

SEMANTIC FIELD THEORY AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY,  
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO IRAQI SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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## ABSTRACT

The study of semantic fields and their relationships within lexical structure has become an essential part of semantic analysis. Vaguely formulated though it has been, semantic field theory has proved its worth as a general guide for research in descriptive semantics over the last fifty years; and has undoubtedly increased our understanding of the way the lexemes of language are interrelated in sense.

The aim of the present study is two-fold. First, it is an attempt to investigate the theory of semantic fields and offer an account of the theory that may be applied to lexical problems in foreign language teaching.

The second aim of the study is 'applied' in nature. It is concerned with the potential applications of semantic field theory to the teaching and learning of lexis in EFL situations. Semantic field theory is a theory of lexical semantics. The evaluation of the adequacy of a linguistic theory is a matter internal to linguistics; whether a theory succeeds according to some objective criteria in accounting for what it purports to account for. Semantic field theory has achieved a great deal of adequacy in accounting for the semantic relations holding between the meanings of lexemes in a natural language. However, in applied linguistics, we are not interested only in the adequacy or validity of linguistic theories but also in their utility for solving the practical problems faced by the language learner. Just as a linguistic theory must be validated empirically according to criteria internal to linguistics, so a linguistic theory must also be proved useful in application. The test of a theory's utility is, therefore, empirical. In order to assess the utility of semantic field theory in the teaching of English vocabulary, an experiment was formulated and conducted in an EFL situation. Although the experiment was limited and applied to a specific language skill (reading comprehension) and to a specific situation (a secondary school in Iraq), it is hoped that the findings of the experiment will be potentially relevant to other language skills and to EFL teachers working in a wide variety of situations.

The thesis is divided into eleven chapters. Chapter One is intended to shed light on the nature of vocabulary and the role of lexis in communication and to identify the EFL learners' problem in acquiring lexis in semantic fields. Chapter Two is an attempt to define and clarify some linguistic terms as used in our discussion and analysis of semantic fields. Chapter Three looks into the historical background of semantic field theory and critically examines some recent studies that have contributed to the development of the theory. Chapter Four is a somewhat detailed investigation of the structure of semantic fields and the characteristics of these fields as envisaged in our research. It also deals with some approaches to the analysis of lexical meaning and suggests

a simplified componential-collocational approach for the teaching of lexis. Chapters Three and Four may be regarded as making up the 'theoretical part' of the research.

The 'applied part' is covered in Chapters 5 - 10. Chapter Five is a contrastive lexical analysis of some semantic fields in English and Arabic — Arabic being the language of the EFL learners with whom our research is mainly concerned. Chapters Six and Seven deal with some pedagogical issues relevant to the study and to the experiment. The experiment (its design, hypotheses, phases, results, statistical analyses of the results, discussion of the findings, etc) are given in Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten. Some concluding remarks concerning the place of the study in the wider context of applied linguistics research and its implications for the teaching of vocabulary in Iraq and other EFL situations are dealt with in Chapter Eleven.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

CMGTS	Cassell's Modern Guide to Synonyms
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
IDELTI	Institute for the Development of English Language Teaching in Iraq
LDOCE	Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
LLOCE	Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English
L <sub>1</sub>	First Language
L <sub>2</sub>	Second Language
OALDOCE	Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English
SOED	The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
T.G.	Transformational Grammar
TNECI	The New English Course for Iraq
TWYN	The Words You Need (by Rudska et al., 1981)
WNDOS	Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms

*	asterisk: ungrammatical, or unacceptable, linguistic construction (e.g. phrase, clause, sentence, etc.)
[ ]	square brackets: semantic feature
⊃	inclusion-sign: 'includes', used for 'implies'
⊂	inclusion-sign: 'is included in'
≡	equivalence-sign: bilateral implication
+	plus-sign: positive value of binary variable
-	minus-sign: negative value of binary variable
/ /	obliques: transliteration (Arabic); phonetic transcription (English)
<	: 'is less than'
>	: 'is greater than'
=	equals-sign: (1) 'is equal (equivalent) to' (2) identity of reference

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KEY TO ARABIC TRANSCRIPTION<sup>1</sup>1. The consonants

<u>Orthographic Symbols</u>	<u>Transcription</u>	<u>Phonetic Values</u>
1. ء	/ʔ/	glottal plosive (stop)
2. ب	/b/	voiced bilabial plosive
3. ت	/t/	voiceless dental plosive
4. ث	/θ/	voiceless dental fricative
5. د	/dʒ/	voiced palato-alveolar affricate
6. هـ	/ħ/	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
7. خ	/x/	voiceless velar fricative <sup>2</sup>
8. ذ	/d/	voiced dental plosive
9. ذ	/ð/	voiced dental fricative
10. ر	/r/	voiced alveolar trill
11. ز	/z/	voiced alveolar fricative
12. س	/s/	voiceless alveolar fricative
13. ش	/ʃ/	voiceless palato-alveolar fricative
14. ص	/ṣ/	voiceless alveolar fricative <sup>3</sup>
15. ض	/ḍ/	voiced dental plosive
16. ظ	/ṭ/	voiceless dental plosive
17. ظ	/ẓ/	voiced dental fricative
18. ع	/ʕ/	voiced pharyngeal fricative
19. غ	/ɣ/	voiced velar fricative
20. ف	/f/	voiceless labiodental fricative
21. ق	/q/	voiceless uvular plosive
22. ك	/k/	voiceless velar plosive
23. ل	/l/	voiced alveolar lateral
24. م	/m/	voiced bilabial nasal
25. ن	/n/	voiced alveolar nasal
26. هـ	/h/	voiceless glottal fricative
27. و	/w/	voiced bilabial glide
28. ي	/j/	voiced palatal glide

2. The Vowels

<u>Orthographic Symbol</u>	<u>Transcription</u>	<u>Phonetic Values</u>
1. ا	/i/	short closed front unrounded
2. آ	/i:/	long closed front unrounded
3. ا	/a/	short open central unrounded
4. آ	/a:/	long open central unrounded



<u>Orthographic Symbol</u>	<u>Transcription</u>	<u>Phonetic Values</u>
5. <u>ؤ</u>	/ u /	short closed back rounded
6. <u>و</u>	/ u: /	long closed back rounded

### Notes

(1) In general, the transcription is the simplest possible consistent with the objective of suggesting a suitable transliteration for the Arabic lexemes, expressions and definitions used in our research. The transcription is used by Yushmanov, 1961 and the IPA, 1975; the obliques are introduced here for convenience

(2) This sound is similar to the Scottish 'ch' in 'loch' (or the German 'ach') but produced with a more rasping, guttural sound.

(3) The consonants /ṣ, /ḍ, /ṭ, /ẓ, /ḥ/ are often referred to as 'emphatic' consonants corresponding to non-emphatic /s, d, t, z, h/ respectively.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Introductory Note

Vocabulary is by far the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of a language, whether one's mother tongue or a foreign language. While there are 44 or 45 phonemes in English, the Oxford English Dictionary contains about 450,000 entries (Ball, 1975: 214). The contrast between the phonological and lexical resources of English is, therefore, of the order of roughly 1 to 10,000. Few languages have as extensive a vocabulary as English, but in most cases there would be fewer phonemes (Ullmann, 1962: 235).<sup>1</sup> A comparison between the vocabulary and the grammar of a language would yield a somewhat different result, but the discrepancy would still remain very considerable. It is common experience that the grammar of even a highly inflected language can be mastered in a comparatively short time and remembered without too much difficulty, whereas very few people will know more than 10% of the lexicon of their language (Jespersen, 1972: 201). One may conclude then that the number of phonological and syntactic rules in any language is finite; the number of words in a language is nearly infinite in terms of the human potential of the average native speaker. This means that native speakers of a language acquire the rules of phonology and syntax at a very early age; yet they will continue to increase their knowledge of the lexicon throughout their lifetimes (Leech, 1981: 205).

The difference between grammar and vocabulary is ultimately a matter of closed versus open sets:

"A closed set of items is one of fixed, and usually small, membership; e.g. the set of personal pronouns, tenses, genders, etc. An open set is one of unrestricted, indeterminately large, membership; e.g. the class of nouns or verbs in a language. In terms of this distinction we can say that grammatical items belong to closed sets, and lexical items to open sets." (Lyons, 1968: 436)

One consequence of this difference between closed and open sets is that:

" ... the vocabulary is much less strictly organized and less stable than the patterns encountered in phonology and grammar. Words or meanings can be added or dropped far more freely than phonemes, inflexions or suffixes." (Ullmann, 1972: 367)

The open-endedness of the lexicon in natural language is inevitable and undoubtedly necessary in order to cope with the creativity and the open-ended potential of the human mind. But this certainly poses formidable difficulties for any serious effort to investigate the lexicon systematically. Hence the linguist's reluctance to systematically deal with the lexicon and the doubts being cast on the assumption that the lexicon is structured in the same sense that phonology and grammar are structured. Some linguists have gone even further and excluded the study of meaning, particularly lexical meaning, from their concerns as linguists (e.g. Bloomfield, 1933).

As a result, the linguist's major preoccupation has been with those aspects of language whose structure is more susceptible to scientific analysis, that is, phonology and grammar (Wilkins, 1972: 109). The lexicon has been viewed as the least systematic aspect of language and not worthy of serious efforts. Even the advent of T.G. theory has not changed this preoccupation with syntax since to Chomsky and his followers syntax is the generative component in language and has always been the focus of their theoretical discussions. The illustrative partial description of English that Chomsky used in his earliest work did not contain any rules for the semantic interpretation of sentences. He took the view that the grammatical rules could be established without any appeal to any semantic notion. And even after the proposals of Katz and Fodor (1963) and Katz and Postal (1964) about the integration of syntax and semantics within a Chomskyan framework, semantics has continued to be viewed as "residual" to the effect that "research has been biased heavily in favour of syntactic solutions to problems." (Jackendoff, 1972: 2). The creative aspect of language is thus seen as the 'internalization' of a set of syntactic rules with the lexicon reduced in status to an unordered set of 'formatives'.<sup>2</sup>

One negative outcome of the linguist's preoccupation with syntax is the neglect of the lexical aspects of L<sub>1</sub> acquisition. Despite the growing research in language acquisition in the past two decades or so, attention to the lexical aspects of language learning, other than those of interest to psychologists, have remained relatively slight.

### 1.2. Vocabulary in EFL

As with L<sub>1</sub> acquisition, the teaching and learning of vocabulary in EFL situations has never aroused the same degree of interest as have such issues as grammatical competence, communicative competence, reading or writing, which have received considerable attention from scholars, researchers and teachers. Meara (1983) identifies the problem:

"Despite the fact that learners themselves readily identify vocabulary acquisition as a major source of difficulty, it is an area which has largely been ignored by Applied Linguistics. There are no general theories of vocabulary acquisition and most of what we know about the problem is based on work which is quite old and rather patchy."<sup>3</sup>  
(Introduction, p.ii)

Consequently, we can hardly find any satisfactory work in L<sub>2</sub> acquisition. Of the 20 articles included in Hatch's (1978) book of readings on L<sub>2</sub> acquisition, only one is specifically concerned with vocabulary; of the 97 studies abstracted at the end of her book, none deal exclusively with lexis and only two give it a mention. The same situation holds true with standard textbooks in applied linguistics. In Allen and Corder (1975, Vol. 2), for instance, there is a chapter entitled "Semantics and Language Teaching". Most of the chapter is devoted to the theoretical discussion of some semantic approaches (collocational theory, structural semantics, componential analysis etc.) whereas the section devoted to pedagogical considerations arising out of the theoretical discussion does not exceed six pages and, oddly enough, four of them deal with the relevance of syntax and phonology; only one page (p.152) actually offers some pedagogical hints for the teaching of lexis.

The neglect of lexis is equally evident in all relevant fields of research:

error analysis, contrastive analysis and the main line of interlanguage studies (Levenston, 1979: 147). A glance at any standard textbook on the methodology of EFL also confirms that vocabulary has been neglected in favour of phonology and syntax. In two recent EFL publications, Rivers and Temperly (1978) and Broughton et al. (1980), only a few scanty paragraphs have been devoted to lexis and the treatment tends to be superficial. In the former, only a few of the 348 pages of the book deal with lexis and the authors soon reduce the teaching of lexis to 'intelligent guesswork' or 'inferencing' the meanings of lexical items from contexts. In the latter, there is no systematic treatment of lexis, and it is left for passing mention here and there.

There have been many reasons for the neglect of lexis in EFL. First, the dominance of the traditional structural approaches to language teaching in the early fifties and sixties relegated lexis to a subsidiary status in comparison with phonology and syntax. The traditional approach views language as basically a set of sounds and grammatical structures and thus concentrates on the formal or structural patterns of language at the expense of its semantic aspects. Fries, one of the foremost advocates of this approach, proclaims that:

"A person has 'learned' a foreign language when he has first, within a limited vocabulary, mastered the sound system and has, second, made the structural devices matters of automatic habit." (1945: 31)

Accordingly, learning a foreign language is a matter of mastering its sounds and its grammatical system with a minimum of vocabulary. EFL teachers have thus seen it as their main task to give their students a knowledge of the formal structural patterns of the language being taught. The assumption is that once the grammatical system has been learned the learner will be able to use it for communicative purposes. Even when attempts are made to make the teaching materials more meaningful through explanatory actions and visual aids, the priority is still given to the grammatical patterns and the artificially created 'situations' bear little resemblance to natural

language use (Allen, 1975:25). As a result, the lexical content is limited to what is needed for the presentation and practice of grammatical structures and vocabulary learning in a foreign language has remained a largely haphazard, unsystematized process.

Another reason for neglecting lexis in EFL is derived from the linguist's reluctance to analyse the lexicon scientifically, as has been mentioned above, and the consequent reluctance of language teaching methodologists themselves to investigate the teaching of lexis and improve on the existing techniques.

A third reason for the neglect derives in part from the emphasis placed, both by EFL methodologists and language acquisition researchers, on the early stages of language learning. It has been commonly believed that the acquisition of lexis can be delayed until a substantial proportion of the grammatical system has been learned (Wilkins, 1972: 110). Certainly, the interesting problems in lexical acquisition begin to arise with intermediate to advanced learners when the learners have to face a sort of vocabulary expansion. But there is no reason, however, to think that lexis should not be given as much attention as syntax in the early stages as it will be definitely needed for communication however limited this communication might be. We will say more about this below.

It may also be said that the neglect of lexis in EFL derives from the reactions of language teaching methodologists to the naive view which regards the acquisition of a foreign language as a matter of vocabulary only. Hence, the teacher's reaction in concentrating on the grammatical structures of language and the treatment of vocabulary as a means of illustrating the structural patterns rather than as an integral part of language with communicative value in itself.

To recapitulate: lexis has been treated as the cinderella in applied linguistics research and language teaching methodology. Researches on lexis

and methods of teaching and learning lexis are scarce; and published EFL courses have invariably one thing in common: an apparent lack of awareness of the nature and function of lexis, or at any rate, a reluctance to deal systematically with it, and at the extreme an underestimation of the role of lexis in EFL teaching and learning. The author of a first-year textbook in a foreign language has this piece of advice for the users of his book:

"If you are a typical foreign-language student...you probably tend to worry a great deal about vocabulary. Please don't, because it is the least important aspect of your study..." (Dalbor, 1972, quoted by Bolinger, 1973: 8).

The authors of an Iraqi EFL textbook go even further:

"In explaining words you may use any means including the native language. The main thing is to get the words out of the way of language learning." (The New English Course for Iraq, Book 7, Teacher's Guide, p.14)

This negative attitude towards lexis in EFL needs to be rectified; and in fact has been challenged recently (e.g. Brown, 1974; Richards, 1976; Marton, 1977; Judd, 1978; Meara, 1980 and McCarthy, 1984). First of all, lexis is essential to communication be it in  $L_1$  or  $L_2$  situations. It is true that without grammatical structures very little can be achieved in communication but without lexis nothing at all can be achieved. Lexis carries more information than grammatical structures as can be seen from telegraphic language.

As Wilkins states:

"Provided one knows the appropriate vocabulary, then some form of interchange of language is possible. Without the vocabulary it is impossible." (1972: 111)

Bolinger expresses a similar view:

"The quantity of information in the lexicon far outweighs that in any other part of the language, and if there is anything to the notion of redundancy it should be easier to reconstruct a message containing just the words than one containing just the syntactic relations." (1973: 10)

and that:

"...grammar is not something into which words are plugged but is rather a mechanism by which words are served..." (op. cit. p.8)

Yoshida (1978) investigated the English vocabulary acquisition of

a young Japanese boy, Miki (age at arrival in U.S.A. 3 years) and found that Miki had acquired productive use of 264 words after seven months of exposure to English in an English-speaking nursery school. His English syntax was almost non-existent; yet he was communicating effectively with his peers.

Following the same line of argument, Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig (1979) argue that vocabulary is more important than syntax for communication even in the early stages:

"...vocabulary should be recognized as a central element in language instruction from the beginning stages. From our own experience with non-native speakers of English we feel that a good amount of vocabulary with a minimum of structure often makes for better reading comprehension and more efficient survival communication than near-perfect structure with an impoverished vocabulary of 100 words or less." (p. 242)

Furthermore, there have been several investigations of error gravity which show that native speakers regard lexical errors as more serious than grammatical errors (e.g. Johansson, 1978).

Finally, the centrality of syntax in language has been challenged by generative semanticists (e.g. Lakoff, 1960, 1971; McCawley, 1968, 1970a, 1973; Postal, 1971; Jackendoff, 1972) who argue that the generative power of language is located in the semantic component. In spite of the fact that their controversy with the interpretive semanticists (Chomsky and his followers) remains unresolved and that their semantics operate at the sentence level rather than word level, generative semanticists have encouraged the studies of lexical semantics and the lexicon has begun to play a more important role than it has done in the Chomskyan theory.

It should be emphasized, however, that we do not wish to argue that syntax is less important than lexis. We only wish to emphasize the enormous importance of lexis for communication and that one major aspect of fluency in a foreign language is control over the lexicon. One repeated and justified complaint of most EFL learners is that their vocabulary, even



after several years of study, is inadequate for any real communication. Enough attention needs to be paid to the fact that there is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to encode one's message.

### 1.3. Receptive Versus Productive Vocabulary

A distinction is often drawn between the vocabulary that a native speaker or a foreign learner recognizes and understands (Receptive Vocabulary) and the vocabulary they actually use in their production of the language (Productive Vocabulary).<sup>4</sup> A native speaker's receptive vocabulary is generally assumed to be much larger than his productive vocabulary. In  $L_2$  situations the receptive vocabulary may be about double the productive vocabulary (Marton, 1977).

There are many different explanations which may account for the disparity between receptive and productive vocabulary in the  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  situations.

It is reasonable to assume that, in general, less vocabulary is needed for production than for recognition; in the latter case the speaker needs to equip himself with a large amount of vocabulary in order to understand the vocabularies that are used by others whereas much less than that is sufficient for his productive needs.

A speaker does not use, even in his  $L_1$ , certain lexical items which he knows (e.g. 'female' vocabulary which a male does not use or 'children's' vocabulary which an adult does not use, etc.) (Teichroew, 1982: 17). Along these lines, Terrell et al. (1977) have found that a black American child had a lexical productivity which was richer when he was dealing with black children than when he was in front of a group of white children and vice versa.

One of the communicative strategies employed by some native speakers

and foreign language learners is to express meanings by using minimal vocabulary. It results in what Levenston and Blum (1977) refer to as 'lexical simplification' which involves the tendency to avoid the use of specific lexical items by such means as circumlocution and paraphrase, and sense-relations like synonymy and hyponymy.

An individual can more or less consciously avoid using a lexical item of which he is not sure (orthography, pronunciation, meaning etc.); or may avoid it for cultural reasons — 'true avoidance' of taboo words. Also, adult native speakers when addressing children, foreigners, learners of their own language or sometimes other native speakers have a tendency to limiting their vocabularies because they think that their listeners possess less vocabulary (Ferguson, 1971).

One can assume that lexical avoidance in  $L_2$  situations takes on a more complex form, since the knowledge of a lexical item might be imperfect, at least arguably less complete. Such avoidance will certainly become a negative factor in  $L_2$  production and this explains the small size of the learner's productive vocabulary in relation to his receptive vocabulary. At a later stage, the learner may show signs of 'lexical fossilization' reverting to simplifying his production through the limited lexical resources he possesses. This sort of 'fossilization' primarily affects the productive skills while the receptive skills continue to develop provided there is a sufficient amount of exposure to the language (Marton, 1977: 36-7).

The comparison between reception and production may take place on another level — whether comprehension precedes production (or vice versa), the notion of imitation in relation to comprehension and production, and the existence and the significance of the gap between comprehension and production.

As regards the relation between comprehension and production, the traditional and most widely shared view is that comprehension precedes

production. A language item (grammatical, lexical) or a construction must be comprehended before it can be produced (Ingram, 1974).

The comprehension, however, need not be complete. The evidence for this comes from the  $L_1$  lexical acquisition. The child would first apply a lexical item according to a very general feature e.g. [ $\pm$  animate] and then use the item to refer to any object having that feature, even though the child may have never heard the object referred to by that item (e.g. the over-generalization of 'dog' to refer to all types of animal). Over-generalizations of this kind suggest that some features are first comprehended, and one or more of these are picked up by the child in his own productive utterances. Studies such as those reviewed by Clark (1973) show that only the most basic features may be acquired before production begins.

However, the gap between comprehension and production is not always significant (Clark et al., 1974). Clark et al. have argued that the child can perform more adequately in his role as interpreter of speech than in his role as speaker since he is able to make use of linguistic and extra-linguistic information for comprehension. But the gap between comprehension of the verbal contents of utterances and the production of utterances is narrower than is normally assumed.

Belyayev (1963) in talking about the teaching of foreign languages suggests that in  $L_2$  learning there is an intermediary stage between reception and production; he calls that stage "reproduction". He describes it as the reconstitution of what has been heard or read by memory. The term 'reproductive' is given to the use of language made when a person reconstitutes materials (spoken or written) formerly perceived and assimilated. For example, when a pupil recites a poem which he has learned by heart, his speech is reproductive. In such reproduction, a person does not usually construct anything creative of his own, but only uses ready-made verbal formulations. It is clear that reproductive use of language requires greater exertion of the memory.

It is self-evident, however, that the productive use of language includes aspects of recognition and reproduction. When producing an utterance a person reproduces lexical items, combinations of lexical items and grammatical constructions, but uses them in different combinations, putting them together in a new way.

The notion of receptive and productive vocabulary is certainly essential for the teaching of lexis in EFL situations. The EFL learner wishes to reach general fluency as rapidly as possible and if he can do so within a limited vocabulary which is nevertheless satisfactory for all general purposes, valuable time and efforts will be saved (Bright and McGregor, 1970: 19).

As for the practical use of a foreign language, it can be receptive and productive as well as reproductive (imitative). To these three basic forms of using language correspond the three basic forms of pupil's work in language classes; they must be trained (a) in the perception and comprehension of speech and writing in the foreign language, (b) in the reproduction of such speech and writing, and (c) in the independent production of language expressing their own thoughts (Belyayev, 1963: 182).

The question arises as to whether it is possible and necessary to divide the lexical (and grammatical) teaching materials into that which is to be acquired receptively, reproductively and productively. What is usually the case, particularly at the post-intermediate level (e.g. in secondary schools), is that pupils are taught by one and the same language material for both reception and production — that which is laid down in the syllabus and contained in textbooks.

It is true that receptive and productive vocabularies of different people are far from identical. What is a receptive lexical item for one individual may be productive for another. But in a controlled situation like teaching a foreign language in a classroom, it is quite legitimate to have some teaching materials designed only for receptive learning and others

for productive use. It is also possible that the same receptive material taught at a particular stage may also be used for production at a later stage of learning. This leads to the conclusion that a teacher who presents his pupils with a set of lexical items and their meanings should then require the students to reproduce these items and later use some of them in their speech. This means that pupils must not only reproduce material by memory, reconstituting it in the form in which it was comprehended, but must also make creative use of it to express their own thoughts in speech and writing.

As a general conclusion, foreign language learners should not be limited to a purely 'productive' vocabulary. They need not practise every lexical item as soon as they encounter it for the first time. It may be necessary that we should use texts in which some of the lexical content is intended for reception only (Wilkins, 1972: 133). This means that the lesson may contain more items than the learner is going to be given the opportunity of practising. As greater mastery of the language is achieved lexical items would pass more easily from receptive knowledge to productive use when the need arises. This also means that we should allow sufficient time for learning to take place and must not consider the inability to produce lexical items at the very time of teaching these items as a sign of incomprehension or 'non-learning'.

#### 1.4. Semantic Fields: The Learner's Problem

It is generally recognized in most EFL situations that the basics of the grammatical and sound systems need to be mastered by the EFL learners as early as possible in order to minimize the negative effects of mother-tongue interference. This objective has necessarily called for the limitation of vocabulary during the early stages of EFL learning. Obviously, the degree and the proper length of the period of limitation differs from situation to situation depending on the teaching method adopted, the teaching materials

used and the ultimate objectives set up for the course. But within general bounds the limitation does hold: initial focus on the basics of grammar and pronunciation, with vocabulary expansion coming after this elementary stage.

The transition from the beginning to the intermediate stage is inherently a gradual one. There is no abrupt end to practice of pronunciation, and no sudden shift of focus from the initial habit-forming to the intermediate vocabulary building (Twaddell, 1973: 64).

At the post-intermediate level the situation would differ greatly. Having spent a number of years learning English at the primary and intermediate schools, the learners have met, though not necessarily mastered, nearly all the basic grammatical patterns, and most of the common general vocabulary, that is, most of the words of the General Service List (West, 1953).

At the secondary level, the learners have to cope with a sort of vocabulary expansion. This expansion has a number of aspects. First of all, it is quantitative. The learners will encounter a large number of new lexical items that will constitute a heavy lexical burden on them in most of the activities. The expansion will be qualitative as well. The new lexical items will generally apply to narrower contexts than the known items. In addition to 'walk', they may meet 'limp', 'hobble', 'stroll', 'saunter', 'march', 'stride' etc. In addition to 'pull', they may find 'tug', 'jerk', 'twitch', 'haul', 'tow', etc. The teacher is no longer content with the approximation of meaning the learners may possess for the lexical items. He is much concerned with helping the learners acquire the meanings of the items as precisely as possible. If, for example, in reading a passage they meet: 'They towed the car to the nearest garage', he may ask how they pulled the car, what things they used for pulling it, and whether it was easy or difficult to pull the car. If they meet: 'They waded across the road', he may ask how they crossed the road, what the road was like and whether the water was deep or shallow.

At another time, he might ask what difference it would make to the way one imagines what is happening if instead of 'waded' there was 'splashed', 'squelched' or 'swam' (Bright and McGregor, 1970: 29-30).

The subtle distinctions between semantically-related lexical items will obviously include the other aspects of meaning such as the connotations of the items or their collocational possibilities. 'Obstinate' will be different from 'determined' - the user's attitude of disapproval is indicated. The learner also needs to learn to respond to many of the different collocational possibilities of the lexical item he has already met or will meet: strawberry 'jam' is different from traffic 'jam'; a 'stale' joke from a 'stale' cake. He also needs to learn to avoid 'accidental' unusual collocations. He must speak of 'stirring the pudding' and not of 'winding it up'.

Different types of lexical errors which EFL learners make and with which teachers are familiar highlight the above problem.

The first type of error happens when the learner has an idea of the basic sense of the lexical item but does not know how it relates to other items of similar meaning or does not know its collocational range. The following are a few examples:<sup>5</sup>

- \* She laughed broadly
- \* a good-looking view
- \* to estimate the evidence

(Rudska et al., 1981b: 2)

Another erroneous tendency among EFL learners is to overuse a limited set of lexical items because they are sure of their meaning and collocational properties. This results in flat, uninteresting style and failure to express the variety of ideas they want to communicate, as in : 'a nice meal'; 'a nice holiday'; 'a nice hotel'; 'nice weather'; 'nice people'; 'nice food' occurring in the same piece of written English (e.g. a composition).

The third type of error arises from the learner's mistaken assumption that the collocational range of a new lexical item he has just met is the same as its translation equivalent in his own language. For example, French

speakers make the following errors:<sup>6</sup>

- \* He closed the door with the key (locked)
- \* a voyage by train (journey)
- \* I made an experience in the laboratory (experiment)

and Dutch speakers

- \* I sacked in mathematics (failed)  
(op. cit. p.3.)

