

**UNIVERSITY OF BABYLON**  
***INVESTIGATING IRAQI EFL COLLEGE***  
***STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF***  
***ANTONYMS***

**A THESIS**  
**SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL OF THE COLLEGE**  
**OF BASIC EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF BABYLON**  
**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR**  
**THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION IN METHODS OF**  
**TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

**BY**  
**MUNA MOHAMMED ABBAS AL-KHATEEB**

**SUPERVISED BY**

**ASST. PROF. HAMMEED HASSOON (Ph.D.)**  
**ASST. PROF. ADIL ABDUL RIDHA AL-AKKAM (M.A.)**

b

( قَالَ رَبِّ اسْرَحْ  
لِي صَدْرِي وَيَسِّرْ  
لِي أَمْرِي وَأَحِلِّ  
عُنُقَهُ مِنْ

لِسَانِي يَفْقَهُوا  
( قَوْلِي )

(28 - 25 )

*To My Family*



We certify that this thesis which is entitled (**Investigating Iraqi EFL College Students' Awareness of Antonyms**) was prepared by (**Muna Mohammed Abbas Al-Khateeb**) under our supervision at the College of Basic Education, University of Babylon in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

*Signature:*

*Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Hameed Hassoon (Ph.D.)*

*Date:     /     / 2005*

*Signature:*

*Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Adil Abdul Ridha Al-Akkam (M.A.)*

*Date:     /     / 2005*

In view of the available recommendations, I forward this thesis for debate by the Examining Committee.

*Signature:*

*Name: Asst. Prof. Dr. Abdul Sattar Mahdi Ali*

*Head of the Department of Higher Studies*

*Date:     /     / 2005*

We certify that we have read this thesis entitled (**Investigating Iraqi EFL College Students' Awareness of Antonyms**), and as Examining Committee examined the student (**Muna Mohammed Abbas Al-Khateeb**), in its content and that, in our opinion, it is adequate standing as a thesis for the degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

*Signature:*

*Name:*

*Member*

*Signature:*

*Name:*

*Member*

*Signature:*

*Name:*

*Chairman*

Approved by the Council of the College of Basic Education.

*Signature:*

*Name: Asst. Prof. Dr. Abbas Ubied Hammadi*

*Dean of the College of Basic Education*

Date: / / 2005

## ***ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS***

I was very fortunate to have Asst.Prof.Dr. Hameed Hassoon and Asst.Prof. Adil Abdul Ridha Al-Akkam as my supervisors whose support, patience, comments and generous cooperation encouraged me to carry out this work. Moreover, they were a main source of inspiration for this work.

I also owe thanks to my lecturers: Professor Salih Mahdy Hameed and Asst.Prof.Dr. Riyadh Tariq Al-Ammeedi. They were extremely thorough in their help and inspiration along the way. Thanks are extended to lecturer Dr. Chassib Fannukh Abbas for helping me with statistical processes.

Special thanks are due to the jury members for establishing the validity of the test.

I would like to thank my colleague , Iman Mingher Obied ,who always encourages me. Further thanks also go to my friends: Amal Toman, Muna Ali, and to those who always kept asking, “When will you finish?” .

Finally, my heartfelt thanks are to my family, who will always receive my utmost gratitude, admiration, and love. Without their constant support and encouragement, I cannot fulfil this work.

## ***ABSTRACT***

One of the most important lexical relations is antonymy which refers to the words that have opposite meanings. The uniqueness of meaning of every antonym is attributable to its occupation of a particular semantic space. So it can be said of almost any two words that they are “not the same” in meaning. Thus, the present study aims at explaining the main characteristics of antonyms and investigating empirically the extent of Iraqi EFL college students’ awareness of the different types of antonyms.

It is hypothesized that Iraqi EFL college students face serious difficulties in using antonyms, and there is a significant difference between students’ awareness of antonyms at the recognition and the production levels.

So, to validate these two hypotheses, the researcher has conducted a test which is designed to be answered by sixty students of the fourth year of the Department of English, College of Education, University of Babylon during the academic year 2003-2004.

To find out the face validity of the test, it is exposed to a jury of experts. Reliability, on the other hand, is calculated by using Kuder-Richardson 21, by which the result has been (0.95).

An item analysis is carried out to determine the effectiveness of items in terms of their discrimination and item difficulty. After the test has been administered to the subjects of the study, their responses have been investigated

and analyzed statistically. The results have verified and confirmed the two hypotheses. The study comes out with the conclusions that the students at the fourth stage encounter serious difficulties at both the recognition level and the production level; these difficulties are more serious at the production level than at the recognition level; and there is statistically a significant difference between male and female learners in using antonyms.

The testees' errors have been found to be attributed to the following factors: (a) intralingual transfer which is exemplified through overgeneralization and simplification whereby the testees depend on their previous knowledge of the target language to produce antonyms; (b) communication strategies such as guessing, paraphrasing, and avoidance which are selected by the testees to fill the gap of their knowledge; (c) context of learning as little attention has been paid to this type of lexical relations in the testees' comprehension books; and (d) interlingual interference whereby the testees depend on their previous knowledge ( their native language).

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter One offers the problem, aims, hypotheses, procedures, limits and value of the study. Chapter Two presents a close look at some basic types of lexical relations, a general overview of antonymy and its different types. Chapter Three introduces a description of the test. Chapter Four analyzes the collected data and discusses the results. The testees' errors have been analyzed and probable sources of their errors have been identified. Chapter Five sums up the conclusions of the study, sheds light on some pedagogical recommendations, and suggests topics for further studies.

# ***LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS***

<b>DF</b>	Degree of Freedom
<b>DL</b>	Difficulty Level
<b>DP</b>	Discrimination Power
<b>EFL</b>	English as a Foreign Language
<b>FV</b>	Facility Value
<b>L1</b>	First Language
<b>L2</b>	Second Language
<b>SD</b>	Standard Deviation
<b>TEFL</b>	Teaching English as a Foreign Language

# ***LIST OF TABLES***

<b><u>No. of Table</u></b>	<b><u>Table</u></b>	<b><u>Page</u></b>
<b>3.1</b>	Sample of the Study.	<b>48</b>
<b>3.2</b>	Scoring Scheme.	<b>53</b>
<b>3.3</b>	The Difficulty Level and Discriminatory Power of the Test.	<b>58</b>
<b>4.1</b>	Testees' Performance on Question I Recognition of Antonyms.	<b>65</b>
<b>4.2</b>	Testees' Performance on Question II Recognition of Antonyms.	<b>65</b>
<b>4.3</b>	Testees' Performance on Question III Production of Antonyms.	<b>65</b>
<b>4.4</b>	Testees' Performance on Question IV Production of Antonyms.	<b>66</b>
<b>4.5</b>	Testees' General Performance at the Recognition Level.	<b>66</b>
<b>4.6</b>	Testees' General Performance at the Production Level.	<b>66</b>
<b>4.7</b>	Testees' Overall Performance at the Recognition and the Production of Antonyms.	<b>67</b>
<b>4.8</b>	The Results of Pass-Nonpass Testees of the Test.	<b>68</b>

<u>No. of Table</u>	<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
<b>4.9</b>	T-Value of the Difference Between The Mean of the Sample Scores and the Theoretical Mean at the Recognition Level.	<b>71</b>
<b>4.10</b>	T-Value of the Difference Between The Mean of the Sample Scores and the Theoretical Mean at the Production Level.	<b>72</b>
<b>4.11</b>	T-Value of the Difference Between The Mean of the Sample Scores and the Theoretical Mean of the Whole Test.	<b>72</b>
<b>4.12</b>	T-Values, Means, Standard Deviations of the Difference Between Males and Females.	<b>73</b>
<b>4.13</b>	Facility Value of the Items of Question I.	<b>75</b>
<b>4.14</b>	Facility Value of the Items of Question II.	<b>75</b>
<b>4.15</b>	Facility Value of the Items of Question III.	<b>76</b>
<b>4.16</b>	Facility Value of the Items of Question IV.	<b>77</b>
<b>4.17</b>	Sources of Errors of the Whole Sample	<b>85</b>

# ***LIST OF FIGUERS***

<b><u>No. of Figures</u></b>	<b><u>Figure</u></b>	<b><u>Page</u></b>
<b>2.1</b>	Examples of Some Words on the Scale of Strength.	<b>8</b>
<b>2.2</b>	The Hyponym Relation.	<b>15</b>
<b>2.3</b>	A Simplified Monoscalar System.	<b>38</b>
<b>2.4</b>	A Disjunct Equipollent System.	<b>39</b>
<b>2.5</b>	A Parallel Equipollent System.	<b>49</b>
<b>2.6</b>	An Overlapping System.	<b>40</b>
<b>2.7</b>	A Full Monoscalar System.	<b>41</b>

# ***LIST OF APPENDICES***

<b><u>No. of Appendix</u></b>	<b><u>Appendix</u></b>	<b><u>Page</u></b>
<b>I</b>	A Letter to the Jury Members.	<b>103</b>
<b>II</b>	The Test.	<b>104</b>
<b>III</b>	The Test's Possible Answers	<b>111</b>

# **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....</b>	<b>V</b>
<b>ABSTRACT.....</b>	<b>VI</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....</b>	<b>VII</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES.....</b>	<b>IX</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGUERS.....</b>	<b>XI</b>
<b>LIST OF APPENDICES.....</b>	<b>XII</b>

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

<b>1.1 <i>The Problem</i> .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2 <i>Aims of the Study</i>.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.3<i>Hypotheses of the Study</i>.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.4 <i>Procedures of the Study</i>.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.5 <i>Limits of the Study</i>.....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.6 <i>Value of the Study</i>.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1.7 <i>Definitions of Basic Terms</i> .....</b>	<b>5</b>

## **CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

<b>2.1<i>Introduction</i>.....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>2.2 <i>Some Semantic Definitions</i>.....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>2.2.1 <i>Words and Concepts</i>.....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>2.2.2 <i>Semantic Scales</i>.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>2.3 <i>Lexical Relations</i>.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>2.3.1 <i>Syntagmatic Relations</i>.....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>2.3.2 <i>Paradigmatic Relations</i>.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>2.3.2.1 <i>Synonymy</i>.....</b>	<b>12</b>

2.3.2.2	<i>Hyponymy</i> .....	14
2.3.2.3	<i>Homonymy and Polysemy</i> .....	16
2.3.2.4	<i>Antonymy</i> .....	18
2.3.2.4.1	<i>The Characteristics of Antonymy</i> .....	19
2.4	<i>Linguistic Approaches to Defining Antonymy</i> .....	22
2.4.1	<i>Antonyms as Gradable Opposites</i> .....	22
2.4.1.1	<i>Markedness</i> .....	25
2.4.1.2	<i>Implicit Comparison</i> .....	26
2.4.1.3	<i>Impartiality and Committedness</i> .....	27
2.4.2	<i>Other Types of Opposites</i> .....	28
2.4.2.1	<i>Complementaries</i> .....	29
2.4.2.2	<i>Directional Opposites</i> .....	30
2.4.2.3	<i>Reversive Opposites</i> .....	31
2.4.2.4	<i>Relational Opposites</i> .....	32
2.4.3	<i>Near-Opposites</i> .....	35
2.4.4	<i>Sub-Classes of Antonyms: Monoscalar and Biscalar Systems</i> .....	37
2.4.4.1	<i>Monoscalar System</i> .....	40
2.4.4.1.1	<i>Polar Antonyms</i> .....	40
2.4.4.1.2	<i>Pseudo-Comparative Antonyms</i> .....	42
2.4.4.2	<i>Biscalar System</i> .....	43
2.4.4.2.1	<i>Equipollent Antonyms</i> .....	43
2.4.4.2.2	<i>Overlapping Antonyms</i> .....	45

### **CHAPTER THREE: DATA COLLECTION: THE TEST**

3.1	<i>Introduction</i> .....	47
3.2	<i>The Subjects</i> .....	47
3.3	<i>Material Selection</i> .....	48

<b>3.4</b> <i>Test Objectives</i> .....	<b>49</b>
<b>3.4.1</b> <i>Specific Objectives</i> .....	<b>49</b>
<b>3.4.2</b> <i>General Objectives</i> .....	<b>50</b>
<b>3.5</b> <i>Test Description</i> .....	<b>50</b>
<b>3.6</b> <i>Scoring Scheme</i> .....	<b>52</b>
<b>3.7</b> <i>Pilot Administration</i> .....	<b>53</b>
<b>3.8</b> <i>Item Analysis</i> .....	<b>54</b>
<b>3.9</b> <i>The Main Test Administration</i> .....	<b>58</b>
<b>3.10</b> <i>Test Virtues</i> .....	<b>59</b>
<b>3.10.1</b> <i>Reliability</i> .....	<b>59</b>
<b>3.10.2</b> <i>Validity</i> .....	<b>61</b>
<b>3.11</b> <i>Statistical Means</i> .....	<b>62</b>

## **CHAPTER FOUR: INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS**

<b>4.1</b> <i>Introduction</i> .....	<b>64</b>
<b>4.2</b> <i>General Results</i> .....	<b>64</b>
<b>4.3</b> <i>Statistical Processes</i> .....	<b>69</b>
<b>4.4</b> <i>Item Analysis</i> .....	<b>74</b>
<b>4.5</b> <i>Discussion of Item's FV</i> .....	<b>77</b>
<b>4.6</b> <i>Error Analysis</i> .....	<b>80</b>
<b>4.6.1</b> <i>Sources of Errors</i> .....	<b>81</b>
<b>4.6.1.1</b> <i>Interlingual Transfer</i> .....	<b>82</b>
<b>4.6.1.2</b> <i>Intralingual Transfer</i> .....	<b>83</b>
<b>4.6.1.3</b> <i>Context of learning</i> .....	<b>83</b>
<b>4.6.1.4</b> <i>Communication Strategies</i> .....	<b>84</b>
<b>4.6.2</b> <i>Testees' Sources of Errors</i> .....	<b>84</b>

**CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS  
AND SUGGESTIONS**

**5.1 Conclusions..... 97**  
**5.2 Rcommendations..... 100**  
**5.3 Suggestions for Further Research..... 101**  
**APPENDICES..... 102**  
**BIBLIOGRAPHY..... 115**  
**ABSTRACT IN ARABIC ..... 128**

# ***CHAPTER ONE***

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 The Problem**

Antonymy covers the relation between lexical items whose meanings stand in apposition to each other and it is often thought as the opposite of synonymy (Lyons, 1977:286). Some of the most common examples are the pairs: *big/small*, *long/short*, *dead/alive*, *true/false*, and so forth.

Although oppositeness of meaning is a tricky concept to define, it can be said that the words in an antonymous pair must be similar in all respects but one. More precisely, Cruse and Toggia (1995:113) propose that antonyms can be defined by the following properties: (1) they are counter-directional in that one term when intensified denotes a higher value of the relevant property, while the other term when intensified denotes a lower value; and (2) they denote properties as varying in degree.

The term “antonymy” is used loosely to refer to many different types of opposites. Gairns and Redman (1986:24) suggest that the different types of oppositeness are relevant to learners and teachers. In this area, Yule (1996:118) makes a distinction between gradable antonyms, non-gradable antonyms (also called complementaries), and reversives. Similarly, Cruse (2000:167-172) classifies the term “**oppositeness**” into complementaries, antonyms, reversives, and converses.

However, it has been noticed that even though many students progress in their learning of the foreign language, they are unaware of the different types of the words in different types of structures. On the same level, many linguists have asserted that language cannot be described adequately apart from meaning, since meaning is necessary in the very nature of language (Mackey, 1965:72-3). In this respect, the problem that may arise is that the students show deficiency in their use of antonyms. Therefore, vocabulary in general and meaning in particular are the students' greatest difficulty and need, i.e., they do not employ the most suitable words for the appropriate contexts. Thus, the present study attempts to shed light on one of the major relationships, i.e., antonymy that holds between words as a method of increasing the students' ability toward making deduction about unknown words. Generally, Fraser and O'Donnel (1969:157) present a clear idea of the most important types of lexical relations which are defined as a procedure of defining the meaning of words through the relationships they have with other words.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no adequate empirical study of the subject of antonyms has been done. Hence, this work is an attempt to fill such a gap.

## **1.2 Aims of the Study**

This study aims at:

1. Investigating empirically the extent of Iraqi EFL College Students' awareness of the different types of antonyms.

2. Assessing whether there is a significant difference in the students' awareness at both the recognition and the production levels.
3. Finding out whether there is statistically significant difference between the male and female learners in using antonyms.
4. Identifying the causes of the students' errors so that some solutions can be put forward in order to help them to overcome the problems they encounter in using antonyms.

### **1.3 Hypotheses of the Study**

It is hypothesized that:

1. Iraqi EFL College Students face difficulties in manipulating antonyms.
2. There is a significant difference between students' awareness of antonyms at the recognition and the production levels.

### **1.4 Procedures of the Study**

First: the theoretical part:

1. Establishing a theoretical background in which the major types of Lexical relations are presented.
2. Identifying the different types of antonyms within the linguistic approach.

Second: the practical part:

1. Conducting a test to achieve the aims of the study by designing recognition and production tasks.
2. Analyzing the results; identifying sources of errors and specifying students' performance.
3. Presenting the findings of the study.

### **1.5 Limits of the Study**

The followings are the limits of the study:

1. The test is limited to the performance of Iraqi fourth year students, in the Department of English, College of Education, University of Babylon during the academic year 2003-2004, in the area of antonymy.
2. The lexical items included in this study are content and function words.
3. This study will account only for one type of lexical relations, i.e., antonymy.
4. It should be noted that the researcher depends on the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (1995), and Chambers Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms (2003) in the selection of antonyms.

## 1.6 Value of the Study

This study will be useful in:

1. Increasing the students' repertoire of lexical items by drawing their attention to lexical relations especially antonymy.
2. It serves as a guide to teachers of English into a more creative device in increasing the students' vocabulary by putting emphasis on teaching such a relation, i.e., antonymy.
3. Using this study as a basis for the study of other paradigmatic relations, such as : hyponymy , meronymy, and so forth.
4. Paving the way for further investigations on this subject and at different levels.

## 1.7 Definitions of Basic Terms

In this study, some terms need to be defined for purposes of clarity and accuracy. These are:

**EFL college students** are those who study English as a Foreign Language as their 'major' subject in the departments of English in Iraqi universities.

**Awareness** in the present study is undertaken to mean, "having knowledge". Murphy (2003b: 8) remarks that having knowledge of antonyms enables students to differentiate between the different types of antonyms.

**Antonymy** is defined as the term that has been used for oppositeness of meaning (Palmer, 1981:94). Accordingly, Saeed (1997:66) states that there are a number of relations which seem to involve words which are at the same time related in meaning yet incompatible or contrasting.

