each variable. Gary et al. (2016) assert that descriptive research can be used by researchers to: (1) find new meaning; (2) explain what currently existing; (3) calculate how frequently something occurs; and (4) classify data. It is a sort of non-experimental study that involves both quantitative and qualitative data. In addition to qualitative data, it might also use some quantitative data. What, how, when, and where questions can be answered by descriptive research (Best & Khan, 2006).

### 3.3 The Population and the Sample of the Study

A study population is a group of units that are being investigated and about which the researcher seeks to make judgments or generalizations. The population could be rather large, such as all published books, or very small, such as two magazines (Neuendorf, 2002). The population and the sample of the study is fourth-grade preparatory student's book "English for Iraq" which is taught to fourth-grade preparatory school students in Iraq , all of the materials are involved in the student's book. Here is some background information on the textbook's structure :

It consists of eight units, 62 lessons, and four texts, which are included in the literature focus section. Units 4 and 8 are revisions of the topics covered in earlier units, and they are shorter in lessons than the other units. Each lesson is designed to teach specific activities and skills throughout the textbook, and all the teaching materials are involved in the process of analysis. Each unit focuses on a specific topic in the textbook and has a number of lessons (see Table 3.1).

**Table (3.1) Textbook's Units ,Topics , and Number of Lessons.**

<b>Units</b>	<b>Topics</b>	<b>Number of lessons</b>
1	Language learning	7
2	Education	9
3	Travel	10
4	Review	5
5	Family and friends	10

6	Health and fitness	9
7	Science and technology	8
8	Review	4

### **3.4 Instrument of Data Collection**

The researcher adopted a checklist as an analytical tool for gathering data from the 4th preparatory grade textbook " English for Iraq" after reviewing the existing literature, which includes books, previous studies, and relevant articles. The items of the checklist are from Hartmann and James (1998), Fromkin et al. (2018), Murphy (2010), Bejan (2017), and Finch (2000)(see Appendix 2). The checklist consists of six types of main lexical relations and ten subtypes of these relations. The checklist covers all the teaching materials in the textbook. Through a survey of the textbook's texts, the frequency of the items was listed in the "frequencies" column. The "Percentage" column lists the percentage of each item. The final result is shown in the "Total" column, which also includes the overall frequency and percentage for each item.

### **3.5 Validity of the Checklist**

Validity is defined as "the extent to which a measuring instrument is measuring what was intended", Everitt (2002, p. 388). The idea of validity is concerned with assessing whether or not a concept test accurately measures the concept in question, or the degree to which the word measures what it proposes to measure (Singh , 2007). The validity of the instrument is determined by a group of experts specializing in the methodology of teaching English and linguistics (See Appendix 3). According to Oluwatayo (2012), face validity refers to experts' subjective

evaluations of the measuring tool's presentation and relevance, so the instrument was presented to eleven experts to evaluate its face validity, taking into account their comments and suggestions. There were no objections raised against the types or subtypes of lexical relations in the checklist.

### **3.6 Reliability of the Results**

In descriptive researches, reliability is "the degree of consistency of a measure, and the tool will be reliable when it gives the same repeated result under the same conditions".(Brown, 2003, p. 20). The measurement of reliability involves three crucial elements. The first is consistency, which entails determining if a variable remains constant throughout time so that researchers can be certain that the results for a sample of individuals do not vary. The second is internal reliability, which aims to determine the accuracy of scale or index statistics. The third element is when more than one observer is involved in the procedures, such as recording observations or transcribing data into classifications.

The researcher used two kinds of reliability to assess the checklist's reliability:

1. In the beginning, the researcher used the instrument by conducting an investigative survey on all of the activities in the textbook. Then the researcher selected a sample (about 20%) from the content that had been studied, with the aim of analyzing it twice within a period of three weeks. The Holsti formula was used to get the reliability coefficient. This is referred to as over time reliability.
2. The researcher then asked for the collaboration of another researcher. The second researcher carried out the same procedure independently. The aim is to determine the relationship between the two survey results for

reliability. This is referred to as inter-rater reliability. Table (3.2) shows the correlation between the main researcher and the colleague researcher.

**Table (3.2) Reliability Coefficient**

<b>Analyst</b>	<b>Reliability Coefficient</b>
<b>Researcher 1 and 2</b>	<b>0.95</b>
<b>Researcher over time</b>	<b>0.92</b>

### **3.7 The Statistical Instruments**

The following statistical tools are used by the researcher to draw precise conclusions from the analytical data :

1. Frequencies are used by the researcher, which means the number of occurrences that happen repeatedly.
2. The researcher used the following formula to calculate the percentage of each relation :  $P = F / N \times 100$

Where P = percentage, F = the frequencies of one level, N = the total frequencies of the overall relations.