The problem is more acute with learners whose mother tongue differs sharply from English on the lexical level as in the case with Arabic-speaking learners of EFL. As we shall see in some detail (Chapter Five) Arabic and English show marked differences in 'dividing up' aspects of external reality or experience. For example, what English denotes by the three lexical items 'stare', 'gaze', 'glare', Arabic refers to by using only one lexical item /juḥadiq/ (lit. = "look at for a long time"). It is no surprise that Arabic-speaking learners of English will find considerable difficulty in acquiring the precise meaning of these items unless they are made aware of the similarities and differences between the meanings of such items and their collocational properties .

The same sort of difficulty is encountered with many other sets of lexical items e.g. those referring to "Kinship" (e.g. 'aunt', 'uncle', 'cousin', 'brother-in-law'); "Killing" (e.g. 'murder', 'massacre', 'pogrom'); "Refusal and Acceptance" (e.g. 'refuse', 'disagree', 'accept', 'agree'); "Permission" (e.g. 'permit', 'allow', 'let'); "Destruction" (e.g. 'destroy', 'devastate', 'smash', 'shatter').

Particularly relevant to the above problem is the theory of semantic fields. This theory assumes that each language has a unique semantic structure. The structure is a network of relations within which each lexical item derives its meaning from its relations with the other items. The meaning of a lexical item in a particular language, therefore, depends on the existence of other items within that language. This inevitably leads to the conclusion that it does not make sense to try to teach the meaning of a lexical item in complete isolation from the other items with which it forms a field or a



subsystem. For example, an item like 'slaughter' has a different meaning in a language containing three or more related items e.g. 'slaughter', 'massacre', 'pogrom' in English from that of its counterpart in another language containing only one item e.g. /madʒzara/ in Arabic. The vocabulary of a language, therefore, is not an aggregation of isolated elements; it is a network of relations of elements. The network is different from language to language and needs to be mastered by anyone learning a new language. The EFL learner already knows the part each lexical item covers in its respective field in his native language, what he should be learning is the part each lexical item occupies in relation to all other lexical items of related meaning in the target language (Corder, 1973: 222-3).

#### 1.5. Aim and Organization of the Study

The aim of the present study is two-fold. First, it is an attempt to investigate the theory of semantic fields: its assumptions, background, development, the criticisms that may be directed against it, its evaluation as a linguistic theory etc. It is also a theoretical analysis of the structure of semantic fields and the sense-relations in terms of which these fields are structured. This investigation will cover what may be referred to as the 'First Part' or the 'Theoretical Part' of the research. Chapters Three and Four make up this theoretical part.

The second part of the study is 'applied' in nature. It is concerned with the potential applications of semantic field theory to the teaching and learning of lexis in EFL. It includes a contrastive lexical analysis of some semantic fields in English and Arabic - Arabic being the language of the EFL learners with whom the study is mainly concerned. This contrastive analysis is covered in Chapter Five. The applied part also deals with some pedagogical issues relevant to the study and to the experimental investigation of the pedagogical relevance of semantic field analysis. Such issues as the selection and gradation of lexical items in EFL teaching materials, the various

techniques commonly employed for vocabulary teaching are dealt with in some detail in Chapters Six and Seven. However, the bulk of the applied part of the research takes the form of an empirical investigation. In order to find out empirically whether or not semantic field analysis has a role to play in vocabulary teaching and learning, an experiment was formulated and conducted in a foreign language situation. Although the experiment dealt with one language skill, reading comprehension, and with a very specific type of situation (a secondary school in Iraq), it is hoped that the findings will be potentially relevant to other language skills and to teachers working in a wide variety of different situations. The experiment and the results, together with conclusions arising out of these results, are reported in Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten.

There are three other chapters. Chapter One is an introduction intended to clarify the role of vocabulary in communication, and in TEFL in particular, and identify the learner's problem in the acquisition of lexis in semantic fields. Chapter Two is an attempt to define and clarify some linguistic terms essential for the discussion and analysis of semantic field theory. Some concluding remarks concerning the place of the study in applied linguistics research, and implications for vocabulary teaching in EFL situations, particularly for Iraqi secondary schools, are dealt with in the final chapter (Chapter Eleven).

NOTES TO CHAPTER ONE

1. According to an unpublished paper by Greenberg, J.H. Osgood, C.E. and Jenkins, J.J., "for all languages the number of phonemes is not fewer than 10 or more than 70." (Ullmann, 1962: 236ft).
2. More precisely, the formatives in T.G. are divided into lexical items e.g. 'sincerity', 'boy', and grammatical items e.g. perfect, possessive, etc.; except possibly for 'the' (Chomsky, 1965: 65).
3. The problem is also identified by Brown, 1974; Richards, 1976; Marton, 1977; Judd, 1978; Meara, 1980 and McCarthy, 1984.
4. The terms 'passive' and 'active' are sometimes used instead of 'receptive' and 'productive' respectively. They are not used here in order to avoid confusion as some receptive skills (e.g. comprehension) are regarded as active rather than passive processes.
5. An asterisk indicates that a sentence or construction (e.g. clause, phrase) is unacceptable.
6. The Arabic-speaking learners of English make the same errors but the examples cited here are taken from Rudska et al. (1981b).

## CHAPTER TWO

### THEORETICAL PRELIMINARIES

#### 2.1. Word, Lexeme and Lexical Item

There is no general agreement among linguists on the status of the word as a linguistic unit. This seems to originate, primarily, from the fact that the term 'word' is a most ambiguous one in linguistics. Its definition, the criteria involved in its identification, and its status as a linguistic unit are still matters for debate (see, for example, Lyons, 1963, 1968, 1970, 1977; Seiler, 1964; Zgusta, 1967, 1971; and Swaminathan, 1973).

The term 'word' is often used to operate at all levels of linguistic analysis and covers all sizes of linguistic units from the morpheme to the complete sentence. However, it is possible to distinguish at least three senses in which the term 'word' is being used by most linguists. The first two senses are readily recognized in terms of the notion of 'realization'. For example, the 'phonological word' /teik/; and the 'orthographical word' take are two realizations of a particular 'grammatical word' traditionally referred to as the present tense of 'take'. The third usage refers to the 'word' as an abstract entity and is manifested in the traditional saying that: 'The words took and take are different forms of the same word'; it is the vocabulary-word 'take' that is being referred to here as having two different forms.

In order to avoid the ambiguity and inaccuracy involved in the use of the term 'word' above, some linguists (e.g. Lyons, 1968, 1977; Mathews, 1972, 1974; Kempson, 1977) prefer to use the term 'lexeme'; others (e.g. Halliday, 1961; Sinclair and Jones, 1974) prefer to use the term 'lexical item' to refer to the 'word' in its abstract sense and also in reference to the minimal semantic unit. In this sense, the terms 'lexeme' and 'lexical item' will be applicable, not only to 'single-word', but also to multiword lexical units or constructions which function as single semantic units: the so-called compound words like 'greenhouse', 'pickpocket'; phrases as: 'in

front of', 'on account of', 'put an end to'; idioms e.g. 'shoot the breeze' (meaning "chat idly"); 'kick the bucket' (meaning "die"); cliché e.g. (the house agent's 'desirable residence' (meaning "residence"), 'in this day and age' (meaning "now").<sup>1</sup>

Lyons (1977) makes further distinctions in the use of the term. He distinguishes between 'simple lexemes' i.e. lexemes whose stems are morphologically unanalysable e.g. 'man', 'friend'; 'complex lexemes' which cover what is commonly referred to in linguistics as derivation, i.e. the formation of a morphologically more complex stem, Y, from a morphologically simpler stem, X, by attaching to X a particular derivational affix or by systematically modifying the form of X in some way. For example, the suffix | - ly | may be attached to certain noun-stems e.g. 'man', 'friend' in order to form the corresponding derived, or complex, adjectives: 'manly', 'friendly'. However, one point should be emphasized here. Lexemes are abstract entities: what is derived by means of prefixation, suffixation etc. is the stem-form of a lexeme, and it is derived from another, morphologically simpler, stem-form. The lexemes 'friendly' and 'friend' are formally (i.e. morphologically) related by virtue of the derivational relationship. As a lexeme 'friendly' is neither syntactically nor semantically more complex than such simple (i.e. non-derived) lexemes as 'good' or 'nice' (Lyons, 1977: 522).

The third class of lexemes distinguished by Lyons is that of the 'compound lexemes'. A compound lexeme is one whose stem is formed by combining two or more stems (with or without morphological modification) e.g. 'screwdriver', 'blackbird', 'boyfriend', 'window box', 'country house'.

If we follow the same line of argument offered by Lyons, we can argue for the use of additional terms to refer to other classes of lexemes such as 'phrasal lexemes' e.g. 'put to death', 'put an end to'; 'idiomatic lexemes' e.g. 'pull someone's leg' (meaning 'tease someone') etc.

For our purpose in this study, we do not feel there is any necessity

to make such subtle distinctions between kinds of lexemes. The term 'lexeme' (and 'lexical item') will, therefore, be used for all sorts of lexemes without any further distinctions since all kinds of lexemes function as single semantic units.

Lexemes will be referred to throughout this study by enclosing their citation-forms in single quotation marks. By the citation-form of a lexeme is meant the form of the lexeme that is conventionally employed to refer to it in standard dictionaries and grammars of the language e.g. 'kill', 'murder', 'assassinate' and 'execute' will be referred to as lexemes. It is important to realize that the citation-form is indeed a form of the lexeme (being used for a metalinguistic purpose); but it should not be identified with the lexeme itself which is an abstract entity.

The word-forms of a lexeme will be underlined. Thus we will say, for example, that die, dies, died and dying are different forms of the lexeme (or lexical item) 'die'. As for the term 'word', it will be used in reference to certain quoted texts or to refer to the other senses of the term 'word' (i.e. to refer to the 'phonological', 'orthographical', and 'grammatical' words).

Something may now be said about our use of double quotation-marks. Following Lyons (1977:19) the double quotation-marks will be employed for two purposes: first, for quotations proper (as distinct from citation); and, second, to refer to the meaning of a lexeme. Given that 'X' is a lexeme, "X" is the meaning of 'X'. Thus "house" is the meaning of 'house'; and on the assumption that the Arabic lexeme /bajt/ has the same meaning as 'house' we can say that /bajt/ (in Arabic) means "house".

## 2.2. Aspects of Descriptive Meaning

The meaning of a lexical item can be approached and analysed in various ways. The one relevant to us here is to analyse descriptive meaning

in terms of denotation, sense and reference; and in terms of signification and communicative value.<sup>2</sup>

### 2.2.1. Denotation, Sense and Reference

#### 2.2.1.1. Denotation

The term 'denotation' will be used here for the relationship that holds between lexemes and certain 'features' of the extralinguistic world.<sup>3</sup> These features include persons, things, places, properties, processes and activities that are external to the language-system. The class of objects, properties etc. which the lexeme correctly denotes will be referred to as 'denotation' and its individual members as 'denotata' (Lyons, 1977: 207). For example, we will say that the denotation of 'cow' is a particular class of animals, and that the individual animals (i.e. 'cows' are its denotata). This view does not imply that denotation is the basic relationship in terms of which the whole meaning of a lexeme should be handled; nor does it imply that all lexemes in the vocabulary of a language have denotation. As it is understood here, denotation will apply to that subclass of lexemes which denote observable entities that really exist and a description of whose physical properties is possible. However, it will be extended to apply to lexemes denoting certain entities that have what we may call 'imaginary existence' such as 'goblin', 'unicorn' or 'centaur'. It follows from this interpretation of the notion of 'denotation' that there may be many lexemes which do not stand in a relationship of 'denotation' to anything outside of the language-system. Furthermore, the 'denotational boundaries' of lexemes are not always precise and determinate. For example, the precise point at which one draws the lines between the denotation of 'hill' and 'mountain', of 'chicken' and 'hen', of 'stream' and 'river', and so on, cannot be specified. But this does not mean that the notion of 'denotation' does not apply to such lexemes. Far from being a defect, denotational 'impreciseness' makes language a more

efficient means of communication. Absolute preciseness is unattainable, since there is no limit to the number and nature of the distinctions one might draw between different objects (Lyons, 1968: 427).

As for the lexemes which lack denotation such as 'courage', 'intelligence', 'beautiful', or 'honest' in English, we shall say that such lexemes have 'applicability' in the sense that they are applicable in certain contexts, linguistic or situational, and that they are applicable to individuals or properties of individuals. If we consider the applicability of a lexeme with respect to the question whether it is true of the entity to which it is applied, we are concerned with its denotation (Lyons, 1977: 213).

The point that should be stressed here is that there is no single correct way, in practice, of specifying the denotation of lexemes especially for the purpose of foreign language teaching. Consider, for example, the following specification of the denotation of 'walrus'; "large sea-animal (like a very large SEAL) with two long teeth standing out from the face and pointing downward" (LDOCE, p.1236). Any EFL learner reading this definition would probably acquire a good understanding of the denotation of 'walrus' provided that he knows the meaning of the other lexemes in the definition. Consider, however, a similar dictionary definition of 'carrot'; "an umbelliferous plant (*Daucus Carota*) having a large tapering root which in cultivation is bright red, fleshy and edible"(SOED, p.289). Apart from the apparent complexity of the definition, there is obvious irrelevance of specialized information in it as 'umbelliferous' is quite overspecific for lay (non-botanist's) usage of English, and, therefore, the learner of English is not much helped by such an attempt to explain to him the denotation of 'carrot'. We should be better off trying to teach the foreign language learner the denotation of such a lexeme as 'carrot' by realia or ostensive techniques rather than by a complicated dictionary definition. We will take up this point in Chapter Seven.



### 2.2.1.2. Sense

By the 'sense' of a lexeme, we mean its place in a subsystem of intralinguistic relations contracted by that lexeme and other lexemes in the vocabulary of a language in the context or contexts in which it occurs (Lyons, 1968: 427). These intralinguistic relations will be referred to as 'sense-relations' and will be discussed in some detail in Chapter Four.<sup>4</sup> According to this definition, we will say that one part or component (but not the whole) of the meaning of a lexeme in a particular context is described in terms of its denotation or applicability as explained above; another part of this meaning is the set of intralinguistic relations into which this lexeme enters with other lexemes not present in the utterance but part of the language-system and may occur in that context. For example, the meaning of the lexeme 'bee' in the following utterance:

He was badly stung by bees .

will be specified in terms of its denotation which may be cast here in the form of a dictionary definition: "small four-winged, stinging insect that produces wax and honey after gathering nectar from flowers" (OALDOCE, p.72). The other part of the meaning of the lexeme 'bee' is determined by the sense-relations it forms with other lexemes denoting sorts of insects e.g. 'fly', 'wasp', 'locust' etc.

There are cases in which a lexeme may have a meaning for some speakers in some contexts which it does not have for all speakers. But these are special cases as meaning is determined here either by a special code or special information about the intention of the speaker or else by the subject-matter. The lexeme 'group', for example, has one meaning when used in mathematical textbooks, another in sociological discussion, and still another in everyday discourse (Bierwisch, 1970: 186). Such cases, however, do not seem to pose difficulties of principle. A full semantic description of a language must in any case provide all the meanings possibly associated with a given lexeme in that language.

### 2.2.1.3. Reference

The term 'reference' has to do with the relationship that holds between an expression and what that expression stands for in a particular context. For example, the underlined expression in each of the following utterances is said to refer to a particular entity (a referent) if uttered in some appropriate context of use:

That cow over there is my father's.  
The man you met yesterday is my uncle.

The referring expression above (i.e. 'that cow' and 'the man') are accompanied by some specific information ('over there' and 'you met yesterday') but this is not always the case. The speaker may assume that the hearer is in possession of quite specific information about the referent and will, therefore, know which of the potential referents satisfying the description he is referring to even though this referent has not been previously mentioned. Thus the referring expression 'the cow' in 'The cow died last night' will enable the hearer, in the appropriate context, to pick out the actual referent from the class of potential referents. This kind of reference is to be distinguished from the 'generic' reference in the following sentence:

The cow is a useful animal.

Here the sentence is used to assert a generic proposition i.e. a proposition which says something, not about any particular individual cow, but about the class of cows as such.

It should be stressed here that reference is an utterance-dependent notion. Therefore, whenever we say that an expression in a particular sentence refers to a certain entity or group of entities, the term 'sentence' is being used in the sense of 'text-sentence' rather than 'system-sentence'. Furthermore, unlike sense and denotation, reference is not applicable to lexemes in English.

In this respect we agree with Lyons (1977) that:

"In English common nouns like 'cow' are not normally used as referring expressions; and this is true for most lexemes in the vocabulary of English. If they have denotation, their denotation will determine

their reference when they are employed in referring expressions. But they do not have reference as lexemes." (p.208)

The question that now arises is: What precisely is the difference or the relationship between denotation, sense and reference, as these terms are defined here, and how do they contribute to the meaning of a lexical item?

Let us first take the difference between denotation and reference and see how they are related.

The point that has just been emphasized is that reference is an utterance-bound notion and does not apply to lexemes as such but to expressions in some particular context. Denotation, on the other hand, is a relation that applies in the first instance to lexemes and holds independently of particular utterances. Consider, for example, a lexeme like 'dog' in English. Expressions like 'the dog', 'Mary's dog' or 'that dog over there' may be used to refer to particular individuals but the lexeme 'dog' alone cannot. Further, as we have already mentioned, the reference of expressions like 'the dog' is context-dependent. Now the reference of expressions which contain 'dog' is determined, in part, by the denotation of 'dog'. The expression 'the dog' can never be used to refer correctly to a 'house', 'book', 'car' etc. but only to that class of objects which the lexeme 'dog' denotes.

We will now turn briefly to the distinction of denotation and sense. It is clear that the relationship between 'cow' and 'animal' is quite different from the relation that either of these lexemes bears to the class of objects it denotes. We shall assume, following Lyons (1977), that both denotation and sense are interdependent, but equally basic, relations and there is evidence to support this view. In some cases the relationship of denotation may seem logically basic so that, for example, we know that 'cow' and 'animal' are related in sense because of our prior knowledge that the denotation of 'cow' is properly included in the denotation of 'animal'. Similarly, the fact that English has lexemes related in sense such as 'ram : ewe', 'bull : cow' clearly

depends upon our knowledge that these lexemes denote male and female sheep and cattle. This is supported by the common experience in language acquisition. We first learn the denotation of many lexemes before we can relate them to other lexemes in the vocabulary. In other cases, however, the relation of sense seems to be basic. If a lexeme has no denotation in the strict sense (in terms of 'real existence'), such as 'unicorn' or 'goblin', it seems impossible to understand its meaning if we do not, first of all, establish the fact that 'unicorn' and 'animal' (like 'cow' and 'animal') are related in sense whereas 'unicorn' and 'book', for example, are not, or at least, much less closely. It is because we know the sense of 'unicorn' that we are able to understand its applicability. This point holds more generally and not just of lexemes that lack denotation. To return to the definition of 'walrus' given above: we interpreted this as a definition of the denotation of 'walrus'. But in order to understand it, we need to know the sense of many of the component lexemes in the definition. We have, therefore, to learn the sense of 'walrus' (i.e. its relation with such lexemes as 'seal' and 'seal-animal') before we could learn its denotation. The relation of sense, then, in some cases at least, should be established prior to that of the denotation. In fact, it is a common practice in the teaching of EFL that teachers often implicitly use sense-relations to help the pupils understand the denotation of certain lexemes. Thus a 'poodle' will be defined as "a kind of dog", a 'herring' as a "kind of fish", and so on. We shall deal with this point in detail in Chapter Seven.

In conclusion: we agree with Lyons (1977: 211) that since there are conflicting cases as to whether denotation or sense is more basic, we shall assume that both relations are equally essential to meaning and that neither is wholly dependent upon the other. The two relations, i.e. denotation (or applicability) and sense, are to be regarded as the components of descriptive meaning and should both be taken into account in the teaching and learning

of lexis in EFL situations.

### 2.2.2. Signification and Communicative Value

Another distinction we shall draw in reference to descriptive meaning is a distinction between 'having meaning' (or 'signification') and 'being meaningful' (or having a 'communicative value').<sup>5</sup> Using this distinction we shall say that an individual lexeme has a 'descriptive meaning' or 'meanings' (in case of polysemy) described in terms of denotation and sense as these terms are explained in the previous section, but has no 'communicative value' out of context. Phrases, clauses and sentences (text-sentences) may or may not have 'communicative value' if uttered in contexts though, if well-formed, they will have the 'signification' (i.e. 'the literal meaning') which they have out of context. Let us take a simple example. The lexeme 'destroy' has a meaning (i.e. a descriptive meaning) if uttered in isolation. This meaning consists of both the denotation (or applicability) of 'destroy' which may be given here in the form of a dictionary definition: "to tear down or apart; ruin; put an end to the existence or effectiveness of something" (LDOCE, p.298); and its sense, i.e. the relation it contracts with other lexemes in the vocabulary such as 'demolish', 'ruin' or 'pull down'. The lexeme 'destroy', however, has no 'communicative value' out of context; in other words, we do not understand anything other than its descriptive meaning if uttered alone and, therefore, it has no value in the communicative process. On the other hand, in an utterance like:

The army destroyed the town.

if uttered in the appropriate context, the verb 'destroy' will be said to have the same descriptive meaning as mentioned above (i.e. the meaning it has in isolation assuming, of course, it is not polysemous) but, additionally, it is now part of a 'meaningful' sentence and therefore the verb 'destroy' has a communicative value. But if the same sentence (i.e. The army destroyed

the town') is uttered in isolation from a spoken or written discourse or is used inappropriately in some actual context (such as an answer to a question like: Who wrote this letter?) we say that this sentence has only 'signification' but no 'communicative value'. That is, if we know the descriptive meanings and understand the syntactic relations between them, we can then recognize that this sentence represents a proposition and so has signification in a way which the following collection of items does not:

the town destroy army the

We shall also say that the lexeme 'destroy' in this collection of items has no communicative value; it has only a descriptive meaning.

It is important not to confuse the term 'signification' as used here with its traditional use according to which lexemes and other expressions are said to be signs which signify, or stand for, other things through a mediating concept ( cf. Ogden & Richards, 1923: 11). Neither should the term 'communicative value' be confused with the notion of acceptability. An acceptable sentence is roughly one that may be produced by a native speaker in some appropriate context and would be accepted by other native speakers in that context. This is obviously related to Firth's (1957) and Hyme's (1972) views that an utterance or part of an utterance is 'meaningful' i.e. 'having a communicative value' if it can be used appropriately in some actual context and given a consistent interpretation by native speakers of the language. Sentences may be perfectly well-formed from the grammatical point of view of a given grammar and yet, if they do not have the 'implication of utterance' from the semantic point of view they will be just nonsense (Firth, 1957: 24). Thus a sentence like 'Colourless green ideas sleep furiously' (Chomsky, 1957: 15) is grammatically well-formed, yet it is meaningless since it is very unlikely that it may be produced by a native speaker of English in some appropriate context.<sup>6</sup> Of course, there are different 'layers' or 'kinds' of acceptability. Sentences can be acceptable or unacceptable in various ways or in various degrees. Sentences which may be acceptable in fairy-

tales or science fiction will not be acceptable in everyday English. Others will be rejected as 'obscene', 'taboo' or restricted to another register.

Having identified some aspects of descriptive meaning, we should emphasize the point that when we talk about the meaning (or descriptive meaning) of a lexeme, we are referring to this meaning as part of a meaningful utterance used to achieve some communicative act.

### 2.3. Pragmatic Aspects of Meaning

Pragmatics is still a controversial field of study. The scope of the field, its boundaries with syntax and semantics and its place within the general linguistic theory are matters of debate (see e.g. Levinson, 1983; Leech, 1983). However, pragmatics is generally understood to refer to "the general study of how context [in the broad sense] affects linguistic interpretation" (Fromkin, 1978: 18) or "the study of meaning in relation to speech situations" (Leech, 1983: 6). Our conception of pragmatics will not be very different from these general definitions. Pragmatics will be taken as "the study of just those aspects of the relationship between language and context that are relevant to the writing of grammars [in the broad sense of 'grammar' inclusive of phonology, syntax and semantics]" (Levinson, 1983: 9). The scope of context is not easy to determine. But as Ochs (1979) notes "----one must consider the social and psychological world in which the language user operates at any given time" (p.1), "it includes minimally, language users' beliefs and assumptions about temporal, spatial, and social settings; prior, ongoing, and future actions (verbal, non-verbal), and the state of the social interaction in hand" (p.5). Lyons (1963, 1968, 1977) also takes the context in a broad sense to include the situational context, the knowledge shared by the speaker and hearer of what has been said earlier, the relevant conventions, beliefs and presuppositions, etc. (we shall return to Lyons' notion of context in 3.2.1.3.).

From a lexical point of view, the above definition will include the study of those aspects (or principles or factors) that determine with the linguistic

system the assignment of meanings to lexical items and utterances. In this section we shall sketch out some of those pragmatic aspects which have bearing on semantic field analysis, taking the view that no satisfactory and comprehensive theory of semantics can ignore the role played by pragmatics in language.

### 2.3.1. Context-of-Utterance

Lyons (1977: 572) notes that the theoretical notion of context-of-utterance is based upon a pre-theoretical notion of context. If we are asked by a child or a foreigner about the meaning of a particular lexical item, we are frequently unable to answer his question unless he supplies some information about the context in which he has encountered the item. A lexical item, therefore, is appropriate or inappropriate, more or less effective than another, in a certain context.

The study of the context-of-utterance is a matter shared, as in the case of many other matters, by pragmatics and sociolinguistics. It has become axiomatic in both fields to say that since language is a means of communication, then learning a language (whether one's own or a foreign language) involves learning how it is actually used to fulfil communicative functions. It is not sufficient to have a mastery over the linguistic 'code' if one does not know how to make use of it to communicate. And this involves, among other things, learning how to understand and use lexical items in particular contexts. Let us take a simple example. The lexical item 'glass' has a denotation which may be formulated as a dictionary definition: "a hard transparent solid material made from sand melted under great heat: a glass bottle/window" (LDOCE, p.482). When printed in capital letters on a packing case, the item means "handle with care". The fact that glass is referred to and that the lexeme appears in capitals on a packing case are sufficient indications of how the message GLASS is to be comprehended. In other words, the contextual factors of topic, setting, and message form provide the context-of-utterance for the lexeme to be understood as giving instructions (Criper and Widdowson, 1975: 201).



The notion of context-of-utterance will be made use of in our research as an important criterion which determines the inclusion of lexemes in semantic fields (see 4.4.1.).

### 2.3.2. Speech Acts

The theory of speech acts gives explicit recognition to the social or interpersonal dimensions of language-behaviour. According to the theory, to produce an utterance is to perform some communicative act: to make promises, issue warnings, offer apologies (or congratulations), give instructions, etc. By saying, for example, 'I promise to come early', the speaker is not only saying something but actually making a promise. Verbs like 'promise', 'warn', 'apologise', 'criticize', 'resign' are referred to by Austin (1962) as 'performative verbs' and the sentences containing them as 'performative sentences' or simply 'performatives'. The following sentences (text-sentences) exemplify the use of such performatives:

I promise to be faithful.  
I warn you there is a bomb in the room.  
I apologise for the delay.

In each of the above sentences, the performer of the act is the subject (i.e. 'first person singular') and the verb is in the present simple active form, and very frequently one can insert 'hereby' in the sentence: 'I hereby promise...', 'I hereby warn you...', etc.

The form of the performative utterances given above are explicit in the sense that an explicit performative verb ('promise', 'warn', 'apologise') is being used in the sentence but it may also be primary in which case the utterance performs a certain speech act without containing an explicit performative verb e.g. in 'He has been working very hard' there is an implicit performance of "stating" and in 'Come early next time!' an implicit performance of "ordering". In such cases we could use, if we wish, an actual performative verb: 'I state he has been working very hard.' and 'I order you to come early next time.'

To study speech acts is to recognise the importance of the context of

utterance in determining communicative functions. A question like 'Can you pass me the salt?', uttered at a dinner table, is not a question but a request to pass the salt. This has led to the distinction between the 'locutionary act' (i.e. literal meaning) of an utterance and the function it performs or what is usually referred to as the 'illocutionary act' or 'illocutionary force' which is largely determined by context. According to Strawson (1964) the locutionary act may exhaust the illocutionary force in explicit performatives; but in primary performatives it does not, though it limits the force to some extent. Searle (1975) suggests the use of the term 'indirect speech act' to refer to the act performed by an utterance like 'Can you pass me the salt?'.