# ***CHAPTER TWO***

## **THEREOTICAL BACKGROUND**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The present chapter is an attempt to investigate three main sections. The first section introduces and defines some semantic terms that will be used throughout this study. Those terms are: words and concepts, and semantic scales. The second section discusses the definitions and features of lexical relations, and explores their different types in dealing with some familiar categories, such as: synonymy, hyponymy, homonymy and polysemy, and antonymy. It also includes an explanation of the characteristics of antonyms. Finally, the third section sheds light on the various types of antonyms from a semantic point of view.

### **2.2 Some Semantic Definitions**

#### **2.2.1 Words and Concepts**

Murphy (2003b: 12) states that the linguistic faculty involves two types of knowledge: lexical and grammatical, and each of these types of knowledge is relevant to our use of words, but in different ways. The lexicon represents facts about particular linguistic expressions (i.e., the lexical items), whereas the grammar consists of rules for making new

linguistic expressions out of the raw materials that the lexicon supplies. In this respect, she (ibid.) defines the lexicon as “a collection of information about words that cannot be derived from other information, and that information is self-contained and especially linguistic” Thus, lexical information is arbitrary or “idiosyncratic” as Chomsky and Halle (1968:12) view, or “ a list of basic irregularities” as Bloomfield (1933:274) points out. In addition, the lexicon contains information about words rather than about the things or ideas that words denote.

Fellbaum (1998:8) illustrates that words express concepts, and a concept “is represented by a set of synonyms that can be used to express that concept.” .Commenting on such a definition, Cruse (2000:44)says:

Words can be used to indicate more than a single concept, and the name that we attach to a thing may vary by context. In the first case, the word “ *knife*” can refer to things like *scalpels*, *daggers*, *butter knives*, and *letter-openers*; in the second, a single kind of “ *furniture*” may be referred to by a variety of terms like *table*, *bedstand*, and *chest of drawers* .

Furthermore, Duan (2002:20) emphasizes the fact that although concepts in our minds act on human needs and perceptual capabilities, the concepts are usually hard to describe and their boundaries are perceived differently by different individuals. But despite our differing opinions about what various concepts cover, we are able to communicate about them with one another. Accordingly, Cruse (2000:45) proposes, for example, that the facts about a concept **TABLE**, like “ this is furniture; it has a flat top surface ; we can put things on it ; and part of

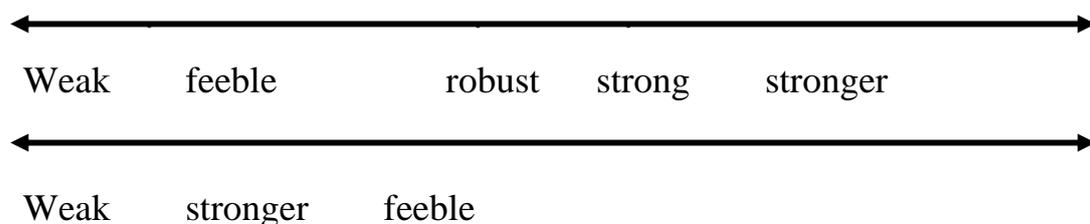
the concept TABLE would be the word for this concept is table; it's pronounced [teibl]; it's a noun".

For more details see (Deese, 1965);(Clark and Clark,1977); (Palmer, 1981); (G.Miller, 1998).

### 2.2.2 Semantic Scales

A scale can be defined as “ a linearly ordered, infinite set of points, associated with a dimension that indicates the type of measurement that the scale represents (e.g., height, length, weight, brightness and so forth)” (Kennedy, 2001:52). In this case, strong and weak are opposites on the scale of **STRENGTH**, but in a specific context, stronger may point to a place closer to weak than strong does (Willners, 2001:14). Additionally, Lehrer (1974:28) asserts that there is a whole set of words that can be placed on the scale, for example, on the scale of **STRENGTH** we find robust, powerful, and feeble.

On the other hand, Kennedy (2001:55) admits that the placing of the words on the scale is not fixed; it depends on context. So, for instance, figure (2.1) shows that a certain person may be stronger than a weak person, but yet weaker than a third, feeble one.



**Figure(2.1): Examples of Some Words on the Scale of STRENGTH.**

(Kennedy, 2001:55)

## 2.3 Lexical Relations

Lyons (1977:235) postulates that lexical items derive their meaning and their existence from the systematic relationships they enter with other lexical items in the same language, rather than with their real world denotatum. He (ibid.) says:

The units of grammatical description derive their linguistic validity from the place they occupy in a network of functional relations and cannot be identified independently of these interrelations.

In the linguistic literature, these relations are called lexical relations, because the term “**lexical relation**” is used to indicate any other relations among words, not just a semantic relation (Murphy 2003a:11). Accordingly, lexical relations include phonetic relations (such as- rhyme or alliteration), morphological relations (such as inflectional variation), and morphs-syntactic relations (such as co-membership in a grammatical category) (ibid.). Yule (1996:118) defines “lexical relations” as “a procedure of characterizing the meaning of words not in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relationship to other words.”

Critically, Murphy (2003a: 12) argues that the term “lexical relation” is considered ambiguous in that it could refer to relation among words (on a page,in a mind,or wherever they might exist)or to relations (among lexical items) within the mental lexicon. But for some authors, the two meanings are interchangeable, since they hold (or assume) that if words are related, then that relation is represented in the lexicon.

West (2000:1), on the contrary, shows that most lexical relations are not really relations among words, but relations among word senses. So, some of linguists call these relation sense relations (Lyons, 1977) or meaning relations (Allan, 1986) rather than lexical relations.

In accordance with Murphy (2003a: 12) who suggests the term “lexical relations”, the researcher, in this study, will adopt this term, since it can cover all levels, i.e., lexical, syntactic, and phonological levels.

However, Lyons (1977:235) characterizes two different relationships among lexical items, which determine their semantic values in a context, and these are: syntagmatic relations and paradigmatic relations.

### **2.3.1 Syntagmatic Relations**

It has been pointed out in the previous section that the semantic system of the vocabulary of a language can be described in terms of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations that hold between lexical items.

Lyons (1968:73) states that a lexical item enters into syntagmatic relation with other items of the same rank with which it occurs and constitutes its context. Allen and Corder (1975:22) add that the syntagmatic relations involve relations of occurrence and they are over relations, i.e., they are realized in the word order of sentences, as in the example in which this relation holds between each of the elements: (John, met, Mary) in the sentence:

(1) John met Mary.

In this area, the term “**collocation**”, the most simple example of syntagmatic relations, was coined for the first time by the, British linguist, Firth. For Firth (1957:19), “ collocation” is merely part of the meaning of a word, for example, ‘dark’ collocates with ‘night’, ‘colour’, etc. Benson (1985:61) defines “collocation” as “a pair or group of words that occur repeatedly”.

To sum up, Carter and McCarthy (1997:70) suggest that in vocabulary teaching, collocation entails two important values; the first one is that the association of words assists the learners to infer meaning from context; the second one is to allow them to know what kinds of words they can expect to find, and to make them aware of some lexical restrictions.

### **2.3.2 Paradigmatic Relations**

The lexical relations emerge once a lexicon or dictionary is created, and this type of relations describes the connections among words within a language (Duan, 2002:21). Here, paradigmatically related words are, to some degree, grammatically substitutable for each other. Lyons (1981:96) defines paradigmatic relations as “ the relations that hold among sets of intersubstitutable elements at particular places in syntagms”. Murphy (2003b: 11) illustrates that paradigmatic relations hold between members of the same grammatical category, for example, ‘blue’, ‘black’, and any

other member of the colour can sensibly and grammatically occur in the phrase: **a chair**.

However, Buitelaar (2001:1) states that paradigmatic relations are based on semantic notions like: ‘**similarity**’, ‘**inclusion**’, and ‘**entailment**’ that lead to relations like: ‘**synonymy**’, ‘**hyponymy**’, ‘**homonymy**’, ‘**polysemy**’, and ‘**antonymy**’, each of which will be explained in detail in the following sections.

### **2.3.2.1 Synonymy**

Synonymy is the most well-known semantic relation, and also a central relation in lexicography, but it is by no means easy to define. Lyons (1977:198) sees synonyms as “words sharing the same sense.” Synonymy is then further restricted to obtain only if the words are substitutable for each other without affecting the descriptive meaning of the utterances (ibid.: 202).

Many linguists and semanticists use different criteria in defining synonymy such as the degree of overlap, interchangeability, and truth-value. Ullmann (1957:109), Mates (1972:119), and Fillmore (1977:129) define synonymy in terms of interchangeability in which two lexical items are synonymous if they are interchangeable in a given context without changing the truth value of that context. Harris (1973:11) identifies synonymous in terms of sameness of meaning and the degree of overlap by which two lexical items be synonymous if they show a complete range of overlap of what is called the basic component of meaning.

It has been claimed by many linguists that total synonymy is very rare. Ullmann (1957:141) restricts total or absolute synonymy to medical terms, whereas McCarthy (1996:17) thinks that it would be easier to find two absolutely synonymous words among less common or more technical terms. At the same level, Gairns and Redman (1988:23) advocate that it is very unlikely to have two words as synonymous on every occasion-if they were, it would not be necessary to have both words in the language. So, when we use the term synonymy we are actually talking about “partial synonymy”. Given these facts, Miller and Fellbaum (1992:202) suggest a weakened, context-sensitive definition of synonymy: “ Two expressions are synonymous in a context C if the substitution of one for the other in C does not change the truth value.”

It is notable that synonyms are context-dependent, i.e., the context, here, is very important in determining synonymous items: two lexical items may be synonymous in one context, but not in another (West, 2000:2). In this respect, Crystal (1980:344) gives the following example to illustrate this point, the items: ‘range’, ‘choice’, ‘selection’ are all synonymous in the context “*What a nice \_\_\_\_\_ of flowers*”, but in the context “*This \_\_\_\_\_ of knowledge is enormous*”, only ‘range’ is appropriate. Wallace (1987:71) introduces another example to assert this point; the words: ‘big’ and ‘large’ can be used in a context like “*I need a \_\_\_\_\_ envelop*” and they are synonymous, but only ‘big’ can be used in a context “*What a \_\_\_\_\_ boy you are!*”. To cope with this point, Nida (1975:98) says:

In most discussion of meaning, synonyms are treated as though the terms overlap, while in reality what is involved is the overlapping of particular meaning of such items. When one says that *peace* and *tranquillity* are synonymous, what is really meant is that one of the meanings of *peace* (calm) overlaps with the meaning of *tranquillity*.

Finally, Garins and Redman (1986:23) stress that the use of synonyms provides the teacher with a quick and efficient way of explaining unknown words, thus, it could be said that synonymy is a very good ‘ally’ in the teaching of vocabulary, and teachers use it a lot in the language classroom.

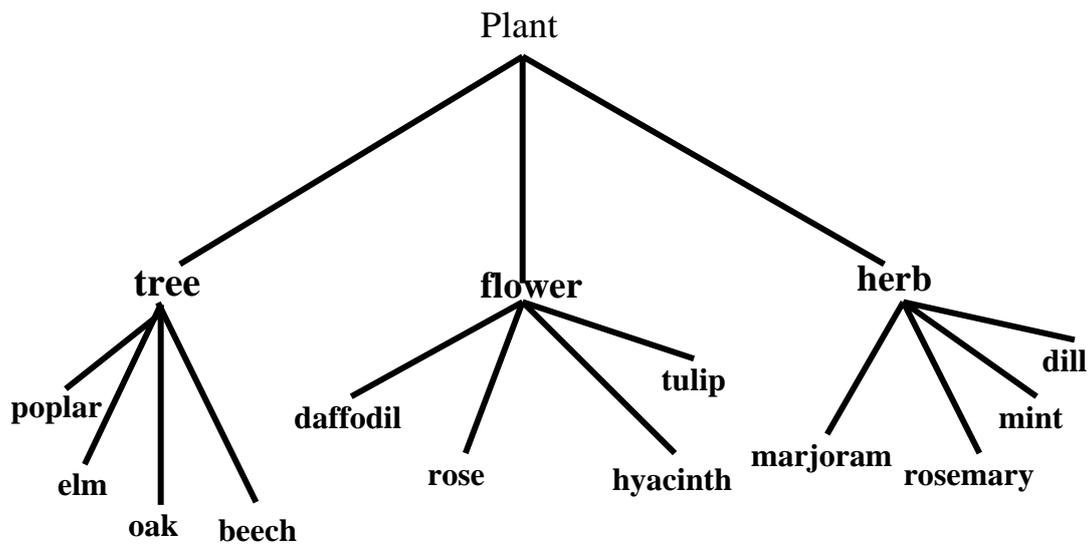
For more details see (Widdowson, 1995); (Yule: 1996); (Saeed, 1997); (Thornborrow and Wareing, 1998); (Soltan, 2003).

### 2.3.2.2 Hyponymy

Another important way in which words are related is through hyponymy: that is the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another. Buitelaar (2001:2) remarks that hyponymy is based on similarity within a class, and depends on the inclusion of one class in another. In the words of Lyons (1968:453), “...the meaning of ‘tulip’ [or rose or daffodil] is said to be “**included**” in the meaning of ‘flower’”. To take another example from Lyons (ibid.), “the meaning of ‘scarlet’ is said to be included in the meaning of ‘red’”.

Related to this point, West (2000 : 2) draws a hierarchical relation in which the words ‘tree’, ‘flower’, and ‘herb’ are all hyponyms, as they

imply the superordinate term (or hyperonym) ‘plant’. Obviously, the terms ‘tree’, ‘flower’, and ‘herb’ are co-hyponyms, i.e., hyponyms of the same superordinate term. Looking at this from the opposite angle, the term ‘flower’ is the superordinate with respect to ‘tulip’, ‘daffodil’, and ‘rose’. This relation is conveniently represented graphically in figure (2.2):



(West,2000:2)

It should be noted that a lexical item does not stand in one relationship to other lexical items, but each stands in several relations to many other lexical items. Kempson (1977:86) gives an example to illustrate this point: ‘wife’ stands in a converse relation with ‘husband’ and it is also a hyponymy of ‘woman’.

Hyponymy, however, is not always straightforward. The following example, shows that in more complex examples the lexical meaning of other words influences entailment (Cruse, 1986:91):

- (3) **a.** Mary was disappointed to receive a rose.
- b.** Mary was disappointed to receive a flower.

Although entailment has been established between ‘rose’ and ‘flower’, here, the first sentence does not entail the second one. Mary was disappointed to receive a ‘rose’, but she might have expected an ‘orchid’ or another flower. Or she wanted to give one away instead of receiving one.

### 2.3.2.3 Homonymy and Polysemy

Crystal (1985:106) defines homonymy as a lexical relation that holds between two or more lexical items which have the same shape and correspond with separate entries in the dictionary. The term “homonymy” is illustrated through the different meanings of ‘bank’ (as an elevated area of ground), and ‘bank’ (a place or business where money is kept).

Moore (2000:7) comments that there has been a considerable confusion in using the term “**homonymy**” according to whether the identity of that form may apply to speech or writing or both. Crystal (1985:106) calls these forms ‘**half**’ identical in shape. This distinction can be recognized by the use of the terms (homophony, homograph) <sup>(1)</sup> Similarly, Lyons (1977:559) regards homophony and homograph as two kinds of partial homonymy. In this respect, Ullmann (1962:129) argues that the words which have the same pronunciation, but different spelling

---

(1). According to Crystal (1997:185), the term “homophony” is used in semantic analysis to refer to words which have the same pronunciation but different meanings, e.g. (threw-through). Whereas, the term “homography” is used in semantic analysis to refer to words which have the same spelling but different meanings, e.g. ‘wind’ (blowing)-‘wind’ (a clock). (ibid.).

must be regarded as homonyms, e.g. (route, rout), (site, sight). In contrast, Allan (1986:150) asserts that complete homonyms are those words which have the same pronunciation and spelling.

In literature, linguists and lexicographers are keenly aware of polysemy (the multiple meaning of a word) and homonymy, because semantic closeness and referential dispersion are especially obvious when words are considered out of context (Frath, 2003:2). Dictionaries, for example, consist of, out of context, words and phrases. Homonyms are usually listed under different entries and polysemes under one entry, but not always, whereas some dictionaries lump homonyms together and others separate polysemes, which may be an indication that the boundary between homonymy and polysemy is not clear cut (ibid.). On this point, Lyons (1963:18) proposes “part of speech” as a distinction between them, e.g. ‘book’ as a (noun) and ‘book’ as a (verb) would be given two separate entries in the dictionary.

In addition, Palmer (1981:102) stresses that the lexicographer’s knowledge of the historical derivation of lexical items can be considered a way by which a distinction between homonymy and polysemy can be drawn. This criterion is called “**etymology**”<sup>(2)</sup>. In this, if identical forms have different origins, they are treated as homonymous and given separate entries in the dictionary. But, if they have one origin, they are treated as polysemic and given a single entry in the dictionary. The principal criterion, which Lyons (1981:147) highlights, is the relatedness

---

(2) . According to Moore (2000:6), “etymology” is the systematic study and classification of word origins, especially as regards forms and meanings. The etymology of a given lexeme denotes an account of its historical-linguistic origin

of meaning: that is, the several meanings of a single polysemous word are judged to be related, e.g. the word 'neck' (part of the body); (part of bottle);...etc. If this condition is not met, we have homonymy rather than polysemy.

As far as the relation between homonymy and synonymy is concerned, Zawadoski (1975:118) states that homonyms appear as a counterpart of synonyms, i.e., homonyms are words which have identical forms, but different meanings, while synonyms are words which have different forms, but identical meanings.

#### **2.3.2.4 Antonymy**

The term "antonymy" was coined in the nineteenth century to describe oppositeness of meaning. A nice twist to this that the word was intended to be conceived as an antonym - of synonymy (Lyons, 1977:286). Egan (1968:30a) suggests the following definition of what an antonym is: "An antonym is a word so opposed in meaning to another word, its equal in breadth or range of application, that it negates or nullifies every single one of its implications." More simply, Willners (2001:17) emphasizes that antonymy does not really refer to the maximum degree of difference in meaning between two concepts. Rather, the words in an antonymous pair must be similar in all respects but one. But, Tatsis (1999:2) points out that the definition of antonymy, which unites two words that have "opposite" or "contrasting" meanings, is correct but traditional and simplistic. Besides, Bolinger (1968), cited in Lehrer (1974:26) affirms that the notion of antonymy would seem simple enough if just characterized as pairs of words that are opposites, but a

look at the kinds of pairs termed antonyms show that there is a diverse collection of concepts.

The fact that the virtual uniqueness of meaning of every word is attributable to its occupation of a particular semantic space leads Buitelaar (2001:3) to assert that oppositeness of meaning is a tricky concept to define. So, it can be said of almost any two words that they are ‘not the same’ in meaning.

Despite the problems involved in defining antonymy, it still has psychological reality for us and is certainly a productive source of stylistic- variation in creative writing. This means that any set of words given sufficient context, can serve as a contrast set. Since words differ in their semantic properties, different semantic classes of words contrast in different ways.

#### **2.3.2.4.1 The Characteristics of Antonymy**

Antonymy has several characteristics which set it apart from the other lexical relations. First, as Cruse (1986:197) says, “of all the relations of sense that semanticists propose, that of oppositeness is probably the more readily apprehended by ordinary speakers”.