3. Holsti's correlation (1969) is used to assess the reliability of the analytical tool's data, which is the preferred way when two researchers analyze the same units. The formula is:  $PA = 2A / (n1 + n2)$

Where PA stands for "proportion agreement"

A is the number of agreements between the two researchers or the researcher and himself. N1 and N2 are the numbers of units analyzed by the researcher 1 and 2, respectively. This statistic also ranges from .00 (no agreement) to 1.00 (perfect agreement). (Neuendorf, 2002).

# **Chapter Four**

## **Results and Discussions**

# Chapter Four

## Results and Discussions

### 4.1 An Introductory Note

This chapter shows the results of the analysis process in relation to the research questions. To present the final collected data results, the researcher used two statistical techniques: frequencies and percentages. Tables are additionally utilized to help clarify and present data.

### 4.2 Results Presentation

To answer the research questions, the researcher analyzes the lexical relations in the English textbook, utilizing the statistics that come from the analysis process. The outcomes related to the student's book show the analysis of lexical relations in each unit and literature focus section. After that, a discussion of all the findings from the analysis of the textbook is offered. The following are the findings from an analysis of lexical relations in the fourth-grade English textbook "English for Iraq":

#### 1. Lexical Relations in Unit (1)

**Table (4.1) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (1)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	4	4.30%
		Partial synonymy	35	37.63%
2.	Antonymy	Binary Antonymy	2	2.15%
		Gradable Antonymy	0	0%
		Relational Antonymy	4	4.30%
		Directional Antonymy	2	2.15%

<b>3.</b>	<b>Hyponymy</b>	_____	15	16.13%
<b>4.</b>	<b>Meronymy</b>	_____	9	9.68%
<b>5.</b>	<b>Homonymy</b>	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	22	23.66%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
<b>6.</b>	<b>Polysemy</b>	Linear polysemy	0	0%
<b>7.</b>	<b>Total</b>		93	100%

It is clear from the above table that a very high percentage is achieved for partial synonymy, which is (37.63%) among the other relations; then partial homonymy (homophone) (23.66%), hyponymy (16.13%), meronymy (9.68%), total synonymy, and relational antonymy obtain the same percentage, which is (4.30% for each). Binary antonymy and directional antonymy also obtain the same percentage, which is (2.15% for each), whereas gradable antonymy, partial homonymy (homograph) , complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit one are the following:

1. Total synonyms are found in different contexts , they function as verbs" love, like" to express willingness to do something.

I'd *love* to go on a study programme.

I'd *like* to go swimming.

While partial synonyms involve the verbs "learn, study, leave, go" with present simple to show that the action is happened right now.

They also serve as adjectives to describe things "big, large". They are used as nouns to function as alternatives for another words" liberty, freedom, weddings, marriages, wish, desire".

2. Antonyms involve binary antonyms like "agree, disagree" which function as verbs with present simple to show admission or to refuse something , and relational antonyms which function as verbs with present continuous to show changes" rising, falling" .Directional antonyms are used for locating places and show directions "left, right".

3. Hyponymy is used to define general words "sports include volleyball, basketball" , "languages include Arabic, English, French".

4. Meronymy shows that something is a part of another thing "rivers , lakes, forests, glaciers, and Niagara falls are parts of Canada".

5.Homonymy (homophone) like "to, too, two, there, their, for, four" function as different parts of speech.

The researcher didn't mention all the lexical items that are found in the textbook because some of them are repeated and some of them have the same functions.

## 2. Lexical Relations in Unit (2)

**Table (4.2) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (2)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	8	8.42%

		Partial synonymy	11	11.58%
<b>2.</b>	<b>Antonymy</b>	Binary Antonymy	6	6.32%
		Gradable Antonymy	0	0%
		Relational Antonymy	0	0%
		Directional Antonymy	0	0%
<b>3.</b>	<b>Hyponymy</b>	_____	17	17.89%
<b>4.</b>	<b>Meronymy</b>	_____	0	0%
<b>5.</b>	<b>Homonymy</b>	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	53	55.79%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
<b>6.</b>	<b>Polysemy</b>	Linear polysemy	0	0%
<b>7.</b>	<b>Total</b>		95	100%

The above table shows the percentages for total synonymy (8.42%), partial synonymy (11.58%), binary antonymy (6.32%), hyponymy (17.89%), and partial homonymy (homophone) (55.79%), which scored the highest percentage, whereas the other types of antonymy, meronymy, complete homonymy, partial homonymy (homograph), and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit two are the following:

1. Total synonyms function as adjectives "modern, new" to describe something or describe a place. They also function as nouns "nutrition, food" to show interchangeable roles in the context. They function as verbs "love, like" to show preference, while partial synonyms like

borrow, lend, go, leave, big, large, went, travelled, education, teaching" function in different positions, they function as verbs with present simple

to show that the action is happened right now. They are used as adjectives to describe a place (school) . They function with past simple to denote past tense , and finally they function as nouns to present alternatives.