The study of speech acts is not as straightforward as it might appear. There are many problems. An explicit performative utterance can be in the passive e.g. 'Passengers are warned to cross the track by the bridge only'. An utterance can also take the form of a performative without functioning as one e.g. 'I promise only when I intend to keep my word' (Coulthard, 1977: 14). There are also the conditions which effectively govern the production of speech acts or determine the illocutionary forces of utterances, especially of primary performatives (see e.g. Searle, 1975). There is also the question of whether there are some basic illocutionary acts to which all or most of the other acts can be reduced. Austin (1962) suggests that there are hundreds of illocutionary acts in English, and groups them into five basic classes: verdictives, which involve the giving of a verdict e.g. "acquit, assess, convict, estimate"; exercitives, which are the exercising of powers, rights, or influence e.g. "appoint, vote, advise, warn"; commissives, typified by promising and undertaking but include also declaration or announcements of intention e.g. "promise, bet, oppose, guarantee"; behabitives, a miscellaneous group having to do with attitudes and social behaviour e.g. "apologize, congratulate, commend, curse, challenge"; expositives, which clarify how utterances fit into discourse e.g. "argue, postulate, affirm, concede". Even if we do not commit ourselves

to Austin's categories, his classification is clearly similar, in principle, to any attempt to classify verbs (as items in the vocabulary of English) into semantic groups or fields, recognizing of course the fact that Austin's classification is concerned with illocutionary acts whereas semantic field analysis is concerned with lexical items. But the important point to emphasize here is that if semantic field theory succeeds in producing a sound and valid classification of lexical items into semantic fields, then such classification can certainly be made use of in speech act theory to classify the illocutionary acts.<sup>7</sup>

### 2.3.3. Presupposition

There have been many senses in which the term 'presupposition' has been used by linguists and philosophers.<sup>8</sup> The interpretation to be given to the term here is adapted from Stalnaker (1973: 448). We shall say that:

"Sentence A (in a given context) pragmatically presupposes B if, whenever A is uttered sincerely, the speaker of A assumes B and assumes that his audience assumes B also".

For example, a sentence (text-sentence) 'Mary does not regret losing the race' presupposes that 'Mary lost the race'. The terms 'sincerely' and 'assume' are used pre-theoretically.

The most interesting type of presupposition relevant to our research here is the one suggested by e.g. McCawley (1968), and Fillmore (1969). McCawley rightly argues that to say 'My neighbour is buxom' is to presuppose that the neighbour is female as the meaning of 'buxom' contains the semantic feature [Female]. According to Fillmore, the presupposition of a sentence are those conditions which must be satisfied before the sentence can be used to perform a speech act. Thus the sentence 'Please open the door' can be used as a command (or better a request) only if the addressee is in a position to know what door has been mentioned and that the door, at the time of speaking, is not open. The test that the existence and specificity of a door and its being closed make up the presupposition of the sentence is that under negation the sentence is used to give quite different instructions, yet the presuppositional conditions

are unaffected 'Please don't open the door'. The presupposition about the closed state of the door is a property of the lexical item 'open'. Similarly, a sentence like 'The dog chased the cat' presupposes that the entity identified as the direct object is moving fast because the semantic feature [Moving Fast] is a property of the lexical item 'chase'. Fillmore points out that the apparent counter-examples to his claim can be interpreted as 'semi-quotations'. They are to be thought of as comments on the appropriate use of lexemes in utterances. For example, in a sentence like 'I didn't chase the thief; as it happened, he couldn't get his car started' the speaker is commenting on the use of the lexeme 'chase' which has just been uttered.

The analysis of presupposition in terms of semantic features is obviously related to the Componential Analysis of meaning which we shall deal with in Chapter Four.

#### 2.3.4. Implicature

The notion of implicature rests upon a distinction between what is said and what is implicated, but is not actually said (Lyons, 1977: 592). Grice (1975) distinguishes between two types of implicature: 'conventional' and 'conversational'. Conventional implicatures are inferences which arise on the basis of the conventional meaning (i.e. descriptive meaning) of lexical and grammatical items in utterances. For example, in the sentence 'She is poor but honest' the item 'but' carries the implicature that for a person to be poor is a good reason for supposing him not to be honest (Leech, 1983: 11). One typical characteristic of conventional implicatures is that they are detachable in the sense that there are other ways of saying the same thing which do not give rise to implicature (e.g. 'She is poor and honest'). Another characteristic is that they are not cancelable; it is contradictory for the speaker to deny something that is conventionally implicated by the sentence he has uttered. Karttunen and Peters (1979: 11) observes that a large number of cases that have been handled under presupposition are in fact instances of conventional

implicature such as presupposition associated with particles (e.g. too, either, also, even), presupposition of certain factive verbs (e.g. 'forget, realize, take into account') and those which accompany implicative verbs like 'manage' and 'fail'.

The second type of implicature, conversational implicature, depends upon certain rules or principles which Grice calls 'maxims of conversation' and groups them under the headings of quantity, quality, relation, and manner.

1. Quantity: Be just as informative as required, i.e. give the right amount of information.

2. Quality: Tell the truth.

3. Relation: Be relevant.

4. Manner: Be perspicuous, i.e. (i) avoid obscurity; (ii) avoid ambiguity; (iii) be brief; (iv) be orderly.

(adapted from Grice, 1975: 45-6)

The four categories of maxims jointly express a general 'co-operative principle' that determines the proper conduct of discourse. Let us take an example from Leech (1981): 332):

A: I saw Mr. X having dinner with a woman yesterday.

B: Really? Does his wife know about it?

A: Of course she does. She was the woman he was having dinner with.

B has reason to feel cheated by A. From A's opening remark he has reasonably drawn the conclusion:

'The woman Mr. X was having dinner with was not his wife.'

We say then that A has violated the maxim of quantity giving less information than is desirable.

The conversational maxims have extensively been studied by linguists, philosophers and others. There also seems to be a place for them in language teaching, particularly in discourse analysis for language classrooms. Scholfield (1982) offers a useful discussion of how Grice's maxims can be made use of in formulating definitions for vocabulary teaching. For example, if a learner does not know the lexeme 'ram' in a sentence like 'At this time of the year

the farmer separates the rams from the other sheep', he needs only to be told 'rams are sheep' because this is the information required for understanding the meaning of 'ram' here as the learner can 'inference' from the context that rams are sheep. A definition like that of 'goat' as "usually horned and bearded ruminant quadruped" violates the maxim of manner (for being obscure) as it is very likely that the learner will find 'ruminant' and 'quadruped' much more difficult than the lexeme being defined. We shall take up this point in Chapter Seven.

### 2.3.5. Knowledge of the Extralinguistic World

It seems it is not possible to construct a satisfactory semantic theory, and for that reason a semantic field theory, without taking into account knowledge of the extralinguistic world. First, there is no absolute or clear-cut line between this knowledge and knowledge of language. More often than not, native speakers of a language appeal to the facts of the extralinguistic world in their communication. That this is so can be seen from a few examples which show that nonlinguistic information may be essential in understanding a particular sentence (i.e. text-sentence). Consider, for example, the following two sentences:

1. Our store sells alligator shoes.
2. Our store sells horseshoes.

(Katz and Fodor, 1963: 178)

In a normal setting (e.g. as a notice in a store window) occurrence of (1) will be taken to mean 'Our store sells shoes made of alligator skins', while (2) will be taken to mean 'Our store sells shoes for horses'. Notice, however, that (1) is open to the interpretation that 'Our store sells shoes for alligators' and (2) is open to the interpretation that 'Our store sells shoes made from the skins of horses'. From this it follows that in order to arrive at the correct interpretation of (1), we must know (from the extralinguistic world) that, to date, alligators do not wear shoes, although shoes for people are sometimes made from alligator skins. Conversely, if we want to understand

(2) correctly we must know that horses wear shoes but shoes for people are not usually made from the skins of horses (Katz and Fodor, 1963: 178-9).

The extralinguistic knowledge is also essential in determining the deviancy of some sentences. Take, for example, the following two sentences:

1. That person over there is pregnant.
  - \*2. That man over there is pregnant.
- (Jackendoff, 1972: 19)

The first sentence, if uttered while pointing to a man, seems to be deviant in the same way that the second sentence is. The deviancy of the first sentence results from the context of situation whereas the deviancy of the second does not.

Secondly, a theory of meaning which entirely excludes extralinguistic relations is viciously circular. Take a simple example like: 'He strummed the guitar' (Bolinger, 1975: 223). If we do not know the meaning of 'guitar', we still infer from the context that it must be a musical instrument because only musical instruments are strummed. If we do not know the meaning of 'strum', we may also be able to infer from the context that it is most likely a form of playing because that is what one normally does with musical instruments (of course, the meaning of either lexeme is open to misunderstanding). But what if we do not know either 'strum' or 'guitar'? At some point it seems necessary to break out of the circle, to get a foothold outside language (op.cit. p. 223).

Nevertheless, the above argument should not be taken to imply that we must first represent all the knowledge that native speakers of a language have about the extralinguistic world before we begin a semantic analysis. Such a representation does not seem feasible in practice, not even in principle. What we suggest here is that it is legitimate and necessary to appeal to extralinguistic information in the course of semantic analysis especially when the analysis is carried out for pedagogical purposes.

#### 2.4. Semantic Field Theory: The Basic Assumption

Before undertaking any detailed discussion of semantic field theory, it seems useful to touch briefly upon the basic assumption of the theory (though this assumption was mentioned in passing in Chapter One).

The theory of semantic fields assumes that the lexemes that are semantically related, whether paradigmatically or syntagmatically, within a given language-system belong to the same semantic field. A semantic field is therefore a paradigmatically and syntagmatically structured subset of the lexicon. The lexical items of language can be classified into sets which are related semantically and divide up the semantic field in various ways. For example, the field of "Transfer of Possession" (Katz, 1972: 347) in English includes such lexemes as: 'sell', 'buy', 'trade', 'exchange', 'give', 'receive', 'lend', 'borrow', 'inherit', 'lease', 'hire' and 'rent'. The two lexemes 'sell' and 'buy' enter into a special sense-relation with each other and define a region within this field. To say, for instance, 'John sold the house to Bill' is to assert that 'Bill bought the house from John'. The field of "Colour" provides another, often cited, example. In English, the lexemes that denote colour fall under the general term 'Colour' and include: 'red', 'blue', 'green', 'white', 'scarlet' and dozens of others. Thus the object of the analysis of semantic fields is to collect all the lexical items that belong to a particular field and show the relationship of each of them to one another and to the general term. Although there are certain lexical gaps and some disagreements and indecisions among the native speakers in deciding whether two lexemes overlap in meaning or contrast, these are of a very limited type and do not invalidate the theory. Looking closely at semantic fields, it is possible to describe the gaps and overlaps (Lehrer, 1974: 16). We shall deal with this point later (see 3.3.2.2.).



NOTES TO CHAPTER TWO

1. See Zgusta (1967; 1971) for some criteria of identifying multiword lexical items.
2. The term 'descriptive meaning' is borrowed from Lyons (1977).
3. The term 'denotation' is sometimes used by some linguists to refer to what we will call 'reference'; conversely, 'reference' has frequently been used (e.g. in Lyons, 1963, 1968; Leech, 1981) for what we will distinguish here as 'denotation'. This terminological difference should always be borne in mind as it may lead to confusion.
4. They are sometimes referred to in the literature as 'meaning-relations' with the narrow interpretation of the term 'meaning' (equivalent to our 'sense' here).
5. The distinction of 'signification' and 'communicative value' drawn here is adapted from Widdowson's (1978) distinction between 'signification' and 'value' though Widdowson's distinction has to do with sentence meanings rather than lexical meanings.
6. Chomsky (1957: 15) considers 'Colourless green ideas sleep furiously' a grammatical sentence but meaningless. Later he (1965) changes his position; now he defines grammatical as 'natural' and 'natural' in turn as "capable of being analysed by a transformational generative grammar" and thus 'Colourless green ideas...' is now both ungrammatical and unacceptable as it is no longer generated by the rules of the grammar.
7. Austin's type of classification has had some influence on later classifications of functional categories within a notional-syllabus framework e.g. Wilkins' (1976) classification of functional categories into valuation (e.g. estimate, value, assess), verdiction (e.g. pronounce, rule, award), approval (e.g. approve, appreciate, comment) etc. (see 6.3.2.3.). In another respect, the theory of speech acts has made a marked influence on language

teaching methodology. It has constituted an important basis for the development of 'communicative approaches' to language teaching which put the emphasis on the communicative functions of language (see e.g. Schmidt and Richards, 1980 for an interesting discussion).

8. Levinson (1983: 167) notes that because of the large literature on presupposition there are so many contradictory views on the topic (see e.g. Keenan, 1971; Kempson, 1975; Wilson, 1975).

## CHAPTER THREE

### SEMANTIC FIELD THEORY: GENERAL PERSPECTIVES

#### 3.1. Background

The development of semantic field theory stems from the writings of German and Swiss linguists in the first half of the twentieth century, notably: Ipsen (1924); Trier (1934); Jolls (1934) and Porzig (1934). Those and other scholars were writing about the regularities of the semantic links between linguistic units and the systematic nature of the lexicon. The origins of the theory, however, can be traced back at least to the middle of the nineteenth century and to the ideas of Humboldt (1836) and Saussure (1916).

Among German linguists Trier was the most important and influential and his version of field theory "opened a new phase in the history of semantics" (Ullmann, 1962: 7) despite some criticisms that are sometimes directed against it. In a number of works he not only developed new principles for the systematic analysis of the lexicon, but he applied them to an extensive amount of factual material.

Trier expressly acknowledged his espousal of the Humboldtian conception of language as a determinant of its speakers' world view and as an organic totality wherein all parts are conceptually related to one another. He also associated himself with the modern expression of the idea of inner structure in language as formulated by Saussure.

Following his teachers, Humboldt and Saussure, Trier begins with the notion of the synchronic state of the language as a closed, stable system, defining the substance of all its components:

"In the system all the parts receive their meanings only from the whole. That means that a word [i.e. lexeme] in any language is not an isolated carrier of meaning; on the contrary, each has a meaning only because there are others adjacent to it."

(Trier, 1934: quoted and translated by Vassilyev, 1974: 81)

Thus, a lexeme alone has no meaning but acquires one only through the opposition it has with neighbouring lexemes in the pattern. For example,

the lexeme 'weise' ("wise") would mean something entirely different in modern German if 'klug' ("intelligent"), 'gescheit' ("sensible"), 'gerissen' ("sly"), 'schlau' ("cunning"), 'gewitzigt' ("shrewd") and many others did not stand next to it. Similarly, in the grading of examination results as 'excellent', 'good', 'fair', 'poor', 'very poor', the lexeme 'poor' acquires meaning only when one knows that the scale of grading consists of five degrees and that 'poor' lies in the lower half between 'fair' and 'very poor'. However, Trier admits that such an example is an oversimplification of the field concept but the principle shown here applies, in his view, to all lexical fields (Miller, 1968: 67).

Trier distinguishes between the 'lexical field' and the 'conceptual field' whereby lexical fields divide conceptual fields into parts like a mosaic leaving no gaps or overlaps. However, it is not always clear how the 'lexical field' is to be distinguished from the 'conceptual field'. In fact, Trier himself does not always keep these two types of field clearly separated. Nevertheless, the following exposition of Trier's version of field theory, summarized mainly from Lyons (1977), may clarify the distinction which, though it may not be Trier's, at least seems to be compatible with his usage of the two terms.

Trier looks upon the vocabulary of a synchronic state of language as a closely-knit system of lexemes interrelated in sense. But the system is in constant flux. Not only do we find old lexemes disappearing and new ones emerging as the language develops but also the sense-relations holding between a given lexeme and its neighbouring lexemes in the system are constantly changing through time.

To illustrate what is normally meant by a conceptual field, let us take the continuum of colour prior to the segmentation by individual language-systems. Considered as a continuum, the substance of colour constitutes a 'conceptual area'; it becomes a 'conceptual field' by virtue of its structural

organization by individual languages. The set of lexemes in any one language-system which cover the conceptual area and, through the sense-relations holding between them, give structure to it is a 'lexical field'. Each lexeme in the lexical field will cover a certain conceptual area and each area may in turn be structured as a field by another set of lexemes. For example, the conceptual field of "Colour" in English is structured by many terms such as 'red', 'blue', 'green', 'white', 'yellow' and 'brown'. The conceptual area of 'red' is itself covered and structured by other terms: 'scarlet', 'crimson', 'vermillion', 'pink' etc. The sense of a lexeme is thus a conceptual area within a conceptual field: and any conceptual area that is associated with a lexeme, as its sense, is a concept.

Trier believes that lexical fields border on one another to constitute a whole corresponding to the conceptual field. Lexical fields and conceptual fields in turn join together to form the structure of the vocabulary of language. Trier has thus made use of the concept of Gestalt psychology which looks at events as a whole with each event influencing the others. In Trier's linguistic field each part influences the other parts and delimits its meaning (Öhman, 1953: 127-8).

In the course of time, Trier's own research interests shifted to somewhat different problems and another pioneer of the field concept, Leo Weisgerber, became the acknowledged leader of the field approach.

Weisgerber started out from a general inquiry into the role of language in shaping the intellectual life of the speech-community. He explicitly related his ideas to those of Trier in his contribution to a collection of articles celebrating Trier's work. He also linked his concept of field theory, more clearly than Trier himself had done, with Humboldt's philosophy.

Weisgerber drew attention first to certain well-articulated spheres of the vocabulary showing the influence of language on thought and on the evaluation of speakers' concepts. There is, he argues, no intrinsic reason for dividing up the continuum of colours in the way to which our own speech-habits have accustomed us. The ancient Greeks had, for example, an entirely different scale of colours, so much so that modern scholars have sometimes accused them of colour-blindness (Ullmann, 1957: 155).

Weisgerber's conception of 'linguistic fields' is very close to Trier's in its theoretical postulates to the extent that justifies our reference to Trier-Weisgerber's field as one concept. Like Trier, he does not regard the lexeme as an independent carrier of meaning, an autonomous entity in the field, but only as a purely relational, structural component:

"The word field [i.e. lexical field] exists as a whole. For this reason, in order to understand the meanings of its individual components, it is necessary to visualize the entire field and find the place of that component in the structure of the field."

(Weisgerber, 1962: quoted and translated by Vassilyev, 1974: 85)

Some lexemes in the field, Weisgerber claims, do not even have corresponding elements in reality itself. For example, the lexeme 'grau' ("grey") in the series: 'weiss', 'grau', 'schwarz' ("white", "grey", "black") has no direct correlate in the colour spectrum; 'grau' denotes shades of colour ranging from white to black; this is why 'weiss', 'grau' and 'schwarz' semantically delimit each other.

In addition to the field concept discussed above, there are other concepts of field which have not been very influential. It was stated earlier that the first explicit formulation of the field-concept prior to Trier was made by Ipsen in 1924 when he used the 'field' as a linguistic term in the compound 'semantic field' ('Bedeutungsfeld') to denote a group of lexemes that together constitute a field of meaning.

In an article in 1934, Jolls, also in opposition to Trier and Weisgerber, proposed a field concept of his own with the help of correlation pairs like

'right - left' which he claimed to have traced back as far as the ancient grammarian Dionysios Thrax and which show, he argues, that "the semantic framework remains unaltered whereas its components are replaceable; in the course of history different lexemes will be used for the same relationship, but the relationship itself will remain immutable in its structure" (Ullmann, 1957: 158). Jolles was thus the first to include the structural relations of 'oppositeness' of meaning (e.g. 'cold' - 'hot') into his semantic fields, which he prefers to call 'semantic groups' (Vassilyev, 1974: 89).

Also in contrast with Trier's field concept and about the same time, Porzig (1934) developed a notion of semantic fields based upon the sense-relations that hold between pairs of syntagmatically related lexemes. However, it is now commonly accepted that Trier's fields of paradigmatic relations and Porzig's fields of syntagmatic relations are complementary rather than in conflict.

Whereas Trier proceeds, theoretically, by dividing the total vocabulary first into lexical fields, to subdivide these into lexemes, Porzig starts from simple concrete situations with which he associates bipartite syntagms (i.e. collocations) composed of a verb and a noun or an adjective and a noun, bound together, in his view, by an 'essential meaning relation'. For instance, 'to bite' presupposes 'the teeth', 'to lick' presupposes 'the tongue', and 'blond' presupposes 'the hair'. He points out that in explaining the meanings of such lexemes one has to take into account the sets of lexemes with which they collocate whether overtly in texts or covertly in the language system by means of essential meaning relations. One can hardly hope to explain the meaning of the verb 'lick' without mentioning 'the tongue', or 'bite' without mentioning 'the teeth'. The lexicalization of such relationships is referred to by Lyons (1977: 262) as 'encapsulation'. The sense of 'with the tongue' is encapsulated in the sense of 'lick', as the sense of 'with the teeth' is encapsulated in the sense of 'bite'.

## 3.2. Recent Studies in Semantic Fields

### 3.2.1. Lyons' Theory of Meaning

In recent years semantic field theory has been developed most thoroughly and explicitly by John Lyons (1963, 1968, 1977). Lyons (1963) attempts to update the theory of structural semantics developed by the Trier school, and to demonstrate its efficacy by analysing part of the vocabulary of Plato. He introduces the following modifications to earlier theories:

- (1) The conceptualist interpretation of 'meaning' is rejected. Consequently, the conceptual side of semantic field theory has been abandoned.
- (2) Great importance is attached to the notion of context.
- (3) Both 'sense' and 'denotation' (or 'applicability' for lexemes which have no denotation) are to be incorporated in any theory of meaning.<sup>1</sup>
- (4) The conception of the semantic structure of a language as an overall closed system is not accepted.

The four central notions in Lyons' semantic theory which are of particular interest to us here are: sense, applicability, context and lexical subsystem (or system).

#### 3.2.1.1. Intralinguistic Relations

Lyons (1963) defines the sense of a lexeme as a function of the intralinguistic relations contracted by that lexeme and other lexemes in the lexical system:

"The meaning [i.e. sense] of a given linguistic unit is defined to be the set of (paradigmatic) relations that the unit in question contracts with other units of the language (in the context or contexts in which it occurs) without any attempt being made to set up 'contexts' for these units." (Lyons, 1963: 59)

Thus the sense of a lexeme like 'red' for example, depends upon the relations it contracts with other lexemes denoting colour such as 'orange', 'yellow', 'green', 'blue' and others. The sense of each of these lexemes depends upon the lexical system they belong to (i.e. "Colour") and their relationships of contiguity (or, more precisely perhaps, 'betweenness') relative to one



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another in the system (Lyons, 1968: 429). The intralinguistic relations which determine the senses of lexical items and the structure of semantic fields are referred to by Lyons as sense-relations. We shall discuss these relations in detail in the next chapter.

### 3.2.1.2: Extralinguistic Relations

The term 'applicability' (Lyons' earlier term was 'application' - cf. Lyons, 1963) in Lyons' theory refers to the extralinguistic relations that hold between linguistic units and observable entities (objects, properties, processes, etc.) in the outside world (that is, to cover what we mean by 'denotation' in Chapter Two) as well as to any relationship holding between situations and expressions occurring in them. This notion of 'applicability' has a somewhat wider coverage than denotation or reference. It includes not only denotation and reference but any feature of the extralinguistic world whether of the 'physical world' or 'the world of social activity'. Many linguistic expressions which have no observable denotata are used as applicable in recurrent and identifiable situations. They will be said to be applied in such-and-such a situation. An example is the use of expressions like 'Excuse me', 'Thank you' and the various identifiable situations in which these utterances occur. This notion of 'applicability' will also allow for the semantic identification of lexical items in different languages when these items are put into correspondence with one another on the basis of the identification of common features and situations in the cultures in which they operate (Lyons, 1968: 434; Lyons, 1977: 213). Accordingly, we will be able to say, for example, that the English lexeme 'sin' and the Arabic lexeme /ðanb/ have the same applicability although it might be difficult, if not impossible, to establish this fact in referential terms unless, of course, there is a comprehensive and satisfactory theory of culture, which is as yet unavailable. The term 'applicability' was also used in the sense explained in Chapter Two to refer to the relationship holding between such lexemes as 'unicorn' or 'goblin' and the 'imaginary entities'

to which they are said to apply.

### 3.2.1.3. Context

Lyons gives considerable importance to the notion of context. The context of an utterance is regarded as the situation in which it occurs. In accordance with the principle 'meaning implies choice', he says that:

"Any linguistic form, up to and including the complete utterance, whose occurrence is determined by the context, has meaning in that context and, conversely, that any linguistic item whose occurrence in a given context is completely determined has no meaning in that context." (Lyons, 1963: 25)

Lexemes and most full utterances have meaning because there is always choice among them in the appropriate situations and also the option of remaining silent. Certain socially prescribed utterances, however, may be completely predictable, and in such a case semantic statement is limited to saying that the given utterance is applied in that context. The statement will be one of applicability, not of meaning. If there is a choice between utterances these are said to have meaning - what meaning they have being a separate question.

Context is thus not restricted to the position in sequence relative to other lexemes but includes also the situational context. Furthermore:

"...the context of an utterance cannot simply be identified with the spatiotemporal situation in which it occurs: it must be held to include, not only the relevant objects and actions taking place at the time, but also the knowledge shared by the speaker and hearer of what has been said earlier, in so far as this is pertinent to the understanding of the utterance. It must also be taken to include the tacit acceptance by the speaker and hearer of all the relevant conventions, beliefs and presuppositions 'taken for granted' by the members of the speech-community to which the speaker and hearer belong." (Lyons, 1968:413)

### 3.2.1.4. Definition of Semantic Field

Lyons rejects the conception of the semantic structure of a language as an overall closed system. Instead, he maintains that semantic structure is defined in terms of certain relations that hold between the items in a particular lexical system or subsystem. A definition of lexical subsystem (or system) is difficult to find and perhaps Lyons (1963) feels that the notion

in the guise of Trier's 'linguistic field' is so familiar that it needs no theoretical definition or argument. However, a lexical system (or subsystem) seems to be definable as that within which the sense-relations apply:

"I propose to define the notion of 'semantic structure' in terms of certain relations that hold between the items in a particular lexical subsystem. They include such relations as sameness and difference of meaning, incompatibility, antonymy, etc. which are customarily held to fall within the scope of the theory of meaning." (Lyons, 1963:57)

Lyons (1977) attempts to define, though somewhat vaguely, the notion of semantic field and how it may be distinguished from that of lexical field:

"Lexemes and other units that are semantically related, whether paradigmatically or syntagmatically, within a given language-system can be said to belong to, or to be members of, the same (semantic) field; and a field whose members are lexemes is a lexical field. A lexical field is therefore a paradigmatically and syntagmatically structured subset of the vocabulary (or lexicon)". (.p268)

It is not clear what Lyons means by 'other units' in the above definition and he leaves it without clarification. If the term 'lexeme' is taken to include 'single-word' lexical items and 'multi-word' lexical units (and in fact Lyons does take it in this sense), then 'other units' will have no place in the semantic field unless they are interpreted to mean 'phrases and clauses'. Yet, from Lyons' exposition of sense-relations this does not seem to be the case (cf. Lyons, 1977: Chapter 8) . It does seem, however, that Lyons means by the term 'lexeme' in the above definition any 'single-form' (or 'single-word') lexical item and this appears more clearly in the definition of a lexical field as 'a field whose members are lexemes' (i.e. single-word lexemes). Yet, to make a distinction between 'single-word' lexical items and 'multi-word' items raises more problems than it solves since we should have to establish objective criteria for making the distinction: and in a large number of cases it is not clear whether the lexical item is a 'single-word' item or a 'multi-word' one, and Lyons himself does not offer such criteria. It seems more appropriate, therefore, to apply the distinction in only those cases where the field members can be identified as 'single-word' lexemes with absolute certainty e.g. 'kill', 'murder', 'assassinate', 'execute' and other single-word

lexemes in the field of "Killing" will be regarded as a lexical field as well as a semantic field. We shall return to this point in Chapter Four.

Returning to Lyons' definition of the notion of semantic field above, we should note that Lyons does not illustrate how syntagmatic relations constitute semantic fields; in fact, he does not deal with these relations in any significant detail. He even goes further, at one point of his theory, to assert that collocations, and one can reasonably conclude syntagmatic relations, are not to be considered part of the meaning of a lexeme - a point which clearly contradicts the notion of semantic field as defined above:

"In saying that the collocations of a word [i.e. lexeme] are not part of its meaning (in any generally accepted sense of the term 'meaning') I am not of course denying the obvious fact that the meaning of a word can often be conveyed to someone who clearly has a partial knowledge of the language by listing a well-chosen set of collocations in which the word [lexeme] in question is used." (Lyons, 1966: 295-6)

It does appear, however, that this is an early position taken by Lyons in 1966 to be changed later (cf. Lyons, 1977) as Lyons has come to regard syntagmatic relations, in addition to paradigmatic relations, as determinants of semantic structure:

"There can no longer be any doubt that both Trier's paradigmatic relations and Porzig's syntagmatic relations must be incorporated in any satisfactory theory of lexical structure". (Lyons, 1977: 261)

The definition of semantic field discussed above testifies to this assertion even though Lyons does not clarify how syntagmatic relations fit into the analysis of semantic fields.