A second interesting fact about antonymy is that most (probably all) languages have morphological processes which can create antonyms. As Lyons (1977:275) writes:

In many languages, including English, the most commonly used opposites tend to be morphologically unrelated (*good: bad, high: low, beautiful: ugly, big: small, old:*

*young*). But these are outnumbered in the vocabulary by such morphologically related pairs as *married: unmarried*, *friendly: unfriendly*, *formal: informal*, *legitimate: illegitimate*, etc.

In addition to **un-** and **in-**, English also has the prefixes **dis-** (*like\dislike, honest\dishonest*), and **de-** (*colonize\decolonize, emphasize\deemphasize*), as well as the suffixes **-less** and **-full**, which together sometimes form pairs of antonyms (*harmless/harmful, useful/useless*) (ibid.).

The third characteristic is that there seems to be something “mysterious” or even “**mystical**” about antonymy, because opposites seem as different as they can possibly be, rather they still have something in common. For example, in word association tests, people often respond to a word with its opposite or with a synonym (Deese, 1965:42), yet people clearly feel that antonyms and synonyms are not the same.

Cruse (1986:197) describes this mysterious quality as follows :

Opposites possess a unique fascination, and exhibit properties, which may appear paradoxical. Take, for instance, the simultaneous closeness, and distance from one another of opposites. The meanings of a pair of opposites are felt to be maximally separated. Indeed, there is a widespread idea that the power of uniting or reconciling opposites is a magical one, an attribute of the deity...The closeness of opposites, on the other hand, manifests itself, for instance, in the fact that members of a pair have almost identical distributions, that is to say, very similar possibilities of normal and abnormal occurrence.

Another interesting thing about antonymy is that language learners expect that there will be pairs of antonyms available to label certain types of concepts. Miller and Fellbaum (1992:197) affirm that students learning a second language “ when given only one member of an antonymous or opposed verb pair, will insist upon taught the other member.” Kagan (1984:187) elaborates:

As the child creates categories, she is disposed to invent their complement. Soon after learning the meaning of *up*, the child learns the meaning of *down* ; after learning the meaning of *high*, she learns *low* ; after *good* , she develops the meaning of *bad* .

Kagan (ibid.) claims that children do not have to be explicitly taught that there are such things as opposites; instead they seem to expect to find them. This kind of expectation may exist for other kinds for lexical relations too, but it seems to be especially strong in the case of antonymy. Even adult speakers feel the usefulness of antonyms when expanding the vocabulary of their native language. Egan (1968:28a) puts it:

It is good, we feel, to know the exact antonym of a word, for not only will it give us a firmer grasp of the meaning of the word to which it is opposed, but inversely, of itself.

Anthropologists (e.g., Casagrande and Halle, 1967:167) have found that antonymy is one of the lexical relations commonly used in folk definitions; a thing or quality can often be defined in terms of what it is not, for example, ***big*** can be defined as not ***small***.

## 2.4 Linguistic Approaches to Defining Antonymy

Most linguists have found that the use of antonyms is too broad to be useful or interesting. Other linguists, including Palmer (1981), Lehrer and Lehrer (1982:483), and Cruse (1986:198 and 2000:169) have tried to categorize opposites into different types. In this area, Saeed (1997:66) postulates that it is useful to “ identify several different types of relationship under a more general label of opposition.” Gairns and Redman (1986:24) also admit that there are a “ variety of different forms of oppositeness which are relevant to learners and teachers.” .

Cruse (2000:197-72) draws a distinction between **complementaries**, **antonyms**, **reversives**, and **converses** using the term “ **opposites**” to encompass them all. Cruse (1986:204 and 2000:169) also follows Lyons (1977:279) in his definition of antonymy, and lists five different types of antonyms : **polar** antonyms, **equipollent** antonyms, **overlapping** antonyms, **reversives** antonyms, and **converses** antonyms .

### 2.4.1 Antonyms as Gradable Opposites

Gradability is a fundamental semantic feature and a characteristic of descriptive adjective, since it can be compared. Lyons (1968:260-67) distinguishes between gradable and non-gradable antonyms, whereas Cruse (1980:15) classifies pairs of adjectives such as *long/short*, *clean/dirty* into complementary and non- complementary antonyms. But, in this study, the researcher will follow Lyons’ classification.

Kennedy (2001:58) states that the set of gradable opposites includes many common and prototypical pairs of opposites including *big/small*, *good/bad*, *high/low*, *happy/sad*, *tall/short*, and *wet/dry*. It is admitted by Soltan (2003:4) and Ruzicka (2001:24) that with gradable antonyms (pairs), the negative of one word is not synonymous with the other, for example, someone is not happy is not necessarily sad. Supporting this view, Tatsis (1999:4) advocates that gradable antonyms would usually be adjectives and have two main features: Firstly, there are usually intermediate terms, so between the gradable antonyms *huge* and *tiny* we have:

*Huge/very big/ big/ quite big/ medium – sized/ quite small/ small /very small/Tiny*

(Tatsis, 1999:4)

This means that something neither huge nor tiny. Related to this point, West (2000:3) mentions that what the speaker wishes to express may be intermediate between the extremes represented by the antonyms. Cruse (1980:15) describes such antonyms adjective pairs as using a scale of relevant degrees with what he calls a “ mid point ” that determines where each adjective no longer holds. Accordingly, Buitelaar (2001:5) states that for everyday purposes, for example, *hot* is the opposite of *cold*, both are gradable and describe opposite ends of the scale of **TEMPERATURE**. Between the opposite poles named by *hot* and *cold*, there is a mid interval. So that if something is neither *hot* nor *cold*, it might be *warm*, *cool*, or *lukewarm*, etc.

Secondly, Saeed (1997:67) and Finch (2000:151) assert that in some pairs, one term is more basic and common or in the linguistic term is “**unmarked**”, for example, in the pair old/young, it is more natural to ask: “ **How old are you?** ” than “ **How young are you?** .”. On this crucial point, West (2000:3) says:

The second lexeme in each pair is the so-called unmarked term in the opposition, the one we use in questions if we make no assumptions about the answer. In other words, if I ask somebody “ How big is your house? .” I am not suggesting that it is either small or big , but if I ask “ how small is your house? ” I am making it clear that I believe the house to be small.

The third feature is that the terms would be relative, for instance:

(4) A late dinosaur fossil is earlier than an early Elvis record.

(Saeed, 1997:67)

(5) A small elephant will still be bigger than a big mouse.

(Peters, 2002:8)

Allan (1986:182) claims that there are certain relative pairs which identify opposite ends for a scale such as tall/short, hot/cold, and happy/sad. Such pairs are relative because, for example, “ **A is tall .**” means “ **A is taller than the norm for the average A within a given context.**” Elaborating on this, Leech (1974:118) provides the following tautology:

(6) A tall man is taller than a short man .

Although there are also nouns, for instance, friend/enemy and verbs, like love/hate and like/dislike which show properties of gradability, most

attention has been given to the adjectives of this type, perhaps because the adjectives most clearly exhibit other characteristic properties of gradable opposites such as **markedness**, **implicit comparison**, **impartiality** and **committedness** (Cruse, 1986:208).

### 2.4.1.1 Markedness

Lehrer (1985:398) believes that markedness has been used as a cover term for several related phenomena which distinguish the marked member of an antonym pair from the unmarked member. He (ibid.) also denotes that if the name of the semantic scale is morphologically related to one of the antonyms, it is related to the unmarked member, for example, the name of the scale of **LENGTH** is related to the unmarked long rather than the marked short.

Fromkin and Rodman (1978:173) demonstrate another criterion of markedness in which the unmarked antonym can generally appear in a wider range of syntactic contexts; in particular, unmarked antonyms can occur with phrases, but marked ones usually cannot, so we can ask “**How tall is she?**”, and we answer “**Five feet tall.**”, but not “**Five feet short .**” In addition, ratios are usually only possible with the unmarked antonyms; we can say:

(7) Kim is twice as old as Pat .

But we cannot say:

(8) ? Pat is twice as young as Kim.

(ibid.)

Given these assumptions, Kennedy (2001:47) remarks that a structural distinction is made between two sorts of degrees: positive and negative degrees. A well-known difference between positive and negative adjectives is that the latter are marked with respect to the former. More precisely, Lyons (1968:467) elaborates on this by saying:

The fact that the distinction between antonyms is neutralized in certain syntactic positions contributes, no doubt, to our feeling that one antonym has a **positive**, and the other a **negative** polarity. We tend to say that small things “lack size”, rather than large things “lack smallness”. And, in general, the **unmarked** antonym is used for what is felt as “more than”, rather than “less than”, the norm.

### 2.4.1.2 Implicit Comparison

West (2000:5) observes that implicit comparison can easily be seen in examples such as ***big/little***, ***tall/short***, ***young/old***, and ***hot/cold***. This means, for example, that “**A tall child .**” is ***tall*** in comparison to other children of the same age, but in fact be much shorter than a short adult. Here, Lyons (1977:274) also remarks that when we say:

(9) Our house is big.

we are implicitly comparing the house with something else and that it is bigger. Therefore, it might be understood as meaning like:

(10) a. Our house is bigger than the normal house.                      **Or**  
b. Our house is big for a house.

(ibid.)

In this case, Gordon (2003:6) stresses that this house is big relative to the norm for houses. Thus, the norm will be variable across different languages or cultures, and among different groups within the same society.

### **2.4.1.3 Impartiality and Committedness**

Pinker (2003:12) views that when we want to ask about the age, or length, or weight of something, it is normal to use the first word in each pair:

- (11) a. How old is it?
- b. How long is it?
- c. How heavy is it?

In doing so, we are not presupposing that the thing is old, or long, or heavy. Such a use is called impartial, since we are not taking a position about the applicability of the adjective in its normal use.

- (12) How old is your baby?
- = “ What is its age. .”

- (13) How long was that subliminal message on the screen?
- = “ What was the length of time. .”

(ibid.:12)

In contrast, Pinker (ibid.:13) asserts that if we ask the question using the second term, however, we do presuppose something about the thing. Such a use is called committed, since this form of phrasing implies a commitment to the claim that the basic meaning of the adjective applies.

- (14) How young is your baby?
- = “ The baby is young, but to what degree?”

(15) How short was that message?

= “ The message was short, but to what degree? .”

(ibid.)

Impartiality can be illustrated with comparatives. Cruse and Togia (1995:138) interpret that although sentence (16) is a contradictory, sentence (17) is not:

(16) ? This box is quite light, but it is heavy.

(17) This box is quite light, but it is heavier than that one.

Accordingly, heavier is impartial with respect to the weight of the referent which form its arguments. In that its use is not constrained to these contexts where heavy is appropriate.

It has been claimed by Cruse and Togia (ibid.:138) that the expressions “ as long as ” and “ not as long as ” are impartial, but “ as short as ” and “ not as short as ” are definitely committed. They show that the difference between long and short is due to the fact that “ as long as ” means “ has the same length as ”, not “ has the same longness as ”; as short, on the other hand, means “ has the same shortness as ”, which can only be interpreted with reference to the relative scale, and is therefore committed.

## 2.4.2 Other Types of Opposites

Most research on antonymy has focused on gradable opposites, but a few people including Lyons (1977) and Cruse (1986) have tried to characterize the other sorts of commonly occurring opposites. These other

types lack the special properties found with gradable opposites, but like them, they show a “ dependence on dichotomization ” (Lyons, 1977:271). In other words, like antonyms in the narrow sense, these other types of opposites are also pairs of which share some kind of semantic dimension.

### 2.4.2.1 Complementaries

The type of opposite which is most similar to the gradable opposite is the complementary opposite, sometimes known as the contradictory (ibid.:272). Examples of complementaries include adjectives such as *true/false*, *dead/alive*, and *male/female*. Soltan (2003:4) views that true oppositeness is best found in complementary antonyms. He (ibid.) adds that to use one of the terms automatically entails the denial of the other, for example, *alive* and *dead*. Either something is alive or it is dead; there is no half-way point. More precisely, the complementary adjectives as Carter (1996:17) believes, share a semantic dimension, but it is a dimension which has no middle value. To support this view, Cruse (1986:198) illustrates:

The essence of a pair of complementaries is that between them they exhaustively divide some conceptual domain into two mutually exclusive compartments, so that what does not fall into one of the compartments must necessarily fall into the other.

Following Cruse (ibid.), kearns (2000:7 ) remarks that if a statement is not true, it is false, and if you shoot at a target, you either hit or miss it.

(18) The door is either opened or closed.

(ibid.)

(19) If one aims and shoots a gun, one either hits or misses the target.

(Pinker, 2003:10)

Although, complementaries by definition are pairs allowing no logical middle term in actual use, complementaries are sometimes used like gradable adjectives [Sapir (1944), cited in Lyons (1977:277)]. For example, we can say that something is almost true, or that someone is barely alive. However, Lyons (ibid.:278) points out that in these cases it may be the “secondary implications” of the words that being graded rather than the main sense. That is, someone who is barely alive is actually entirely alive, but s/he is not as lively or energetic as most people are.

#### 2.4.2.2 Directional Opposites

The other type of opposites is the directional opposites [also called reverses relation by Saeed (1997:67) and Tatsis (1999:5)]. This has to do with words describing movement, where as Saeed (1997:67) proposes “one term describes movement in one direction,  $\longrightarrow$ , and the other the same movement in the opposite direction,  $\longleftarrow$ .” Some ordinary terms such as (go) up/down, (go) in/out, (turn) right/left can be considered as directional opposites are usually adverbs, verbs or prepositions, and include pairs such as come/go, clockwise/anticlockwise, in/out, and forward/backward.

In this respect, Lyons (1977:281) demonstrates important difference between them:

If we compare *up:down* with *come:go*, we can see immediately that, whereas *come: go* is based upon an opposition between motion towards P and motion away from P ..., is based upon an opposition drawn within motion away from P.

Similarly, *right/left* and *front/back* are like *up/down*, but the directionality of *up/down* (i.e, in the vertical dimension) is absolute, which is entirely different from that of *right/left* and *front/back*.

### 2.4.2.3 Reversive Opposites

Reversive opposite, described in Egan (1968), is yet another type of opposite. Egan (1968:27a) describes reversive opposite in this way:

These comprise adjectives or adverbs which signify a quality or verbs or nouns which signify an act or a state that reverse or undo the quality, act , or state of the other. Although, they are neither contradictory nor contrary terms, they present a clear opposition.

This class contains many verbs, for example, *tie/untie*, *marry/divorce*, *enter/leave*, *appear/disappear*. Cruse (1986:226) and Lyons (1977:282) consider the reversive verbs to be a subtype of directional opposites, because they all describe activities which result in an object undergoing a change from one state to another: that is the two members of the reversive pair involve the same two states; but the

direction of change is different in each case; for example, the verb *tie* means roughly “to cause something to go from the state of being untied ” ; For *enter* and *leave*, the relevant states are locational: “ being inside something and being outside something”. Here, Cruse (ibid.) admits that these pairs illustrate a very important feature of reversive opposites: that is the processes or actions, through which the changes of state come about, do not need to be precisely reversed for the two verbs of a pair. In this, Yule (1996:119) lists a large number of reversive pairs, of which the following is a selection: *enter/exit*, *pack/unpack*, *lengthen/shorten*, *raise/lower*, and *dress/undress* .

It seems that the directional opposites involve relative states. The reversive pairs of this type denote changes between states defined as having a particular relationship to one another, for example, the pair *lengthen/shorten*: for something to have undergone a process of lengthening, it is enough that its final state should be longer than its initial state, whereas for shorten, the initial state must be longer than the final state (Cruse, 1986:227).

#### 2.4.2.4 Relational Opposites

They are different from gradable opposites in that they are not susceptible to degrees of opposition (Finch, 2000:151). “**Relational opposites**” as termed by Cruse (1986:231), also called “**relative terms**” by Egan (1968:28a), and “ **conversive terms** ” by both Lyons (1977:279) and Saeed (1997:67), include pairs such as *above/below*, *parent/child*, and *teacher/student*.

However, Soltan (2003:4) defines these pairs as “ pairs of words which display symmetry in their meaning. If X gives Y to Z, then Z receives Y from X ”, for instance, buy/sell and give/receive:

(20) If Peter bought the car from John, then John sold the car to Peter.

(21) If James gave the keys to Gordon, then Gordon received the keys from James.

(ibid.)

At the same level, Egan (1968:28a) names them as “ pairs of words which indicate such a relationship that one of them cannot be used without suggesting the other ”. In this respect, Cruse (1986:231) considers this class to be a sub- class of the directional opposites. He says that these pairs “ express a relationship between two entities by specifying the direction of one relative to the other along some axis.” In examples like above/below , this axis is spatial:

(22) a. My office is above the library.

b. The library is below my office.

(Saeed, 1997:67)

In (22), Saeed (ibid.) sees that these relations are part of the speaker’s semantic knowledge via which s/he expresses the same relation.

Furthermore, Cruse (1986:231) emphasizes that other examples, ancestor/descendant , involve “ an analogical or metaphorical extension of spatial dimensions.” Lyons (1977:280) also points out that many opposites of this type involve social roles (teacher/student, doctor/patient) or kinship relations (father/mother, son/daughter).

Obviously, Pinker (2003:11) explains that sometimes one of these terms has a dual function: as a member of a pairing, and also as an inherent quality, as the examples, doctor/patient, predator/prey and teacher/student, since the first term can exist without the second as a basic property of a person or an animal. Also one can be a doctor (i.e., hold an M.D.) even without patients, but a patient cannot exist without a doctor (or other healthcare provider). Sometimes, relational terms are expressed by the same word, for example, 'rent':

(23) If John rents the house to Bill, then Bill rents the house  
from John.

( West, 2000:4)

In various types of opposites discussed so far... gradable antonyms, complementaries, directional opposites, and so on ... all illustrate the essential properties of antonymy: they are pairs of words which simultaneously seem close and yet far apart in meaning; words which share some kind of semantic dimension, but denote contrasting values along that dimension. But simply looking at the different types of opposites does not go very far in explaining what makes two particular words antonyms and how we could recognize them as antonyms. To address these questions, it is useful to look at near-opposites, pairs of words which contrast in some way but which do not seem to be '**real**' opposites. In the next section some examples of near-opposites are given.

### 2.4.3 Near – Opposites

In the linguistic literature in general, little attention has been paid to the topic of near-opposite. Two exceptions are Cruse (1986), and Lehrer and Lehrer (1982), who describe different types of near-opposites. Their explanations of why these pairs fail to be antonyms provide valuable clues to the nature of antonymy.

One of the types of near-opposites discussed by Cruse (1986:198) is what he calls “ **impure** ” opposites. He mentions that these are opposites “ which encapsulate, or include within their meaning, a more elementary opposition.”, for example, he says:

*Giant: dwarf* can be said to encapsulate the opposition between ‘*large*’ and ‘*small*’ (but this opposition does not exhaust their meaning); likewise, ‘*shout*’ and ‘*whisper*’ encapsulate ‘*loud*’ and ‘*soft*’, ‘*criticize*’ and ‘*praise*’ encapsulate ‘*good*’ and ‘*bad*’...