2. Antonyms include adjectives like " happy, unhappy" to describe someone, and "first, finally" as adverbs to denote the chronicle order of events.

3. Hyponymy defines general words like "subjects include chemistry, Biology, Geography", "natural disasters involve floods", "health care include medicine". They show generic-specific relation.

4. Homonyms are used in different word classes. They include " to, too, two, for, four, there, their", and they function as prepositions with place and time. They function as nouns to refer to numbers. Furthermore, they function as adverbs" too" which means "also" and "there" to refer to place, and finally "their" which functions as a pronoun to show possessive.

### 3. Lexical Relations in Unit (3)

**Table (4.3) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (3)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	4	5.13%
		Partial synonymy	12	15.38%

<b>2.</b>	<b>Antonymy</b>	Binary Antonymy	6	7.69%
		Gradable Antonymy	4	5.13%
		Relational Antonymy	0	0%
		Directional Antonymy	10	12.82%
<b>3.</b>	<b>Hyponymy</b>	_____	8	10.26%
<b>4.</b>	<b>Meronymy</b>	_____	11	14.10%
<b>5.</b>	<b>Homonymy</b>	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	23	29.49%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
<b>6.</b>	<b>Polysemy</b>	Linear polysemy	0	0%
<b>7.</b>	<b>Total</b>		78	100%

The above table shows the following percentages: total synonymy (5.13%), partial synonymy (15.38%), binary antonymy (7.69%), gradable antonymy (5.13%), directional antonymy (12.82%), hyponymy (10.26%), meronymy (14.10%), and partial homonymy (homophone) got the highest percentage, which is (29.49%), whereas relational antonymy, partial homonymy (homograph), complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit three are the following:

1. Total synonyms function as adjectives to describe things or places " huge, vast, nice, pleasant", whereas partial synonyms function as verbs "travel, visit", as adjectives to describe weather" cool, cold" as prepositions "on, over". They function with present perfect continuous to

indicate that action started in the past and didn't finish" going, visiting". They function as verbs" went, visited" to show past time.

2. Antonyms include directional ones which are used to locate places and show directions " left, right", whereas gradable antonyms are used to show comparatives "hot, cold". Binary antonyms include "double, single" can be used as adjectives to describe things .

3. Hyponymy is used to define general words "sports include snowboarding, whitewater rafting, quad biking", " the weather is *warm*". They show generic-specific relation.

4. Meronymy shows whole part relation "dunes are part of deserts", "the Colorado river is a part of United States".

5. Homonyms show differences between parts of speech "to, too, two".

#### 4. Lexical Relations in Unit (4)

**Table (4.4) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (4)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	2	8.696%
		Partial synonymy	8	34.783%
2.	Antonymy	Binary Antonymy	2	8.696%
		Gradable Antonymy	2	8.696%
		Relational Antonymy	0	0%
		Directional Antonymy	0	0%
3.	Hyponymy	_____	2	8.696%

<b>4.</b>	<b>Meronymy</b>	_____	3	13.043%
<b>5.</b>	<b>Homonymy</b>	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	4	17.39%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
<b>6.</b>	<b>Polysemy</b>	Linear polysemy	0	0%
<b>7.</b>	<b>Total</b>		23	100%

The above table shows the following percentages: total synonymy (8.696%), partial synonymy which got the highest percentage which is (34.783%), gradable antonymy, binary antonymy, and hyponymy, which got the same percentage which is (8.696%). Meronymy got (13.043%), and partial homonymy (homophone) (17.39%), whereas directional antonymy, relational antonymy, partial homonymy (homograph), complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit four are the following:

1. Total synonyms function as adjectives "sick, ill" to describe the state of somebody whereas partial synonyms function as verbs with present simple "travel, go". They function with to-infinitive to show the purpose of something. They are used with comparison "the biggest, the largest".
2. Gradable antonyms show comparison by using adjectives "old, modern", binary antonyms function as adjectives to describe the state of somebody "healthy, ill".
3. Hyponymy is used to define general words "sports include whitewater rafting".

4. Meronymy shows whole part relations "Museums are part of Tokyo".
5. Homonyms show differences between word classes "there , their ,to ,too".