### 3.2.2. Lehrer's Contribution to Field Theory

Like Lyons, Lehrer (1969, 1970, 1974, 1978) has contributed a great deal to the development of semantic field theory and clarified many issues.

Lehrer (1969) starts by adopting Lyons' views about semantic field theory including his notion of 'situation' or 'universe of discourse'. The denotation or applicability of lexemes (Lehrer uses the term 'reference') is distinguished from meaning or sense (Lehrer uses both terms interchangeably) but accepts that reference (i.e. denotation and applicability) may be appealed

to in establishing the meaning of a lexical item. The terms 'word', 'lexeme' and 'lexical item' are also used interchangeably without any precise delimitation of the size of the linguistic units to which they refer. Lehrer (1974: 1) defines a semantic field as "a group of words [i.e. lexemes] closely related in meaning, often subsumed under a general term."<sup>2</sup> Accordingly, the object of the analysis of semantic fields is to collect all the lexemes that belong to a field and show the relationship of each of them to one another and to the general term. Lehrer (1974) illustrates, with admirable clarity, her conception of a semantic field by examining a variety of fields such as "Cooking" (e.g. 'cook', 'boil', 'simmer', 'stew', 'poach', 'braise', 'steam', 'fry'); "Sound" (e.g. 'sound', 'noise', 'loud', 'soft', 'quiet', 'silent' and the related lexemes 'hear' and 'deaf') and "Killing" (e.g. 'dead', 'die', 'kill', 'murder'), etc. The last two examples raise an important point in semantic field analysis, viz. the inclusion of lexemes of different 'word-classes' ('parts of speech') within the same field. It is obvious that Lehrer's notion of field dispenses with the 'word-class' ('part of speech') of lexemes and thus Lehrer includes in some of her fields lexemes belonging to different word-classes (adjectives, nouns, verbs, etc.) as the two fields of "Sound" and "Killing" mentioned above clearly show. We do not agree with Lehrer on this point. One of our criteria for the inclusion of lexemes in a particular semantic field is that all the lexemes should belong to the same word-class. We shall take up this point in 4.4.

In addition to her own data, Lehrer (1974) uses data taken from other sources such as "Colour" terms from Conklin (1955) and Berlin and Kay (1969); "Animal" terms from Hjelmslev (1953) and Lamb (1964); "Kinship" terms from Goodenough (1956) and others.

There are three important points which characterize Lehrer's contribution to the development of semantic field theory in addition to her well-illustrated examples, and which are particularly relevant to our research here. These

are the notions of 'basic and peripheral lexemes', 'lexical gaps' and the 'semantic extensions' of lexemes belonging to a semantic field. We shall deal with each point in turn.

### 3.2.2.1. Basic and Peripheral Lexemes

Lehrer (1974) finds it useful to distinguish between basic and peripheral lexical items as not all the items in a semantic field are of equal status. The basic items determine the important semantic contrasts in a field. However, there is a scale from the most basic to the most peripheral rather than two absolutely separate categories, and if a cut must be made it may be somewhat arbitrary.

In order to distinguish between basic and peripheral lexical items Lehrer (1974: 10-12) offers a list of criteria adapted from Berlin and Kay (1969) who list several criteria for determining the basic colour items in a language. The criteria given below are explained from Lehrer's list:

- (1) Basic items are monolexemic in the sense of being 'single-word' lexemes; if it is difficult to decide if a lexical item is monolexemic or not, morphological complexity makes the item suspect. Such lexemes as 'bluish' and 'lemon-coloured' are peripheral according to this criterion.
- (2) The application of basic items is not restricted to a narrow class of objects, that is, narrow for the field. For example, if a colour item like 'auburn' can only be applied to hair, it is not a basic item.
- (3) Basic items are psychologically 'salient' for informants. We will explain below what Lehrer means by 'salient'.
- (4) Recent foreign loan items are suspect, that is, they are more likely to be peripheral as they may be unknown to many speakers of the language.
- (5) The meaning of a basic item is not included in that of any other except the general term for the taxonomy. There are some peripheral lexemes in a field that are peripheral according to other criteria, especially that of salience, which can occur as superordinate (i.e. general) terms for sets

of basic lexemes. Examples are 'sibling', as a superordinate to 'brother' and 'sister', or 'vessel' as a general term for 'bottle', 'jar', 'vase', 'cup' and other incompatible members of the set. However, most peripheral items will be lower in the taxonomy than basic ones. According to Lehrer, the most peripheral lexemes will fail to meet the criteria suggested above. When the criteria themselves conflict, Lehrer suggests that psycholinguistic measures such as 'psychological salience' tests may be used to determine whether a lexeme is basic or peripheral.

The question of psychological salience is also proposed in relation to criterion 3 above. To determine this salience Lehrer suggests the use of a method devised by Battig and Montague (1968). Subjects were given the name or description of a category, e.g. vegetable, and were asked to write down as many items as they could think of in thirty seconds that were included in that class. After that time, another category was presented. The items were ranked according to the frequency with which they were listed by subjects. The items appearing most frequently are the most salient, and hence, most likely to be basic lexemes. The eight most commonly listed items referring to vegetables were: 'carrot', 'pea', 'corn', 'bean', 'potato', 'tomato', 'lettuce' and 'spinach'. Items given only once, and most likely to be considered peripheral, include 'black-eyed peas', 'butternut squash', 'dandelion', 'endive', and 'leek'. However, items were also listed which many speakers would not consider vegetables at all, such as 'apple', 'cream cheese' and 'orange'.<sup>3</sup>

Lehrer recommends also the use of a procedure devised by Heider (1973) which requires subjects to judge whether objects are good or poor instances of a category, for example, whether a retriever is a 'very doggy dog' or not. There was high agreement among subjects on their ratings on a seven-point scale, and the rating correlated with the frequency ranks in the Battig and Montague study. In a test in which subjects were asked to rate six vegetables, 'carrot', 'asparagus' and 'celery' were found to be the most typical vegetables



(in that order), 'pickle' is a rather poor example, and 'onion' and 'parsley' in between.<sup>4</sup>

A peripheral member of one category may be a central member of another related category: although a 'pickle' is a peripheral member of the vegetable category, it is a typical relish (Lehrer, 1974: 12).

The question of whether an object (and, therefore, the lexical item denoting it) is a good or a poor example of a category is related to what is often referred to, particularly in the psychological literature, as a prototype or 'typical example' of a category. Research by Rosch and others (e.g. Rosch et al, 1976) has indicated that we recognize members of a category by matching them with a prototype. For example, not all fish are equally fish: herrings and trout will be more 'prototype' than, say, eels or octopuses. We may be uncertain about the periphery of the category (for example, are barnacles or killer-whales fish?) but there will be little disagreement on what is a typical fish (Leech, 1981: 84).

#### 3.2.2.2. Lexical Gaps

By a lexical gap is here meant the absence of a lexeme at a particular place in the structure of a semantic field. It is often described by structuralists as 'a hole in the pattern' (Lyons, 1977: 301). According to Trier, Weisgerber and their followers, lexical gaps are theoretically inconceivable because semantic fields divide vocabulary like a mosaic with no gaps or overlaps. But, as we have stated, the assumptions which determine this view have been rejected by almost all field theorists.

The notion of lexical gaps in a semantic field presupposes a matrix. To construct a matrix we must assemble the lexical items in a semantic field and then analyse the sense of each item into a set of semantic features (see Section 4.2. for details of this analysis). On the basis of these features we can see what the relevant features are for the field and this helps set up the chart or the matrix of the field. Then by looking for combinations

of features that could be represented by a lexeme but are not, we can establish the existence of lexical gaps (Lehrer, 1970: 258). In the field of "Cooking", for example, there is no lexeme in English to mean "cook on a dry surface", i.e. without oil. Sometimes this gap is filled by 'bake' (which implies "in an oven") or 'fry' (which implies "the use of oil") (Lehrer, 1974: 261).

In general, the tidier the matrix, the more obvious the lexical gap.

Let us look at part of a standard matrix, such as in Figure 1:

Species	Male	Female	Young
human	man	woman	child
horse	stallion	mare	foal
(cattle)	bull	cow	calf
pig	boar	sow	shoat
dog		bitch	puppy
chicken	cock (Am.E: rooster)	hen	chick

Figure 1: Matrix Gaps  
(from: Lehrer, 1974: 98)

There is a gap for a single lexeme that means 'male dog' and excludes other meanings, though people who raise dogs use 'dog' or 'stud'. 'Cattle' does not quite fit the paradigm because there is no singular, and frequently 'cow' is used to fill this gap. Now if this chart is extended by listing all the animal species, it turns out that there are enormous numbers of gaps — there are no lexical items for male, female or young rats, mosquitoes, salmon or whales. According to Lehrer, these cases are not necessarily problematic, and one may argue that these gaps show that it is not as important for speakers of English to talk about female rats or male mosquitoes as about bulls and hens. The problem occurs when asexual or bisexual species are added, such as amoebas and snails. It is rather peculiar to postulate lexical gaps for nonexistent things.

It seems that the question of lexical gaps is beset with problems. To avoid any unnecessary complexities, Lehrer (1970: 260-1; 1974: 104-5) suggests the following constraints though she admits that some may be too

strong:

(1) There are no gaps for lexically impossible concepts. This would rule out postulating gaps for 'castrated woman' or 'round square'.

(2) Lexical gaps should be confined to the actual and objective world. For example, in Greek mythology, there is a lexeme 'minotaur' meaning "half man and half bull", but it makes no sense to talk of a gap for "half woman and half bull" since such 'things' do not even exist. Of course, writers of fiction can invent such 'entities' and find labels for them but this has nothing to do with 'lexical gaps' in the normal sense.

(3) Though it may be justifiable to talk about a lexical gap, it is hardly plausible to talk about a 'semantic gap' since language has various means to refer to meanings and concepts for which it does not possess single lexemes. Thus though English lacks a single lexeme for "dead plant", it can still refer to this meaning by using the phrase itself, that is, 'dead plant'. We will say more about this point in Chapter Five.

### 3.2.2.3. Semantic Extension

Lehrer (1974) offers some interesting viewpoints on the explanatory value of semantic field theory. According to her, field theory enables us to predict and explain something about the dynamic processes in language such as the semantic extension of the meaning of lexemes. Lehrer illustrates this point by looking at some of the lexemes in the field of "Temperature": 'hot', 'warm', 'cool', 'cold'. 'Hot' and 'cold' are gradable antonyms (that is, opposites which can be graded e.g. 'more hot', 'less hot', 'more cold', 'less cold'; see Section 4.1.4. for more details); 'warm' and 'cool' are antonyms which are closer to some centre point that separates 'hot' and 'cold'. All four lexemes are used and have their standard meanings when talking about the weather, psycho-physical features (e.g. 'I feel cold'), emotional feelings (e.g. 'John has a hot temper'; 'She is a cool person'), colour (e.g. 'You should paint this room a warm colour like orange') etc.

However, many fields of discourse use only one or two lexemes of temperature. Thus we speak of a 'hot news item' but not a 'cold' or 'cool news item'; a 'cold war' or a 'hot war' but not a 'cool war' or a 'warm war'. There is 'hot jazz' and 'cool jazz' but not 'warm jazz'; one can get a 'hot tip' on a horse, but not usually a 'cool tip'. Since the lexemes 'hot', 'warm', 'cool', 'cold' bear a certain sense-relation to one another, they can, as Lehrer suggests, acquire a new meaning in a new context by virtue of that relationship. Hence the following coinages, according to Lehrer, are easily understood. Since a 'hot news item' is a current or an interesting one, a 'cool news item' is one that is moderately stale. 'Hot' is paired with 'fresh' and 'interesting', and therefore the antonym of 'hot' (i.e. 'cold') is paired with the antonym of 'fresh' and 'interesting', that is, with 'stale' and 'uninteresting'. 'Cool' and 'warm' retain their normal positions on the scale. Similarly, one might use 'warm war' to talk about encounters involving minor skirmishes, raids, or guerrilla activities. It is not clear whether Lehrer means that such 'possible collocations' have already been coined and established in English. But one thing is clear: that if such collocations are ever coined, then they are easily understood according to Lehrer's notion of semantic extension of the meanings of lexemes from one field to another.

### 3.2.3. Some Other Recent Contributions

It seems unnecessary to survey all the recent studies that have contributed to the development of field theory in one way or another as such a survey will certainly prove too lengthy for the purpose of our research here. Rather, it is more appropriate to survey the most important studies which are relevant to the notion of semantic fields which we have adopted and used, particularly in the experiment to be reported later (see Chapter Eight).

Having discussed the two prominent recent contributors to field theory, viz. Lyons and Lehrer, we shall deal briefly with some other recent contributions which, though less important, are yet desirable for a satisfactory picture of recent studies in semantic fields. These include studies carried out by

Pottier, Coserio and Geckeler.

### 3.2.3.1. Pottier

Pottier (1963, 1964, 1974) has demonstrated how a set of lexemes, forming a lexical field, can be analysed by using semantic feature analysis (i.e. componential analysis; see 4.2.). His study concerns the field "Siège" ("Seat") in modern French.<sup>5</sup> He carried out his analysis on the following set: 'chaise', 'fauteuil', 'canapé' and 'tabouret' (roughly equivalent to the English lexemes 'chair', 'arm-chair', 'sofa' and 'stool'). The four lexemes are distinguishable from one another by the presence or absence of a series of semantic features (which he calls 'semes'): S<sub>1</sub>: [pour s'asseoir] ("for sitting upon"); S<sub>2</sub>: [sur pied] ("on legs"); S<sub>3</sub>: [pour 1 personne] ("for one person"); S<sub>4</sub>: [avec dossier] ("with a back") and S<sub>5</sub>: [avec bras] ("with arms"). The results of Pottier's analysis is schematically represented as follows:

	S <sub>1</sub> pour s'asseoir	S <sub>2</sub> sur pied	S <sub>3</sub> pour 1 personne	S <sub>4</sub> avec dossier	S <sub>5</sub> avec bras
chaise	+	+	+	+	-
fauteuil	+	+	+	+	+
canapé	+	+	-	+	+
tabouret	+	+	+	-	-

Figure 2: Pottier's Analysis of Part of the Field "Siège" in French (from: Pottier, 1963: 11-17)

The semes [pour s'asseoir] and [sur pied] are common to all the lexical items in question: they make up the 'archisememe' of the field; their lexical realization as 'archilexeme' is 'siège' ("seat"). The meaning of archilexeme is identical with that of 'superordinate' i.e. the general term in the taxonomy as used by Lyons and other linguists as we shall explain in the next chapter.

Pottier's illustration of the feature analysis of lexical fields raises the question as to whether or not this is really a matter of an analysis of linguistic content or, at best in a first phase of the analysis, rather of a description of a series of functionally related objects, which is to say, of

a part of extralinguistic reality. This point has been subject to criticism (e.g. Coseriu, 1968: 8-9). And in fact, Pottier starts from a description of the objects and then proceeds to eliminate the features of the description which are not relevant and thus arrives at the inventory of the pertinent features (Coseriu and Geckeler, 1974: 135). We shall deal in more detail with the feature analysis of semantic fields (i.e. componential analysis of fields) in the next chapter.

### 3.2.3.2. Coseriu and Geckeler

Coseriu and Geckeler (Coseriu, 1967; Coseriu and Geckeler, 1974, 1981) conceive of the lexical field as "an ensemble of lexemes linked by a common lexical value (value of the field)" which they subdivide into more definite values by mutual opposition in the form of minimal lexical differences of contents (i.e. 'semes'). The basic constitutive elements of the lexical field are: the lexeme, the archilexeme and the seme. Lexemes, as we have already used them, are the lexical units functioning within a lexical field e.g. 'vieux' ("old"), 'ancien' ("ancient"), 'âgé' ("aged"), 'jeune' ("young"), 'neuf' ("new") and others in the field of adjectives concerning age in modern French. The terms 'archilexeme' and 'seme' were used in the same way as used by Pottier above. Values (as used by Coseriu and Geckeler) are of a very general order, functioning in a series of fields e.g. [Animate], [Inanimate], [Animal]; such values are termed 'classemes' — a term introduced into semantics by Pottier (1963). Furthermore, Coseriu and Geckeler (1974, 1981) give some negatively determined characteristics of semantic fields.

(1) Lexical fields do not represent taxonomies, i.e. they are not scientific classifications of extralinguistic reality.

(2) Lexical fields are not fields of associations. Associative fields are 'uncontrollable', that is, one can find an extremely large, perhaps unlimited, number of associations making up such a field. A lexical field, on the other hand, represents a lexematic system whose structuring is established on the

basis of the semantic similarities and differences of field members.

(3) Lexical fields have nothing to do with the range of application of lexemes, that is, the different senses of a lexeme. There is no field which embraces only one lexeme.

(4) Lexical fields are not identical with conceptual fields. Every lexical field is a conceptual field, but not every conceptual field is necessarily a lexical field. Every lexeme corresponds to one concept, but not every concept is necessarily rendered by one single lexeme. Concepts may also be expressed by means of phrases and clauses. The following is a schematic representation of the relation between lexical field (LF) and conceptual field (CF) as conceived by Coseriu and Geckeler:

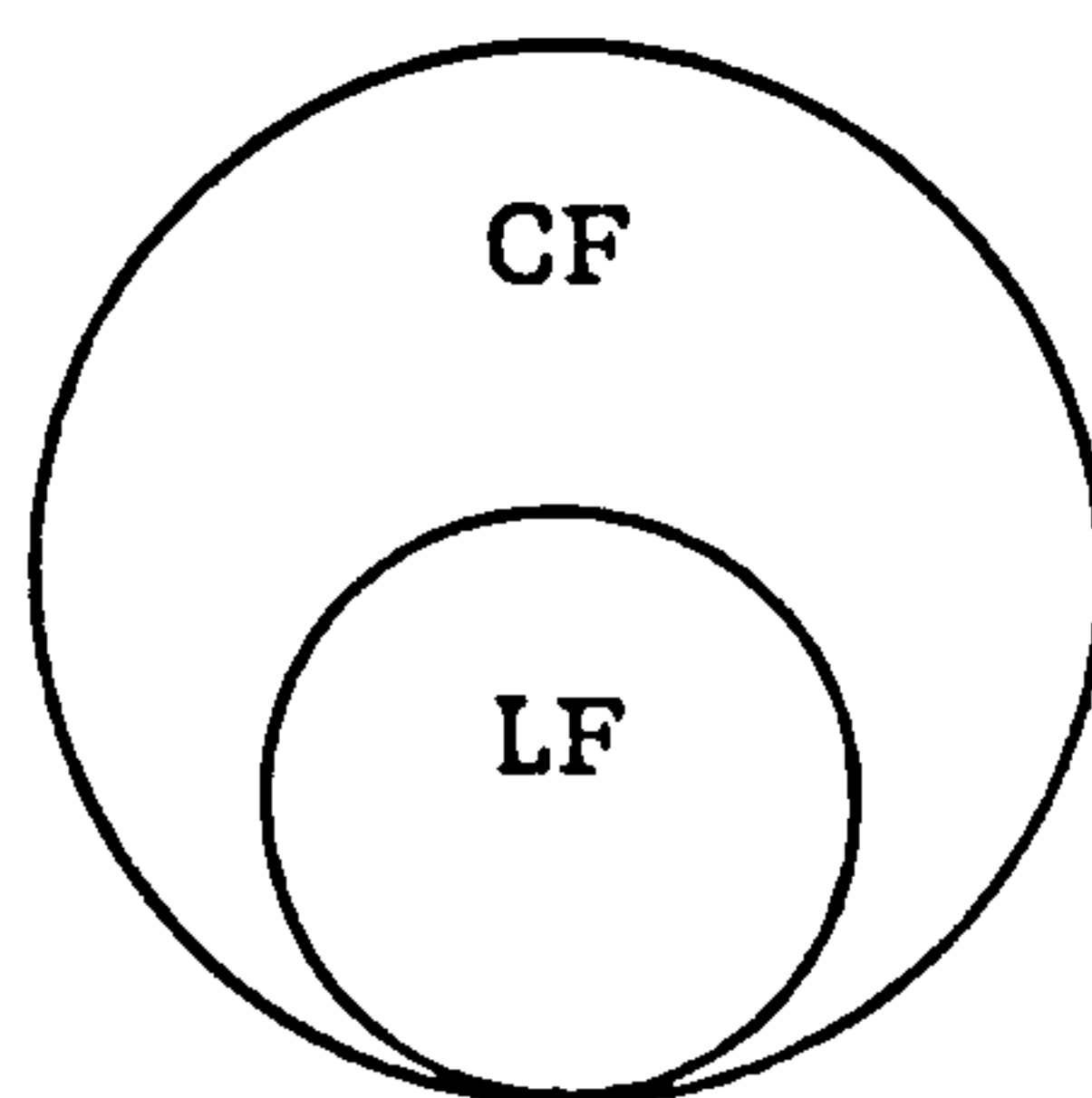


Figure 3: Lexical Field and Conceptual Field (from Coseriu and Geckeler, 1981: 59)

In addition to the recent contributions to the development of field theory as a linguistic theory, there have been many recent investigations of various semantic fields by a number of authors. We mention here in particular McKay's (1980) investigation of the semantic field of verbs of "Information" (e.g. 'inform', 'announce', 'communicate', 'declare', 'disclose', 'discuss', 'expose', 'express', 'mention', 'refer', 'report' and 'state'); and Lutzeier's (1982) study of the field of "Financial Income" including such lexemes as 'pay', 'salary', 'wage', 'payment', 'interest', etc. We should also mention the investigations carried out by Nilsen and Nilsen (1975) of a variety of semantic fields within case grammar (though they use the term 'set' rather than 'field') such as the verbs of "Movement" (e.g. 'amble', 'dance', 'dash', 'gallop', 'hop',

'jump', 'leap', 'limp', 'march', 'meander'); verbs of "Exchange" (e.g. 'acquire', 'buy', 'exchange', 'pay'); verbs of "Transportation" (e.g. 'ascend', 'arrive', 'climb', 'creep', 'come', 'dart', 'enter', 'fall', 'float', 'fly', 'hurry') etc.

### 3.3. Evaluation of Field Theory

Semantic field theory as developed by Trier-Weisgerber has been criticized for making a number of assumptions that may not be well-founded. The following are the main points of criticism:

(i) The distinction between conceptual fields and lexical fields is not easy to determine. It is not always clear where the boundaries of each type of fields lie and how they are related. As stated earlier, Trier himself does not separate the two in his writings.

However, the exposition of the distinction between conceptual fields and lexical fields we have already given may serve as a general working guideline for distinguishing what is normally meant by a conceptual field and how it is related to the lexical field or fields that cover it.

Related to this point is the relationship between language and conceptualization. It is not at all clear at the present stage what relationship there is between the two. The strong version of the Whorfian Hypothesis is certainly untenable, so is the adverse view that language has no effect whatsoever on the world-view of its native speakers.

Nevertheless, the developmental version of linguistic relativity as formulated by Carroll (1973) may be offered here as a plausible solution to the above problem. Furthermore, it should be pointed out that semantic field theory may be regarded as having two sides: a conceptual side and a semantic one. The first deals with the theory from a conceptual point of view; the emphasis being on the 'concepts' the speakers of a language are said to possess and how these concepts embodied in the linguistic system reflect their world-view. This conceptual aspect of field theory has proved to be more controversial and much of the criticism directed against the theory has been based on it.



The second side of field theory is the semantic one which is concerned with how the lexicon of a language is structured in semantic subsystems in terms of sense-relations. This structural aspect is the one usually regarded as the most significant contribution which field theory offers to the semantic analysis of meaning. Here, it is no longer a question of 'concepts' or 'conceptual fields' that linguists aim to determine, but rather of semantic or lexical subsystems structured by various relations of sense determined by linguistic methods. It is relevant to point out here that this view of field theory as having two sides, conceptual and semantic, is supported by some leading proponents of the theory. Ullmann (1972), for instance, argues that:

"...field theory stands at the point of intersection of two important currents of thought: Saussurean structuralism and Humboldt's doctrine of relations between language and thinking." (p. 370)

Lyons, as we have seen, rejects the conceptual interpretation of meaning and, consequently, rejects the conceptual aspect of field theory:

"Trier and Weisgerber, it is true, have developed a theory of semantics which implies the priority of the meaning-relations, but, by framing their theory in terms of an a priori conceptual medium, they have considerably weakened the force of their arguments." (Lyons, 1963: 59)

In conclusion, we may say that any criticism of semantic field theory based on the conceptual side referred to above will be certainly outdated as it lags behind the recent developments of the theory and ignores its most significant aspect, viz. the semantic aspect which we shall deal with in the next chapter.

(ii) Trier and his followers choose to regard the field as a closed, well-defined group of lexemes, an organically articulated whole with sharply marked external and internal boundaries, and whose non-intersecting contours of constituent meanings fit tightly together like a mosaic (Vassilyev, 1974: 83). Investigations of various semantic fields have failed to substantiate this claim which seems to be too rigid and, except in few special cases, unrealistic (Ullmann, 1957: 311). Seiffert (1968) also refers to the inadequacy of the similes used by Trier and his followers to illustrate their assumption about the field as a sharply

distinguished and well-defined configuration of lexemes.

To evaluate such a criticism it is important to realize that almost all field theorists nowadays reject Trier's conception of the structure of language as an organically articulated whole without gaps and overlaps. They do admit that the lexemes in many fields do not divide the semantic space like a mosaic — there are definitely gaps and overlaps. For example, in the field of "Cooking" there is no lexeme in English to mean "cook on a dry surface" i.e. without oil. Sometimes the gap is filled by 'bake' (which implies "in an oven") or 'fry' (which implies "the use of oil") (Lehrer, 1970: 261). The question of lexical gaps has already been discussed (see Section 3.2.2.2.).

We do not wish to justify Trier's use of such a simile as that of a mosaic; yet, we may note that Seiffert himself draws attention to the difficulty of finding suitable metaphors and similes to support or clarify one's theory at the time of Trier and Weisgerber:

"The dominant organic and energetic image of the field metaphor may have been conceptual necessities at a time when the problematical relationship of philosophy and science made fruitful interaction increasingly difficult. The search for concepts and metaphors that will draw the best out of the contemporary understanding of theory as of method remains a major task." (Seiffert, 1968: 107)

(iii) It has been claimed by some critics that field theory is valid only for the analysis of 'abstract' fields. But, as Lyons (1977) points out, no evidence has been offered in support of this criticism. In so far as one can draw a distinction between 'abstract' and 'concrete' fields (though the terms are used loosely here), field theory is, in fact, more obviously applicable to concrete fields where the lexemes have identifiable denotata, than it is to abstract fields where they do not. If field theory, therefore, is reformulated within a non-conceptualist framework we can agree with Geckeler that "as far as its application is concerned, field theory need not be restricted to particular sections of the vocabulary" (Lyons, 1977: 259).

(iv) Trier has also been criticized for assuming that the whole vocabulary is a single integrated and fully articulated system — a system in which the

individual lexeme has no independent meaningful status. He thus advocates 'linguistic relativism' in rejecting completely the lexeme as an independent carrier of meaning. It is true that it is hard to imagine a lexeme that is totally unrelated to the rest of the vocabulary but we still find areas of the vocabulary that would not lend themselves so easily to the analysis of field theory as Trier has suggested. Further, it is possible to know a particular lexeme without knowing the other lexemes with which it is related in the field. Spence (1961), for instance, claims that one can know the Russian lexeme for "to walk (habitually)" without knowing the Russian verbs for "run", "hop", "skip" or "jump".

It should be emphasized that semantic field theory nowadays no longer assumes that the vocabulary of a language is a single and fully articulated whole. It is now generally agreed that there are lexical subsystems which can be described more satisfactorily by a semantic field approach than by an 'atomistic' one.