(ibid.)

Cruse’s examples of pure opposites are adjectives and his impure opposites are basically nouns or verbs, so the “ **impurity** ” may lie in the nominal or verbal elements of meaning associated with these words. It seems that with adjective pairs such as *large/small* or *loud/quiet*, the shared semantic dimension makes up the largest part of their meaning, while nominal or verbal pairs have additional semantic elements; *shout* and *whisper*, for example, are manner-of-speaking verbs, while *dwarf* and *giant* describe people (ibid.) .

Another type of near-opposites described by Cruse (1986:262) includes pairs that are only weakly contrasted because of “ the difficulty of establishing what the relevant dimension or axis is ” . He gives *work/play* and *town/country* as examples. Cruse (ibid.), here, does not analyze these pairs at all, but they seem somewhat like opposites because there are two alternatives that provide an either/or choice in a particular context. However, it is not clear, how this type is different from prototypical pairs such as *black/white* or *happy/sad*.

In addition, Cruse (ibid.) says that “ **nonpropositional meaning** ” is important to antonymy. He writes:

A good pair of opposites must be closely matched in respect of their nonpropositional meaning: that is why, for instance ‘tubby’ and ‘emaciated’ are not fully satisfactory opposites, although they incorporate a binary directional opposition.

In such cases, “ nonpropositional meaning ” refers to the connotations associated with the words. *Tubby* is an adjective that has rather positive connotations in that it is used to affectionately describe someone who is somewhat overweight but not dangerously so, while *emaciated* is more impersonal, and also conveys the idea that the thinness is possibly life-threatening (Moore, 2000:6).

Lehrer and Lehrer (1982:495) also term a few different types of near-opposites. One type includes pairs such as *excellent/bad*, and *hot/freezing*, in which both words are associated with the same semantic dimension, but one term describes a state that is more “extreme ” than the other.

Related to this issue, they (ibid.:496) have one more thought about near-opposites, suggesting that some near-opposites may be a result of multi –dimensional scales. They give an example involving words related to “ *intelligence* ”, saying that dictionaries of antonyms list different words as possible antonyms of “ *clever*” including *dull*, *stupid*, *unintelligent*, *unskillful*, *slow*, *dense*, *simple*, and *foolish* . These antonyms of “*clever* ” are all partial synonyms of each other, including *smart*, *able*, *intelligent*, *skillful*, and *ingenious*. Seemingly, most of the combinations form near-opposites, for example, *clever/unskillful* or *ingenious/dense*.

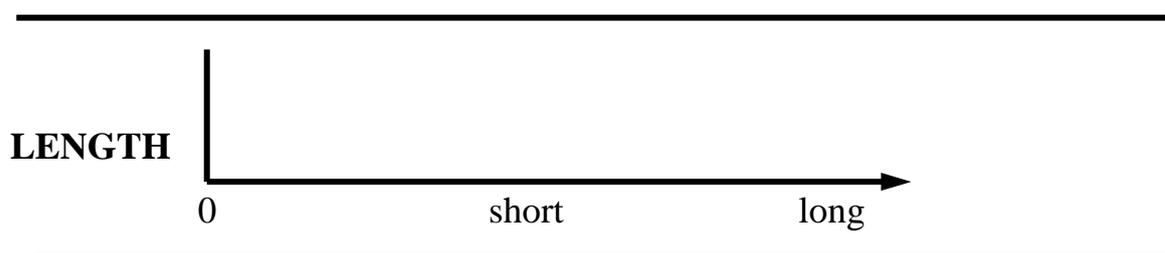
#### **2.4.4 Sub – Classes of Antonyms: Monoscalar and Biscalar Systems**

It has been mentioned that (see Kennedy, 2001:52) a “**scale** ” is a linearly ordered, infinite set of points, associated with a dimension that indicates the type of measurement that the scale represents, for instance, ‘height’, ‘length’, ‘weight’, ‘brightness’ and so forth. In this section, a detailed justification of a number of gradable antonyms will be given depending on how the terms are used for different parts of the scale.

Pusch (2003:4) states that for pair of antonyms, there is a common underlying gradable property for both members (otherwise they could not be opposites): **MERIT** for *bad/good*, **SIZE** for *large/small*, **TEMPERATURE** for *cold/hot* and so on. But at a more superficial level, the properties have certain independence. Where a single scale underlies a pair of polar antonyms, there are two scales underlying a pair of

overlapping or equipollent antonyms. However, Cruse and Togia (1995:130) portray diagrammatically the relationship between the different senses associated with gradable antonyms.

The first division is between antonyms which involve a single scale and those involve two separate scales working in tandem. A simplified version of a monoscalar system is given in Figure (2.3):

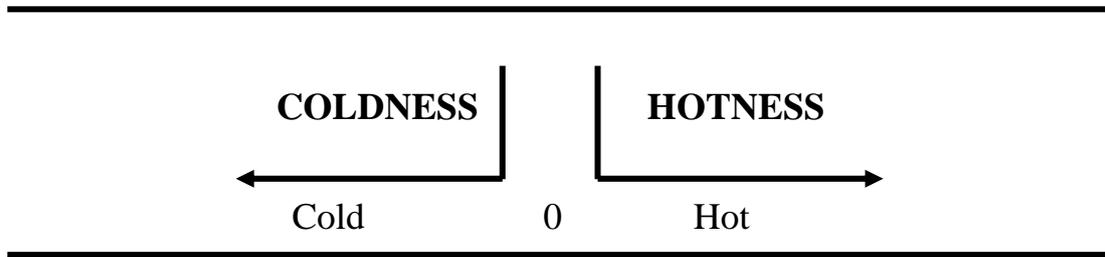


*Figure (2.3): A Simplified Monoscalar System .*

(Cruse and Togia, 1995:130)

Obviously, the scale denotes a single property, in this case, length; the scale has an end-point denoting zero value of the property at one end, and extends indefinitely in the other direction (ibid.).

On the other hand, there are three basic types of biscalar system, depending on the relative disposition of the two scales. In the equipollent patterns, the properties of the two scales are fully symmetrical. There are possibilities, here, either the scales are arranged end-to-end, and are completely disjunct, or they are completely overlapping. The disjunct is exemplified by *hot/cold* (Pusch, 2003:4). Cruse (1986:211-13) and Cruse and Togia (1995:131) draw figures for the three types.

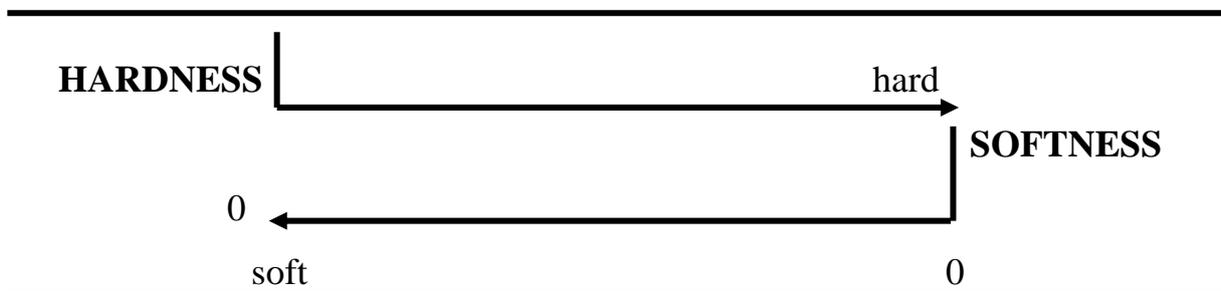


*Figure (2.4): A Disjunct Equipollent System .*

(Cruse, 1986:211)

In this, we have two independent scales which meet at their zero points, and extend indefinitely in opposite directions.

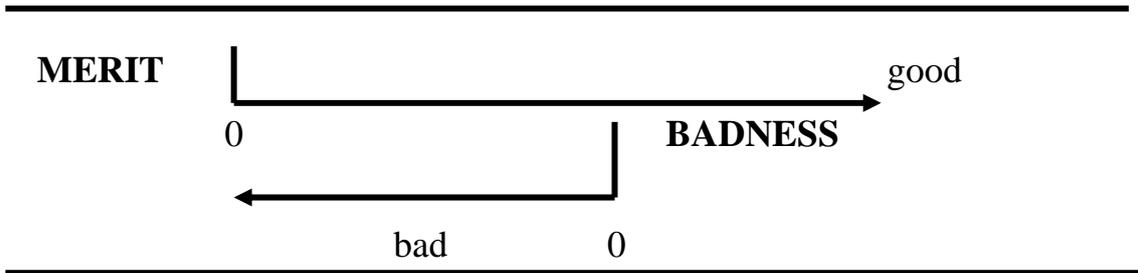
Cruse and Togia (1995:131) represent the parallel type which appears to be rare. The two scales run parallel to one another over their whole length, See Figure (2.5):



*Figure (2.5): A Parallel Equipollent System .*

(ibid.)

In contrast, Cruse (1986:213) shows that in overlapping system, there is partial overlap between the two scales: there is a major scale (**MERIT**) and a minor scale (**BADNESS**), See Figure (2.6):



*Figure (2.6): An Overlapping System .*

(ibid.)

## 2.4.4.1 Monoscalar System

### 2.4.4.1.1 Polar Antonyms

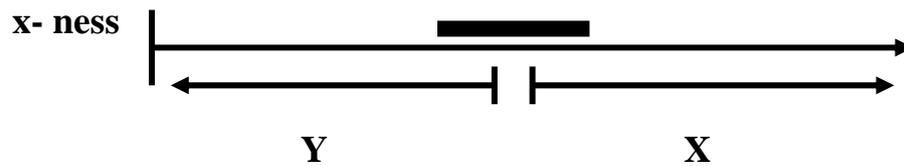
Kearns (2000:13) defines polar antonyms as “ terms that give opposite poles on a scale for a particular property which commonly has a separate neutral term, for example, *high/low*, *fast/slow*, and *wide/narrow*”. More precisely, Cruse (1986:207) asserts that there is a pseudo-comparative corresponding to each member of a pair, for example:

(24) It’s short, but it’s longer than the other one.

(25) It’s long, but it’s shorter than the other one.

(ibid.)

In this type, Cruse and Togia (1995:131) demonstrate a full monoscalar system. See figure (2.7) (The simpler diagrams presented in Figure (2.3) indicated only the absolute scales):



*Figure (2.7): A Full Monoscalar System .*

(ibid.)

In such a case there are two basic ways of perceiving the quantity of something: we can either look at it in absolute terms; (e.g., 25 cm, 1.7 kg), or we can view it as more or less than some reference value (a long pencil, a heavy suitcase). These two ways correspond to what has been called the absolute scale and the relative scale respectively. In Figure (2.7), the upper scale is the absolute scale, and the heavy line indicates the reference value (or range) for the relative scale (ibid.). Accordingly, Pusch (2003:3) claims that such pairs are “ typically evaluatively neutral and objectively descriptive, for the majority of cases, the underlying scaled property can be measured in conventional units such as inches, grams, or miles per hour ”.

It has been admitted by Pinker (2003:13) that in a polar opposition, either adjectives can be used in a comparison without implying the basic quality of the term, just relative location on the scale.

(26) This leaf is heavier than that feather.

= “ but neither is heavy. ”

(27) An elephant is lighter than a whale.

= “ but neither is light. ”

(ibid.)

#### 2.4.4.1.2 Pseudo – Comparative Antonyms

Kearns (2000:3) states that polar antonyms like short/long are usually characterized by the generality of their comparative forms, i.e., the comparisons: A is longer than B and B is shorter than A can be used naturally of any two objects, whether they are long or short .

(28) a. A and B are both short, but A is longer than B. (has a sense of linear extent)

b. It is long. (has a sense of longness)

(ibid.:8-9)

Related to this point, Kennedy (2001:41) illustrates that the two adjectives provide “opposite ” perspective on the same value (e.g., length, weight, speed, and so forth). Thus, the pseudo-comparative longer can be used to relate two short objects, because it relates different degrees of length rather than different degrees of longness.

However, (29) also has a crucial interpretation which confirms Kearns’ classification of pseudo-comparative antonyms:

(29) a. ? This box is light, but it’s heavy.

b. This box is light, but it’s heavier than that one.

(Cruse, 1986:207)

This means that ‘heavier ’ does not mean ‘ heavy to a greater degree’, but ‘of greater weight’, and should therefore describe ‘heavier’ as the pseudo-comparative of heavy (in, e.g., It’s heavy) in which there is no clash between heavier and light (ibid.).

On the same level, Rotstein and Winter (2002:8) conclude that a preceding assertion that the weather is cold produces oddness in the following cases:

(30) a. ? It's cold today, but it's hot.

b. ? It's cold today, but it's hotter than yesterday.

Here, it seems that 'hotter' does mean 'hot to a greater degree'. Therefore, it should be described as the true comparative of *hot*.

#### **2.4.4.2 Biscalar Systems**

Biscalar system incorporates a pair of counter-directional monoscalar system, and it includes two types: the equipollent type and the overlapping type. In this area, equipollent antonyms are distinguished by the fact that the two terms of the opposition are symmetrical in all their properties. In the overlapping type, one term has a true comparative, whereas the other term is a pseudo-comparative.

##### **2.4.4.2.1 Equipollent Antonyms**

Pusch (2003:2) points out that both members of a pair have true comparative, and their behaviour is completely symmetrical. Pinker (2003:13) argues that neither member of the pair is privileged, and both are committed. The most obvious pairs are *hot/cold*, *happy/sad*, *sweet/sour*, *ashamed of/ proud of*, *nasty/nice*, and *beneficial/harmful*.

In the case of hot/cold, Pinker (ibid.) remarks that such a pair may be regarded as the prototypical disjunct equipollent in English and a question can be formed with either word.

- (31) a. How hot is it today?  
b. How cold is it today?

It is notable that hot and cold form a mixed scale in which they resemble equipollent antonyms. But, as Kearns (2000:9) claims that hot and cold also resemble polar antonyms when they describe a measurable property with a neutral term temperature forming what might one expect pseudo-comparative. In this spirit, they would express various degrees of temperature rather than of heat or cold (which is hotness or coldness), being represented on the temperature scale from the intermediate terms warm and cool. Thus (32) and (33) are significantly less anomalous than (34) and (35):

- (32) This pan feels hot, but it feels cooler than that one/still feels cooler than that one, nonetheless.  
(33) This bottle feels cold, but it feels warmer than that one/still warmer than that one, nonetheless.  
(34) ? This pan feels hot, but it feels colder than that one/ still feels colder than that one, nonetheless.  
(35) ? This bottle feels cold, but it feels hotter than that one, Nonetheless.

(Cruse and Toggia, 1995:1350)

### 2.4.4.2.2 Overlapping Antonyms

This type suggests that the positive pole comparative is a pseudo-comparative and the negative pole comparative is a true comparative, for example:

- (36) a. John has a dull lad, but he is cleverer than the other one.  
b. Bill has a clever lad, but he is duller than John.

(Peters, 2002:8)

Pusch (2003:3) proposes that overlapping antonyms have the following characteristics:

1- The comparative form of one member is impartial, while that of the other is committed.

- (37) John and Bill both got bad marks in the exam, although  
John's marks were better than Bill's.

2- Both members are normal in quantified comparatives; one member is impartial, and the other is committed.

- (38) Both marks are admittedly bad, but Bill's was twice as  
good as John's.

3- Both members are normal in ' how ' questions.

- (39) How good were the results this year?  
(ibid.)

In addition, Lundberg (2002:5) shows that “ **inherentness** ” is a property of overlapping pairs, and of no other variety. It can be illustrated with **good/bad** pairs, for example, sentence (40) is quite normal:

- (40) John, Bill and Tom are all pretty hopeless at tennis; John  
is a little better than Bill, while Tom is slightly worse.

It seems that not every “ *bad* ” thing can be normally described as better than something else, even when that something else is qualifiable as worse. There is a plenty of lexical items which do not collocate normally with “ *better* ” : *debt*, *drought*, *earth-quakes*, *failure*, *famine*, *flood*, *headache*, and so on. These items all nouns whose referents may be said to be “ inherently bad ”(Pusch, 2003:4).

# ***CHAPTER THREE***

## **DATA COLLECTION: THE TEST**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter is concerned with the test design and the procedures followed in carrying out the practical part of the study .It discusses the following topics: subjects, material selection, specific and general objectives of the test, test description, and scoring scheme are distributed over the items of the test.

Therefore, administration of the pilot test and the main test is taken into consideration; validity and reliability of the test are briefly explained and the analysis of the test is presented in detail.

### **3.2 The Subjects**

The sample of the study comprises one group of the testees which consists of 60 students (20 males and 40 females) of the fourth stage of the Department of English, College of Education, University of Babylon. The whole sample is randomly chosen. However, certain information is taken into consideration such as their age, nationality and linguistic background. The native language of the students is Arabic. Students whose native language is other than Arabic or who have had a language contact with native speakers of English are excluded from the sample, so

as students from countries other than Iraq because their English language background may be different from that background of Iraqi students. Furthermore, the students' age ranges between (21-22) years. Consider table (1.3) that illustrates the age, the stage, and the number of males and females of the sample.

<b>College of Education</b>	<b>Stage</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Total</b>
	<b>Fourth</b>	<b>21-22years</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>Total</b>			<b>20</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>60</b>

*Table (3.1): Sample of the Study.*

### 3.3 Material Selection

The test is constructed in such a way as to survey the different types of antonyms where sentences containing them are collected from the references <sup>(1)</sup> that deal with lexical relations especially antonyms. So, the

---

(1). The references from which the material of the test is taken are as follows:

Alexander, L.G. (1967) Developing Skills: An Integrated Course for Intermediate Students. Hong Kong: Longman Group Ltd.

\_\_\_\_\_ (1970) Sixty Steps to precis: A New Approach to Summary - Writing for Overseas Students. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Longman Group Ltd.

Cruse, D. (1986) Lexical Semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johns, T. (2003) Antonymy. Internet: <http://web.bhan.ac.uk/johnstif/antonym.htm>.

items will be genuine and dependable for the study. The items cover as far as possible the common types of antonyms as well as their characteristics.

Moreover, the selection of the items of the test and its questions have been submitted to a jury <sup>(2)</sup> of nine experienced University teachers whose recommendations have been taken into consideration.

After making the required refinements suggested by the jury, all members of this jury as well as the researcher's supervisors approved the test.

### **3.4 Test Objectives**

#### **3.4.1 Specific Objectives**

The test is carried out to verify or refute the following hypotheses:

1. Iraqi EFL college students face difficulties in manipulating antonyms
2. There is a significant difference between students' awareness of antonyms at the recognition and the production levels.