### 5. Lexical Relations in Unit (5)

**Table (4.5) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (5)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	2	2.15%
		Partial synonymy	16	17.20%
2.	Antonymy	Binary Antonymy	2	2.15%
		Gradable Antonymy	0	0%
		Relational Antonymy	4	4.30%
		Directional Antonymy	4	4.30%
3.	Hyponymy	_____	23	24.73%
4.	Meronymy	_____	3	3.23%
5.	Homonymy	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	39	41.94%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
6.	Polysemy	Linear polysemy	0	0%
7.	<b>Total</b>		93	100%

The above table shows the following percentages : total synonymy (2.15%), partial synonymy (17.20%), binary antonymy (2.15%),

relational antonymy and directional antonymy obtain the same percentage (4.30% for each), hyponymy (24.73%), meronymy (3.23%), partial homonymy (homophone) which got the highest percentage (41.94%). Gradable antonymy, partial homonymy (homograph), complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit five are the following:

1. Total synonyms function as adjectives like "gorgeous, beautiful" to describe things. Partial synonyms also function as adjectives "terrible, bad, amazing, fantastic, exciting, loud, noisy, tired, exhausted".
2. Antonyms denote relations "bride, groom". They also denote directions "come, go". Binary antonyms show that lexical items are completely opposite "boy, girl".
3. Hyponymy defines general words "family include father, uncle, brothers", "baby : boy, girl".
4. Meronymy shows whole part relations "glass is part of vases".
5. Homonyms show differences between word classes "there, their, to, too, for, four, where, wear".

## 6. Lexical Relations in Unit (6)

**Table (4.6) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (6)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	4	4.82%
		Partial synonymy	9	10.84%
2.	Antonymy	Binary Antonymy	12	14.46%

		Gradable Antonymy	6	7.23%
		Relational Antonymy	0	0%
		Directional Antonymy	0	0%
<b>3.</b>	<b>Hyponymy</b>	_____	17	20.48%
<b>4.</b>	<b>Meronymy</b>	_____	0	0%
<b>5.</b>	<b>Homonymy</b>	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	35	42.17%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
<b>6.</b>	<b>Polysemy</b>	Linear polysemy	0	0%
<b>7.</b>	<b>Total</b>		83	100%

In the above table the percentages of lexical relations were as follow:

total synonymy (4.82%), partial synonymy(10.84%), binary antonymy (14.46%), gradable antonymy(7.23% ), hyponymy (20.48%), partial homonymy (homophone)( 42.17%) whereas directional antonymy, meronymy ,partial homonymy (homograph) ,complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit six are the following:

1. Total synonyms denote as adjectives "new, modern" , partial synonyms function as past verbs with reported speech 'said, told", adjectives" tired, exhausted", and comparisons "largest ,biggest".

2. Binary antonyms function as adjectives " good, bad" .Gradable antonyms show comparison" new, ancient".

3. Hyponymy defines general words "sports include basketball, cycling, football". "Food includes vegetables, tomatoes, salad, apple".

4. Homonyms show differences between word classes "there , their ,to ,too" to denote place, possessive and to function as preposition and adverb.

## 7. Lexical Relations in Unit (7)

**Table (4.7) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (7)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	0	0%
		Partial synonymy	18	14.06%
2.	Antonymy	Binary Antonymy	8	6.25%
		Gradable Antonymy	20	15.63%
		Relational Antonymy	2	1.56%
		Directional Antonymy	2	1.56%
3.	Hyponymy	_____	49	38.28%
4.	Meronymy	_____	13	10.16%
5.	Homonymy	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	16	12.50%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
6.	Polysemy	Linear polysemy	0	0%

<b>7.</b>	<b>Total</b>		128	100%
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The above table shows the following percentages : partial synonymy (14.06%), binary antonymy (6.25%), gradable antonymy (15.63%), relational antonymy and directional antonymy obtain the same percentage which is (1.56%), hyponymy (38.28%), meronymy (10.16%), partial homonymy (homophone) (12.50%), whereas total synonymy , partial homonymy (homograph) ,complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit seven are the following:

1. Partial synonyms function as verbs "watch, see, get, obtain " with present simple and function as verbs with past "studied, learned", with future "talk, tell". They function as preposition " near, towards", as adjectives "warm, hot" to describe weather.
2. Gradable antonyms show comparison "high ,low, hot, cold", directional antonyms show directions "come, go", binary antonyms function as verbs "live ,die".
3. Hyponymy includes defining general words "weather, cloudy, warm, sunny"," milk ,butter, cheese, yoghurt", "plants, reeds, papyrus" , "animals ,cows, buffaloes, sheep", "colours, white, yellow", "oceans, Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian ocean", sea animals, sponges, jellyfish".
4. Meronymy shows whole part relations" plants , forests", "Petrol is part of petroleum".
5. Homonyms show differences between word classes "sea, see ,to ,too, their, there".