It is rather difficult to understand what Spence means by 'knowing' the Russian lexeme "to walk (habitually)" without knowing the related members of the field. He seems to assume too much about individual lexemes. He seems to assume 'complete translatability' of the meanings of individual lexemes between different languages. This is certainly not the case. For example, the English lexemes 'vacate' and 'evacuate' are translated into Arabic by one lexeme /juxli/. But the Arabic lexeme can be used for the 'vacation of a room, a flat, a house, a building etc.' and also for the 'evacuation of villages, people etc.' The Arabic learner may be led to think that the two lexemes are synonymous in English. If we assume that the learner will come across only one lexeme at a time, we will soon realize that such an assumption is untenable. Since in the teaching of EFL we normally teach a large number of lexical items, the learner will definitely come across the other lexeme in one way or another. If he does, he will be certainly at a

loss if no help is offered to show him how the two lexemes are related and how they differ in meaning and usage. The case may be a little different for a native learner (e.g. an English child), but the assumption that the child cannot be said to 'know' the lexeme 'vacate' unless he knows something about its related lexemes in the field or its collocational range, etc. will still be valid. Language is systematic at all levels: phonological, grammatical and semantic (allowing for the difference in the degree of systematicity at the three levels). The assumption that language is a single, integrated and fully articulated system is not at all essential for semantic field theory as we shall see. But, as has been repeatedly said, there do exist lexical subsystems which can be handled more satisfactorily and elegantly by a semantic field analysis. The claim that the lexemes of a language are distributed randomly in semantic space has been proved a complete fallacy. One cannot, therefore, claim to 'know' fully a certain lexeme, especially in a foreign language, without knowing anything about the other lexemes with which it is related in a semantic field. However, we shall not go so far as saying one should know ALL the lexemes in a field in order to know any one particular member in that field.

(v) Trier's field theory has also been criticised on the ground that "within the same speech-community, people from different social backgrounds, different religions, different occupations, different age-groups and so on, associate different things, and therefore to a greater or lesser extent can be said to have different 'semantic fields'" (Spence, 1961: 99). This is undoubtedly true if we take a 'semantic field' to be an 'associative field' of individual experiences. But language is regarded by Trier and his followers as 'ergon' — the sum total of linguistic experiences, which is supra-individualistic. Consequently, the technique followed by field theorists is not that of 'free associations' because the investigator is not at liberty to establish a relationship between lexemes dictated by his personal experiences but must rather restrict himself

to the social or collective experiences embodied in the common linguistic system of a speech community. This means that the technique to be followed in any semantic field analysis of lexis should be a linguistic one concerned with finding out similarities and differences between the lexemes that are said to belong to the same semantic field. The 'associations' between lexemes related in fields should not, therefore, be based upon individual experiences but upon semantic relationships, or more precisely upon the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of sense, which are determined by linguistic techniques. It should be noted, however, that any satisfactory field theory has to take into account the varieties, and the dialects, of a language when analysing the vocabulary of that language into semantic fields. We shall say more about this point later (Section 4.4.).

To conclude this section, we should mention some of the very positive assessments made about field theory by a number of linguists. Ullmann (1957) argues that field theory has played a leading role in the development of structural semantics and, in this respect, it has done in semantics what the Gestalt theory has done in psychology and the Prague School in phonology. Lyons (1977) agrees with Ullmann and adds that Trier's version of field theory, despite the criticisms that can be directed against it, is widely and rightly judged to be a turning point in the history of semantics.

What is more interesting is the positive assessment which comes from a leading critic of field theory — from Spence (1969):

"Although lexical structures are clearly not as uniform and coherent as scholars such as Trier have maintained, and various theoretical and practical problems still have to be solved, the field approach has established itself as an indispensable tool of modern semantics."  
(p.507)

NOTES TO CHAPTER THREE

1. Lyons' earlier distinction (e.g. in Lyons, 1963) is somewhat different; it is between 'meaning' (= 'sense' here) and 'reference' (= 'denotation' or 'applicability').
2. Lehrer (1974) uses the terms 'semantic field', 'domain' and 'subject area' interchangeably. We shall distinguish between these terms in our research here (see Section 4.4.).
3. These tests were made on American subjects. The results would doubtless be markedly different with British subjects e.g. the lexeme 'corn'.
4. Again American results.
5. However, a complete field is not investigated.
6. According to Berlin and Kay, the basic colour terms in natural languages are 'white, black, red, green, yellow, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange and grey'.
7. One may not agree with Nilsen and Nilsen (1975) about the general terms they use for some of the fields (or sets) analysed.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### THE STRUCTURE OF SEMANTIC FIELDS

#### 4.1. Sense-Relations

The speakers of a language intuitively feel a relationship between certain pairs or sets of lexemes which is not accounted for by an overt phonological or grammatical similarity. The speakers of English, for instance, intuitively feel that the lexemes 'parent' and 'child', for example, are semantically related in a way not shared by 'parent' and 'take'; 'bachelor' and 'married' are different in meaning but more similar than 'bachelor' and 'river' or 'bus'; the lexemes 'chair', 'stool', 'bench' and 'sofa' are related in a way that 'chair' and 'horse' are not; and so on.

One of the goals of an adequate semantic theory is to characterize and explicate the systematic relations holding between semantically-related lexemes and how these relations are being made use of in the communicative process. Any theory which fails to capture these relations satisfactorily must be inadequate either in principle or in some detail of the theory.

The semantic relations that hold between lexemes in natural languages have been widely discussed, or referred to, by linguists. Semantics thus suffers not from a dearth of facts about these relations, but rather from the lack of an adequate theory to organize, systematize and generalize these facts (Katz and Fodor, 1963: 170).

The theory of semantic fields makes use of a number of lexical relations in terms of which the fields, which the theory purports to analyse, are structured. In this chapter we shall deal with the most important of these relations in English. In a later chapter (Chapter Seven) we will discuss the relevance of such relations to the teaching of lexis in EFL situations.

##### 4.1.1. Synonymy

The sense-relation of synonymy or 'sameness of meaning' has been widely debated, and even confused by some authors. Part of the debate

(or confusion), it seems, is due to the ambiguity of the term 'meaning' itself. Does 'meaning' in 'sameness of meaning' refer to the denotation (or applicability) of lexemes only or should it be taken to refer to their 'senses' as well? Should it be confined to 'descriptive meaning' (i.e. denotation and sense, or what is often referred to as 'conceptual' or 'cognitive' meaning, e.g. Leech, 1981) or should it be extended to cover other types of meaning such as 'emotive meaning', 'stylistic meaning', 'dialectal meaning' etc.<sup>1</sup>

However, we may distinguish two interpretations of the term 'synonymy' that are often encountered in the literature. The first will be referred to as the 'narrow interpretation'; the second the 'broad interpretation'. According to the first, two lexemes are synonymous if they are:

- (i) interchangeable in ALL contexts; and
- (ii) identical in ALL types (or aspects) of meaning.

By the first criterion, two lexemes can never be considered 'true' ('absolute' or 'real') synonyms unless they occur in ALL contexts of a language without the slightest change in meaning i.e. they should have the same distribution in the totality of a language (whether this totality is taken to mean all actual utterances or all potential utterances or both).<sup>2</sup> The two lexemes 'profound' and 'deep' for example, are interchangeable in 'He offered them his profound sympathy' and 'He offered them his deep sympathy'. But in a context like 'The boat sank in ----- water' the lexemes 'deep' and 'profound' are not interchangeable as '\* The boat sank in profound water' is unacceptable. Since there is no total interchangeability between 'deep' and 'profound', that is, since there are contexts in which the one occurs while the other does not, they are not, it is claimed, synonymous.

By the second criterion, two or more lexemes may have the same descriptive (conceptual or cognitive) meaning but differ in connotative (mainly emotive) meaning. An oft-cited example is that of the three lexemes 'economical', 'thrifty' and 'stingy' which have the same cognitive meaning "careful in the spending of money, energy etc." but differ in emotive meaning. In



an utterance like 'He is very economical' the meaning is void of any emotive connotations, viz. the speaker indicates neither approval nor disapproval of the quality involved; while in 'He is very thrifty' the speaker indicates his approval and in 'He is very stingy' indicates his disapproval. Thus two pairs can be made of these three lexemes: 'economical' : 'thrifty' and 'economical' : 'stingy'. The lexeme which implies some emotive meaning (whether positive or negative) is sometimes referred to as the 'loaded' lexeme, the other as the 'neutral' one (Bolinger, 1975: 200).<sup>3</sup>

Taking into account the distinctions between descriptive (cognitive) and the various types (or aspects) of connotative meaning, Ullmann (1962) argues that:

"Very few words are completely synonymous in the sense of being interchangeable in any context without the slightest alteration in objective (cognitive) meaning, feeling-tone or evocative value." (p. 142)

He concludes that "total synonymy is an extremely rare occurrence, a luxury that language can ill afford" (Ullmann, 1957: 108-9).

If synonyms are conceived of in this way (i.e. completely identical in ALL types (or aspects) of meaning and totally interchangeable in ALL contexts), then it is undoubtedly true that there are very few such synonyms in language. And, in fact, little purpose is served by such a definition. We will avoid this narrow interpretation of synonymy on theoretical and practical grounds.

The distinction between cognitive and emotive meanings cannot always be clearly drawn and in many cases it is extremely difficult to maintain. A large proportion of English vocabulary may have both positive and negative connotations and, more often than not, we understand these connotations from the linguistic context (utterance, text, etc.) or from the context of situation rather than from lexemes in isolation. For example, the two

lexemes 'politician' and 'statesman' are often assumed to be contrasting in their connotations: 'politician' is said to be normally used in a derogatory sense with the implications of seeking personal or partisan gains, scheming, opportunism etc. : 'statesman', on the other hand, suggests able, far-sighted, showing wisdom and principled conduct in handling public affairs. But 'politician' can sometimes be used to connote the qualities suggested by 'statesman'. For instance, we may say that 'The Prime Minister should be a politician' implying the qualities of a 'statesman', i.e. 'The Prime Minister should be able, by training or temperament, to deal with the complexities of public affairs for the best interest of the people'. The same can be said about a large number of political terms such as 'socialism', 'capitalism', etc. A lexeme like 'socialism' uttered by a leader (or anyone) known for favouring the capitalist system of life connotes an emotive meaning totally different from that implied by the same lexeme (i.e. 'socialism') if uttered by another favouring the socialist system.

Outside political jargon, we find the same situation. The connotations of a lexeme may be determined by the linguistic or situational context. In a text-sentence like 'I admire him because he is very economical' the lexeme 'economical' is by no means neutral; it does suggest the connotations of 'thrifty'. Conversely, in 'I hate him because he is very economical', the lexeme 'economical' implies all the qualities suggested by 'stingy'.

To recapitulate: though some lexemes may differ sharply in their connotations, the demarcation between cognitive and emotive meanings of other lexemes cannot be satisfactorily drawn out of context. Frequently the two types of meaning blend and merge into a single descriptive statement that serves to define their denotation or applicability. In a large number of cases, the connotations of lexemes are determined by the linguistic or situational context of utterances.

We also avoid the narrow interpretation because it fails to account for the fact that there are particular contexts which admit the use of two (or even more) lexemes without any noticeable difference in meaning. The lexemes 'finish' and 'conclude', for example, are clearly synonymous in the following sentences:

1. The meeting finished at 9 o'clock.
2. The meeting concluded at 9 o'clock.

However, used in other contexts they may not have the same meaning:

1. We have finished the cake (eaten all of it)
2. We have concluded from the evidence that he is not guilty (arrived at a belief or opinion)

The narrow interpretation of synonymy certainly deprives the EFL teacher of a very useful pedagogical technique that may be used in the early stages of teaching, or even later on, for the teaching of 'new' lexical items. If, for instance, the lexemes 'finish' and 'conclude' happen to occur (with the meaning of "come or bring to an end") in a text the teacher wants to exploit for, say, general reading comprehension purposes, it will be very convenient and helpful if he makes use of the notion of synonymy and tells his pupils that the two lexemes 'finish' and 'conclude' in such a context have the same meaning and proceeds to give them a definition of that meaning provided, of course, that the pupils already know the meanings of the lexemes used in the definition. We will take up this aspect of vocabulary teaching in Chapter Seven.

As for the second interpretation of synonymy, it holds, in its extreme form, that two or more lexemes are synonymous if they express one or more 'ideas' in common, e.g. 'accelerate', 'quicken', 'hasten', 'expedite', 'dispatch', 'urge', 'drive', 'spur', 'step up', 'rush', 'allow no time', 'gather momentum' etc. It is clear from this list that there are some of the given lexemes which may be regarded as synonyms in some contexts such as 'quicken', 'hasten' but there are others like 'urge', 'expedite' and 'drive' which are open to criticism. 'Accelerate' means "to go or make go faster"; so do 'hasten'

and 'quicken'. But 'urge' throws the emphasis upon the force that impels rather than upon the result which usually but not always is to make go fast; 'expedite' stresses the removal of impediments so that a progress or process is not delayed longer than is necessary or normal and, therefore, usually means to go faster than it might; 'drive' does not normally imply 'speed' though in one sense it means "go or move fast or violently along" as in 'The ship was driving along before the wind'. Thus in all the three cases (viz. 'urge', 'expedite' and 'drive') the element of 'speed' may or may not be implied; if implied, it is subordinate to the main implications of the meanings of lexemes. Furthermore, without taking the context into account one is hardly justified in regarding 'accelerate' as synonymous with, say, 'urge' or 'dispatch'. One of the familiar meanings of 'urge' is "to request earnestly; to try to persuade" as in 'The dealer urged me to buy the car'. Given the lexemes 'accelerate' and 'urge' as synonyms out of context, the EFL learner will very likely confuse them as interchangeable in all contexts. This overgeneralization will certainly lead to numerous lexical errors like '\*The dealer accelerated me to buy the car'. We will say more about such a use of synonymy in EFL in Chapter Seven.

As a conclusion, we may say that, on theoretical and practical grounds, the narrow interpretation of synonymy is 'too narrow' and the broad interpretation 'too broad'. Synonymy in this research will be used to refer to the case where two or more lexemes have the same meaning in a particular context with no implication being made that they are interchangeable in all contexts or identical in all types or aspects of meaning. In line with our conception of semantic field theory, sense-relations are bound to context. A given lexeme is accepted as synonymous with another in a particular context if its use in that context yields an utterance with the same meaning.<sup>4</sup> Synonymy may be thus looked at as a relation of bilateral implication or equivalence in context. If one lexeme,  $L_1$  implies another lexeme,  $L_2$  in a

context, and if the converse also holds in the same context, then  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are equivalent, i.e. if  $L_1 \supset L_2$  and if  $L_2 \supset L_1$ , then  $L_1 \equiv L_2$  (where  $\equiv$  stands for 'is equivalent to'). Thus 'finish'  $\supset$  'conclude' and 'conclude'  $\supset$  'finish', therefore 'finish' and 'conclude' are synonyms in a context like 'The meeting will ---- at 9 o'clock'. This is not to deny the existence or importance of the other aspects of meaning (such as 'emotive', 'stylistic', 'rhetoric', etc.) which are normally assumed to differentiate synonyms. Our interpretation is simply restricted to the descriptive (or cognitive) meaning so that we may then contrast descriptive synonyms with respect to these varying aspects:

horse (general) steed (poetic) nag (slang)	cast (literary, biblical) throw (general) chuck (casual, slang)
domicile (very formal, official) residence (formal) abode (poetic) home (general)	

(from Leech, 1981: 14-15)

This interpretation of synonymy is supported by some linguistic observations.

Ullmann (1962), for instance, observes that:

"Needless to say, ordinary speakers will not always abide by these sophisticated rules [i.e. rules for differentiation among synonyms]; many will not even be aware of them." (p.145)

#### 4.1.2: Hyponymy

By 'hyponymy' is meant a relationship of inclusion in the sense that the meaning of a specific lexeme is said to be included within the meaning of a general one. For example, the meaning of 'lily', 'daisy', 'daffodil', 'tulip', 'rose' etc. are included within the meaning of 'flower'. Similarly, the meaning of 'pine', 'oak', 'larch', 'fir' and 'yew' are included within the meaning of 'tree'; the meaning of 'carrot', 'cucumber', 'lettuce' and 'cabbage' are included within that of 'vegetable', and so on.<sup>3</sup> Such relationships can be represented in a tree diagram:

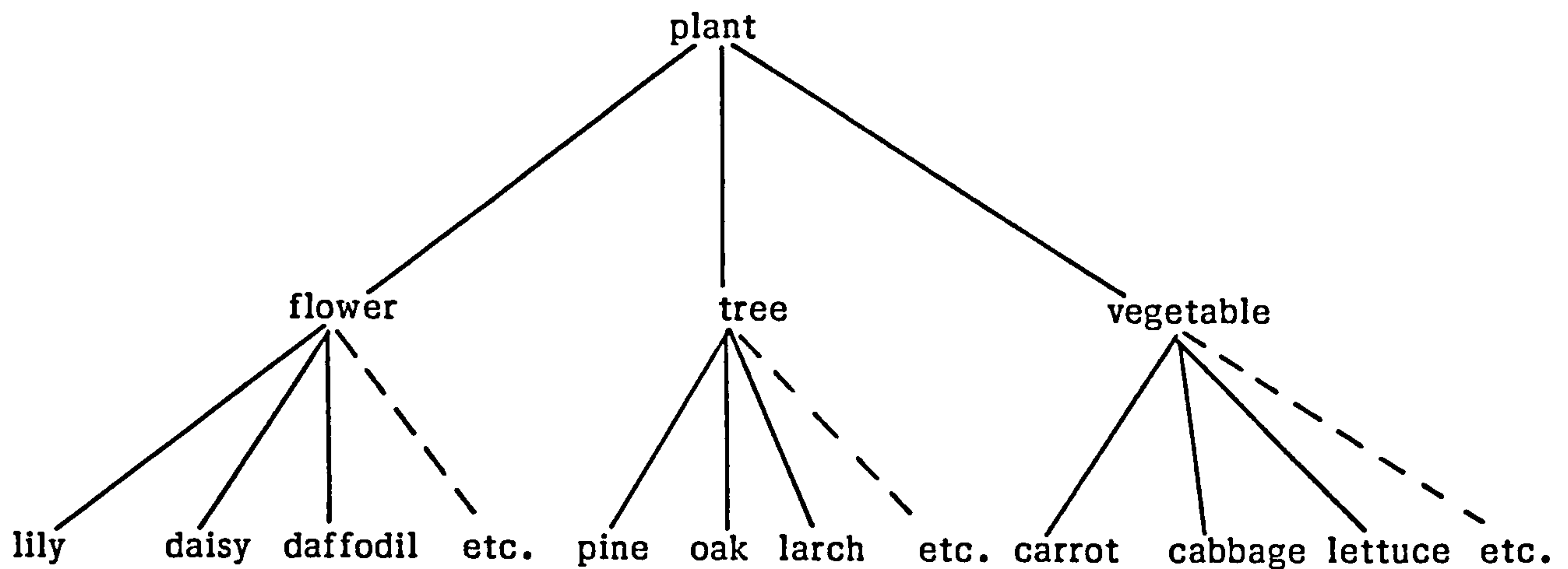


Figure 4: Hyponymic Relations in English

The upper lexeme in the hierarchy has been called by various names: 'archilexeme' (Pottier, 1963; Coseriu and Geckeler, 1974, 1981); 'headword' (Lehrer, 1974); 'generic term' (Nida, 1975); and 'superordinate lexeme' (or 'superordinate') (Lyons, 1977). Each lexeme in the same level of the hierarchy is referred to as a 'hyponym' of the superordinate. We shall say, for instance, that 'flower' is the superordinate of 'lily', 'daisy', 'daffodil', 'tulip', 'rose', etc, whereas each of these lexemes is a hyponym of 'flower' and collectively they are the co-hyponyms of 'flower'. However, there is not always a superordinate term. Lyons (1963: 70-1) observes that in Classical Greek there is a superordinate lexeme which covers a variety of professions and crafts e.g. 'carpenter', 'doctor', 'flute player', 'helmsman', 'shoemaker' etc. but there is no such superordinate in English. The nearest possible term is 'craftsman' but that would not include 'doctor', 'flute-player' or 'helmsman'. Similarly, there is no superordinate lexeme for the field of "Colour" (adj.) which includes such lexemes as 'red', 'blue', 'green', 'white', etc.; the term 'coloured' usually excludes 'black' and 'white', or else stands in opposition to 'white' ('coloured leaders' excludes 'white leaders') (Lyons, 1968: 456-7; Lyons, 1977: 298).<sup>4</sup>

Hyponymy is a relationship of unilateral implication or entailment. The hyponym always implies or entails the superordinate lexeme. To say

'This is an oak' implies 'This is a tree'; 'This is a hound' implies 'This is a dog' etc. But 'This is a tree' does not imply 'This is an oak'.

In English, it is possible to use the formula 'X is a kind of Y' for the relation of hyponymy among nouns. Thus we say 'A pine is a kind of tree', 'A daisy is a kind of flower', 'A lizard is a kind of reptile' etc. Furthermore, 'sort' and 'type' can be substituted for 'kind': 'A pine is a sort of tree'; 'A daisy is a type of flower' etc. It is also possible to use more specific lexemes such as 'shade' or 'make' (which are themselves hyponyms of 'kind') for certain values of (X) and (Y). For instance, we may say 'Crimson is a shade of red', 'Datsun is a make of car' etc. But when the hyponymic relation holds between other parts of speech e.g. verbs, adjectives and adverbs, we cannot use the formula 'X is a kind of Y' without prior nominalization, and even then the resultant sentence may be a little odd if not absolutely unacceptable (e.g. 'Walking is a kind of moving'; 'Sauntering is a kind of walking' etc.) (Lyons, 1977: 292-4).

#### 4.1.3. Incompatibility

The relationship of incompatibility is the reverse of hyponymy in that it is a relationship of exclusion rather than inclusion — the sense of one lexeme excludes the sense of other lexemes associated with it in a particular semantic field. This relationship holds between lexemes in many-member sets (i.e. between co-hyponyms) such as 'lily', 'daisy', 'daffodil', 'tulip', 'rose' etc. To say 'This is a daisy' is to exclude all other types of flower (i.e. 'This is not a daffodil, not a rose, not a tulip,, not a lily etc.'). Thus 'daisy', 'daffodil', 'rose', 'tulip', 'lily' etc. are said to be incompatibles. Similarly, to say: 'He was running' is to say 'He was not walking', 'He was not dancing', 'He was not jumping' etc. (to describe the same activity done by a particular person at a particular time). The lexemes 'walk', 'dance', 'jump', 'crawl' are incompatibles.

Incompatibility is to be regarded as a lexical relation holding between

lexemes in the same semantic field or a related field rather than between lexemes belonging to totally unrelated fields (i.e. randomly selected lexemes). Thus 'walk' is incompatible with 'dance', 'jump', 'crawl' etc. but not with 'steal', 'buy', 'win', etc. as the latter lexemes belong to a completely different field. 'Chair' and 'tiger' are not incompatible since they belong to divergent fields (i.e. "Furniture" and "Animal") and the sense of one can hardly be said to delimit the sense of the other.

It seems helpful to distinguish between 'direct' and 'indirect' incompatibility. For instance, 'poodle', 'collie', 'terrier', 'hound', 'alsatian' etc. belong to the field of "Dog" and 'snake', 'lizard', 'alligator' etc. belong to the field of "Reptile" but both fields are parts of a broader field, namely, that of "Animal". 'Poodle' will be said to enter into direct incompatibility with 'collie', 'terrier', 'hound', 'alsatian' etc. and indirect incompatibility with 'snake', 'lizard', 'alligator' etc. Thus we are able to capture the similarity between 'poodle' and other types of dog and also between 'poodle' and 'snake' (being types of animal) and the total difference between 'poodle' and 'chair'. The distinction suggested here is different from that proposed by Leech (1981) who regards 'man' and 'book' as incompatibles. Here we will regard such lexemes as simply different in meaning for there is little or no point in discussing their relation in terms of incompatibility.

#### 4.1.4. Antonymy

The sense-relations of antonymy, complementarity, and converseness (the last two relations will be discussed in the next two sections) are traditionally lumped together under one label "oppositeness of meaning". It was Lyons (1963) who first distinguished between these relations in linguistics and briefly outlined their nature. In spite of the fact that these relations are closely related, we shall, for convenience, discuss them separately.

The main defining feature of antonyms is that they are gradable opposites in the sense that they may be seen in terms of degrees of the quality involved.



Sapir (1944), who introduced the term 'grading' in this sense, distinguished between 'logical', 'psychological' and 'linguistic' grading. Only the last type is of concern to us here. Linguistic grading involves comparison which may be explicit or implicit. Explicit grading of antonyms is found in English by the use of the comparative forms of adjectives as in 'Our house is as big as yours', 'Our house is bigger than yours', 'The film is more interesting than the one we saw yesterday', 'He is less brilliant than his sister', etc.

Implicit grading is embodied in the use of the adjective itself. To say 'Our house is big', 'The elephant is a big animal', is to imply a comparison with a certain norm: 'Our house is big compared with the normal size of houses'; 'The elephant is a big animal compared with the normal size of animals', etc. The norm is variable, not only according to the subject-matter and register, but also across different languages and even across different speakers (or groups of speakers) within the same speech-community.

Among gradable antonyms we may distinguish between morphologically unrelated lexemes (e.g. 'good': 'bad'; 'high': 'low'; 'long': 'short'; 'heavy': 'light'; 'narrow': 'wide'; 'deep': 'shallow' etc.) and morphologically related lexemes (e.g. 'friendly': 'unfriendly'; 'usual': 'unusual'; 'frequent': 'infrequent' etc.). In English a lexeme may have both types of antonym e.g. 'friendly': 'hostile/ 'inimical'; 'friendly': 'unfriendly'.

Gradable antonyms of a many-member set can be placed on a scale in which case they may be ordered: 'hot, warm, cool, cold' and may be intensified in a variety of ways ('very hot', 'very warm', 'extremely cold' etc.) to specify certain points on the scale. Other lexemes may be added to the scale (e.g. 'boiling', 'lukewarm', 'freezing', 'icy', etc.) so that some of the main points acquire a new subscale: 'hot, burning, sultry, sweltering, etc.'; 'warm, tepid, lukewarm, etc.'; 'cold, chilly, cool, frosty, freezing, etc.'

As we have seen, gradable antonyms do not represent absolute values in that the denial of one member of the pair does not imply the assertion of the other. To say 'The water is not hot' does not suggest that 'The water is

cold'; it may be 'fairly warm'. Nevertheless, such antonyms are frequently interpreted as 'polar opposites', viz. opposites that represent absolute-nature poles rather than a gradable scale. For instance, if we are asked 'Is he a good driver?' and we reply 'No', we may well be held to have committed ourselves implicitly to the proposition that 'He is a bad driver' (Lyons, 1977: 278).

Although we have spoken of 'antonymy' as a relation between lexemes, this is only for convenience. Strictly speaking, antonymy is a relation between particular senses of lexemes and not between lexemes as such. Furthermore, antonymy, like all other sense-relations, is context-dependent. The antonym of 'thin' in 'He was searching for a thin piece of wood' is 'thick' but in 'He was searching for a thin man', it is 'fat' (not 'thick'). Similarly, the antonym or more precisely the 'potential' antonyms of 'deep' may be 'shallow' (e.g. 'deep river:'shallow river') or 'superficial' (e.g. 'deep understanding: superficial understanding'); the potential antonyms of 'short' are 'long' (e.g. 'short line: long line') and 'tall' (e.g. 'short man: tall man'), and so on.

#### 4.1.5. Complementarity

The term 'complementarity' will be used here for the sense-relation that holds between ungradable opposites like 'male':'female'; 'dead':'alive'; 'single':'married'. It is normally the case here that the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other and the assertion of the one implies the denial of the other: not  $X \supset Y$  and  $Y \supset$  not  $X$ . Thus 'He isn't dead' implies 'He is alive'; and 'He is dead' implies 'He isn't alive'. In the case of gradable antonyms already discussed, only the second of these implications holds:  $Y \supset$  not  $X$ . To say 'The water is hot' implies 'The water isn't cold'; and 'The water is cold' implies 'The water isn't hot'. But 'The water isn't hot' does not imply 'The water is cold'; it may be 'warm' or 'tepid'. Complementarity thus admits of two possibilities only.

It is obvious that the above pairs of complementaries (i.e. 'male':'female', 'single':'married', 'dead':'alive') are morphologically unrelated. But they may also be morphologically related as in 'perfect':'imperfect'; 'mortal':'immortal'.