---

(2). The experts to whom the test was submitted are arranged according to scientific degree:

1. Prof. Sabah S. Al-Rawi, Ph.D., College of languages, University of Baghdad.
2. Prof. Salih Mahdy , M.A., College of Education, University of Babylon.
3. Asst.Prof. Abdul Latif Al- Jumaily, Ph. D., College of Arts, University of Baghdad.
4. Asst.Prof. Riyadh Tariq Al-Ameedi, Ph.D., College of Education, University of Babylon.
5. Asst.Prof. Fatin Khairi Al-Rifa'i , Ph.D., College of Education, Ibn Rushed, University of Baghdad.
6. Asst.Prof. Omran Moosa Mahood, Ph.D., College of Education, University of Baghdad.
7. Asst.Prof. Razzaq Nayif Mukheef, M.A., College of Education, University of Babylon.
8. Lecturer. Mayssa Kadhim, Ph.D., College of Education, University of Al-Qadissiya.
9. Lecturer. Chassib Fannukh Abbas, Ph.D., Open Educational College , Babylon.

### **3.4.2 General Objectives**

The test aims at investigating the area of weakness and the difficulty faced by Iraqi EFL college students in the fourth stage concerning antonyms at the recognition and the production levels. The test can be regarded both diagnostic and achievement .The test is diagnostic since it identifies where problems exist (Oller, 1987:45). It checks the students' ability in learning the lexical relations, especially antonymy by providing information about the nature and the type of difficulties that can be systematically used to suggest remedial work.

Moreover, the specification of the nature of difficulties encountered in this area aims at discovering the reasons beyond the occurrence of the errors. In this respect, the test can also be regarded as an achievement test. It looks back over a period which is longer than the diagnostic period (Harrison, 1983:7).

### **3.5 Test Description**

The test under analysis comprises four questions. The first two questions are designed to measure the students' ability at the recognition level of antonyms, whereas the last two are designed to measure their proficiency at the production level. It might be expected that such equal division of tasks renders the test sufficiently balanced. Furthermore, such double equivalent versions in the same test are considered helpful in increasing security as well as providing mechanism for demonstrating

improvement across college stages (Bell, 1981:201). Besides, such an equal division increases the reliability of the test.

The first question consists of ten items each of which has four options among which the testees are required to choose only one which is considered to be the correct opposition of the underlined word in each sentence. This question aims at probing the testees' ability in recognizing the suitable option that substitutes the underlined word.

The second question is also of ten items, which intends to measure the testees' recognition level as far as the types of antonyms are concerned. The testees are given a list of ten words and ten blanks in each sentence. The words given in the list should be selected in a way that refers to the opposite meaning of the underlined words in each sentence and, at the same time, gives a meaningful sentence.

Concerning the third question of fifteen items, each sentence is given with an underlined antonymy. Within each item a blank is given and what is required is to fill the blank with the suitable opposite that gives a complete meaning. Here, the items (1) and (2), for example, illustrate the different degrees of hot/cold pair on a scale. Thus, question three is a production one; its main aim is to measure the ability of the testees to produce correct and full sentences by giving the suitable opposite for each antonym.

The objective of the fourth question of fifteen items is also to assign both the antonym and its apposite in each item. Thus, this question is a production one. It aims at measuring the testees' ability to master the types of antonyms in which the students are asked to find out the required

antonym and its opposite. This will be useful in discovering whether the testees know or not the antonyms in each item.

### **3.6 Scoring Scheme**

In order to secure the reliability of the test under analysis, two different objective methods have been adopted. The first is concerned with designing the test in a way that makes the process of scoring its items accurate and easy. This is achieved by asking the testees to answer any item either by selecting a suitable choice or by filling the blank with the suitable opposite. The testee's answer to any item will be either correct or incorrect. If the choice or the word being selected is right, the testee's answer will be correct. Otherwise it will be incorrect. For the sake of making the scoring more valid, trivial spelling mistakes committed by the testees at the recognition and the production levels have been neglected. Second, the test was scored out of (100) and the scores were distributed in such a way as to give two scores for each correct item in each question and a zero score is given for both incorrect and avoided items assuming that the latter are considered incorrect.

Consider table (3.2) that demonstrates the scoring scheme.

<b>No. Of Q.</b>	<b>No. Test Items</b>	<b>Scores</b>	<b>Percentages</b>
<b>I</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>II</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>III</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>IV</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

*Table (3.2): Scoring Scheme.*

### **3.7 Pilot Administration**

Before conducting the main test in its final version to the whole sample mentioned previously, a pilot test has been conducted to another sample of (10) students selected randomly from the fourth stage. The pilot test, as Harris (1969:25) refers to “trying out the test material on a similar group to that for whom the test is being designed”.

On the eighteenth of April of the academic year (2003-2004) this test was administered on ten students chosen from the fourth stage of the Department of English, College of Education, University of Babylon. Those students were selected randomly.

The aim beyond conducting the pilot test is to specify the suitable time the testees need to answer the whole items, so that the time specified

in this pilot test will be determined in the main test. The pilot test is also important to check whether its questions and items are clear or not so that a smooth performance can be achieved in the main test. Moreover, the pilot test is useful to know the testees' reaction towards it and their general assessment of its contents.

Having been analyzed and checked, the students' pilot responses have shown that the time required for answering the test items is one hour including five minutes allotted for the clarification that is required for answering all the items of the test. The instructions, on the other hand, were needed to be explained by the researcher in order to be understood by the students.

In addition, no modifications on the test and the scoring scheme were made. Accordingly, this test will be administered as a main test without any change.

### **3.8 Item Analysis**

After scoring the test papers, the researcher has arranged the scored test in order of scores, from the highest to the lowest score. This is emphasized by Carroll and Hall (1985:115) who state that item responses which are answered by students correctly should be put in a descending order from the top to the bottom.

The researcher, then, separated two subgroups of test papers; an upper group consisting of the top (27%) of the total group who received

the highest scores, and a lower group including an equal number of papers (27%) who received the lowest scores. The researcher also counted the number of times each response to each item is chosen correctly on the papers of the upper group and does the same separately for the papers of the lower group. In doing so, she intended to calculate the difficulty level (henceforth DL) or (facility value) of each item. It means as Gronlund (1976:211) remarks “the percentage of students who got the item right”; so, in order to find out the level of difficulty for each item in the test, the following formula has been used:

$$DL = \frac{HC + LC}{\text{Total Number of the Sample}}$$

Where:

DL = Difficulty level

HC = High correct

HL = Low correct

(Madsen, 1983:180)

Mehrens and Lehmann (1984:191) consider that the DL ranges from (15) to (85) percent, whereas Bloom et al. (1981:95) state that a good spread of results can be obtained if the test items vary in difficulty from (20) to (80) percent. After the application of Item Difficulty formula, it has been found that the DL of items ranges between (0.14-1.0). It should be noted that in question (IV), there is item (8) which has zero difficulty level, but the researcher thinks that it is better not to exclude it, since it may be relevant to some aspects of the test. See table (3.3:pp 57).

Another important procedure in item analysis is calculating the item discrimination power (DP) which can be defined as “the degree to which an item discriminates between students with high and low

achievement.”(Gronlund,1976:268). So, to obtain the discrimination power of the items, the following formula has been used:

$$DP = \frac{RU - RL}{\frac{1}{2} T}$$

Where:

DP = Discriminatory power.

RU = The number of testees in the upper group who got the item right.

RL = The number of testees in the lower group who got the item right.

T = The total of testees included in item analysis.

( ibid.)

Ahman and Glock (1975:139) admit that the acceptable discriminatory power of each item is (20%) and above. Concerning this study, the items discriminatory power ranges between (0-0.70). See table (3.3).

It is clear from table (3.3) that there are five weak items in their discrimination. The researcher cannot exclude them because these items are relevant to some aspects of the achievement to be measured by the test.

In this respect, Ebel (1972:395) assures that if the low discrimination is not due to technical weakness in the items or to inappropriate difficulty, the test constructor should include them regardless of their low discrimination if s/he remains convinced that they do belong and are clearly relevant to some aspects of the achievement to be measured by the test.

<b>Questions</b>	<b>Item No.</b>	<b>Difficulty Level</b>	<b>Discrimination Power %</b>
<b>(I)</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>0</b>
	<b>2</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>0.52</b>
	<b>3</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.33</b>
	<b>4</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.36</b>
	<b>5</b>	<b>0.70</b>	<b>0.47</b>
	<b>6</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.46</b>
	<b>7</b>	<b>0.44</b>	<b>0.53</b>
	<b>8</b>	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0.53</b>
	<b>9</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.48</b>
	<b>10</b>	<b>0.88</b>	<b>0.30</b>
<b>(II)</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.52</b>
	<b>2</b>	<b>0.72</b>	<b>0.48</b>
	<b>3</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.36</b>
	<b>4</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.57</b>
	<b>5</b>	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0.28</b>
	<b>6</b>	<b>0.29</b>	<b>0.52</b>
	<b>7</b>	<b>0.50</b>	<b>0.48</b>
	<b>8</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.63</b>
	<b>9</b>	<b>0.29</b>	<b>0.52</b>
	<b>10</b>	<b>0.48</b>	<b>0.50</b>
<b>(III)</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.37</b>
	<b>2</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.36</b>
	<b>3</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.46</b>
	<b>4</b>	<b>0.58</b>	<b>0.50</b>
	<b>5</b>	<b>0.34</b>	<b>0.37</b>
	<b>6</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.63</b>
	<b>7</b>	<b>0.46</b>	<b>0.70</b>
	<b>8</b>	<b>0.38</b>	<b>0.53</b>
	<b>9</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>0.44</b>
	<b>10</b>	<b>0.34</b>	<b>0.28</b>
	<b>11</b>	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.09 *</b>
	<b>12</b>	<b>0.47</b>	<b>0.53</b>
	<b>13</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.15 *</b>
	<b>14</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.20</b>
	<b>15</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.34</b>

(IV)	1	0.25	0.21
	2	0.30	0.47
	3	0.14	0.07 *
	4	0.18	0.13 *
	5	0.20	0.35
	6	0.37	0.60
	7	0.22	0.37
	8	0	0 *
	9	0.27	0.53
	10	0.27	0.53
	11	0.49	0.43
	12	0.30	0.47
	13	0.24	0.33
	14	0.24	0.33
	15	0.24	0.33

*Table (3.3): The difficulty Level and Discriminatory Power of the Test.*

### **3.9 The Main Test Administration**

The main test was conducted during April, 2004. The testees were told that their performance is very important to set up certain pedagogical implications. Thus, the testees took the test seriously as they were asked. To save time and efforts, the testees were asked to answer on the test sheet itself, which has enough spaces to answer on. The testees were also asked to give their remarks and comments on the test. The testees were not embarrassed when answering the test nor when commenting on it since they were told they did not need to write their names on the test sheet. Most of the testees' comments revealed that they had enjoyed the test and the design of its question finding them useful. Thus, the testees took the test seriously leaving few items unanswered.

---

\* . These items have low discriminatory power.

### 3.10 Test Virtues

The most important features of a good test are **reliability**, **validity**, and **practicality** (Harrison, 1983:10). In this connection, Ingram (1968:70) states that tests are only worth having if they accurately (reliably), what one wants them to measure (validity). In other words, test reliability refers to the precision of results while test validity refers to the test to measure what it is designed for (Mehrens and Lehman, 1984:84). Bell (1981:198) summarizes the virtues of the three test features as follows:

The test, which measures what we want to measure and measures it in a manner which we find acceptable is a **valid** test. If it does this without significant variation when the examiners and other test conditions are not altered, it is a **reliable** test. And if it can do this with ease and economy, it is a **practical** test.

As far as reliability and validity are concerned, these two features have been tackled in sections: (3.10.1) and (3.10.2) respectively. As for practicality, this feature is achieved by conducting the test with economy (saving time and efforts) and ease (showing smoothness of: administration, responding to its items and scoring), see sections (3.6) (3.7) and (3.9).

#### 3.10.1 Reliability

As has been mentioned in the previous section, test reliability refers to the stability of test scores when administered on two different occasions under the same (not identical) circumstances (Lado, 1961:330).

Many linguists among whom Lado (1961:332), Harris (1969:15-16) and Gronlund (1976:102) affirm that the reliability of the test can be estimated by means of four methods. The first one is characterized by two administrations of the same test at the same testees with a reasonable time interval between them. In this way, the test is said to be reliable provided that the results of the two tests are similar. This is known as a test- retest method.

The second method is related to the use of two different versions of the same test which are said to be equal in length, difficulty, time limits, format and other related aspects.

The third method consists of dividing the items of the test into two halves - the procedure whereby two scores for each individual are obtained. This is known as spilt - half method.

The fourth method of estimating the reliability of the test is that of Kuder- Richardson whereby one form of the test requires a single administration.

The present test is estimating by adopting the fourth method of which the following formula can be considered:

$$KR21 = \frac{K}{K-1} \left( 1 - \frac{M(K-M)}{K(SD)^2} \right)$$

Where:

K = The number of the test items.

M = The mean of the test scores.

SD = The standard deviation of the test scores.

This formula will be applied in the next chapter.

Finally, Harris (1969:16) points out that the satisfactory reliability coefficient falls between 1.00, which indicates perfect reliability and 0.00, which denotes absence of reliability.

### **3.10.2 Validity**

A good test is characterized by being valid. Best (1970:193), Stanley and Hopkink (1972:101) and Heaton (1975: 153) indicate that a test is valid if it achieves the aim for which it is designed or measures what is supposed to be measured. This feature is essential in tests since it enables the researcher to have faith in the test results (Bell, 1981:192).

The most important types of validity are two: **content** validity and **face** validity. **Content** validity is concerned with what goes into the test (the test contents). Harris (1969:19) points out that a test is said to have content validity if it is based on a careful analysis of the material which is intended to be assessed and measured. This is determined by considering the purposes of the test assessment which are scheduled in a list of content specification. This list is important to ensure that the test covers all areas to be assessed in suitable proportions with no bias towards the easiest items or towards only the items which happen to be available (Richards, 1971:11).

The areas assessed in the present test represent the most types of antonyms. These types are discussed in **Chapter two**. The test items (See appendix II) cover the widest possible types of antonyms. **Chapter two**

can be regarded, then, a list of content specification, and the testees will perform a task, which represents most types of antonyms.

**Face** validity, on the other hand, is concerned with the way the test takes to testees, testers, educators and the like (Mehrens and Lehman, 1984:285). If their evaluation to it is positive, face validity will be achieved. The testees admired the test and regarded it beneficial (See sections 3.7 and 3.9). The test was also approved by many educators, testers and other professionals in English Language Teaching, including the researcher's supervisors and a jury of nine university lecturers (See section 3.3). As a result, the test has achieved both types of validity, the face as well as the content validity.

### **3.11 Statistical Means**

The following statistical means are used in the analysis of the result of the study:

**1-** DL formula was used to find out the difficulty level of the items of the test

$$DL = \frac{HC + HL}{\text{Total Number of the Sample}}$$

(Madsen, 1983:180)

2- DP formula was used to elicit the discriminatory power of the items of the test.

$$DP = \frac{RU - RL}{1 / 2 T}$$

(Gronlund, 1976:268)

3- Kuder- Richardson21 formula was used to find out the reliability of the test.

$$KR21 = \frac{K}{K-1} \left( 1 - \frac{M(K-M)}{K(SD)^2} \right)$$

(Harris, 1969:16)

4- T-test for one sample was used to find out the significance of difference between the theoretical mean and the students' mean scores of both the recognition and the production levels.

$$t = \frac{x - a}{S / \sqrt{n}}$$

(Glass and Stanley, 1970:293)

5- T-test for two independent samples was used to find out the significance of difference between male and female testees in the test.

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{N_2}}}$$

(Ferguson, 1966:167)

# **CHAPTER FOUR**

## **INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the general results of the main test with the aid of tables and statistical means. It also analyzes the performance of the students (the testees) at the recognition and the production of antonyms and evaluates the implications of the given results at each level for the purpose of testing the validity of the two hypotheses of the study. An attempt is also made in order to find out the significance of differences between the theoretical <sup>(1)</sup> mean and the mean of the sample scores at both the recognition and the production levels. In addition, the testees' errors are analyzed to get at certain conclusions about the nature and scope of the difficulties encountered by the testees at the recognition and the production of antonyms. Also, it sheds light on the probable sources of the testees' errors.

### **4.2 General Results**

In this section, the overall general results of the test are outlined.

Three types of responses appear in the testees' answers to Questions I, II, III, and IV: i) correct, ii) incorrect, and iii) avoided items.

---

<sup>(1)</sup> . The theoretical mean is obtained by adding the highest and lowest marks and dividing

$$\text{it by (2): } M = \frac{100 + 0}{2} = 50$$

The following tables (4.1-4.7) offer a general profile for the total number and rate of the testees actual responses as far as the whole sample is concerned.

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided Items		Total Responses	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
420	70	180	30	0	0	600	100

*Table (4.1): Testees' Performance on Question I Recognition of Antonyms.*

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided Items		Total Responses	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
312	52	220	36.6	68	11.8	600	100

*Table (4.2): Testees' Performance on Question II Recognition of Antonyms.*

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided Items		Total Responses	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
386	42	442	49	77	8.5	902	100

*Table (4.3): Testees' Performance on Question III Production of Antonyms.*

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided items		Total Responses	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
125	13.6	432	47.6	345	38.3	902	100

*Table (4.4): Testees' Performance on Question IV Production of Antonyms.*

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided Items		Total Responses		Mean of Correct Responses
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	Out Of 40
732	61	400	33.3	65	5.4	1197	100	12

*Table (4.5): Testees' General Performance at the Recognition Level of Antonyms.*

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided Items		Total Responses		Mean of Correct Responses
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	Out Of 60
509	27.8	871	18.7	422	23.4	1802	100	8.4

*Table (4.6): Testees' General Performance at the Production Level of Antonyms.*

Correct Responses		Incorrect Responses		Avoided Items		Total Responses		Mean of Correct Responses
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	Out Of 100
1241	44.4	1271	40.8	487	14.4	2999	100	20.6

***Table (4.7): Testees' Overall Performance at the Recognition and the Production of Antonyms.***

All the tables above indicate the following results:

1. The testees' performance at the recognition level, whose mean is (12), is higher than their performance at the production level, whose mean is (8.4), since the rate of the correct responses at the former level stands at (61%) against (27.8%) for the latter level. These results validate the second hypothesis of the study (section 1.3) as far as the whole sample is concerned.
2. The testees' general performance at both the recognition and the production levels of the types of antonyms has stood at (44.4%) which is a low performance rate. Out of (60) testees, only (13) (i.e., 21.6%) have scored a pass mark of ( 50%) or above Even these pass-scores, which range between (50-78) out of(100), are significantly low. Such figures clearly indicate that the testees encounter serious problems at the recognition level and more highly at the production level.