## 8. Lexical Relations in Unit (8)

**Table (4.8) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Unit (8)**

No.	Lexical Relations	Classification	Frequencies	Percentage
1.	Synonymy	Total synonymy	8	11.94%
		Partial synonymy	14	20.90%
2.	Antonymy	Binary Antonymy	8	11.94%
		Gradable Antonymy	6	8.96%
		Relational Antonymy	2	2.98%
		Directional Antonymy	2	2.98%
3.	Hyponymy	_____	11	16.42%
4.	Meronymy	_____	4	5.97%
5.	Homonymy	Partial Homonymy (Homograph)	0	0%
		Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	12	17.91%
		Complete Homonymy	0	0%
6.	Polysemy	Linear polysemy	0	0%
7.	<b>Total</b>		67	100%

The above table shows the following percentages : total synonymy (11.94%), partial synonymy (20.90%), binary antonymy (11.94%), gradable antonymy (8.96%), relational and directional antonymy obtain the same percentage which is (2.98% for each), hyponymy (16.42%), meronymy (5.97%), partial homonymy (homophone) (17.91%). Partial

homonymy (homograph) ,complete homonymy, and linear polysemy didn't get any percentage.

The functions of lexical relations in unit eight are the following:

1. Partial synonyms are used as past verbs "told, said". Total synonyms function as verbs "love, like" to show willingness or desire.
2. Antonyms denote directions "come , go " , binary antonyms function as adjectives "able, unable" , gradable antonyms function as adjectives to describe the weather "hot, cold".
4. Meronymy shows whole part relations" muscles , legs".
5. Homonyms show differences between word classes with the same pronunciation "four, for ,to ,too".

The researcher didn't mention all the words (lexical items) that are found in the textbook because some of them are repeated and some of them have the same functions.

## 9. Lexical Relations in The whole textbook Units

**Table (4.9) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in The whole textbook Units**

No.	Lexical Relations	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Synonymy	155	23.48%
2.	Antonymy	116	17.57%
3.	Polysemy	0	0%
4.	Meronymy	43	6.52%
5.	Homonymy	204	30.91%
6.	Hyponymy	142	21.52%

7.	<b>Total</b>	660	100%
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The above table shows that a very high percentage is scored for the homonymy which is (30.91%) among the other relations, followed by synonymy (23.48%) hyponymy (21.52%) , antonymy (17.57% ), meronymy (6.52%) with no percentage for polysemy.

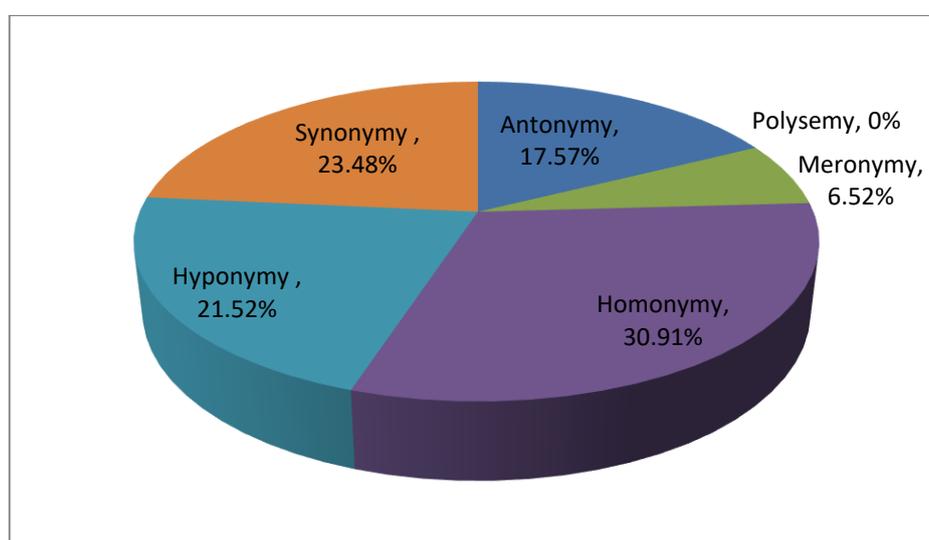


Figure (3) Percentages of Lexical Relations in The Whole Textbook

### 10. Lexical Relations in Literature focus Section

**Table (4.10) Frequencies and Percentages of Lexical Relations in Literature focus Section**

No.	Lexical Relations	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Synonymy	2	10.53%
2.	Antonymy	6	31.58%
3.	Polysemy	0	0%
4.	Meronymy	3	15.79%

5.	Homonymy	4	21.05%
6.	Hyponymy	4	21.05%
7.	<b>Total</b>	19	100%

The above table shows that a very high total percentage is scored for the antonymy which is (31.58%) among the other relations, followed by homonymy and hyponymy which have the same percentage (21.05% for each), synonymy (10.53%), and no percentage for polysemy.