#### 4.1.6. Converseness

This relationship is best exemplified by such pairs of lexemes as 'sell': 'buy'; 'borrow' : 'lend'; 'husband' : 'wife'; 'parent' : 'child', etc. The logical implications between these pairs may be expressed as follows:

X sells Y to Z  $\supset$  Z buys Y from X  
 X borrows Y from Z  $\supset$  Z lends Y to X  
 X is the husband of Y  $\supset$  Y is the wife of X  
 X is the parent of Y  $\supset$  Y is the child of X

In the following sentence pairs the truth conditions of A and B are the same:

- |                                      |                                |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <u>A</u>                             | <u>B</u>                       |
| 1. John sold the car to Bill.        | Bill bought the car from John. |
| 2. Peter borrowed the book from Jim. | Jim lent the book to Peter.    |
| 3. William is Vicky's husband.       | Vicky is William's wife.       |

It is clear from the above sentence pairs that converseness is a typical case of relation which takes syntactic structure into account for its logical implication. For this reason there is noticeable similarity between the relation of lexical converseness and the relation that holds between the corresponding active and passive forms of transitive verbs e.g. 'A policeman assassinated the minister' and 'The minister was assassinated by a policeman' and also between converseness and the comparative forms of explicitly graded antonyms e.g. 'Our house is bigger than yours' implied and is implied by 'Your house is smaller than ours'. Some linguists (e.g. Katz, 1972: 2) go as far as to regard the relation holding between active and passive and between comparative forms of adjectives as one of converseness.

The above form of converseness holds between the senses of two lexemes and may be referred to as the 'strong' form of converseness to distinguish it from the 'weak' or 'disjunctive' converseness holding between more than two senses and may be illustrated by the lexemes 'offer', 'accept' and 'refuse'.

X offers Y to Z  $\supset$  either Z accepts Y  
or Z refuses Y

This will give us a relation like 'offer' : 'accept', and 'offer' : 'refuse'.

Between 'accept' and 'refuse' there is a relation of 'complementarity'; between either of them and 'offer' there holds a relation of the kind that makes 'offer' as the converse of both 'accept' and 'refuse'. In the reverse direction, the implication holds between 'offer' and a disjunction of 'accept' and 'refuse'. If 'X offered Y to Z', one expects that either 'Z accepted Y (from X)' or 'Z refused Y (from X)'. But it is also possible that 'Z neither accepted nor refused Y (from X)' (Lyons, 1963: 73).

#### 4.2. Componential Analysis

Componential analysis aims to decompose the senses of lexemes into minimum semantic features which are contrastive and significant.<sup>5</sup> It is very similar to the approach of distinctive feature theory in phonology. We may take the following sets of lexemes in English and see how their senses (i.e. as always, one sense of each lexeme) can be analysed into semantic features:<sup>6</sup>

man	woman	child
bull	cow	calf

The sense in each column and each row share a semantic feature not shared by the other senses: [Male] for column one, [Female] for column two, and [Young] for column three. Furthermore, the lexemes 'man', 'woman', 'child', on the one hand, and 'bull', 'cow', 'calf' on the other, all have something in common: [Human] in the first set; [Animal] in the second. From such an analysis we can find many semantic features that may be used to distinguish each set, pair or sense from one another. For a sense of the lexeme 'man', for instance, we can have the following:

'man'	[+ Human] (to distinguish it from 'bull')
	[+Male] (to distinguish it from 'woman')
	[+ Adult] (to distinguish it from 'child')

The relevant sense of the lexeme 'man' (as opposed to that of 'bull', 'woman', and 'child') can be thus represented by the three features: [+ Human], [+ Male], [+ Adult] and these features are said to constitute the componential

definition of one sense of the lexeme 'man' which is, to some extent, a formalized dictionary definition. A minus sign is often used to indicate the absence of a feature. The lexeme 'bull' will thus have, in one of its senses, the features [- Human], [+ Male], [+ Adult], 'woman' will have [+ Human], [- Male], [+ Adult], and so on. In the case of such lexemes as 'child' which is unmarked for sex and 'man' (in the sense of 'human being') which is unmarked for both sex and adulthood, we can represent this 'unmarking' by the combined mark (  $\pm$  ) to indicate that a certain feature may or may not be part of the sense of that lexeme depending upon the context. Thus the lexeme 'child' will have the features: [+ Human], [- Adult], [ $\pm$  Male]; 'man' will have [+ Human], [+ Adult], [ $\pm$  Male] etc.

#### 4.2.1. Binary Features and $\pm$ Notation

The use of the binary feature notation  $\pm$  as exemplified above raises some methodological difficulties. First of all, it has been claimed that the use of the minus sign is rather inconsistent. Sometimes it is used to indicate a positive feature as in the case of the feature [- Male] representing [+ Female]. In other cases, it is used to indicate that a certain feature is nonapplicable as in the feature [- Human]. Lehrer (1974: 61) suggests that the minus sign should not be used for positive specification, i.e. to use, for instance, the feature [+ Female] rather than [- Male].

A further difficulty is that if we use the minus sign to indicate a lack of a feature, then it will be equally correct to say, for instance, that 'woman' and 'girl' lack the feature [ Male] as to say that 'man' and 'boy' lack the feature [ Female].<sup>7</sup> For the purpose of analysing and teaching lexis in semantic fields in EFL, it does not seem to make much difference whether we choose, for example, the feature [ Male] or [ Female] to distinguish 'man' from 'woman' since such a choice, even from a theoretical point of view, will be arbitrary in most cases.

In analysing the semantic fields to be used in the experiment we shall adopt the notation used by Rudska et al. (1981) in which the plus

sign is used to indicate that a given feature is part of the sense of a lexeme, and a 'blank' sign (not a minus sign) to indicate that the feature is either nonapplicable or insignificant. The minus sign will not be used (see Appendix 8).

#### 4.2.2. Classification of Semantic Features

There have been many attempts to classify semantic features into different types depending upon their role in semantic theory or their function in componential analysis. Here we may briefly deal with some well-known attempts and assess their practical viability.

The first attempt was made by Pottier (1963) and Coseriu and Geckeler (1974) between 'semes' and 'classemes' as already mentioned (see 3.2.3.1. and 3.2.3.2.). According to Pottier, semes are the minimal distinctive features that are operative within a single field, and they serve to structure the field in terms of various kinds of opposition (see also Coseriu and Geckeler, 1974: 149). Examples of semes would be the semantic features which Pottier uses in his analysis of part of the field of "Siège" ("Seat") already discussed. Classemes, in contrast with semes, are very general semantic features e.g. [Animate], [Inanimate] that are common to related senses of lexemes belonging to different semantic fields (Coseriu and Geckeler, 1974: 152).

The second attempt, which has proved more controversial, was made by Katz and Fodor (1963) (hence K-F) to distinguish between what they call 'semantic markers' and 'semantic distinguishers'. According to K-F each lexeme (or a 'dictionary entry') consists of two parts: a grammatical section which provides the part-of-speech classification of the lexeme (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) and a semantic section representing each of the distinctive senses of the lexeme in its occurrences as a given part of speech. For the lexeme 'bachelor', for instance, we may have a diagram like the following:

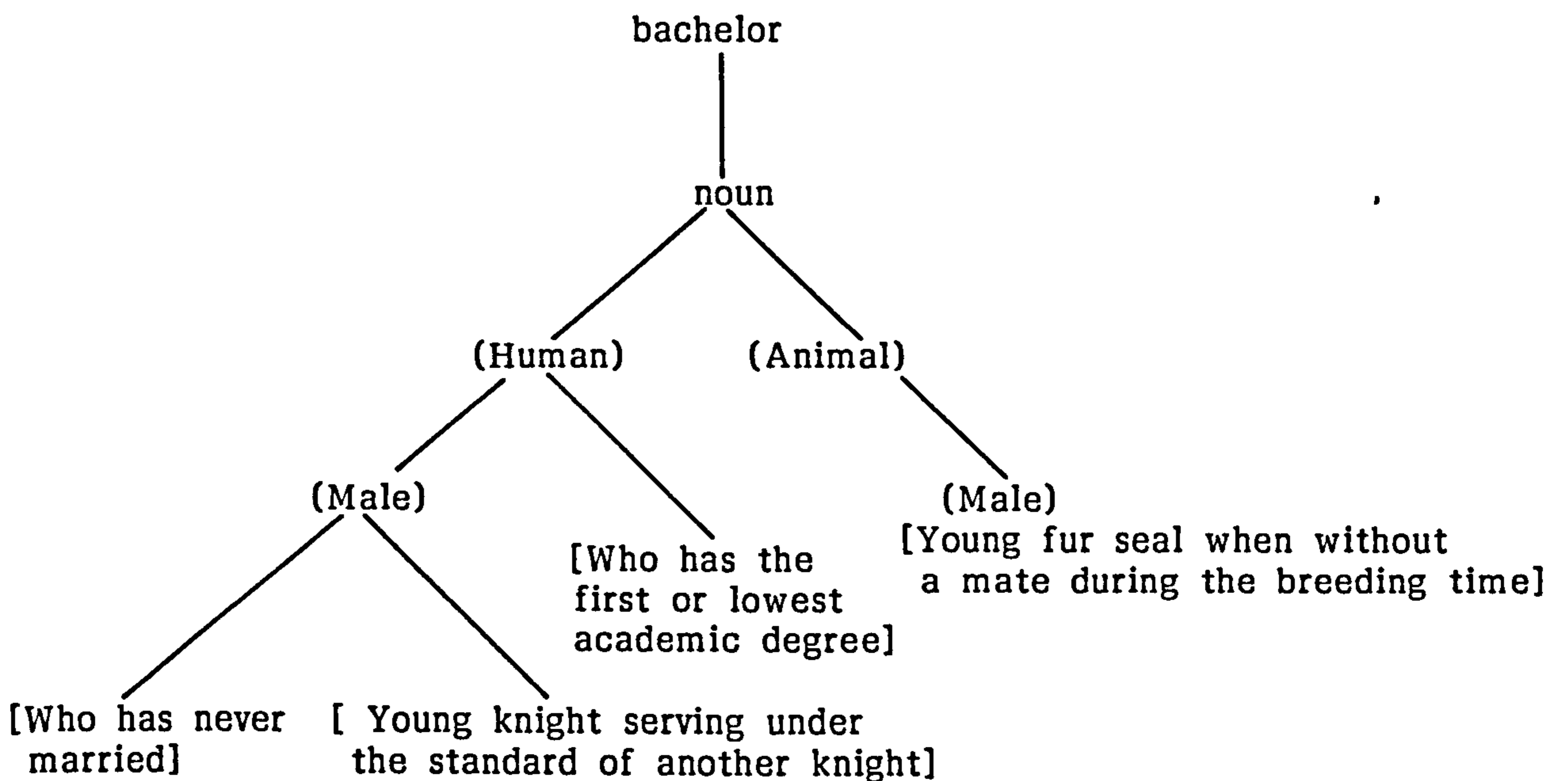


Figure 5: Componential Analysis of the Lexeme 'bachelor' into Semantic Markers and Semantic Distinguishers  
(from: Katz and Fodor, 1963: 186)

Here the unenclosed element is a grammatical marker specifying that the lexeme 'bachelor' is a noun, the elements enclosed in parentheses are 'semantic markers' and the expressions enclosed in brackets are 'semantic distinguishers'. Each sense of the lexeme is exhaustively characterized by tracing the path from grammatical marker(s) (noun) through semantic markers to distinguishers. There seem to be three criteria by which Katz and Fodor originally differentiated semantic markers and distinguishers:

(1) Semantic markers reflect the systematic relations holding between the lexemes in the vocabulary while distinguishers are merely the idiosyncratic aspects of sense. Thus it is the markers which play the role of disambiguation in language. For example, the dictionary entry for the lexeme 'light' exhibits branching into semantic markers e.g. (K-F) [Colour] and [Weight]. Such branching is required to account for the ambiguity of such sentences as 'The stuff is light', 'He wears a light suit in the summer'.

(2) Semantic markers are "universal atomic concepts" to be found in all natural languages whereas distinguishers are language-specific. We will take up this point later (see 4.2.3.).

(3) Semantic markers "represent conceptual components of sense of lexical items and expressions [whereas] distinguishers mark purely perceptual distinctions" (Katz, 1967: 159). [Colour] would be a semantic marker of all the colour lexemes (e.g. 'red', 'green', 'blue' etc.) as well as of the lexeme 'colour' itself, but 'red', 'green', 'blue' etc. would be separated by the distinguishers - [Red], [Green], [Blue] etc.

Furthermore, K-F note that the sense-characterization of 'bachelor' as diagrammed above may be incomplete if we wish to account for the native speaker's ability to interpret the sense of 'bachelor' in a sentence like 'The old bachelor finally died' as "unmarried man" rather than as "young knight serving under the standard of another knight". Thus we must elevate [Young] to the status of a marker, for markers are, by definition, the semantic components through which disambiguations are effected. Being systematic, semantic markers are also the components in terms of which 'selection restrictions' can be explained. Simply put, the function of selection (or selectional) restrictions is to impose constraints on the collocations of lexemes. For example, the semantic anomaly of an expression like 'pregnant man' can be accounted for by the fact that the lexeme 'pregnant' contains the feature [-Male] which clashes with the feature [+ Male] contained in the lexeme 'man'; and this implies that the feature [ Male] is systematic in English.

The whole basis of K-F's distinction was challenged by Bolinger (1965), Bierwisch (1969) and others. Bolinger has argued that in order to be able to account for the speaker's ability to disambiguate sentences, there is virtually no limitation on the number of markers needed for this purpose; and distinguishers have to be infinitely elevated into markers. Thus the question arises whether " the distinguisher will not keep receding toward the horizon until it vanishes altogether "(1965: 558). Bolinger illustrates this point by showing that in addition to the markers already given by K-F for 'bachelor'



the following markers would be necessary for the correct interpretation of some sentences: [Adult] for 'The seven-year-old bachelor sat on the rock' as the definition "male who has never married" is deficient; [Dependent] for 'George is one bachelor who is his own boss' so as to rule out "knight serving under the standard of another knight"; [Military] for 'A bachelor is expected to fight', and so on.

Bierwisch (1969) has also argued that the whole notion of distinguisher must be abandoned. He criticizes the third criterion used by K-F to separate markers and distinguishers arguing that no reasonable line can be drawn between perceptual and conceptual distinctions as elements of human perception involve conceptualization and vice versa. In general "the interpretation of most (if not all) semantic elements must finally be connected with perceptual conditions of the human organism, and certainly all these elements are integrated in the conceptual structure of cognitive processes" (p.177). Bierwisch goes on to point out that distinguishers can be further decomposed into components that are just like semantic markers.

Katz (1966, 1967, 1972) defends the distinction between markers and distinguishers, but he does admit that "the introduction of the concept 'distinguisher' in Katz and Fodor (1963) was less than adequate in a number of aspects" (Katz, 1972: 83) and that "the treatment given various examples in the early papers on semantic theory often errs in packing information into distinguishers that really belongs in semantic markers" (op.cit. p.84).

There is a clear similarity between K-F's conception of 'markers' and the field theorists' conception of 'classemes'. Both kinds of feature are general semantic components in terms of which the selection restrictions can be explained. There is perhaps less similarity between K-F's 'distinguishers' and field theorists' 'semes' since the former are merely the residue of lexical meaning that is not accounted for in terms of markers whereas the latter are held to depend upon the minimal function of opposition in the

field. But it is obvious that such a seme as Pottier's [For Sitting Upon] would be treated as a distinguisher by Katz (Lyons, 1977: 327-8). Furthermore, some of the criticisms that are directed towards K-F's distinction of distinguishers and markers can also be directed towards Pottier - Coseriu's distinction of semes and classemes as we still do not know on what criteria some lexical information would be represented by semes and other information by classemes.

In spite of the difficulties involved in making precise the above distinctions, it is observable, however, that certain features are more salient and common than others when one carries out a componential analysis of a set of senses of lexemes. Based on such an observation is Nida's distinction between 'common' and 'diagnostic' features. The former are the semantic features shared by all the senses of lexemes being analysed and which constitute the basis for bringing such senses together; the latter are used to distinguish the senses of the lexemes in terms of various oppositions (Nida, 1975: 182). Thus the sense of 'father' shares with 'mother', 'son', 'daughter', 'brother', 'sister', 'uncle', 'aunt' and 'cousin' the common features [ Human] and [Kinship], and is distinguished from them by three diagnostic features: [ Male], [ One Ascending Generation Above Ego] and [Direct Line of Descent] (op.cit. p.33). Here we may note that Nida's distinction is a practical one and can be arrived at in any componential analysis of a semantic field. One may arrange the semantic features of the field in a table plotting the common features first to be followed by the diagnostic features. This certainly helps to understand how the senses of lexemes in a field are brought together and how they can be differentiated from one another. We shall follow this distinction in our componential tables of semantic fields to be used in the experiment for its potential usefulness in understanding the tables (see Appendix 8).

### 4.2.3. Relation Between Lexemes and Features

Some linguists gloss over the relationship between such lexemes as 'human', 'adult', 'male' and the corresponding semantic features [Human], [Adult], [Male]. Others have given different theoretical status to features. According to Weinreich (1962; 1963) and Lyons (1968), there is no difference between the object language and the metalanguage: "in contrast to artificial language systems with which logicians experiment, a natural language functions as its own metalanguage" (Weinreich, 1963: 447). Lyons (1968) takes a similar view and claims that a semantic analysis can be made without entry upon a discussion of concepts simply by treating the semantic features as other words of the language. If 'chair' and 'stone' can be said to have the semantic marker [Physical Object]; then [Physical Object] is itself an expression made up of English words. It need not be given the status of a non-linguistic conceptual element.

According to other linguists, however, semantic features are not themselves lexemes but are part of the metalanguage - the theoretical vocabulary set up to describe all languages. Accordingly, these features are 'universal atomic concepts' found in all natural languages whereas lexemes are language-specific. There is said to be no more significance than mere convenience in using English for the metalanguage to carry out a semantic description and analysis. Consequently, semantic features such as [Male] and [Adult] are not to be identified with the lexemes 'male' and 'adult' (or their meanings "male" and "adult"); rather, they are held to belong to a set of universal concepts which may or may not be lexicalized in particular languages. However, whether or not the 'atomic concepts' used in componential analysis are universal (in the strict or loose use of the term 'universal') need not concern us here since our aim is limited to the analysis and teaching of English vocabulary rather than the vocabularies of all languages. Furthermore, certain concepts may not be 'atomic' (i.e. 'simple') but may be fairly complex

and those linguists who have adopted the 'atomic concept' notion at the early stages of their theories, have later come to recognize this fact. Katz, for example, now holds that some semantic features may be structured and analysed into further features. The sense-characterization of a lexeme like 'chase' is now represented by complex semantic markers such as [Activity] and [Intention] which are further analysed into more features as follows:

chase : ((Activity of X) (Nature: (Physical) ((Motion)  
(Rate: (Fast) (Character: (Following Y))))  
(Intention of X: (Trying to catch ((Y) (Motion))))

The bracketing is necessary to show that (Physical), for example, is associated with (Activity) and not, say, (Motion). Bierwisch (1969) has suggested that some of these features can be expressed by redundancy rules. "...For what could 'Fast' mean as a prediction of 'Motion' if not a qualification with respect to rate, or 'Physical' as a prediction of 'Activity' if not a qualification with respect to nature?" (pp.155-6). In other words, the redundancy rules express generalizations which would allow the entry for 'chase' (and other lexemes) to be shortened by omitting [[Physical] Activity] and [Rate].

Although most linguists nowadays accept that semantic features are not to be identified with their corresponding lexemes, one cannot avoid the suspicion that the semantic features are interpreted on the basis of the linguist's intuitive understanding of the meanings of the lexemes which he uses to label them (Lyons, 1968: 480). However, the 'conceptualist' or 'mentalist' view of features is not essential in componential analysis. Semantic features may be regarded as theoretical constructs (which may be called 'concepts') postulated to simplify the description of the language.

#### 4.2.4. Componential Analysis and Semantic Fields

There has been a great deal of unnecessary confusion in applying the componential approach in semantic analyses, for most linguists have attempted to determine precisely what the semantic features are for all the senses of a lexeme out of context. This, in fact, is a rigid exercise

and even an impossible task in many cases; it also explains, to some extent, the failure of a large number of componential analyses. In line with our conception of semantic field theory, one must determine the semantic features of a particular sense of a lexeme in a particular context by comparing this sense with the senses of other lexemes related to it in the same field. For example, in analysing the meaning of the lexeme 'run', it is necessary to select one sense at a time, as determined by the context in which it occurs, rather than all the senses of 'run' at the same time. We may thus compare the sense of 'run' in 'He ran to school' with the related senses of such lexemes as 'walk', 'hop', 'skip', 'jump', 'crawl', 'dance' etc.; the sense of 'run' in 'The water is running' with the related senses of 'flow', 'drip', 'leak', 'pour', 'trickle', 'dribble', 'splash' etc. and the sense of 'run' in 'The colour is running' with that of 'fade', 'alter', 'disappear', 'vanish' etc. The same applies when a lexeme is used in a figurative or idiomatic sense. For example, the sense of 'run to earth' in 'He ran the quotation down to earth' should be compared with the senses of such lexemes as 'find', 'locate' etc.; and the idiomatic sense of 'run across' in 'He ran across his friend in a hotel' with the senses of lexemes like 'meet', 'come across', 'find', 'encounter' etc. Of course, it is possible to analyse later the ways in which the different senses of a single lexeme differ from each other and how they are related, as Katz and Fodor (1963) attempted to do in analysing the senses of the lexeme 'bachelor' already discussed. But this is neither essential nor relevant to semantic fields, at least for our purpose here.

We have already given an informal account of the most significant sense-relations in terms of which semantic fields are structured. These relations can also be described in terms of semantic features. Two lexical items will be synonymous in a particular context if the relevant senses both have the same componential definition. For example, both 'adult' (noun)

in its human sense and 'grown-up' (noun) in an utterance like 'These films are strictly for adults' are given the same componential definition: [+ Human], [+ Adult] and are thereby treated as being synonymous. In the case of hyponymy, it is the co-hyponyms which have at least one more semantic feature than the superordinate. For example, part of the field of "Being Dirty" may include such lexemes as 'dirty', 'filthy', 'grimy', 'squalid', 'soiled' etc.; the lexeme 'dirty' being the superordinate and the other lexemes co-hyponyms which have more semantic features:

	covered with soil, mud, etc.	disgusting	dirt covering surface	disorder and unhygienic condition
dirty	+			
filthy	+	+		
grimy	+		+	
squalid	+	+		+
soiled	+		+	

Figure 6: Componential Analysis of Part of the Field "Being Dirty" (based on Rudska et al., 1981a: 9 and dictionary definitions from LDOCE)

The above table also shows us how incompatible lexemes (in this case 'filthy', 'grimy', 'squalid' and 'soiled') can be analysed in terms of semantic features.

The componential characterization of gradable antonyms seems to require more than just a set of semantic features. As stated before, gradable antonyms normally require reference to some norm (explicit or implicit).

To handle this, Katz (1967) suggests the use of a 'relative semantic marker' which has the form:

(([greater than] in [size, weight] than (an average  $\Sigma$  ))

where  $\Sigma$  is the norm and is determined by the context — linguistic, cultural etc. Chafe (1970) points out that the correctly implied norm depends on the grammatical construction. For example, in 'My big elephant is hungry' the implied norm for 'big' is [Elephant] not [Animal].

To handle the complementarity relationship that holds between the relevant senses of such lexemes as 'married' and 'bachelor' in terms of componential analysis, we may show that both lexemes have the same semantic features except for one which is positive in one lexeme and negative in the other:

'married': [+Adult], [+Human],[+ Married]

'bachelor' : [+Adult], [+Human], [- Married]

But this analysis does not capture the fact that 'married' is used for both males and females whereas 'bachelor' is used only for the males; a feature like [Male], therefore, seems necessary:

'married' : [+Adult], [+Human], [+Married], [+Male]

'bachelor' : [+Adult], [+Human], [- Married], [+Male]

This will enable us also to show the relation between 'married' and 'spinster':

'married' : [+Adult], [+Human], [- Married], [+Female]

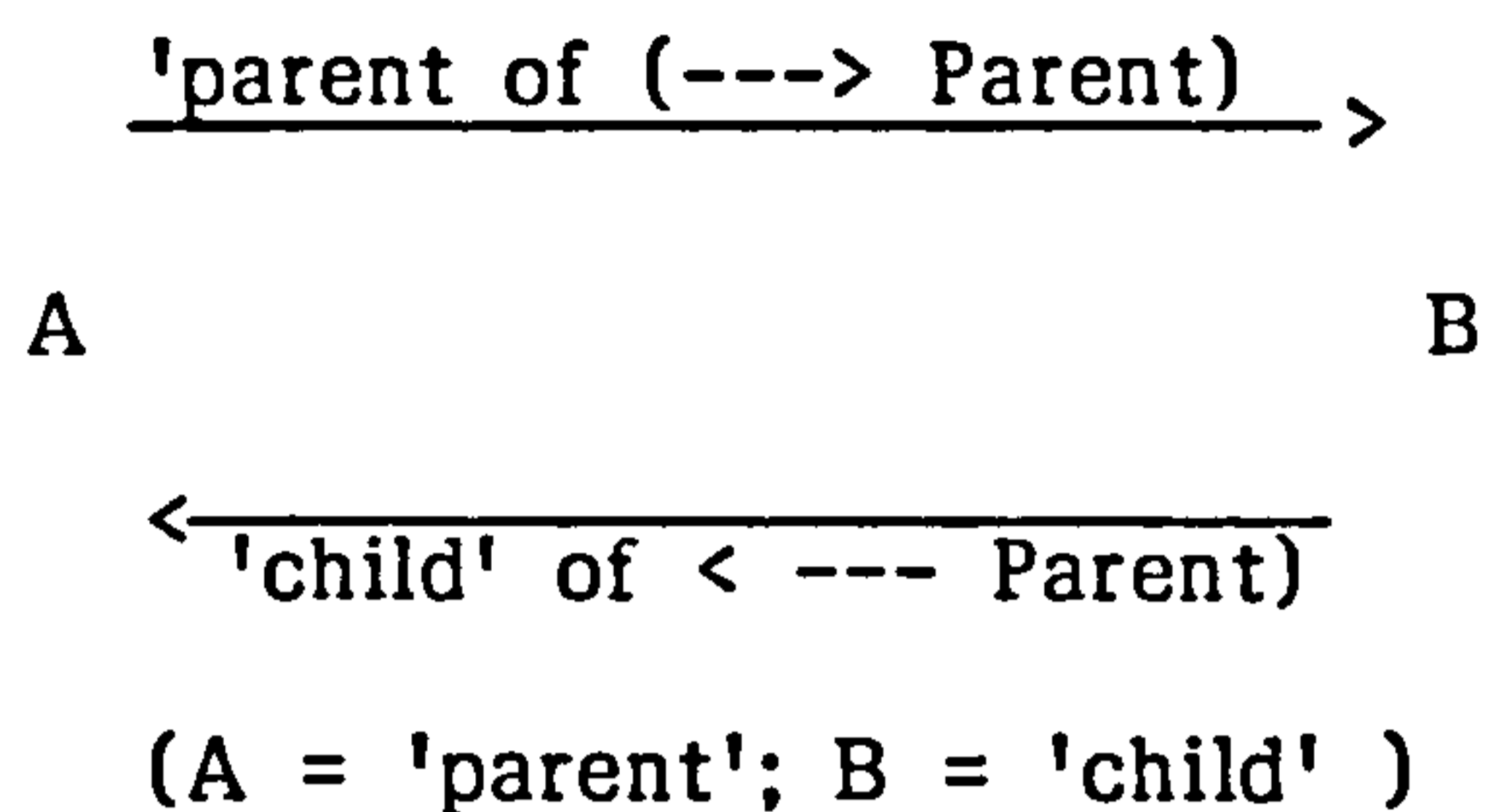
The relation of converseness does not seem to lend itself elegantly to componential analysis as the components fail to show the directional relation between converse lexemes such as 'parent' and 'child' or 'sell' and 'buy'. It is not sufficient to show that the two lexemes differ in some semantic features like:

'parent' :[+Human], [+Adult], [+Parent]

'child' :[+Human], [-Adult], [- Parent]

as the converse relationship between the two lexemes is still not captured.

We need something like ( ---> R / <--- R) formula proposed by Leech (1981: 103):



But such a formula does not seem to fit into the normal notation of semantic features in a convenient way.

#### 4.2.5. Componential Analysis: Advantages and Criticisms

Componential analysis as a linguistic technique of analysing the senses of lexemes is controversial. While many linguists (e.g. Leech, 1981) have found it a useful and revealing technique for making explicit and economical statements about the meanings of lexical items and the sense-relations between them, others (e.g. Lyons, 1968, 1977; Palmer, 1981) have criticised it on various grounds. In this section we shall deal briefly with the main advantages of componential analysis and the criticisms that are often directed against it.