3. The numerical comparison between the results of each two questions examining the same level reveals significant differences. At the recognition level, the testees correct responses- to Question I are [(420) out of (600)] and to Question II [(312)out of(600)]- have the differential ratio :  $\frac{2}{1197} = 0.00617$ . Remarkably enough, the testees' results at the production level show also a significant difference since their correct responses for Question III are [(386) out of (902)] and to Question IV [(123) out of (902)], and have the differential ratio:  $\frac{2}{1802} = 0.0011$ . Such a result confirms the validity of the second hypothesis of this study.
4. In terms of pass-nonpass scores, thirteen testees out of the total number of (60) testees (i.e., 21.6%) have scored (50) marks or more out of (100). The following table juxtaposes the overall performance of the pass-nonpass testees.

Subject	Correct Responses		Mean of Correct Responses	Incorrect Responses		Total Responses		Non -Pass Results		Pass Results	
	No.	%	Out of 100	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
60	1241	44.4	20.6	1758	55.2	2999	100	47	78.3	13	21.6

*Table (4.8): The Results of Pass-Nonpass Testees of the Test.*

### 4.3 Statistical Processes

This section is an attempt to achieve certain aims such as the reliability coefficient of the whole test and the difference between the theoretical mean and the mean scores of the sample at both the recognition and the production levels.

Investigating the above goals requires finding the mean (henceforth  $M$ ) and the standard deviation (henceforth  $SD$ ) of the testees' scores. The mean, as Lado (1961:305) defines, is "a middle amount to which all scores be reduced if they were made equal". It can be obtained by finding the sum of all the scores and dividing it by their number. Consider the following formula:

$$M = \frac{EX}{N}$$

Where:

EX = Refers to the total number of all the scores.

N = The number of such scores.

The application of the above formula to the whole test will result in:

$$M = \frac{2447}{60} = 40.78$$

Subtracting the mean from the individual score results in the deviation (henceforth  $D$ ) which is "the distance of each score from the mean". It can be expressed by the following formula:

$$D = X - M$$

Where: X= The individual score.

The value of the deviation is zero when the individual score is equal to the mean. It has either a plus sign when the former is larger than the latter or a minus sign when the opposite takes place (ibid.).

Standard deviation can be obtained by squaring the deviation of each individual score, adding them together, dividing them by the number of the testees minus one and obtaining their square root as illustrated in the following formula:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{E(X - M)^2}{N - 1}}$$

(Robson, 1973:46)

The application of the above formula to the whole test will result in:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{13350}{60 - 1}} = 15$$

The reliability coefficient of the whole test can be obtained by the application of Kuder and Richardson formula: (See 3.10.1)

$$\begin{aligned} KR21 &= \frac{60}{60-1} \left( 1 - \frac{40.78(60-40.78)}{60(15)^2} \right) \\ &= 1.016(1-0.058) \\ &= 1.016 * 0.942 \\ &= 0.95 \end{aligned}$$

The last aim to be investigated in this section is to find out the difference between the theoretical mean and the mean of the sample scores. A T-test for one sample has been obtained for this purpose.

Concerning the recognition level, the results of the T-test have shown that the difference is significant at  $p > 0.05$  with  $DF = 59$  and it is in favour of the members of the sample since the calculated T-value (4.389) is higher than the tabulated value which is (2). Comparing the mean of the sample scores at the recognition level which is (24.3000) with the theoretical mean which is (20), and with a standard deviation of (7.5897), it has become evident that the mean scores of the subjects is higher and valid. See Table (4.9).

Sample Mean	Theoretical Mean	Sample SD	Number	SD	Calculated T-value
24.3000	20	7.5897	60	59	4.389

***Table (4.9): T-value of the Difference Between the Mean of the Sample Scores and the Theoretical Mean at the Recognition Level.***

In order to find out the significance of difference between the two means at the production level, a T-test for one sample has also been used. The results of the t-test have shown that the difference is significant at  $p > 0.05$  with  $DF = 59$ , and in this the calculated T-value (-1.984) which is lower than the tabulated value (2). At the production level, the mean of the sample scores is (25.4167) and the theoretical mean is (30), with a standard deviation (17.8964). By this, it has become evident that the mean scores of the testees is lower than the theoretical mean. See Table (4.10).

Sample Mean	Theoretical Mean	Sample SD	Number	DF	Calculated T-value
25.4167	30	17.8964	60	59	-1.984

***Table (4-10): T-value of the Difference between the Mean of the Sample Scores and the Theoretical Mean at the Production Level.***

Concerning the whole test which includes both the recognition and the production levels, a T-test has been used for this purpose. Analyzing the results, the difference is significant at  $p > 0.05$  with  $DF = 59$  resulting in calculated T-value (0.094) which is lower than the tabulated value (2). Thus, by comparing the theoretical mean (50) with the mean of the sample scores which is (49.7167), with a standard deviation (23.3181), it has come out with the conclusion that the mean is lower than the theoretical one. Therefore, it can be considered acceptable. See table (4.11).

Sample Mean	Theoretical Mean	Sample SD	Number	DF	Calculated T-value
49.7167	50	23.3181	60	59	-0.094

***Table (4.11): T-Value of the Difference between the Mean of the Sample Scores and the Theoretical Mean of the Whole Test.***

In order to find out the significance of difference between the male and female learners in their total scores of the whole test by analyzing both the recognition and the production levels, a T-test for two independent samples was used. The T-test results have revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between the male and female learners at  $p > 0.05$  with  $DF = 58$ , and it is favour of the female learners, since the calculated T-values of the difference between male and female learners at the production level, and the whole test (3.869) and (2.711) respectively are higher than the tabulated T-value which is (2), whereas at the recognition level, the calculated T-value of the same difference is (0.286) which is lower than the tabulated T-value. This means that the mean of female learners is higher and valid in comparison with male learners. See Table (4.12).

<b>Level of Comparisons</b>	<b>Sex</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Sample Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Calculated T-Value</b>	<b>DF</b>
<b>The Recognition Level</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>24.1000</b>	<b>6.6326</b>	<b>0.286</b>	<b>58</b>
	<b>Female</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>24.100</b>	<b>8.1769</b>		
<b>The Production Level</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>14.0500</b>	<b>7.6673</b>	<b>3.869</b>	<b>58</b>
	<b>Female</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>31.1000</b>	<b>18.8813</b>		
<b>The Whole Test</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>38.7500</b>	<b>12.5021</b>	<b>2.711</b>	<b>58</b>
	<b>Female</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>55.2000</b>	<b>25.5716</b>		

*Table(4.12): T-Value, Means Standard Deviations of the Difference Between Males And Females.*

## 4.4 Item Analysis

Analysis of the testees' responses to the items can provide a useful means of estimating how much information each individual test item contributes to the information about the test as a whole. As for the aims of this study, evaluating each item difficulty can ascertain how effective the test items has been in verifying the two hypotheses of the study, especially the first one.

The difficulty of an item, known as its difficulty level (henceforth DL) or facility value (henceforth FV), is simply the percentage of the students who give the correct answer to it. This ratio is calculated by dividing the number of the correct responses of an item by the number of the testees, for example, if twenty out of twenty-five testees answer an item correctly, this item's DL or FV will be:  $\frac{20}{25} = 0.80$  or 80% (Harrison, 1983:128 and Heaton, 1975:172-3).

All the following tables (4.1.3-4.16) show the frequency of the correct responses to each test items and its DL or FV in Questions I-IV:

<b>Item Number</b>	<b>Number of Correct Responses</b>	<b>FV</b>
1	60	100%
2	52	87%
3	28	47%
4	40	67%
5	43	72%
6	54	90%
7	35	58%
8	12	20%
9	41	68%
10	57	95%

*Table (4.13): Facility Value of the Items of Question I.*

<b>Item Number</b>	<b>Number of Correct Responses</b>	<b>FV</b>
1	46	77%
2	43	72%
3	40	67%
4	29	48%
5	12	20%
6	20	33%
7	33	55%
8	38	63%
9	19	32%
10	32	53%

*Table (4.14): Facility Value of the Items of Question II.*

<b>Items Number</b>	<b>Number of Correct Responses</b>	<b>FV</b>
1	16	27%
2	45	75%
3	54	90%
4	31	52%
5	19	32%
6	37	62%
7	26	42%
8	20	33%
9	49	82%
10	23	38%
11	4	66%
12	28	47%
13	10	17%
14	5	8.3%
15	10	17%

*Table (4.15): Facility Value of the Items of Question III.*

Items Number	Number of Correct Responses	FV
1	4	7%
2	11	18%
3	1	2%
4	2	3.3%
5	9	15%
6	29	48%
7	5	8%
8	zero	6%
9	3	5%
10	6	10%
11	6	10%
12	26	43%
13	7	12%
14	7	12%
15	7	12%

*Table (4.16): Facility Value of the Items of Question IV.*

#### **4.5 Discussion of Item's FV**

The facility values of the test items of the testees fluctuate between the minimum rate of (0%) and maximum rate of (100%) as shown in tables (4.13-4.16). The easiest test items have been items (1) and (10) of Question I. which tests the recognition use of the antonyms open and wrong in the items:

**QI/ 1.** Helen, please remember to open the door when you leave.

- a. end
- b. close
- c. unlock
- d. push

10. Although these ideas prove to be wrong, the results are guaranteed to guide us towards accelerator appreciation of what is meant by mass.

- a. left
- b. prohibitive
- c. proper
- d. right

Concerning the other questions, the easiest test item has been item (3) of Question **III** which tests the production use of the antonym pair low|high in the sentence:

**QIII/ 3.** However, the budget is unlikely to go far enough in producing a framework for a low inflation, \_\_\_\_\_ growth economy.

On the other hand, the most difficult item, with zero FV has been item (8) of Question **IV** which tests the production use of the antonym pair corporate| individual in the sentence:

**QIV/8.** Nick Taylor, a partner with London-based town planning and development consultant .Chapman warren, comments:” I always advise clients, whether corporate or \_\_\_\_\_ , to object a compulsory purchase order”.

Significantly, no zero FV has been encountered in the testees' responses to Question I and II which are designed to test the recognition level, so is Question III which tests the production level. This result provides evidence confirming the validity of the first hypothesis proposed in the outline of this study.

What might be noted is that most <sup>(2)</sup> of the testees have produced meaningless sentences as illustrated in their responses to the items in the four questions. In question I, for example, some <sup>(3)</sup> students fail to recognize the correct response of item (8) which requires the testees to give the opposite of the word light, but it appears that there is a sort of confusion between the words dark and heavy. It seems that the testees give their responses without paying attention to the whole meaning of the sentence. Similarly, in Question II, item No. (5) seems difficult to most of the testees since the word expert, in this item requires the word lay person as its opposite. In Question III, items No. (1), (8), (13), and (15) are difficult to about half of the testees, i.e., they have produced incorrect responses such as:

- Question III** ? 1. warm            cold  
                           ? 2. incorrect        criminal  
                           ? 13. choral            partial  
                           ? 15. original         descent

The same thing can be said about the numerous incorrect responses to most of the test items of Question IV such as:

---

(2) . The word "most" refers to more than half of the testees, i.e., more than 50%.  
 (3) . The words "some" refers to less than half of the testees, i.e., less than 50%.

- Question IV**
- ? 1. abroad      inside
  - ? 3. close      open
  - ? 4. purchased      chatted
  - ? 5. trivial      simple

Finally, it can be concluded that the majority of the college students lack the ability of using antonyms correctly, and fail to deal with opposition accurately. Thus, the results confirm and validate the two hypotheses of the study.

#### **4.6 Error Analysis**

Researchers and teachers of second (or foreign) languages agree that the identification of the learners' errors should be followed by a careful analysis since all errors can hold some of the keys to the understanding of the process of foreign language learning (Brown, 1987:170). In this respect, Corder (1967:167) notes that learners' errors are significant in that they provide the researcher with an evidence of how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.

An error refers to the difference between the way people learning how to speak, and the way adult native speakers of the language use the language (Oller and Richards, 1973:114). But in another way, the term means the noticeable deviation from the adults' norms in the language learning process, which reflects the interlanguage of the learner (Brown, 1987:170). By interlanguage is meant L2 learner's separate system which has a structurally

intermediate status between the native and the target languages (Selinker, 1972:201).

As for the term strategy, it is defined as “ a particular method of approaching a problem or task, a mode of operation for achieving a particular end, a planned design for controlling and manipulating certain information.”(Brown, 1987:171).

#### **4.6.1 Sources of Errors**

Because errors are manifestations of the difficulties in the process of second language learning, they have long become the field of much concern to researchers and teachers of foreign language who have tried to find out the causes of these errors. The aim, here, is to use the findings of this field in organizing teaching materials, planning teaching strategies and evaluating learner’s achievements.

Though, it is not always easy to specify exactly the definite source of L2 learner’s errors since several simultaneous processes could be at play in this respect, plausible suggestions as explanations of the facts can often be made (Bell, 1981:175). According to Brown (1987:171), errors are attributable to four factors: i) **interlingual transfer**; ii) **intralingual transfer**; iii) **context of learning**; and iv) **communication strategies**.

#### 4.6.1.1 Interlingual Transfer

According to Littlewood (1987:22) foreign language learners “could be viewed as actively contrasting rules from the data they encounter and gradually adopting these rules in the direction of the target language”. The term used to refer to this system is ‘**interlingual**’ which means according to Selinker (1972:214), “...a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner’s attempted production of a target language norm”. This means that the process of learning a foreign language results in an interlanguage during which a learner may bring his native language (L1) into contact with the foreign language. In this case, features of the native language occur in learner’s interlanguage. Ellis (1965:3) specifies three types of transfer: **positive**, **negative**, and **zero transfer**. Positive transfer or facilitation refers to those instances where the carryover of L1 patterns or elements onto second language (L2) has a facilitating effect whenever the L1 and L2 systems resemble each other. Negative transfer or interference refers to the inhibition of L2 learning when the L1 and L2 systems differ from each other. Zero transfer occurs “either as a result of equal effects of positive and negative transfer.” (ibid.). Of the aforementioned three types of transfer, negative language interference is the most immediately noticeable source of error, often indicated by the use of translation (Taylor, 1975:164).

#### **4.6.1.2 Intralingual transfer**

Intralingual errors occur when the L2 learners begin to process the L2 in its own terms, and are reflected in **overgeneralizations** and **simplifications** (Ellis, 1986:171). Overgeneralization is a form of negative transfer which involves the incorrect application of the previously learned second language material to a present second language context (ibid.). Simplification, on the other hand, involves the L2 learner's attempts to control the range of hypotheses that he attempts to build at any single stage in his development by restricting hypothesis-formation to those which are relatively easy to form and then facilitate communication (ibid.). Other factors include processes like **incomplete applications of rules** which involves the inability to learn more complex types of structures because the learner thinks that he can achieve effective communication by using relatively simple rules (Brown, 1987:8-3).

#### **4.6.1.3 Context of Learning**

Context of learning refers to those errors induced by the classroom contents, the teacher, or the textbook materials. Here, misleading explanations by the teacher, incomplete or faulty presentation of linguistic structures or elements lead the students to make false concepts (ibid.:179). However, it is somehow difficult to trace errors to this source since this would require investigating the proficiency of all the teachers who have taught each testee, all the books he has studied and all the teaching methods.

#### 4.6.1.4 Communication Strategies

Communication strategies are those processes of both interlingual and intralingual transfer and the context of learning as the learner tries to get a message across the hearer or the reader. Communication strategies also refer to the tendency to stop learning once the learner feels he has attained a functional competence in the target language, or when certain elements in the target language do not seem to be crucial for effective communication (Sridhar, 1981:229). Some of these strategies are “**avoidance**” which means not saying what one wants to say, so one has the ability to solve the problem of how to express it, and “**appeal for repair and confirmation**” by which the learner seeks help on how to say what one wants to say from a person or other information source. Among these lie “**self-achievement options**” such as **paraphrasing, guessing, coinage, and approximation** (Scholfield and Katamine, 2000:2).

#### 4.6.2 Testees’ Sources of Errors

In this section, an attempt is made to identify the plausible causes of errors in the testees’ responses in terms of the four sources of errors outlined in the previous section. The results are given with the aid of tables and rates. Table (4.17) below sketches the distribution of the sources of errors in the testees’ responses.

ERROR SOURCE					
	Intralingual Errors	Communication Strategies	Context of Learning	Interlingual Transfer	Total
Number of Error	253	225	82	38	598
Rate	42.3%	37.7%	13.7%	6.3%	100%

*Table (4.17): Sources of Errors of the Whole Sample*

The results above show that intralingual errors and communication strategies are the most common sources of errors as they both account for **80%** of the total errors. Significantly, this indicator confirms the general observation that **intralingual errors** increase as the foreign language learners learned more about the foreign language and use this learning in reducing their linguistic burden through the incomplete application of the foreign language rules (Taylor, 1975:394). This is done through **overgeneralization**. For illustration, consider the following testees' erroneous responses in Question **I**, items (4 and 5); Question **II**, items (9 and 10) ; Question **III**, items (4,6,and 10 ) ; and in Question **IV**, items (2,3,and 6):

**QI/ Item 4:** The newly appointed boss in our company seems **generous**, so we should adopt a special way to deal with.

The newly appointed boss in our company seems **mean** , so we should adopt a special way to deal with.

? *The newly appointed boss in our company seems **kind**, so we should adopt a special way to deal with.*

**Item 5:** There are **many** ways to build a house.

There are **few** ways to build a house.

? *There are **some** ways to build a house*

Most of the subjects have recognized the words **kind**, in item(4),and **some**, in item(5) above as opposites of the words **generous**, and **many** respectively. Such kind of errors have been caused by overgeneralizing their knowledge of the meaning of those words and giving instead their synonyms.

**QII/ Item 9:** The Quince, C. Oblonga, a small tree of the rose family, has been cultivated since ancient times for its fragrant fruit . It is inedible when **raw** , but when thoroughly **cooked cursory** it makes excellent preserves.

? *The Quince, C. Oblonga, a small tree of the rose family, has been cultivated since ancient times for its fragrant fruit . It is inedible when **raw** , but when thoroughly **create** it makes excellent preserves.*

**Item 10:** Drinking the water in that lake is strictly **prohibited**. It could make you sick. But for some reason, swimming is **allowed** .

? *Drinking the water in that lake is strictly **prohibited**. It could make you sick. But for some reason, swimming is **cooked** .*

**QIII/ Item 4:** He started with the assumption that Lucan was **dead** , and finished concluding that he is **alive** and well and living in Botswana.

? *He started with the assumption that Lucan was **dead** , and finished concluding that he is **live** and well and living in Botswana .*

**Item 6:** British dominance of the English – speaking theatre has never been greater. This may be explained in many ways, from the **strength** of the nationed companies to the **weakness** of Broadway .

? *British dominance of the English – speaking theatre has never been greater. This may be explained in many ways, from the **strength** of the national companies to the **weakth** of Broadway.*

**Item 10:** Even if you normally rise late, force yourself to get up early; the more hours you have been **awake**, the quicker you will fall **asleep**.

? *Even if you normally rise late, force yourself to get up early; the more hours you have been **awake**, the quicker you will fall **sleeping**.*

**QIV/ Item 2:** It's the **same** thing every four years: Karen and I always have **opposite** opinions about the election.