The functions of lexical relations in literature focus section are the following:

1. Synonyms are used as nouns to replace one another "hatred, enmity"
2. Antonyms show that lexical items are full opposite as "true , false ".
3. Hyponymy includes defining general words" flowers, rose , lilies".
4. Meronymy shows whole part relations" buds ,flowers ".
5. Homonyms show differences between word classes "to ,two".

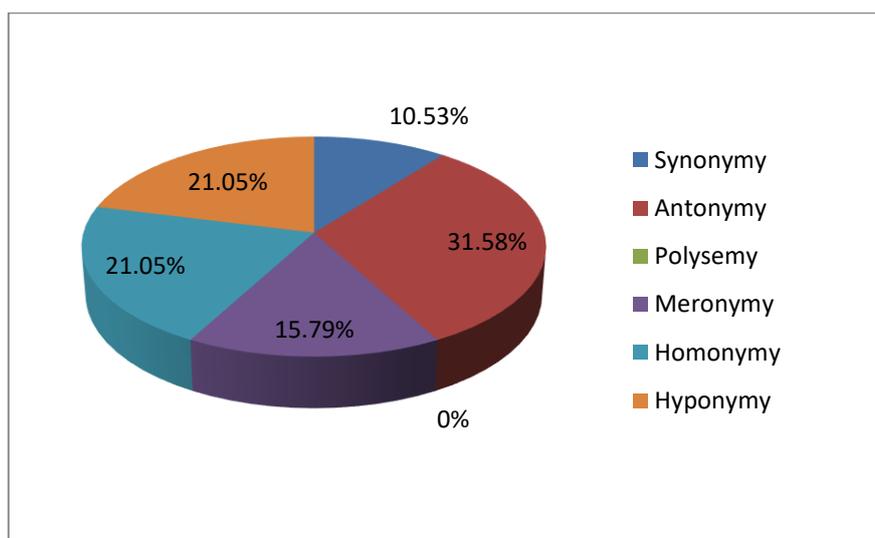


Figure (4) Percentages of Lexical Relations in Literature Focus Section

### 4.3 Discussion of Results

1. The results of the study shows differences in distribution of the types of lexical relations in the whole units of the textbook. Synonymy is the most employed in units (1) , followed by homonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and antonymy. In unit (2), the most employed lexical relation is homonymy, followed by synonymy, hyponymy, and antonymy. In unit (3), the most employed lexical relation is homonymy, followed by synonymy ,antonymy, meronymy, and hyponymy. In unit (4), the most employed lexical relation is synonymy, followed by antonymy ,homonymy ,meronymy, and hyponymy. In unit (5), the most employed lexical relation is homonymy, followed by hyponymy, synonymy, antonymy , and meronymy. In unit (6), the most employed lexical relation is homonymy , followed by antonymy, hyponymy, and synonymy. In unit (7), the most employed lexical relation is hyponymy, followed by antonymy, synonymy and homonymy , and meronymy. In unit (8), the most employed lexical relation is synonymy, followed by antonymy, homonymy, hyponymy, and meronymy.

2. Considering, the linguistic section of the textbook, homonymy got the highest frequency which is (204 ) followed by synonymy(155), hyponymy(142 ), antonymy (116), Meronymy (43), and finally polysemy which got the lowest frequency which is (0). This means curriculum designers focus on words with the same pronunciation , which reinforce students listening skill. They employ these relations in the textbook to avoid tedious repetition and not to let the texts boring. Lexical relations play an important role in reinforcing English language skills, especially students' communicative abilities. They play an important role in developing students' writing skills by making their words more effective.

They highlight the differences among individual words and make the texts stronger.

3. Considering the results of literature focus section, antonymy got the highest frequency, followed by hyponymy and homonymy got the same frequency which is (4 ) followed by meronymy (3), synonymy(2 ), and finally polysemy which got the lowest frequency which is (0).

4. The study shows different frequencies from Septiria's (2022). In Septiria's (2022), the researcher examined for lexical relations in thirteen texts in the English Textbook Grade X by Kemendikbud RI. They consist of (34) samples of lexical relations. The samples are (16) of hyponymy, (11) samples of synonymy, (5) samples of antonymy, (1) sample of polysemy, and (1) sample of meronymy in the text of reading comprehension parts in English Textbook Grade X. The current study include (660) samples of lexical relations in (8) units and (19) samples of these relations in literature section of the textbook. The samples frequencies are mentioned above in (1) and (3).