Componential analysis of lexical meaning has the following advantages:

- (1) In terms of a small set of semantic features one can show the similarities and differences between the senses of lexical items. It is, therefore, a technique for making economic statements about the sense-relations holding between lexemes (Kempson, 1977: 18).
- (2) It follows from (1) that componential analysis can account for selectional restrictions imposed upon the occurrence of lexemes more explicitly and economically. One way of doing this is to say that the relevant semantic features of lexical items occurring together in syntagms must not be contradictory. For example, the lexeme 'pregnant' contains a semantic feature, namely [Female], which restricts its occurrence with nouns containing that feature. On the basis of this fact, such syntagms



as 'pregnant woman' or a 'pregnant mare' would be acceptable whereas other syntagms such as 'pregnant man' or 'pregnant stallion' would be excluded as meaningless. Whether such syntagms as 'pregnant duck' are acceptable would presumably be decided with reference to further features of sense associated with the lexeme 'duck' and further restrictions imposed upon the occurrence of 'pregnant' with other lexemes (Lyons, 1968: 475).

(3) It is sometimes claimed that semantic features in a componential analysis correspond to 'mental concepts', perhaps universal to all languages. Some psycholinguists (and psychologists) have found this approach helpful in their efforts to understand how children acquire lexical meanings (see Dillon, 1977, for details about this aspect of componential analysis).

As for the main criticisms of componential analysis, they can be summarized in the following points discussed in detail by Leech (1981):

(1) It is often said that componential analysis accounts for only some parts of the lexicon — specifically those which are neatly organized such as kinship. However, componential analysis need not be so and can be enriched to deal with a much wider range of vocabulary as Leech (1981) has attempted to do. He has shown that componential analysis can be fitted into a more powerful model of meaning, with additional levels of analysis apart from componential analysis. Furthermore, and in order to disprove this criticism, Bendix (1966) has proposed to analyse a set of verbs which do not form a well-defined semantic area. This is shown by the fact that the set of lexemes chosen by Bendix (e.g. 'have', 'give', 'take', 'lose', 'find', 'get') do not even have a superordinate.

(2) It has been claimed that componential analysis is unexplanatory in that it does not provide for the interpretation of semantic features in terms

of the real-world properties, actions, objects, etc. which they denote or refer to. For example, the feature [Adult] remains an abstract, uninterpreted symbol unless we can actually specify what adults are like.

Leech (1981: 118) rightly argues that to expect componential analysis to provide an interpretation in this sense is to expect it to provide a theory not only of sense but of denotation or reference. Componential analysis is not assumed to have this wider goal; it is meant to explain the senses of lexical items not the encyclopedic knowledge which must enter into a theory of denotation or reference.

(3) Componential analysis has also been criticised on the grounds that it postulates universal features of meaning, and therefore relies upon the strong assumption that the semantic features are found in all languages. It is true that some proponents of componential analysis have taken a strong position on universals; but this is by no means a necessary part of the approach. Componential analysis fits well with a weak universalist position.

(4) It is said that componential analysis is unable to account for the nature of lexical meaning which is looser, fuzzier, more inconsistent than componential analysis implies.<sup>8</sup> However, this impression of fuzziness comes mainly from the fuzzy nature of lexical meaning itself rather than from the principles of componential analysis. Componential analysis is to be regarded as a way of formalizing that part of the proto-typical, or focal, meanings of lexical items which they share with other lexemes (Lyons, 1981: 84).

In spite of the criticisms above, componential analysis has been regarded by many linguists, even by some of its critics (e.g. Lyons, 1968) as an important technique for semantic studies. Lyons, for instance, asserts that

"componential analysis has, however, made considerable contribution to the development of semantics" (1968: 480). And Bolinger (1975) believes that "in spite of the uncertainties, it is still possible to use a feature approach [i.e. componential analysis] to teach a great deal, in a simplified way, about a large part of the lexicon" (p.198).

#### 4.2.6. Conclusion

As a conclusion, we may mention the following three points. First, componential analysis provides, as we have seen, an explicit technique for dealing economically with most, if not all, sense-relations holding between lexical items in semantic fields. In this respect, it may lead to elegant and ingenious representation of the similarities and differences between the field members. It may thus be seen as an attempt to put semantic field theory on a sounder theoretical and methodological footing. Second, it is important to realize that componential analysis neither presupposes field theory nor is it presupposed by it. One may satisfactorily deal with semantic fields and at the same time reject componential analysis as a method of analysis. On the other hand, one may adopt the componential approach as a technique in semantic analysis but refuse to recognize that the notion of semantic field has any role to play in this analysis (Lyons, 1977: 326). The third point concerns the potential uses of componential analysis for the teaching of lexis in EFL situations. Here we may adopt the view expressed by Bolinger (1975: 198) above that a simplified form of componential analysis can teach a great deal about a large part of the lexicon. Such a simplified version need not seek 'complete linguistic accuracy', if such accuracy is ever attainable, but may be used to elucidate for the learners the similarities and differences between the senses of lexemes in a way that would help them comprehend and use the lexemes for various language activities. We shall adopt such a simplified version of componential analysis for our experiment (see Chapter Eight).

### 4.3. Collocations

The term 'collocation' refers to the habitual co-occurrence of lexical items. An oft-cited example is given by Firth (1957), who was the first to introduce the term 'collocation' in linguistics; the lexeme 'dark' collocates with 'night', and vice versa:

"One of the meanings of 'night' is its collocability with 'dark', and of 'dark', of course, collocability with 'night'" (Firth, 1957: 196).

This statement does not, of course, exclude collocations like 'bright night', 'dark day', but just because of the less usual concomitance of such pairs, they stand out as more prominent in an utterance in which they occur than do 'dark night' and 'bright day' (Robins, 1971: 63).<sup>9</sup>

Lexemes vary enormously with respect to the freedom with which they can collocate with other lexemes. At one extreme, there are adjectives like 'good' or 'bad' in English which can be used in collocations with almost any noun; at the other extreme, we find an adjective like 'rancid' which may collocate with 'butter', 'bacon' and little else (Lyons, 1977: 261-2). It is possible, therefore, to distinguish various types of collocations on the basis of the freedom with which lexemes collocate with one another. First, there are lexemes whose co-occurrence seems impossible e.g. 'round square', 'castrated female'. We do not expect such co-occurrences to happen, except in deviant utterances, because the semantic features of the two lexemes are incompatible.<sup>10</sup> Second, there are collocations which are possible but not habitual e.g. 'bright night' mentioned above. Third, there are collocations the meanings of which are not deducible from the meaning of their individual elements. These are the collocations that are normally called 'idioms' e.g. 'to make up one's mind', 'to take someone in', 'to know your onions', 'to lose your head', 'to spill the beans', 'red herring' etc. These normally function as single semantic units and are to be treated as such in the lexicon. They are sometimes excluded by some linguists (e.g. Mitchell, 1971: 53; 1975: 120) from the collocations proper as they are non-productive in terms of the substitutability

of lexemes within them. Fourth, there are the restricted or 'frozen' collocations e.g. 'blond hair', 'rancid butter' (or 'rancid bacon'), 'addled egg' (or 'addled brains'). It is Porzig (1934) who first drew attention to such collocations, as we have seen. Fifth, there are the collocations in which the nodes (the lexemes whose collocations are being investigated) belong to the same semantic field but have different collocational ranges e.g. 'pretty', 'handsome' in the field of "Good-looking". They have many semantic features in common but collocate differently:

pretty	[	girl	handsome	]	boy	
		boy				man
		woman				car
		flower				vessel
		garden				overcoat
		colour				airliner
		village				typewriter
		etc.				etc.

(from Leech, 1981: 17)

The ranges may sometimes overlap: 'handsome woman' and 'pretty woman' are both acceptable, although they suggest a different kind of attractiveness. The fifth type of collocation is of particular interest to semantic field analysis and the teaching of lexis in EFL. Before expanding on it, it seems useful to briefly deal with the other types with respect to the difficulties they present to the foreign language learner.

The collocations which we have labelled 'impossible' above present no problem for the learner since in the real world he does not meet objects (e.g. 'round square' or properties, actions etc.) denoted or referred to by such collocations. The knowledge of the meaning of individual lexemes will enable him to predict that such combinations of lexical items are not likely to be needed. The second type of collocation will be easily understood the first time it is heard if the hearer already knows the meanings of the individual parts. Consequently, we may say there is no problem here for the learner in comprehending such collocations or producing them as the need arises. The idiomatic type of collocation has always presented real

difficulties for learners of foreign languages. The meanings of such collocations will not be readily apparent even to native speakers when they first come into contact with them. As mentioned above, they have a tendency to fossilize as 'single semantic units' even to the point, on occasions, of preserving in use lexemes that have otherwise become obsolete e.g. 'kith and kin', 'to and fro', 'waifs and strays' etc. Familiarity with idiomatic collocations is normally considered a mark of high proficiency in a foreign language and usually comes after long experience. The appropriateness of idioms to situations is very difficult to master and where a learner has acquired idioms through the memorization of lists of them it is usually apparent through his inability to restrict their use only to the appropriate circumstances (Wilkins, 1972: 129). For the restricted or frozen collocations there is certainly no logical semantic explanation. That is, such collocations as 'rancid' with 'butter' rather than 'cheese' or 'blond' with 'hair' rather than 'door' cannot be justified on any logical ground but is often felt to be part of the peculiarity of a language for which there is no reasonable explanation. These can be learned by exposure to the foreign language and memorization of the collocations as in the case of idioms.

We now come to the last type of collocation which, as mentioned above, presents real difficulties for the foreign language learner since the nodes here share some semantic features and belong to the same semantic field. The learner has no way of distinguishing the acceptable collocations of such lexemes from the unacceptable. For example, the lexemes 'strong' and 'powerful' belong to the same field that includes also such lexemes as 'forceful', 'energetic', 'weak', 'feeble' etc. Both 'strong' and 'powerful' collocate, for instance, with 'argument'; 'He put forward a strong argument for it'; 'He put forward a powerful argument for it'. But they do not always stand in this same relation to each other as utterances like '\* He drives a strong car' and '\* This tea is too powerful' are relatively unacceptable.<sup>11</sup>

One way of teaching such collocations is by means of Collocational Grids. These grids (or tables) consist of the nodes and an illustrative number of their collocations. We shall discuss these grids and their potential use in the teaching of vocabulary in Chapter Seven.

#### 4.4. Semantic Fields: Defining Characteristics

From the exposition of field theory so far, we may summarize the main defining characteristics of semantic fields as follows. Certainly, it is possible to add other characteristics but the ones to be given here are felt to be sufficient to define the notion of semantic field which we shall adopt and work with in the following chapters.

##### 4.4.1. Positively-Defined Characteristics

- (1) A semantic field is a group of lexemes paradigmatically related within a given language-system e.g. the field of "Being Angry" (e.g. 'angry', 'annoyed', 'irritated', 'furious', 'exasperated', 'indignant' etc.).
- (2) The field is often subsumed under a general term but this is not always the case e.g. the field of "Colour" (adj.) in English has no general term as has been explained (see 4.1.2.). A multiword lexical unit may be used instead of the general term e.g. "Being Angry" in (1) above. However, we should distinguish between a superordinate term proper e.g. "Flower" (which includes such lexemes as 'lily', 'daisy', 'tulip' etc.) and some ad hoc label like our "Being Angry" which is used only for descriptive convenience and may not be a precise superordinate for the field.
- (3) All the lexemes in the field belong to the same 'word-class'; in particular, they belong to the same 'part-of-speech' (i.e. nouns, adjectives, verbs etc.). However, morphological relations are to be taken into account in any analysis of a number of fields or subfields particularly when the analysis is carried out for pedagogical purposes such as the teaching of vocabulary, as the learner would certainly meet a large number of lexemes morphologically

related. Thus the field of "Killing" can be divided into subfields like the following:

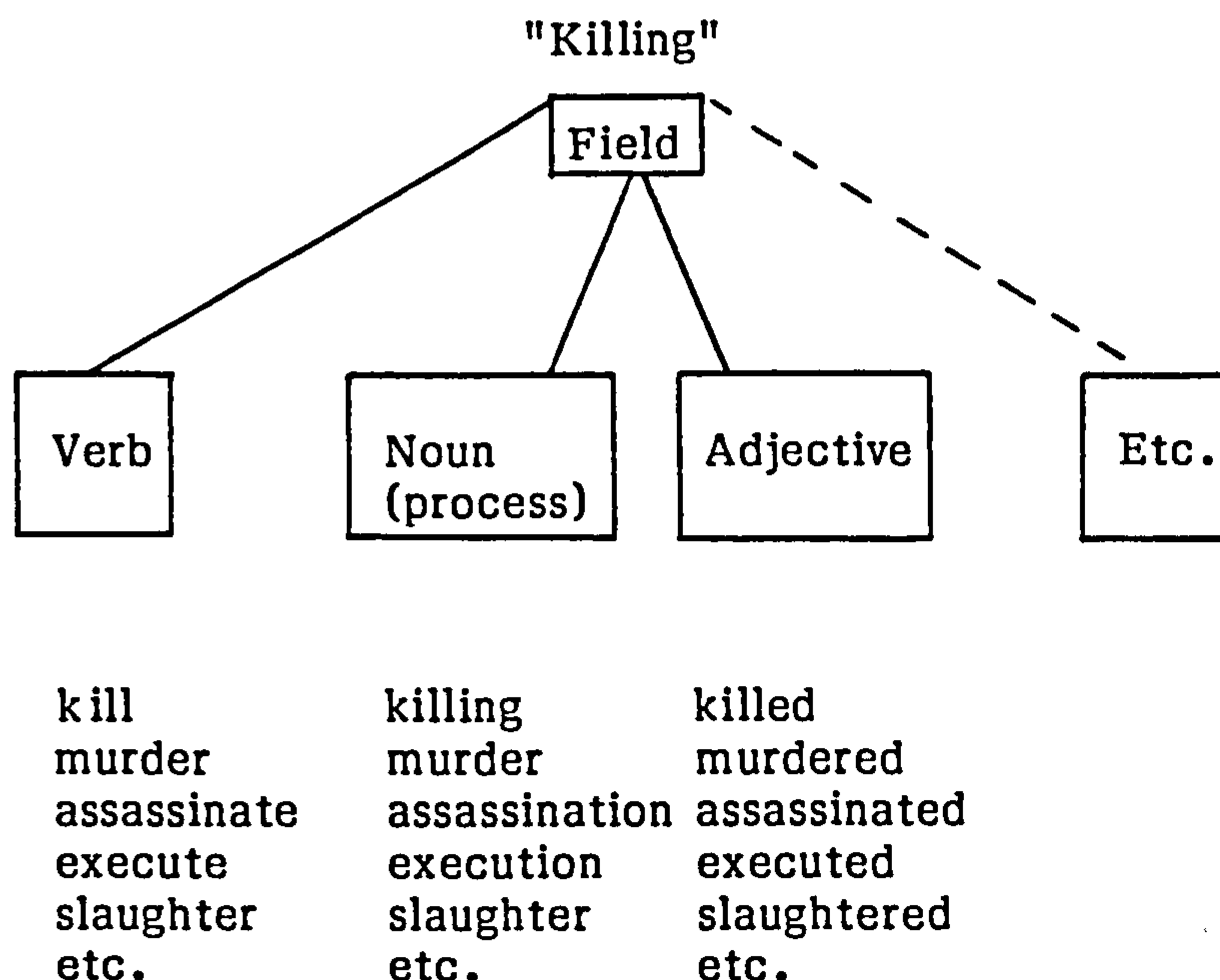


Figure 7: Morphologically-Related Fields  
(or Subfields)

(4) Semantic fields are special types of paradigms being derived from verbal context. Take the verbal context: 'Victoria was pleased about her...' and the intention to express "regular income". This allows lexemes like 'pay', 'salary', 'wage', 'interest' etc. (Lutzeier, 1982: 2).

(5) The natural language from which the verbal contexts are taken should be limited to one variety or dialect of the language (Lieb, 1979: 68). In our case, the examples and illustrations are taken from 'British English' except when stated otherwise.

We do recognize the fact that it may not be entirely satisfactory to define exactly the precise features of this variety of English. However, the reader of the thesis can easily understand what we mean by 'British English' here - it is a variety of 'educated British English'. In the case of Arabic examples and illustrations, they are derived from intuition and from some English-Arabic dictionaries.

(6) The term 'semantic field' rather than 'lexical field' will be used to refer to the group of lexemes having the characteristics given here. This



use will enable us to include in the relevant field such 'multiword' lexical units as 'put to death', 'put an end to' whose status between 'phrasal lexemes' and 'collocations' is indeterminate. Likewise, an idiom e.g. 'kick the bucket' will be treated in the same field — with such lexemes as 'die', 'pass away', 'expire' etc. Similarly, 'spill the beans' will be treated together with such semantic units as 'reveal', 'make known', 'disclose', 'uncover' etc. This degree of flexibility or fuzziness might be considered especially desirable when contrasting corresponding fields in two languages for pedagogical purposes.

(7) The inclusion of lexemes within a semantic field can be based on both theoretical and pedagogical criteria. The theoretical criteria already discussed (see 3.4.2.1.) involve the distinction between basic vs. peripheral lexical items or, more generally, 'core' vs. 'non-core' vocabulary. The pedagogical considerations involve such criteria as the frequency of lexical items, their availability, their usefulness to the language learner, etc. These we shall discuss in some detail in Chapter Six.

(8) Figurative extensions of meaning normally involve different semantic fields. When one says 'That man is a dog', the meaning of 'dog' obviously does not have as a denotation the usual animal. Rather, this meaning of 'dog' is roughly equivalent to 'contemptible', and in this sense 'dog' belongs to the semantic field of such lexemes as 'contemptible', 'worthless', 'despicable' etc. The fact that 'dog' can be used in this sense results from the conventional association between dogs and this quality. Whether it is a deserved association in meaning is beside the point. In English it does exist, and therefore 'dog' can have this figurative sense (Nida, 1975: 126).

(9) Semantic fields are to be analysed mainly on the paradigmatic dimension. This consists of analysing semantic fields in terms of the various sense-relations holding between the lexical items of the field. These relations can be stated informally or made more explicit by means of componential analysis. The collocational ranges of field members should be taken into account in order to clarify how these ranges contribute to the similarities and differences

within the field.

(10) There may be connections between the various fields. For example, one may establish a field of "Occupation", one of "Recreation", one of "Learning", etc. and then group them into another giant field of "Human Activity".

However, this progressive synthesis may be neither necessary nor desirable.

Semantic fields are not necessarily related to one another and the whole vocabulary may not have an overall structure as the Trier school originally maintained.

#### 4.4.2. Negatively-Defined Characteristics

(1) Semantic fields do not represent taxonomies, i.e. they are not scientific classification of extralinguistic reality.

(2) Semantic fields are not fields of associations. In the case of an associative field one can include any lexical item or unit associated in one way or another with the field. An associative field is thus 'uncontrollable' in the sense of Coseriu and Geckeler (1974, 1981) — see 3.2.3.2.

(3) A semantic field is not a mere 'domain' or 'set' as these terms are normally used in linguistics and anthropology. The term 'domain' is normally used to mean a cultural area characterized by a set of lexical items and expressions included in the domain on cultural rather than linguistic criteria. A set is a group of lexemes or lexical units related to one another by the fact that they describe some topic or a subject area (or a situation) e.g. 'guitar', 'drums', 'drumsticks', 'electronic organs', 'piano', 'bass guitar', 'microphone', 'stage', 'singer', 'loudspeaker', 'amplifier', 'curtain', 'teenager', 'spotlight', 'television camera', 'cameraman', to describe a topic like "Pop Concert" or a set like 'counter', 'safe', 'telephone kiosk', 'telephone', 'receiver', 'telephone directory', 'stamp-machine' to describe a situation like "At the Post Office".

(4) Semantic fields are not an index to the native speaker's world-view.

Languages, however, differ in dividing up semantic fields in markedly different

ways as we shall see from the contrastive analysis of semantic fields in English and Arabic in the next chapter.

(5) A semantic field does not have a closely-knit structure like a mosaic. In most fields there are many lexical gaps as has been shown in 3.2.2.2.

It seems almost in the nature of lexis to resist too great a degree of systematization. A degree of fuzzy indeterminacy may always be a necessary element in the description of meaning (Lehrer, 1970; Labov, 1973; Leech, 1981; Carter, 1982). The definition (and delimitation) of a semantic field is no neat and tidy process either. This should be taken into account in any definition and analysis of semantic fields.

NOTES TO CHAPTER FOUR

1. Notice, for example, the types of meaning distinguished by Leech (1981).
2. The term 'context' is given here an interpretation narrower than the one given in Chapter Three.
3. The term 'inclusion' is an ambiguous term when used to describe the sense-relation of hyponymy. Hurford and Heasley (1983: 106), for example, use it in precisely the opposite way saying that the meaning (sense) of 'animal' is included in that of 'cow'. However, we shall use the term in the sense explained in this section.
4. There are some problems (yet unresolved) involved in the sense-relation of hyponymy if the relation is examined closely. For a discussion of some of these problems, see Cruse (1975).
5. Componential analysis is sometimes referred to as 'the feature approach' (e.g. Bolinger, 1975: 198) or 'lexical decomposition' (e.g. Nilsen, 1972: 13; Lyons, 1981: 76).
6. Other terms are also used to refer to these semantic features e.g. 'sense-components', 'semantic components', 'semes' etc.
7. Some linguists have tried to eliminate the intuitive aspect of determining semantic features by either relying on existing dictionary definitions or by using informants e.g. Mounin, 1965 .
8. For example, Labov (1973) conducted an experiment in which subjects were asked to label pictures of more-or-less-cup-like objects. He found that, although there was a core of agreement as to what constituted a cup, there was also a peripheral gradient of disagreement and uncertainty. Other studies have reached the same conclusion that meaning is fuzzy.
9. The Firthian notion of 'collocation' cannot be properly understood outside the framework of his general linguistic theory. A concise outline of the theory is contained in Firth (1957). We need not go into the details

of the Firthian notion here as it is sufficient for our purpose to present the notion in general terms.

10. Such collocations, however, may occur in reports of dreams, other people's beliefs, fairy tales, science-fiction stories, etc. McCawley (1970a:135) offers an example: 'I dreamed that my toothbrush was pregnant.'
11. The collocations of 'strong' and 'powerful' discussed here are taken from Halliday (1966: 150-1).

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SEMANTIC FIELDS IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC:

#### A CONTRASTIVE LEXICAL ANALYSIS

##### 5.1. Preliminary Remark

As has been mentioned, it is generally accepted that each language must be thought of as having its own semantic structure just as it has its own phonological and grammatical structures. In general, each language reflects in its own semantic structure the distinctions and equivalences which are of importance in the culture of the society in which the language operates. To the extent that the meanings of one language cannot be brought into a one-to-one correspondence with those of another we will say that the two languages are semantically non-isomorphic, that is, they have different structures (Lyons, 1968: 55). The degree of semantic isomorphism between two languages is usually taken to be dependent upon the amount of overlap there is in the culture of the two societies using those languages.

As far as English and Arabic are concerned, we shall see that the semantic spaces of many semantic fields in the two languages cannot be brought into a one-to-one correspondence.<sup>1</sup>

In line with the assumptions of semantic field theory, the practice of making a contrastive study of lexemes belonging to certain fields in two (or more) languages is thought to be more revealing than contrasting a number of unrelated lexemes. That is, instead of taking a number of semantically unrelated lexemes in one language (e.g. 'uncle', 'murder', 'obvious') and looking into how they correspond to, or differ from, their counterparts, if there are any, in another language, we assume that it is more revealing to compare a whole field, or at least, a subfield, in one language with the corresponding field, or subfield, in another language. Adopting this contrastive approach, we shall compare some semantic fields in English and Arabic and attempt to show the similarities and differences between the two languages.

For this purpose, two fields have been chosen: the field of "Kinship" and that of "Killing". They are intended to provide two fields differing in the degree of cultural specificity — the first is more culturally specific than the second and, therefore, the semantic non-isomorphism is expected to be greater.

### 5.2. Field of Kinship

It is reasonable to assume that kinship terms occur in all natural languages as all human societies consist of individuals related to one another in families and in a wider circle of relations. The set of lexemes specifying the consanguineal and affinal positions of one's own kin in relation to oneself can be regarded as constituting a semantic field. The structure imposed on this field by conventional usage of kinship terminology varies greatly from society to society. This is why the field of "Kinship" has often provided linguists and anthropologists with scope for the airing of relativist ideas. But there is also scope for the universalists as kinship terminology can be presented in terms of a universal set of symbols from which each language or culture draws its system (Leech, 1981: 236). Although we do not wish to take either position in its extreme form, it seems useful to have a grid or a language-independent set of symbols, that is, a 'reference language' to describe the field of "Kinship", independent of its treatment in a particular society. The type of reference language we shall use here is the traditional anthropological notation of kin terms and relative products as used by Wallace and Atkins (1960). According to this notation, the first two letters of eight primitive terms ('father, mother, brother, sister, son, daughter, husband, wife') are used as the 'primitive symbols' (Fa, Mo, Br, Si, So, Da, Hu, Wi); other kinship terms are conceived of as 'relative products' of these primitives e.g. FaBr for 'father's brother'; MoSi for 'mother's sister'. Additional primitives (e.g. younger and older) are added as required. Each primitive term and each relative product denotes a kin-type. For simplicity,

we introduce here an additional primitive term SP in order to avoid the complex term Hu/Wi which we have to use to refer to such a relationship as that of No. 5 ( Figure 8 below) SpMo referring to Hu/WiMo. That is, instead of using HuMo or WiMo or the combined term Hu/WiMo, we have introduced the term Sp to refer to both Hu and Wi so that No. 5, for instance, will read SpMo to refer to HuMo or WiMo.

Using the above notation and the operator (:) (meaning 'refer to') we may present those kinship relationships which will concern us here in the following language-independent diagram and set of symbols. The numbering, from left to right, will be used throughout, with each relationship given a certain number. The numbers given to the terms are only for reference; they are not indices of psychological saliency; that is, if a term occurs in the beginning of the list, it does not mean that it is more salient than the others.