? *It's the **similar** thing every four years: Karen and I always have **opposite** opinions about the election.*

**Item 3:** The “right to life” Lobby is wholly preoccupied with human life, but what is so special about human life, given that we are **close** cousins of apes and more **distant** cousins of all animals and plants?

? *The “right to life” Lobby is wholly preoccupied with human life, but what is so special about human life, given that we are **close** cousins of apes and more **open** cousins of all animals and plants?*

Intralingual errors also attributed to **simplification** by which the testees committed errors. This can be shown below in Question **I**, item(8), and in Question **IV**, items (1 and 6) respectively:

**QI/ Item8:** That barbell is **light** enough for a two years old to lift!

That barbell is **heavy** enough for a two years old to lift

? *That barbell is **dark** enough for a two years old to lift!*

**QIV/ Item 1:** If the American team wins , more Asians will be likely to die violent deaths if the American team loses . That must not happen. The question is therefore how best to prevent it? The answer must be a **broad** response rather than a **narrow** one.

? *If the American team wins , more Asians will be likely to die Violent deaths if the American team loses. That must not happen. The question is therefore how best to prevent it? The answer must be a **broad** response rather than a **inside** one.*

**Item 6:** How could such a **boring** man write such an **exciting** book?

? *How could such a **good** man write such an **exciting** book?*

The high rate of the students' erroneous responses is also due to **communication strategies** which accounts for **37.7%** of the total errors. In the next examples items (11and 14) in Question **III**, and item (12) in Question **IV** below illustrate one of these strategies which is **approximation strategy**:

**QIII/ Item 11:** Corporate announcements, whether **above** or **below** expectations, were often a cue for selling.

? *Corporate announcements, whether **above** or **under** expectations, were often a cue for selling. (approximation)*

**Item 14:** “ We act for buyers who have a penthouse in several cities around the world.” Says Mayfair Estate Agent Peter Wetherell. “They want somewhere really **special**, and wouldn’t dream of buying an **ordinary** apartment.”.

? *“ We act for buyers who have a penthouse in several cities around the world.” Says Mayfair Estate Agent Peter Wetherell. “They want somewhere really **special**, and wouldn’t dream of buying an **general** apartment.”.*  
**(approximation)**

**QIV/ Item 12:** Bankers have until the end of the month to make an **initial** decision. The **final** deals are expected to be signed by the end of December.

? *Bankers have until the end of the month to make an **initial** decision. The **end** deals are expected to be signed by the end of December. (approximation)*

The product of the use of **coinage strategy** has also been ascribed as an error. The following examples from items (11 and 15) in Question **IV** explain this strategy:

**QIV/ Item11:** Is it not clear that the Government must **encourage** people into higher education and not **deter** them by totally inadequate maintenance grants?

? *Is it not clear that the Government must **vignor** people into higher education and not **deter** them by totally inadequate maintenance grants? (coinage)*

**Item 15:** A droplet of water does not spread out across a dry surface because the molecules at its **edge** are pulled in towards the **center** of the drop.

? *A droplet of water does not spread out across a dry surface because the molecules at its **edge** are pulled in towards the **out** of the drop. (coinage)*

Errors of **guessing** can be clarified by the example below from Question I, item (4); QuestionII, item (9); and Question IV, in items (4,7,and 10):

**QI/ Item 4:** Our investigation will **reveal** the truth!

Our investigation will **conceal** the truth!

? *Our investigation will **inspect** the truth!*

**QII/Item 9:** The Quince, C. Oblonga, a small tree of the rose family, has been cultivated since ancient times for its fragrant fruit . It is inedible when **raw** , but when thoroughly **cooked cursory** it makes excellent preserves.

? *The Quince, C. Oblonga, a small tree of the rose family, has been cultivated since ancient times for its fragrant fruit . It is inedible when **raw** , but when thoroughly **create** it makes excellent preserves.*

**QIV/ Item 5:** Rubella is a vital infection , also known as German measles, although it has few similarities with measles. It causes a **trivial** illness in children and a slightly more **serious** one in adults.

? *Rubella is a vital infection , also known as German measles, although it has few similarities with measles. It causes a trivial illness in children and a slightly more **different** one in adults.*

**Item 7:** If one aims and shoots a gun, one either **hits** or **misses** the target.

? *If one aims and shoots a gun, one either **gets** or **misses** the target.*

**QIV/ Item 10:** The new – style nylon police batons are 22 inches long and come in both **hollow** and **solid** forms.

? *The new – style nylon police batons are 22 inches long and come in both **hollow** and **low** forms.*

Finally, **avoidance strategy** has also been used and represented by the items that were left by the testees with no answers. These are put under “**Avoided Items**” columns in the previous tables.

The other source of errors is **context of learning** which accounts for **13.7%** of the total errors. It should be mentioned here that the context of learning is a plausible source of error being considered in cases where the examination of the teaching curricula has clearly revealed the total absence of a specific explanation or instruction concerning certain semantic features. The most obvious examples in this respect are:

**QI/ Item 4:** Our investigation will **reveal** the truth!

Our investigation will **conceal** the truth!

? *Our investigation will **inspect** the truth!*

**QII/ Item 6:** These two layers of traditional societies are widely recognized in anthropology. In between these two layers, however, is a third group **often** discussed , but **seldom** enumerated .

? *These two layers of traditional societies are widely recognized in anthropology. In between these two layers, however, is a third group **often** discussed , but **common** enumerated .*

**Item 7:** The simple language of comics includes few **rare** words and many **common** words.

? *The simple language of comics includes few **rare** words and many **seldom** words.*

**QIII/ Item 4:** He started with the assumption that Lucan was **dead** , and finished concluding that he is **alive** and well and living in Botswana.

? *He started with the assumption that Lucan was **dead** , and finished concluding that he is **live** and well and living in Botswana .*

**Item 5:** “It should be better to ask young people to show what they could do against explicit criteria that the challenge would be between the person and the task , not between individuals one person’s **success** being another’s **failure**.” . The report says.

? *“It should be better to ask young people to show what they could do against explicit criteria that the challenge would be between the person and the task , not between individuals one person’s **success** being another’s **fail**.” . The report says.*

**Item 10:** Even if you normally rise late, force yourself to get up early; the more hours you have been **awake**, the quicker you will fall **asleep** .

? *Even if you normally rise late, force yourself to get up early; the more hours you have been **awake**, the quicker you will fall **sleep**.*

**Item 15:** Which is more dangerous for that spacecraft, the **ascent** or the **descent** onto the desert runway?

? *Which is more dangerous for that spacecraft, the **far** or the **descent** onto the desert runway?*

**QIV/ Item 4:** Andrew believes that you **sold** the faulty parts that he **purchased** on the web.

? *Andrew believes that you **get** the faulty parts that he **purchased** on the web.*

**Item8:** Nick Taylor, a partner with London- based town planning and development consultant Chapman Warren, comments: “I always advise clients , whether **corporate** or **individual**, to object to a compulsory purchase order.”.

? *Nick Taylor, a partner with London- based town planning and development consultant Chapman Warren, comments: “I always advise clients , whether **corporate** or **accept** , to object to a compulsory purchase order.”.*

**Item 9:** The most **pessimistic** sector is construction, the most is **optimistic** manufacturing.

? *The most **careless** sector is construction, the most **optimistic** manufacturing.*

**Item 13:** In writing up the careers of certain people in some books, there must be a temptation to adulate and to concentrate, as in usually done in obituaries, on their **virtues** and not at all on their **vices**.

? *In writing up the careers of certain people in some books, there must be a temptation to adulate and to concentrate, as in usually done in obituaries, on their **virtues** and not at all on their **devil**.*

**Item 14:** A particularly striking feature of the early Christian communities is that they were **urban** , and only slowly penetrated **rural** societies.

? *A particularly striking feature of the early Christian communities is that they were **religious** , and only slowly penetrated **rural** societies.*

Ascribing **the context of learning** for the wrong responses to such items as the above examples can also be confirmed by the high rate of wrong responses to those items which are shown in tables (4.13-4.16). This implies that the testees are not familiar with such semantic use.

These instances also show that the testees have restricted their attention on the linguistic features of these structures regardless of the meaning of the whole sentence, since the structure they introduce will be correct but the meaning of the sentence will be violated.

The other source of error is **interlingual transfer** which stands at **6.3%** of the total number of the testees' errors and this is the lesser evident in their responses. Brown (1987:177) mentions that interlingual indicates the early stage of learning a second language, as the first language system is the only previous linguistic system upon which the learner can rely. His reliance on the first language decreases as he progresses in second language learning. This justifies the low rate of the testees' interference errors. The following example affirms this:

**QIII/ Item1:** Warm air is less dense than cool air, and a turbine works better the greater the mass of air that is moved through it.

? *Warm air is less dense than cold air, and a turbine works better the greater the mass of air that is moved through it.*

**Item 7:** Another well-documented scandal has been the sale of unsuitable or **dangerous** medicines in the Third World. Even **safe** and necessary medicines sell for up to six times as much in poor countries as they do in the country of manufacture.

? *Another well – documented scandal has been the sale of unsuitable or **dangerous** medicines in the Third World. Even **peace** and necessary medicines sell for up to six times as much in poor countries as they do in the country of manufacture.*

**Item 8:** You can't hide from anybody in prison . They soon know if you're **innocent** or **guilty** .

? *You can't hide from anybody in prison. They soon know if you're **innocent** or **criminal** .*

Errors are not considered to be obstacles in the way of foreign language learners. Rather, they are significant in the sense that they provide the researcher with the evidence of how language is learned and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in learning the foreign language. Also, they can be regarded as a device that the learner uses in order to learn and to hypothesize the nature of the language he is learning.

# ***CHAPTER FIVE***

## **CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

### **5.1 Conclusions**

The following conclusions can be inferred from the results of the test. They can be summarized as follows:

1. The use of the types of antonyms is not a straightforward process as it may seem. It is governed by numerous semantic and syntactic constraints and restrictive rules which require specific and sufficient classroom instructions that affect familiarity with their correct use.
2. The results of the study clearly indicate that the requirements stated in (1) above are not effectively addressed as far as EFL college students are concerned, for it has been shown that students at the fourth stage encounter serious difficulties at the recognition and the production levels of antonyms. This is indicated by the generally low performance rates of the sample in the Main Test. The overall rate of the correct responses for the sample is (44.4%). This result is further confirmed by the comparison between the ratio of pass-nonpass results for the sample which is (21.6%) against (78.3%). These figures validate the first hypothesis of the study.

3. The general performance of the whole sample has shown that EFL students encounter more difficulties in using antonymy at the production level than at the recognition level. In this respect, the testees' general performance at the recognition level has obtained a mean of (12/40) against a mean of (8.4/60) at the production level. These statistical means validate the second hypothesis stated in the outline of the study.
  
4. The T- test results also show that there is a significant difference between the recognition and the production levels. The calculated t-value at the recognition level is (4.389) which is higher than the tabulated T-value (2), whereas the calculated T-value at the production level is (-1.984) and this is lower than the tabulated one. Such results verify and confirm the second hypothesis.
  
5. The T-test results show that there is statistically significant difference between the male and female learners, since the mean of female learners is (55.20) which is higher than the mean of male learners (38.75).
  
6. The plausible sources underlying the testees' errors can be ascribed to the following factors:
  - a. Intralingual errors which are exemplified through overgeneralization and simplification whereby the testees employ the already mastered foreign language rules concerning lexical relations in general and antonymy in particular regardless of their

specific rule restrictions. This source accounts for 42.3% representing the higher rate among the other sources of errors.

b. Communication strategies such as guessing, paraphrasing, and avoidance which the testees resort to is an attempt to bridge the gap between their actual linguistic competence and the requirements of test performance. This source accounts for 37.7% of their total errors.

c. Context of learning as the different types of antonyms have not been allotted due attention in the testees' comprehension courses. This source stands at 13.7% of all errors.

d. Interlingual interference whereby the testees depend on their previous knowledge (their native language) in the production of the different types of antonyms. The rate of interlingual errors accounts for 6.3% of all the testees' errors.

7. The reason behind the results of the present study from the researcher's point of view is due to the fact that students in general are in need of paying much attention to the existence of such antonyms in particular. They show great deficiency in inferring the meaning of words from the context, and the ability to substitute a word for another.

## 5.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the conclusions above, the following recommendations are put forward:

1. Due to the importance of antonyms to language production efficiency and to the programmes of the Departments of English, syllabus designers and language teachers should not overlook integrating these relations in the body of the **Textbooks**. The results of this study could provide English teachers and syllabus designers with certain clues about the areas which require special emphasis in this respect and the areas which require less emphasis. These important clues could be beneficial for material gradation.
2. In addition to the recommendation above, the results of this study could provide college teachers of English with the necessary information for the preparation of effective remedial teaching programmes aiming at helping their students to overcome the difficulties they encounter in their attempts to properly use the different types of antonyms.
3. The results also indicate the need to enhance the EFL students' awareness at both the recognition and the production levels of antonyms.
4. Due to the wide use of antonyms, these must be introduced within the first stage. The more difficult uses could then be introduced during the second stage. By the time the students are in the fourth stage, their errors could be potentially reduced to a minimum.

5. To facilitate the process of mastering the use of antonymy and its types, it is recommended that teachers of English make the students fully aware of the rules governing the use of this or that type in a specific context .So, the students will be able to overcome the difficulties they are liable to encounter in this respect.

### **5.3 Suggestions for Further Research**

The researcher has the view that the following studies can be carried out:

1. A contrastive study can be conducted to describe and analyze the types of antonyms in English in comparison with Standard Arabic to arrive at new findings and to get at the points of similarities and differences between the two languages.
2. A study can be conducted to investigate the students' awareness of antonyms in other stages of learning, i.e., at the college level or at secondary schools.
3. A study can be handled to investigate the students' awareness of other lexical relations such as: hyponymy, metonymy, and so forth.
4. A study can be carried out with the aim of investigating the possibility of selecting antonymy or other lexical relations stylistically distinguishing various types of literary texts by counting the frequencies of their specific uses.

# ***APPENDICES***

# ***Appendix (I)***

## ***The Letter to Jury Members***

***University of Babylon  
College of Basic Education  
Department of Higher Studies***

**Dear Sir, Madam**

**The researcher intends to conduct an experimental study entitled “Investigating Iraqi EFL College Students’ Awareness of Antonyms”.**

**The aim of the study is to investigate the students’ awareness of antonyms through which their repertoire of vocabulary will be increased. The instrument of the study is a test consisting of 50 items. As specialists in the field of teaching English , please read the items of the test and thankfully state if they are suitable for this study or not. Any addition or modification will be highly regarded.**

**Your cooperation in this matter which aims at developing teaching English in Iraq will be greatly appreciated.**

**Thank you**

**The researcher:  
Muna Mohammed  
M.A. Candidate**

# ***Appendix (II)***

## ***The Test***

***Q I/***

***Choose the antonym of the underlined word in each sentence.***

---

1. Helen, please remember to **open** the door when you leave.
  - a. end
  - b. close
  - c. unlock
  - d. push
  
2. I made a wonderful suggestion, but the manager **accepted** it and told me to come up with a better idea.
  - a. liked
  - b. hated
  - c. reviewed
  - d. rejected
  
3. The newly appointed boss in our company seems **generous**, so we should adopt a special way to deal with.
  - a. kind
  - b. mean
  - c. quiet
  - d. liberal
  
4. Our investigation will **reveal** the truth !
  - a. conceal
  - b. expose
  - c. inspect
  - d. announce

5. There are **many** ways to build a house.
- some
  - few
  - numerous
  - a lot
6. The teacher read us a very **entertaining** book.
- fictional
  - factual
  - silly
  - boring
7. Sunglasses will only **hinder** your ability to see at night.
- accept
  - describe
  - equal
  - help
8. That barbell is **light** enough for a two years old to lift !
- dark
  - serious
  - harsh
  - heavy
9. Smith **always** pays attention when others are speaking.
- often
  - generally
  - usually
  - never
10. Although these ideas prove to be **wrong**, the results are guaranteed to guide us towards a clearer appreciation of what is meant by mass.
- left
  - prohibitive
  - proper
  - right

## Q II /

*From the list of words given below, choose the most suitable antonym for the underlined word in each sentence.*

---

---

**Words :** *smooth, common, seldom, superficial, resemble, create, lay person, polite, cooked cursory, allowed.*

1. The fire took seconds to **destroy** a painting that took weeks to \_\_\_\_\_.
2. You've got to take the **rough** with the \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The two boys \_\_\_\_\_ each other in appearance, but they **differ** in behaviour.
4. When trouble is so **deep**, \_\_\_\_\_ therapies appeal.
5. Their design process was often collective; their programmes, conscious integrations of \_\_\_\_\_ and **expert**, work environment and home life.
6. These two layers of traditional societies are widely recognized in anthropology. In between these two layers, however, is a third group **often** discussed, but \_\_\_\_\_ enumerated.
7. The simple language of comics includes few **rare** words and many \_\_\_\_\_ words.
8. Yes, taking your shoes off as we entered Patrick's house was a \_\_\_\_\_ thing to do. However, placing them on his coffee table was rather **rude**.
9. The Quince, *C. Oblonga*, a small tree of the rose family, has been cultivated since ancient times for its fragrant fruit. It is inedible when **raw**, but when thoroughly \_\_\_\_\_ it makes excellent preserves.
10. Drinking the water in that lake is strictly **prohibited**. It could make you sick. But for some reason, swimming is \_\_\_\_\_.

**Q III /**

*Find the missing antonyms for the underlined words in the following sentences.*

---

---

**Ex.** (a) Mary's fast new car beat my \_\_\_\_\_ one in the race.

(b) Mary's fast new car beat my slow one in the race.

1. Warm air is less dense than \_\_\_\_\_ air, and a turbine works better the greater the mass of air that is moved through it.
2. In addition, particularly in hotter regions, there are animals that are active about the times of dawn and dusk when it is not hot or \_\_\_\_\_.
3. However, the budget is unlikely to go far enough in producing a framework for a low inflation, \_\_\_\_\_ growth economy.
4. He started with the assumption that Lucan was dead , and finished concluding that he is \_\_\_\_\_ and well and living in Botswana .
5. 5. “It should be better to ask young people to show what they could do against explicit criteria that the challenge would be between the person and the task , not between individuals one person’s success being another’s\_\_\_\_\_. “ . The report says.
6. British dominance of the English – speaking theatre has never been greater.This may be explained in many ways , from the strength of the nationed companies to the \_\_\_\_\_ of Broadway .
7. Another well – documented scandal has been the sale of unsuitable or dangerous medicines in the Third World. Even \_\_\_\_\_ and necessary medicines sell for up to six times as much in poor countries as they do in the country of manufacture.
8. “You can’t hide from anybody in prison . They soon know if you’re innocent or \_\_\_\_\_.”
9. It was in the late 1960s and \_\_\_\_\_ 1970s that Australia began to see a rising tide of protest by the animal liberationists and organizations such as Humane Society and the RSPCA .