5. The results show an equal total percentages between linguistic section and literature section.

**Chapter Five**  
**Conclusions,**  
**Recommendations and**  
**Suggestions for Further**  
**Studies**

## **Chapter Five**

### **Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies**

#### **5.1 An Introductory Note**

This chapter presents the study's conclusions in light of the previous results. It also contains a number of recommendations and ideas for possible next studies.

#### **5.2 Conclusions**

1. There is a variance in the frequencies of the types and subtypes of lexical relations in each unit in the textbook and in the whole textbook.
2. By using lexical relations in the textbook, the curriculum designers try to show the differences between them in the context, enrich students' vocabulary, and develop their communicative skills because they will learn the meanings of these relations and how to use them in communications. Furthermore, these lexical relations verify the style of writing texts, which makes English texts interesting and adds dynamism to the language.
3. In order to build a learner's lexical competence, it is crucial for them to have knowledge of lexical relations.
4. The most dominant type of lexical relation in the textbook is homonymy. This could denote that the authors of the textbook want the students to differentiate between words with the same pronunciation but different classes.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

The following recommendations are made in light of the conclusions drawn from this study:

1. Drawing EFL teachers' attention to the important role of lexical relations in EFL learning and teaching processes.
2. Encouraging the teachers to help the students learn how to connect text words by their lexical relations.
3. Teachers should comprehend and evaluate the role of lexical relations before introducing them to their students.
4. Teachers may choose to use lexical relations (synonyms, homonyms, etc.) with the additional goal of generating a friendly or positive mood in the classroom as a result of learning the concepts and subject content.
5. Lexical semantics or relations should be viewed by instructors or teachers as a critical pedagogical strategy for increasing vocabulary as well as communicative competence.
6. Teachers may use lexical relations to reduce anxiety in students that may emerge from a lack of understanding and an inability to cope with the text in question and the classroom as a whole.
7. Teachers may urge students to create their own glosses in order to instill and embed the concept of lexical relations in their minds.
8. Curriculum designers should pay attention to the importance of employing multi-meaning words in the textbook since they are considered an effective means of teaching vocabulary and developing students' communicative abilities.

#### **5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies**

1. Associated with the subject that has been covered in this study, a similar study could be conducted on the content of English textbook for fifth and sixth stages.
2. Conducting a similar study on the content of the other stages including the series of the English Textbooks for intermediate stages.
3. Investigating the relationship between lexical relations and English four skills for the fourth preparatory grade from teachers' perspectives.

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# Appendices

## Appendix (1)

### The Initial Form of the checklist

**Republic of Iraq**

**Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research**

**University of Babylon**

**College of Basic Education**

**Department of Higher Studies**

**Dear Sir /Madam,** \_\_\_\_\_

The researcher intends to perform a descriptive study entitled "*Lexical Relations Functionalizing in Fourth Preparatory School English Textbook*". The study aims to :

1-Find out the most frequent type of lexical relations in the fourth preparatory English textbook.

2-Pinpoint the function of the most common lexical relation in the fourth preparatory English textbook.

For this purpose, the researcher constructs a checklist . The items of the checklist are from Hartmann and James (1998), Fromkin et al. (2018), Murphy (2010), Bejan (2017), and Finch (2000). Because of your extensive experience in this field, the researcher hopes, from your honorable side to express your remarkable notes on the sections of checklist. Any suggestions for additions or changes will be highly appreciated.

The Researcher

M.A. Candidate, Zaineb Abdul –Karim

**Lexical relations :** The semantic relations which words contract with each other within the linguistic system on the basis of their sense. The principal relations are **synonymy** , **antonymy** ,**polsemy** , **meronymy**, **homonymy**, and **hyponymy**.

**Lexical function :** Lexical function is a function that associates with a given lexical unit which is the keyword of function, a set of lexical expressions that express, a specific meaning associated with function (Mel'cuk, 1996).

Lexical Relations		Suitable	Unsuitable	Note
<b>1. Synonymy</b> -Total synonymy -Partial synonymy	Types of lexicon are presented adequately to students to realize their use interchangeably in context			
<b>2. Antonymy</b> - Complementay Antonymy -Gradable Antonymy - Relational Antonymy -Directional Antonymy	The texts include lexical items that show opposites and comparison between words			
<b>3. Homonymy</b> -Complete Homonymy - Partial Homonymy (Homograph) -Partial Homonymy (Homophone)	The text shows differences of lexicon with same orthography and words with same pronunciation			
<b>4. Hyponymy</b>	The textbook has lexemes that help in defining general words			

<b>5. Polysemy</b> -Linear Polysemy	The texts enrich students' vocabulary with multiple meaning lexicon			
<b>6. Meronymy</b>	The texts show single words as a part to the whole			

**Appendix (2)**  
**The Final Form of the checklist**

Lexical Relations	Frequencies	Percentages
<b>1. Synonymy</b> -Total synonymy -Partial synonymy		
<b>2. Antonymy</b> -Complementay Antonymy -Gradable Antonymy - Relational Antonymy -Directional Antonymy		
<b>3. Homonymy</b> -Complete Homonymy - Partial Homonymy (Homograph) -Partial Homonymy (Homophone)		
<b>4. Hyponymy</b>		
<b>5. Polysemy</b> -Linear Polysemy		
<b>6. Meronymy</b>		
<b>Total</b>		

### Appendix (3) Names of Jury Members

No.	Academic Degree	Name	Field	Place of Work
1.	Prof. (Ph.D.)	Ala'a Ismael Challob	TEFL	University of Anbar/ College of Education for Human Sciences
2.	Prof. (Ph.D.)	Chassib Fanukh Abbas Al-Jubouri	TEFL	Ministry of Education/ Open Educational College
3.	Prof. (Ph.D.)	Haider Kadhem Khudhair	TEFL	University of Karbala/ College of Education for Human Sciences
4.	Prof. (Ph.D.)	Salih Mahdi Adday	Linguistics	University of Babylon/ College of Education for Human Sciences
5.	Prof. (Ph.D.)	Shaimaa Abdul-Baki Al-Bakri	TEFL	University of Baghdad/ College of Education for Human Sciences/Ibn Rushd
6.	Asst. Prof. (Ph.D.)	Ali Sabah Jameel	TEFL	University of Anbar/ College of Arts
7.	Asst. Prof. (Ph.D.)	Maysaa Rashid Abdul-Majeed	TEFL	University of Baghdad /College of Education for Women / Department of English
8.	Asst. Prof. (Ph.D.)	Muna Mohammed Abbas	TEFL	University of Babylon/ College of Engineering
9.	Asst. Prof. (Ph.D.)	Nadia Hameed Hasson	Linguistics	University of Babylon/ College of Arts
10.	Asst. Prof. (Ph.D.)	Narmeen Mahmoud Mohamed	TEFL	University of Baghdad / College of Education for Women / Department of English

## المستخلص

تعتبر العلاقات المعجمية من أهم العلاقات الدلالية عند دراسة معاني الكلمات في اللغة الإنجليزية. وقد تم استخدامها في المقام الأول لتحليل معاني الكلمات فيما يتعلق ببعضها البعض داخل الجمل. وتختلف هذه العلاقات حسب نوع العلاقة التي قد تربط الكلمة بكلمة أو كلمات أخرى.

وبما أن الكتاب المدرسي يلعب دوراً هاماً في عملية التعليم والتعلم في صفوف اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، فقد لوحظ أنه يتم تجاهل إبراز الجانب المعجمي في عملية تقييم كتاب اللغة الإنجليزية. تهتم الدراسة الحالية بالتحليل اللغوي للعلاقات المعجمية في كتاب اللغة الانجليزية العراقي للصف الرابع الاعدادي وتركز على دراسة أنواع ووظائف هذه العلاقات.

وتهدف الدراسة إلى معرفة النوع الأكثر شيوعاً من هذه العلاقات وأهم الوظائف اللغوية في محتوى كتاب اللغة الإنجليزية. ولتحقيق أهداف الدراسة قامت الباحثة ببناء أداة وتحليل الوحدات الكاملة و المحتوى الذي يخص جانب الأدب في كتاب اللغة الإنجليزية.

وأظهرت النتائج نوع العلاقة المعجمية الأكثر شيوعاً في الكتاب والتي تشمل التجانس اللفظي كما تبين الوظائف اللغوية لهذه العلاقات في كتاب اللغة الانجليزية. وفي ضوء النتائج يوصي الباحث المعلمين بالاهتمام بالجانب المعجمي في صفوف اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. كما يقترح الباحث إجراء دراسات مماثلة على الكتب الأخرى ضمن سلسلة كتب اللغة الانجليزية "الإنجليزية لأجل العراق" للمرحلتين الإعدادية والمتوسطة.



جمهورية العراق  
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي  
جامعة بابل كلية التربية الاساسية  
قسم اللغة الانجليزية

توظيف العلاقات المعجمية في كتاب اللغة الانجليزية للصف الرابع  
الاعدادي

رسالة ماجستير

مقدمة الى مجلس كلية التربية الاساسية في جامعة بابل وهي جزء من  
متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير في التربية/ طرائق تدريس اللغة الانجليزية  
كلغة اجنبية

من قبل

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بأشراف

أ.م. د وفاء مخلص فيصل