10. Even if you normally rise late, force yourself to get up early; the more hours you have been **awake**, the quicker you will fall \_\_\_\_\_ .
11. Corporate announcements, whether **above** or \_\_\_\_\_ expectations, were often a cue for selling.
12. Mr. John accepted the presented report with its many proposals for relaxation of safety standards and for methods of working more suitable for **shallow** American mines than \_\_\_\_\_ British pits.
13. I already prefer to see a doctor in a broad where examinations are prompt and \_\_\_\_\_ compared with the **partial** treatment one gets here.
14. “ We act for buyers who have a penthouse in several cities around the world.” Says Mayfair Estate Agent Peter Wetherell. “They want somewhere really **special**, and wouldn’t dream of buying an \_\_\_\_\_ apartment.”.
15. Which is more dangerous for that spacecraft, the \_\_\_\_\_ or the **descent** onto the desert runway?

**Q IV/**

***In the following sentences, underline the required word, and then give its antonym.***

---

---

**Ex.** (a) He revolutionized the thinking behind traditional organ construction, abandoning some types of stop (sets of organ pipes having a specific tone) and relied instead on pipes of unusually \_\_\_\_\_ or narrow diameter which used high –pressure wind .

(b) He revolutionized the thinking behind traditional organ construction, abandoning some types of stop (sets of organ pipes having a specific tone) and relied instead on pipes of unusually wide or narrow diameter which used high –pressure wind.

1. If the American team wins , more Asians will be likely to die violent deaths if the American team loses . That must not happen. The question is therefore how best to prevent it ? The answer must be a broad response rather than a \_\_\_\_\_ one.
2. It's the \_\_\_\_\_ thing every four years :Karen and I always have opposite opinions about the election.
3. The “right to life”Lobby is wholly preoccupied with human life , but what is so special about human life, given that we are close cousins of apes and more \_\_\_\_\_ cousins of all animals and plants?
4. Andrew believes that you \_\_\_\_\_ the faulty parts that he purchased on the web.
5. Rubella is a vital infection , also known as German measles, although it has few similarities with measles. It causes a trivial illness in children and a slightly more \_\_\_\_\_ one in adults.
6. How could such a \_\_\_\_\_ man write such an exciting book?
7. If one aims and shoots a gan, one either \_\_\_\_\_ or misses the target.
8. Nick Taylor, a partner with London- based town planning and development consultant Chapman Warren, comments: “I always

advise clients , whether corporate or \_\_\_\_\_ , to object to a compulsory purchase order.”.

9. The most \_\_\_\_\_ sector is construction, the most optimistic manufacturing.
10. The new – style nylon police batons are 22 inches long and come in both hollow and \_\_\_\_\_ forms.
11. Is it not clear that the Government must \_\_\_\_\_ people into higher education and not deter them by totally inadequate maintenance grants?
12. Bankers have until the end of the month to make an initial decision. The \_\_\_\_\_ deals are expected to be signed by the end of December.
13. In writing up the careers of certain people in some books, there must be a temptation to adulate and to concentrate, as in usually done in obituaries, on their virtues and not at all on their \_\_\_\_\_.
14. A particularly striking feature of the early Christian communities is that they were \_\_\_\_\_ , and only slowly penetrated rural societies.
15. A droplet of water does not spread out across a dry surface because the molecules at its edge are pulled in towards the \_\_\_\_\_ of the drop.

# ***Appendix ( III)***

## ***The Test's Possible Answers***

### ***QI***

1. b
2. d
3. b
4. a
5. b
6. d
7. d
8. d
9. d
10. d

### ***QII***

1. create
2. smooth
3. resemble
4. superficial
5. lay person

6. seldom
7. common
8. polite
9. cooked cursory
10. allowed

### *QIII*

1. cool
2. cold
3. high
4. alive
5. failure
6. weakness
7. safe
8. guilty
9. early
10. asleep
11. below
12. deep
13. thorough
14. ordinary
15. ascent

## *QIV*

1. If the American team wins , more Asians will be likely to die violent deaths if the American team loses . That must not happen. The question is therefore how best to prevent it ? The answer must be a **broad** response rather than a **narrow** one.
2. It's the **same** thing every four years :Karen and I always have **opposite** opinions about the election.
3. The “right to life”Lobby is wholly preoccupied with human life , but what is so special about human life, given that we are **close** cousins of apes and more **distant** cousins of all animals and plants?
4. Andrew believes that you **sold** the faulty parts that he **purchased** on the web.
5. Rubella is a vital infection , also known as German measles, although it has few similarities with measles. It causes a **trivial** illness in children and a slightly more **serious** one in adults.
6. How could such a **boring** man write such an **exciting** book?
7. If one aims and shoots a gun, one either **hits** or **misses** the target.

8. Nick Taylor, a partner with London- based town planning and development consultant Chapman Warren, comments: “I always advise clients , whether **corporate** or **individual**, to object to a compulsory purchase order.”.
9. The most **pessimistic** sector is construction, the most **optimistic** manufacturing.
- 10.The new – style nylon police batons are 22 inches long and come in both **hollow** and **solid** forms.
- 11.Is it not clear that the Government must **encourage** people into higher education and not **deter** them by totally inadequate maintenance grants?
- 12.Bankers have until the end of the month to make an **initial** decision. The **final** deals are expected to be signed by the end of December.
- 13.In writing up the careers of certain people in some books, there must be a temptation to adulate and to concentrate, as in usually done in obituaries, on their **virtues** and not at all on their **vices**.
- 14.A particularly striking feature of the early Christian communities is that they were **urban**, and only slowly penetrated **rural** societies.
- 15.A droplet of water does not spread out across a dry surface because the molecules at its **edge** are pulled in towards the **center** of the drop.

# ***BIBLIOGRAPHY***

- Ahman, J.S. and M.D. Glock. (1975) **Measuring and Evaluating Educational Achievement** .5<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston: Allyn and Bocon.
- Allan, K. (1986) **Linguistic Meaning** . Vol.1. London:Roullegde and Kegan Paul, Inc.
- Allen,J.P.B. and S.P Corder. (1975) “ Papers in Applied Linguistics”.  
**The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics** . London: Oxford University Press.
- Al-Sady, Z. A. (2000) “ The Effect of Teaching Homonyms and Synonyms on the Expansion of Pupils’ Vocabulary” (Unpublished M.A.Thesis), University of Baghdad.
- Bell, R.T. (1981) **An Introduction to Applied Linguistics: Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching**. London: Batsford .
- Benson, M. (1985) “ Collocations and Idioms”. In **Dictionaries, Lexicography and Language Learning**. Oxford: Pergamon Press .
- Best, J. (1970) **Research in Education**. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Bloom, B.S ,G.F. Madaus, and J.J Hastings. (1981) **Evaluation to Improve Learning** .New York: McGraw-Hall, Inc.

- Bloomfield, L. (1933) **Language**. New York, Holt.
- Brown, H.D. (1987) **Principles of language Learning and teaching**. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Prentice-Hall, New Jersey, Inc.
- Buitelaar, P. (2001) **Lexical Semantic Relations** .Internet: [http://dfki.de/~paulb/lexsem/2001/lexsem\\_resources.html](http://dfki.de/~paulb/lexsem/2001/lexsem_resources.html).
- Carroll, B.J. and P.J. Hall. (1985) **Make Your Own Language Test: A Practical Guide to Writing Language Performance Test**. Pergaman Press.
- Carter, P. (1996) **Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives**. London: Rutledge.
- Carter, P. and M. McCarthy. (1997) **Vocabulary and Language Teaching**. Essex: Longman.
- Casagrande, J.B. and K.L. Hale. (1967) "Semantic Relations in Pagago Folk Definitions". In **Studies in South Western-Ethnolinguistics** (ed.). Dell Hymes And William E. Bittle, 165-193 . Mouton: The Hague.
- Chomsky, N. and M. Halle. (1968) **The Sound Pattern of English** . New York: Harper and Row.
- Clark, H.H. and E.V. Clark. (1977) **Psychology and Language: An Introduction to Psycholinguistics**. New York: Harcourt, Brace Javanovich.

- Corder, S.P. (1967) "The Significance of Learners' Errors". In  
International Review of Applied Linguistics. Vol.5.
- Cruse, D. (1980) "Antonyms and Gradable Complementaries".  
Perspektiven Der Lexikalischen Semantik, Beitrage Zum  
Wappertaler Semantikolloquium. Vol.2-3: 14-25.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986) Lexical Semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University  
Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2000) Meaning in Language: An Introduction to Semantics  
and Pragmatics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cruse, D. and P. Togia. (1995) "Towards a Cognitive Model of  
Antonymy" Lexicography 1:113-141.
- Crystal, D. (1980) A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics.  
London: Andre Deutsch.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1985) The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language.  
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1997) A Dictionary of Linguistics and phonetics. 4<sup>th</sup> ed.  
Blackwell.
- Deese, J. (1965) The Structure of Associations in Language and  
Thought. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins.

- Duan,X.Y. (2002) “ Lexical Semantic Association Between WebPages-  
A Lexical Knowledge” (Unpublished M.A. Thesis). Internet:  
<http://www.comp/eeds.ac.uk/research/pubs/theses/dwan.pdf>.
- Ebel,R.L. (1972) **Essentials of Educational Measurement** . Englewood  
Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Egan, R.F. (1968) “ Survey of the History of English Synonymy” In  
**Webster’s New Dictionary of Synonyms**, (ed.) P.B. Gove,  
5a-31a. Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster.
- Ellis,H.C. (1965) **The Transfer of Learning**.New York:MacMillan .
- Ellis,R. (1986) **Understanding Second Language Acquisition**. Oxford:  
Oxford University Press.
- Fellbaum,C. (1998) “ Introduction”. Fellbaum,C.(ed.),**WordNet: On  
Electronic Lexical Database**. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Ferguson, G.A. (1966) **Statistical Analysis in Psychology and  
Education**. New York: McGraw-Hall.
- Fillmore, Ch. (1977) “ Topics in Lexical Semantics”. In **Current Issues  
in Linguistic Theory**. Bloomington: Indiana University Press .
- Finch,G. (2000) **Linguistic Terms and Concepts**. London: Macmillan  
Press Ltd.

- Fraser,H. and W.R. O'Donnell. (1969) **Applied Linguistics and the Teaching of English**. London: Longman.
- Frath,P. (2003) “ Polysemy, Homonymy and Reference”. Internet: <http://uz.u-strasbg.fr/spiral/Equipe/pierre/Articles/AMB-ART-RTF>.
- Fromkin,V. and R. Rodman. (1978) **An Introduction to Language**.2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Holt,Rinehart and Winston .
- Gairns,R. and S. Redman . (1986) **Working with Words: A Guide to Teaching and Learning Vocabulary**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Glass,G.V. and J.C. Stanley. (1970) **Statistical Methods in Education and Psychology**. Englewood, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc .
- Gordon,P. (2003) **Sense Relations**. Internet: [http:// www. cf.ac.uk/encap/clcr/gordon/unit6/pdf](http://www.cf.ac.uk/encap/clcr/gordon/unit6/pdf).
- Gronlund,P. (1976) **Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching** .3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc.
- Harris,D.P. (1969) **Testing English as a Second Language**. New York: McGraw-Hall .
- Harris,R. (1973) **Synonymy and Linguistic Analysis**.Oxford: Blackwell .

Harrison,A. (1983) **A language Testing Handbook**. London: MacMillan Press .

Heaton,J.B. (1975) **Writing English Language Tests: A practical Guide for Teachers of English as a Second Language**. London: Longman .

Ingram,E. (1968) “ Attainment and Diagnostic Testing”. In **Language Testing Symposium** . Davies,A. (ed.) .London:Oxford University Press .

Kagan,J. (1984) **The Nature of the Child**. New York: Basic Books.

Kearns,K. (2000) **Semantics**. MacMillan Press Ltd.

Kempson,R.M. (1977) **Semantic Theory**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kennedy,C. (2001) “ Polar Opposition and the Outology of ‘Degrees’”. **Linguistics and Philosophy** 24:33-70 .

Lado,R. (1961) **Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests**. London: Longman Green and Co., Ltd.

Leech,G. (1974) **Semantics**. Benguin Books.

Lehrer,A. (1974) **Semantic Fields and Lexical Structure**. North-Holland Linguistic Series 11. Amsterdam: North-Holland Publishing Co.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1985) “Markedness and Antonymy”. Linguistics 21:397-429.
- Lehrer,A. And K. Lehrer. (1982) “Antonymy” . Linguistics and Philosophy 5:483-501.
- Littlewood,W. (1987) Foreign and Second Language Learning: Language Acquisition Research and its Implications for the Classroom . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lundberg,M. (2002) Paradigmatic Relations: Inclusion / Identity and Exclusion/Opposition.Internet: <http://www.eng.umu.se/personal/morgan/-private.pdf>.
- Lyons,J. (1963) Structural Semantics: An Analysis of Part of the Vocabulary of Plato. Oxford: Blackwell.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1968) Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977) Semantics.Vol.1.Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981) Language and Linguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mackey,W.F. (1965) Language Teaching Analysis. London: Longman Green.

- Madsen,H.S. (1983) **Techniques in Testing**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Manser,M.H. (ed.). (2003) **Chambers Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms**. Edinburgh: Chambers Harrap Publishers Ltd.
- Mates,B. (1972) “ Synonymity”. In **Semantics and the Philosophy of Language**. New York.University of Illinois.
- McCarthy,M. (1996) **Vocabulary**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mehrens,W. and I. Lehmann. (1984) **Measurement and Evaluation in Education and Psychology**. New York:Holt, Rinehart and Winston ,Inc.
- Mettinger,A. (1994) **Aspects of Semantic opposition in English**. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Miller,G. (1998) “ Foreward” . In **Fellbaum** (1998),xv-xxii .
- Miller,G. and C. Fellbaum. (1992) “ Semantic Networks of English”. B.Levin and S.Pinker (ed.).**Lexical and Conceptual Semantics**. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Moore,A.(2000) **Semantics Meanings, Etymology and the Lexicon**.  
Internet:<http://www.shunsley.eril.net/armoore/lang/semantics.htm>.

- Murphy, M.L. (2003a) **Paradigmatic Relations and Semantic Information in MTT: Some Questions**. Internet: <http://www.cogs.susx.ac.uk/ling/working-papers/Murphy-MTT.pdf>.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2003b) **Semantic Relations and the Lexicon**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nida, E.A. (1975) **Componential Analysis of Meaning**. Hague: Mouton.
- Oller, J.W. (1987) "Practical Ideas for Language Teachers from a Quarter Century of Language Testing". **FORUM** 25(4): 42-46.
- Oller, J.W. and J. Richards (1973) (ed.) **Focus on the Learner**. Rowley, Mass: Newbury Press.
- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary** .5<sup>th</sup> ed. (1995). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Palmer, F.R. (1981) **Semantics** .Cambridge: Cambridge University Press .
- Peters, S. (2002) **Introduction to Linguistic Meaning Design**.  
Internet: <http://www.Stanford.edu/class/linguist130a/docs/chap2-Desiderata.pdf>.
- Pinker, S. (2003) **Understanding Language**. Internet: [http://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/spring\\_2003/ling001/107a.html](http://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/spring_2003/ling001/107a.html).
- Pusch, A.D. (2003) **Sub-Classes of Antonyms**. Internet: <http://www>.

Ling.uni\_potsdam.de/-pusch/g/sem/Is/file0.doc.

Richards,J.C. (1971) “ A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis”,  
**ELT Journal** 25(3): 204-219.

Richards,J.C. (1973) “ Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies”.  
In Oller,J.W. and J.C. Richards (eds.) **Focus on the Learner**.  
Rowley,Mass: Newbury Press.

Robson,C. (1973) **Experimental Design and Statistics in Psychology**.  
Penguin Books,Ltd.

Rotstein,C. and Y. Winter. (2002)“ Total Adjectives VS. Partial  
Ajectives:Scale Structure and Higher- Order Modifiers”.  
Internet:[http://www.eden.rutgers.edu/~juliolo/surge/article/  
Winter and Retstein-2002.pdf](http://www.eden.rutgers.edu/~juliolo/surge/article/Winter%20and%20Retstein-2002.pdf).

Ruzicka,M. (2001) **Introduction to Semantics: Main Points**. Internet:  
[http://www.phil-muni-cz/angl/englishdigit/nada and milan/  
Semantics/semant-ruzicka.pdf](http://www.phil-muni-cz/angl/englishdigit/nada%20and%20milan/Semantics/semant-ruzicka.pdf).

Saeed,J. (1997) **Semantics**. Oxford: Blackwell.

Scholfield,J.C. and L. Katamine (2000) “ Is There an ‘Ecology’ of  
Communication Strategies in Writing”. Internet: [http//  
Privatewww.essex.ac.uk/~Scholp/Katamine2.htm](http://Privatewww.essex.ac.uk/~Scholp/Katamine2.htm)

Selinker,L. (1972) “Interlingual”. **IRAL**, 10(3): 209-231

Soltan,U. (2003) **Some Basic Concepts in Semantics**. Internet: <http://www.ling.umd.edu/Soltan/LING200/SPRING2003/HANDOUTS/Semantics.pdf>.

Sridhar,S.N. (1981) “ Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage: Three Phases of One Goal”. In Fisiak, J. (ed.) **Contrastive Linguistics and the Language Teacher**. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Stanely,J. and K. Hopkink.(1972) **Educational and Psychological Measurement and Education**. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Tatsis,K. (1999) **Lexical / Sense Relations**. Internet: <http://www.celt.stir.ac.uk/call99/kostas/page4.html>.

Taylor,B.p. (1975) “ The Use of Overgeneralization and Transfer Learning Strategies By Elementary And Intermediate Students of ESL”. **Language Learning** 25(1): 73-107

Thornborrow,J. and S. Wareing. (1998) **Patterns in Language**. Routledge.

Ullmann,S. (1957) **Principles of Semantics**. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

\_\_\_\_\_ (1962) **Semantics: An Introduction to the Science of Meaning**. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Wallace,M.J. (1987) **Practical Language Teaching: Teaching Vocabulary**. London: Heinemann Educational Books.

- West, J. (2000) **Semantics**. Internet: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/sml/staff/west/sml112-week10b.htm>.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1995) **Linguistics**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Willners, C. (2001) “Antonymy in Context” (Ph.D. Diss.). Internet: <http://www.ling.lu.se/persons/caroline/papers/antonymsincontext.pdf>.
- Yule, G. (1996) **The Study of Language** . 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zawadowski, L. (1975) **Inductive Semantics and Syntax: Foundation of Empirical Linguistics**. The Hague Mouton.

استقصاء إدراك الطلبة الجامعيين العراقيين من متعلمي اللغة  
الإنجليزية لغة أجنبية لمفردات المطابقة

مجلس كلية التربية الأساسية - جامعة بابل جزءاً من متطلبات  
الحصول على درجة ماجستير تربية في طرائق تدريس اللغة  
الإنجليزية  
لغة أجنبية

/ 60

. 2004-2003

( 21 - )

. (0.95)

( ) :

( ) .

( )

( )