1.	MoMo	(mother's mother)
2.	MoFa	(mother's father)
3.	FaMo	(father's mother)
4.	FaFa	(father's father)
5.	SpMo	(spouse's mother)
6.	SpFa	(spouse's father)
7.	MoSi	(mother's sister)
8.	MoSiHu	(mother's sister's husband)
9.	MoBrWi	(mother's brother's wife)
10.	MoBr	(mother's brother)
11.	Mo	(mother)
12.	Fa	(father)
13.	FaBrWi	(father's brother's wife)
14.	FaBr	(father's brother)
15.	FaSi	(father's sister)
16.	FaSiHu	(father's sister's husband)
17.	SpSiHu	(spouse's sister's husband)
18.	SpSi	(spouse's sister)
19.	SpBrWi	(spouse's brother's wife)
20.	SpBr	(spouse's brother)
21.	MoSiDa	(mother's sister's daughter)
22.	MoSiDaHu	(mother's sister's daughter's husband)
23.	MoSiSoWi	(mother's sister's son's wife)
24.	MoSiSo	(mother's sister's son)
25.	MoBrDa	(mother's brother's daughter)
26.	MoBrDaHu	(mother's brother's daughter's husband)
27.	MoBrSoWi	(mother's brother's son's wife)
28.	MoBrSo	(mother's brother's son)
29.	Sp(f)Wi(m)Hu	(spouse: 'wife' or 'husband')
30.	Ego	(the person from whom the relationship is traced)



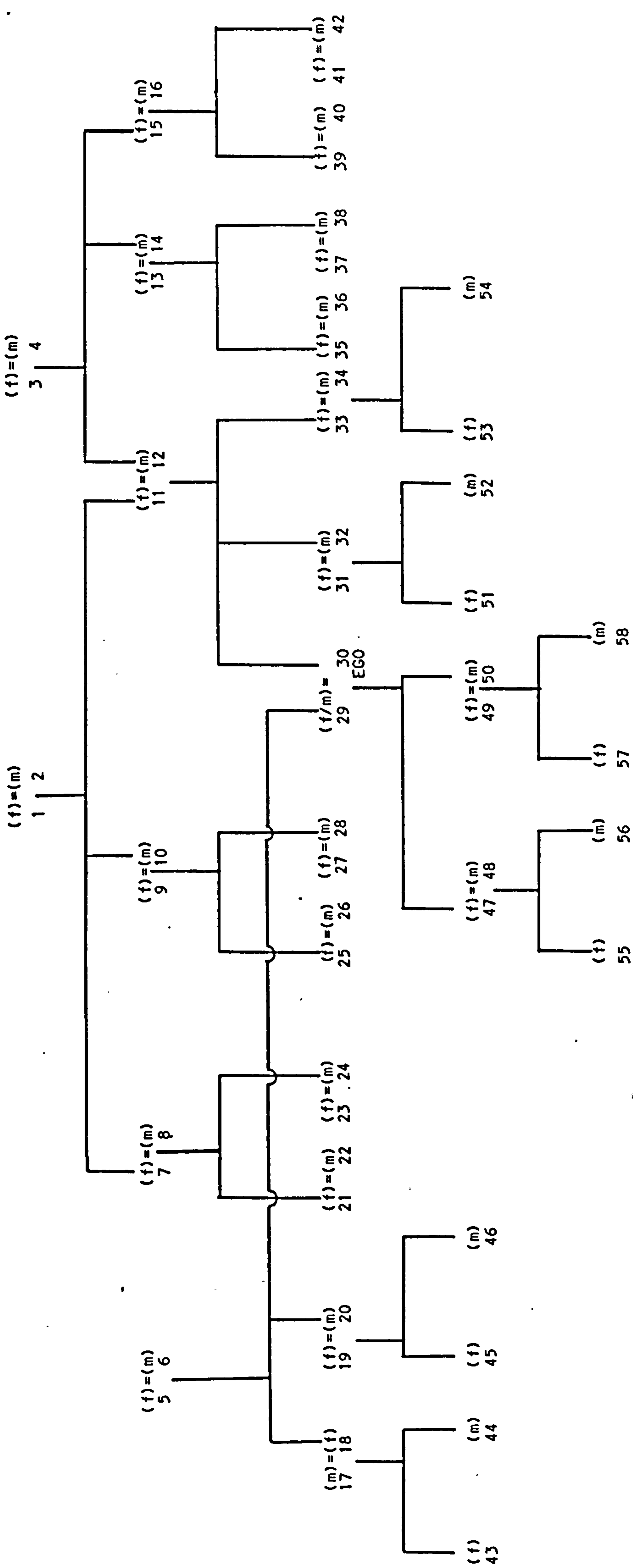


Figure 8

Kinship System: Language Independent —

Consanguineal and Affinal Relationships

(f) means "female" (m) means "male" = means "married to"

31.	BrWi	(brother's wife)
32.	Br	(brother)
33.	Si	(sister)
34.	SiHu	(sister's husband)
35.	FaBrDa	(father's brother's daughter)
36.	FaBrDaHu	(father's brother's daughter's husband)
37.	FaBrSoWi	(father's brother's son's wife)
38.	FaBrSo	(father's brother's son)
39.	FaSiDa	(father's sister's daughter)
40.	FaSiDaHu	(father's sister's daughter's husband)
41.	FaSiSoWi	(father's sister's son's wife)
42.	FaSiSo	(father's sister's son)
43.	SpSiDa	(spouse's sister's daughter)
44.	SpSiSo	(spouse's sister's son)
45.	SpBrDa	(spouse's brother's daughter)
46.	SpBrSo	(spouse's brother's son)
47.	Da	(daughter)
48.	DaHu	(daughter's husband)
49.	SoWi	(son's wife)
50.	So	(son)
51.	BrDa	(brother's daughter)
52.	BrSo	(brother's son)
53.	SiDa	(sister's daughter)
54.	SiSo	(sister's son)
55.	DaDa	(daughter's daughter)
56.	DaSo	(daughter's son)
57.	SoDa	(son's daughter)
58.	SoSo	(son's son)

In order to perform a contrastive analysis of kinship in English and Arabic, it seems useful to see first how each language divides the semantic space of this field and then compare them together for points of similarities and differences.

### 5.2.1. Kinship in English

A relative is a person who is related to someone else (Ego) by blood or by marriage. Those related by blood are called 'consanguineal relatives' and those by marriage 'affinal relatives'. Two blood relatives are related by the fact that they share in some degree the stuff of a particular heredity. Each has a portion of the natural, genetic substance. Relative by marriage, on the other hand, is defined with reference to the relative by blood. Marriage is not a material thing in the same sense as biogenetic heredity is. It is terminable by death or divorce. It is sometimes the case, however, that people may be related by both blood and marriage.

For simplicity of exposition, we shall deal first with consanguineal kin

terms and then with those for relations by marriage.

#### 5.2.1.1. English Consanguineal Terms

The description and analysis presented here are concerned with consanguineal terms used in 'reference' only.<sup>2</sup> Further, the data analysed have only to do with the situation in which someone inquires of another in the absence of the person referred to by the kinship term. 'What kin relationship, if any, is he (she) to you?' This invites the answer 'He (She) is my...' or 'He (She) is not a relative'. The importance of controlling the context in which data are elicited is obvious when one considers how personal considerations affect the use of kinship terms in address. Using the syntactically-controlled context above, we obtain the following list for English consanguineal terms:

1.	grandmother	:	MoMo	32.	brother	:	Br
2.	grandfather	:	MoFa	33.	sister	:	Si
3.	grandmother	:	FaMo	35.	cousin	:	FaBrDa
4.	grandfather	:	FaFa	38.	cousin	:	FaBrSo
7.	aunt	:	MoSi	39.	cousin	:	FaSiDa
10.	uncle	:	MoBr	42.	cousin	:	FaSiSo
11.	mother	:	Mo	47.	daughter	:	Da
12.	father	:	Fa	50.	son	:	So
14.	uncle	:	FaBr	51.	niece	:	BrDa
15.	aunt	:	FaSi	52.	nephew	:	BrSo
21.	cousin	:	MoSiDa	53.	niece	:	SiDa
24.	cousin	:	MoSiSo	54.	nephew	:	SiSo
25.	cousin	:	MoBrDa	55.	granddaughter	:	DaDa
28.	cousin	:	MoBrSo	56.	grandson	:	DaSo
				57.	granddaughter	:	SoDa
				58.	grandson	:	SoSo

It is obvious that some lexemes are used to refer to more than one relative.

The above list, therefore, can be summarized as follows:

1,3.	grandmother	:	MoMo; FaMo
2,4.	grandfather	:	MoFa; FaFa
7, 15.	aunt	:	MoSi; FaSi
10, 14.	uncle	:	MoBr; FaBr
11.	mother	:	Mo
12.	father	:	Fa
21; 24; 25; 28;		:	MoSiDa; MoSiSo; MoBrDa; MoBrSo;
35; 38; 39; 42.	cousin	:	FaBrDa; FaBrSo; FaSiDa; FaSiSo
29 (f)	wife	:	Wi (for male Ego)
29 (m)	husband	:	Hu (for female Ego)
32.	brother	:	Br

33.	sister	:	Si
47.	daughter	:	Da
50.	son	:	So
51; 53.	niece	:	BrDa; SiDa
52; 54.	nephew	:	BrSo; SiSo
55; 57.	granddaughter	:	DaDa; SoDa
56; 58.	grandson	:	DaSo; SoSo

These kin terms may be presented in Figure 9 ; terms referring to relationships not under consideration are omitted.

The semantic features involved in the labelling of the above relatives are their [Sex] e.g. 'brother' vs. 'sister', [Generation] e.g. 'father' vs. 'grandfather', and [Lineality] e.g. 'sister' vs. 'cousin'. The diagram symbolizes these relatives as they would appear for Ego's generation, two ascending generations and two generations below Ego. The terms are the same whether Ego is male or female.

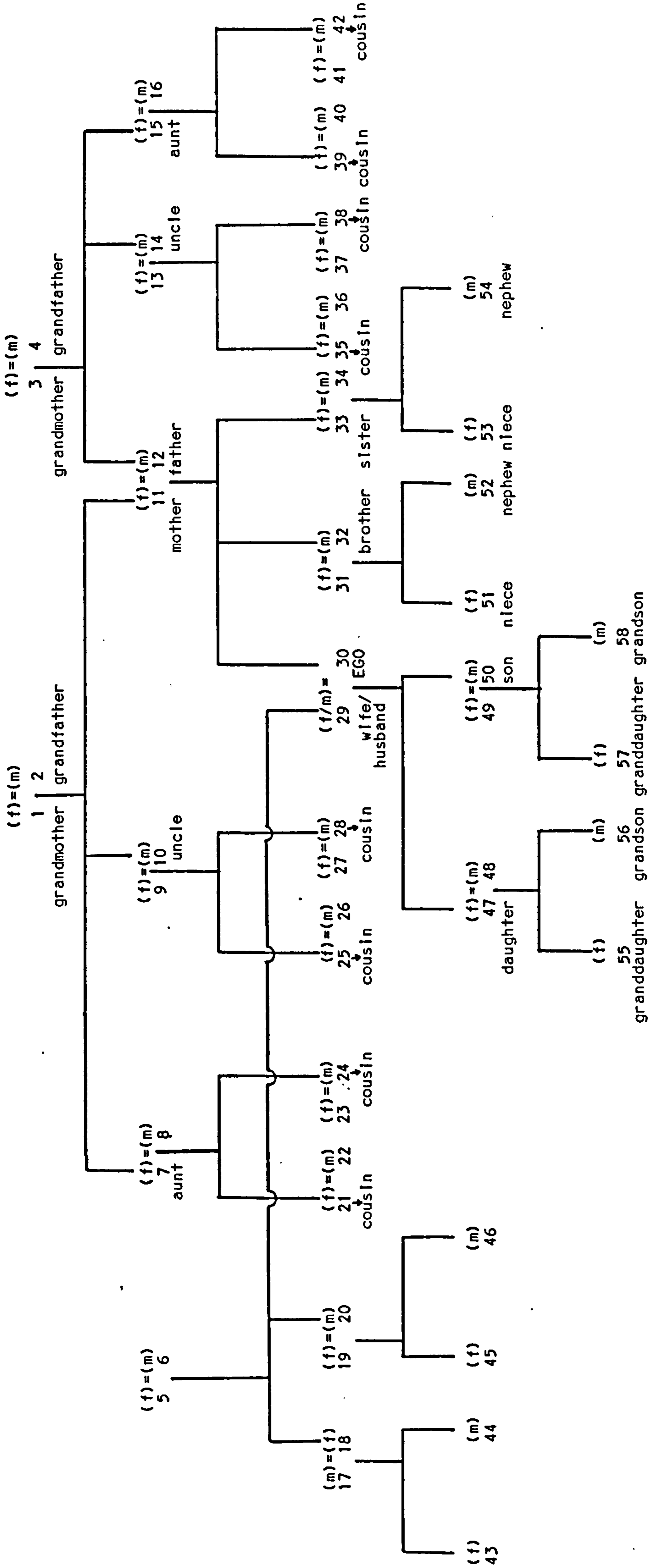


Figure 9

Kinship System in English: Consanguineal Relationships

(Terms referring to affinal relations are omitted as these are not under consideration in this diagram)

### 5.2.1.2. English Affinal Terms

As with consanguineal terms, the description and analysis here deals with affinal terms used for reference. Using the same syntactically-controlled context as that used for consanguineal relatives, we may arrive at the following list for English affinal relatives. Obviously, it is a restricted list but it is, we believe, sufficient for our purpose here.

#### 1. Own spouse

- |     |        |           |
|-----|--------|-----------|
| 29. | (f) Wi | (wife)    |
|     | (m) Hu | (husband) |

#### 2 (a) Spouse's closest consanguineal relatives

- |     |      |                  |
|-----|------|------------------|
| 5.  | SpMo | (mother-in-law)  |
| 6.  | SpFa | (father-in-law)  |
| 18. | SpSi | (sister-in-law)  |
| 20. | SpBr | (brother-in-law) |

#### (b) Spouses of Ego's own closest consanguineal relatives

- |     |      |                   |
|-----|------|-------------------|
| 31. | BrWi | (sister-in-law)   |
| 34. | SiHu | (brother-in-law)  |
| 48. | DaHu | (son-in-law)      |
| 49. | SoWi | (daughter-in-law) |

#### 3. Spouse's sibling's children

- |     |        |          |
|-----|--------|----------|
| 43. | SpSiDa | (niece)  |
| 44. | SpSiSo | (nephew) |
| 45. | SpBrDa | (niece)  |
| 46. | SpBrSo | (nephew) |

#### 4. (a) Spouses of aunts and uncles

- |     |        |         |
|-----|--------|---------|
| 8.  | MoSiHu | (uncle) |
| 9.  | MoBrWi | (aunt)  |
| 13. | FaBrWi | (aunt)  |
| 16. | FaSiHu | (uncle) |

#### (b) Spouses of cousins

- |     |          |                 |
|-----|----------|-----------------|
| 22. | MoSiDaHu | (cousin-in-law) |
| 23. | MoSiSoWi | (cousin-in-law) |
| 26. | MoBrDaHu | (cousin-in-law) |
| 27. | MoBrSoWi | (cousin-in-law) |
| 36. | FaBrDaHu | (cousin-in-law) |
| 37. | FaBrSoWi | (cousin-in-law) |
| 40. | FaSiDaHu | (cousin-in-law) |
| 41. | FaSiSoWi | (cousin-in-law) |

These relationships may be presented in a diagram as follows:

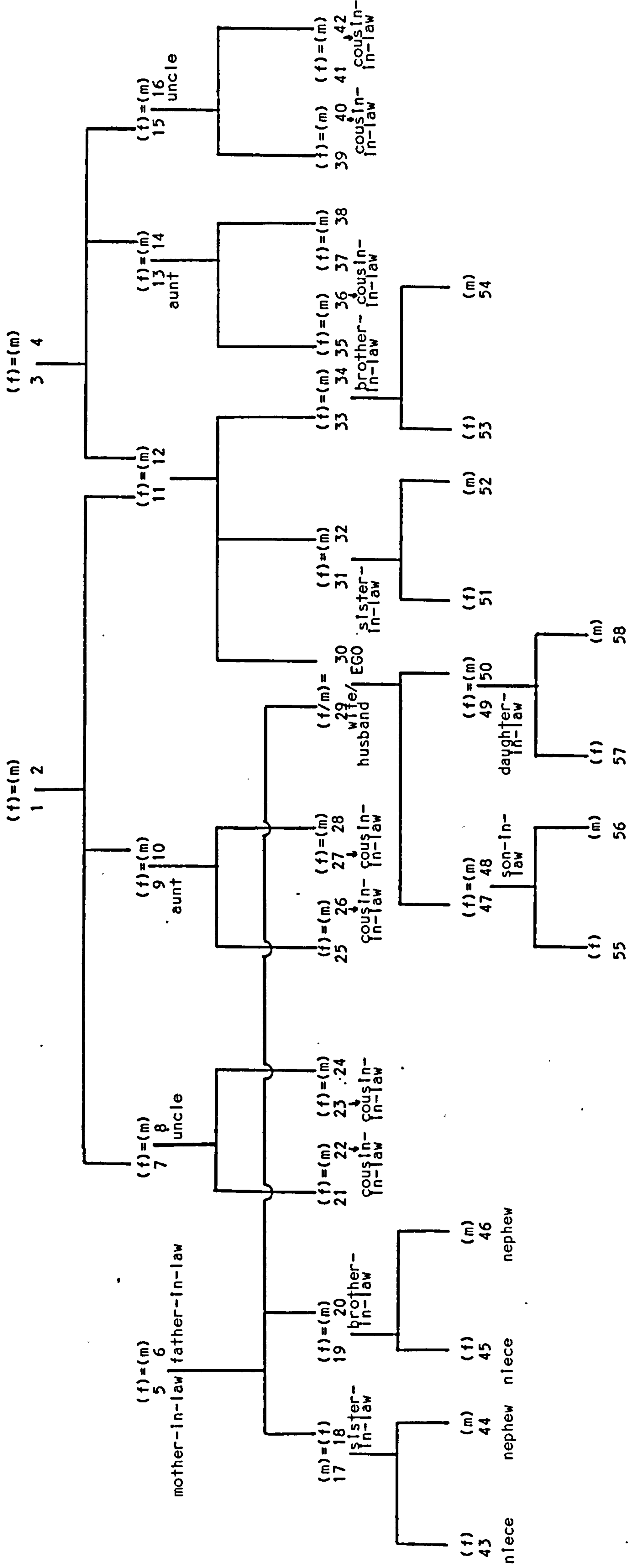


Figure 10

Kinship System In English: Affinal Relationships

(Terms referring to Consanguineal relations are omitted as these are not under consideration here)

To start with, the matter seems clear enough. There are at least the following distinguishable classes which can be referred to as 'relatives by marriage'. First, there is Ego's own spouse, for whom there are basic kin terms, 'wife' (No. 29 - f) and 'husband' (No. 29 - m). Second, there are the closest blood relatives of Ego's own spouse, namely, 'mother-in-law' (No. 5), 'father-in-law' (No. 6), 'sister-in-law' (No. 18) and 'brother-in-law' (No. 20) respectively. Also among this class are the spouses of Ego's own close consanguineal relatives, viz. 'sister-in-law' (No. 31), 'brother-in-law' (No. 34), 'son-in-law' (No. 48) and 'daughter-in-law' (No. 49). All these are derived lexemes consisting of a basic kin term functioning as a stem and the suffix '- in-law' to indicate the affinal relationship. These derivative kin terms are to be regarded as single lexemes since the suffix '- in-law' is not generalizable to all basic terms. We do not, for example, have 'aunt-in-law' or 'uncle-in-law'. Third, there are spouse's sibling's children for whom two consanguineal terms are used, 'niece' (Nos. 43, 45) and 'nephew' (Nos. 44, 46). Fourth, there are those who are the spouses of any of the remainder of Ego's blood relatives, i.e. all those except daughter's husband and son's wife. This would include, for instance, cousin's spouses. For some of these relatives, consanguineal terms may be used such as 'uncle' (Nos. 8, 16), 'aunt' (Nos. 9, 13); or derivative kin terms such as 'cousin-in-law' (Nos. 22, 23, 26, 27, 36, 37, 40, 41). The term 'cousin-in-law' is to be regarded as a single lexeme for the same reason that we regard 'brother-in-law' as one lexeme. As for the relationships symbolized by (17) and (19) there seem to be no lexemes to stand for them.

The ambiguities of the phrases 'in-laws' and 'relatives by marriage' begin to appear when we consider the fact that different ways of tracing connections by marriage are possible. Difficulties start from the fact that a son's wife and daughter's husband, for example, are 'daughter-in-law' and 'son-in-law', but uncle's wife and aunt's husband do not take the



'- in-law'. They are 'aunt' and 'uncle' and are not distinguished from the consanguineal relatives referred to by these terms. 'Aunt' can refer to FaSi, FaBrWi, MoSi and MoBrWi; 'uncle' can be FaBr, FaSiHu, MoBr or MoSiHu.

Death, divorce and remarriage all raise special problems which further complicate matters. Here again the problem of the uncle or aunt married to a blood relative can be a source of some uncertainty. It is sometimes the case that the husband of an aunt or the wife of an uncle are 'uncle' and 'aunt' only as long as they remain married to Ego's blood relatives. This follows from the fact that they are uncle and aunt just because they are the husband of an aunt or the wife of an uncle. When they are no longer related by marriage, that is, when their marriage is over because of, for example, divorce, they are no longer strictly 'uncle' or 'aunt'. Nevertheless, if Ego has developed a special relationship such as that of affection with an aunt's husband or an uncle's wife, then Ego may not cease to refer to this person as 'uncle' or 'aunt' even if the marriage breaks up. For some people an uncle is an 'uncle' when a special relationship obtains directly with him, and so too an aunt.<sup>3</sup> But these are complications which we shall regard as irrelevant for our present purpose.

### 5.2.2. Kinship in Arabic

Following the same procedure used in the analysis of English kinship terms, we shall start here with the consanguineal Arabic terms used for reference and then deal with those used for affinal relatives.

#### 5.2.2.1. Arabic Consanguineal Terms

For convenience of reference, Arabic kin items are given below in a diagram (Figure 11) prior to their analysis. The semantic features involved in labelling these relations here are the same as those for English, viz. their [Sex] e.g. /ʔax/:Br vs. /ʔuxt/:Si; [Generation] e.g. /ʕab/:Fa vs. /dʒadd/:FaFa;MoFa and [Lineality] e.g. /xa:l/:MoBr vs. /ʕamm/:FaBr. The same terms are used whether Ego is male or female.

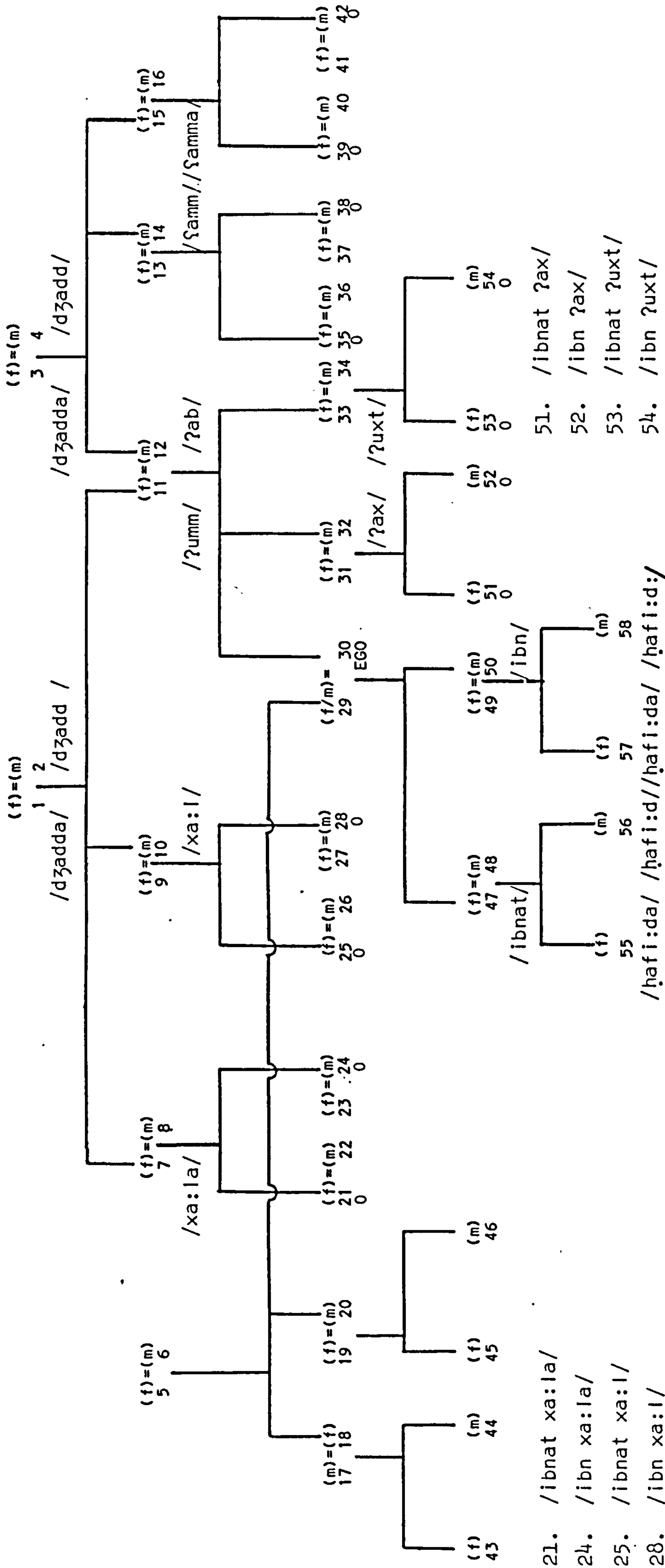


Figure 11

Kinship System in Arabic: Consanguineal Relationships

Notes: 1. The symbol (0) indicates a lexical gap; viz. there is no

lexeme denoting the relative indicated.

2. For lack of space, non-lexicalized expressions are not given under the relevant numbers.

The terms are:

1. /dʒadda/	: MoMo	32. /ʔax/	: Br
2. /dʒadd/	: MoFa	33. /ʔuxt/	: Si
3. /dʒadda/	: FaMo	35. /ibnat ʕamm/	: FaBrDa
4. /dʒadd/	: FaFa	38. /ibn ʕamm/	: FaBrSo
7. /xa:la/	: MoSi	39. /ibnat ʕamma/	: FaSiDa
10. /xa:l/	: MoBr	42. /ibn ʕamma/	: FaSiSo
11. /ʔumm/	: Mo	47. /ibnat/	: Da
12. /ʔab/	: Fa	50. /ibn/	: So
14. /ʕamm/	: FaBr	51. /ibnat ʔax/	: BrDa
15. /ʕamma/	: FaSi	52. /ibn ʔax/	: BrSo
21. /ibnat xa:la/	: MoSiDa	53. /ibnat ʔuxt/	: SiDa
24. /ibn xa:la/	: MoSiSo	54. /ibn ʔuxt/	: SiSo
25. /ibnat xa:l/	: MoBrDa	55. /ḥafi:da/	: DaDa
28. /ibn xa:l/	: MoBrSo	56. /ḥafi:d/	: DaSo
		57. /ḥafi:da/	: SoDa
		58. /ḥafi:d/	: SoSo

Arabic consanguineal terms given above can be divided into two types according to whether they consist of lexemes or 'non-lexicalized' expressions:

Lexemes e.g. /ʔab/ (No. 12) : Fa

Non-lexicalized expressions e.g. /ibn ʕamm/ (No. 38) : FaBrSo

Terms of the first type are indivisible, i.e. they cannot be analysed into parts with kinship meanings. Non-lexicalized expressions consist of two lexemes to denote a specific relationship, for example /ibn/ (No. 50: So) and /ʕamm/ (No. 14: FaBr) will give the non-lexicalized expression /ibn ʕamm/ (No. 38: FaBrSo). We can here talk about lexical gaps in the Arabic kinship system since the non-lexicalized expressions are formed by combining two lexemes according to the productive (i.e. syntactic) rules of the language. The rules can be generalized to all other kin terms so that we may have /ibn ibn/ : SoSo instead of /ḥafi:d/ (No. 58); /ibnat ibn/ : SoDa instead of /ḥafi:da/ (No. 57). The non-lexicalized expressions in the above diagram are Nos. 21, 24, 25, 28, 35, 38, 39, 42, 51, 52, 53 and 54.

The question concerning such lexemes as /dʒadd/ (Nos. 2, 4 referring to MoFa and FaFa) and /dʒadda/ (Nos. 1, 3 referring to MoMo and FaMo) is whether to regard them as one lexeme with /dʒadda/ as derived from /dʒadd/ with the addition of the suffix /-a/ which is regularly associated with feminine gender in Arabic, or to regard them as two separate lexemes. Certainly,

a pair like /ʔab/ (No. 12: Fa) and /ʔumm/ (No. 11: Mo) does differ morphologically from /dʒadd/ (Nos. 2, 4: MoFa, FaFa) and /dʒadda/ (Nos. 1, 3: MoMo, FaMo). There is no morphological similarity between the two lexemes in the first pair whereas there is obvious morphological one in the second. However, semantically /dʒadd/ and /dʒadda/ are to be regarded as two separate lexemes used to refer to two different affinal relatives as the suffix /-a/ is not generalizable to all kin terms. The same holds true with other pairs e.g.

/ʕamm/ (No. 14: FaBr)	/ʕamma/	(No. 15: FaSi)
/xa:l/ (No. 10: MoBr)	/xa:la/	(No. 7: MoSi)
/ħafi:d/ (Nos. 56, 58: DaSo, SoSo)	/ħafi:da/	(Nos. 55, 58: DaDa, SoDa).

#### 5.2.2.2. Arabic Affinal Terms

Before analysing the Arabic terms for affinal relatives, it may be helpful to present the Arabic affinal terms first in a diagram (Figure 12). The terms are used for reference by a male or female Ego except terms No. 20 /nasi:b/: WiBr and No. 18 /nasi:ba/ : WiSi which are replaced, for a female Ego, by /ħamu/ and /ħamat/ respectively.

The affinal terms presented here are assumed to have been collected using the same syntactically-controlled context as that employed in obtaining the other kin terms discussed so far.

5.	/ʕamma/	:SpMo		
6.	/ʕamm/	:SpFa		
8.	/xa:l/	:MoSiHu		
9.	/xa:la/	:MoBrWi		
13.	/ʕamma/	:FaBrWi		
16.	/ʕamm/	:FaSiHu		
18.	/nasi:ba/	:WiSi	>( male Ego)	/ħamu/
20.	/nasi:b/	:WiBr		/ħamat/ >(female Ego)
22.	/zawdʒ ibnat xa:la/	:MoSiDaHu		
23.	/zawdʒat ibn xa:la/	:MoSiHuWi		
26.	/zawdʒ ibnat xa:l/	:MoSiDaHu		
27.	/zawdʒat ibn xa:l/	:MoBrSoWi		
29.	(f) /zawdʒat/	:Wi		
	(m) /zawdʒ/	:Hu		
30.	Ego			
31.	/nasi:ba/	:BrWi		
34.	/nasi:b/	:SiHu		
36.	/zawdʒ ibnat ʕamm/	:FaBrDaHu		
37.	/zawdʒat ibn ʕamm/	:FaBrSoWi		

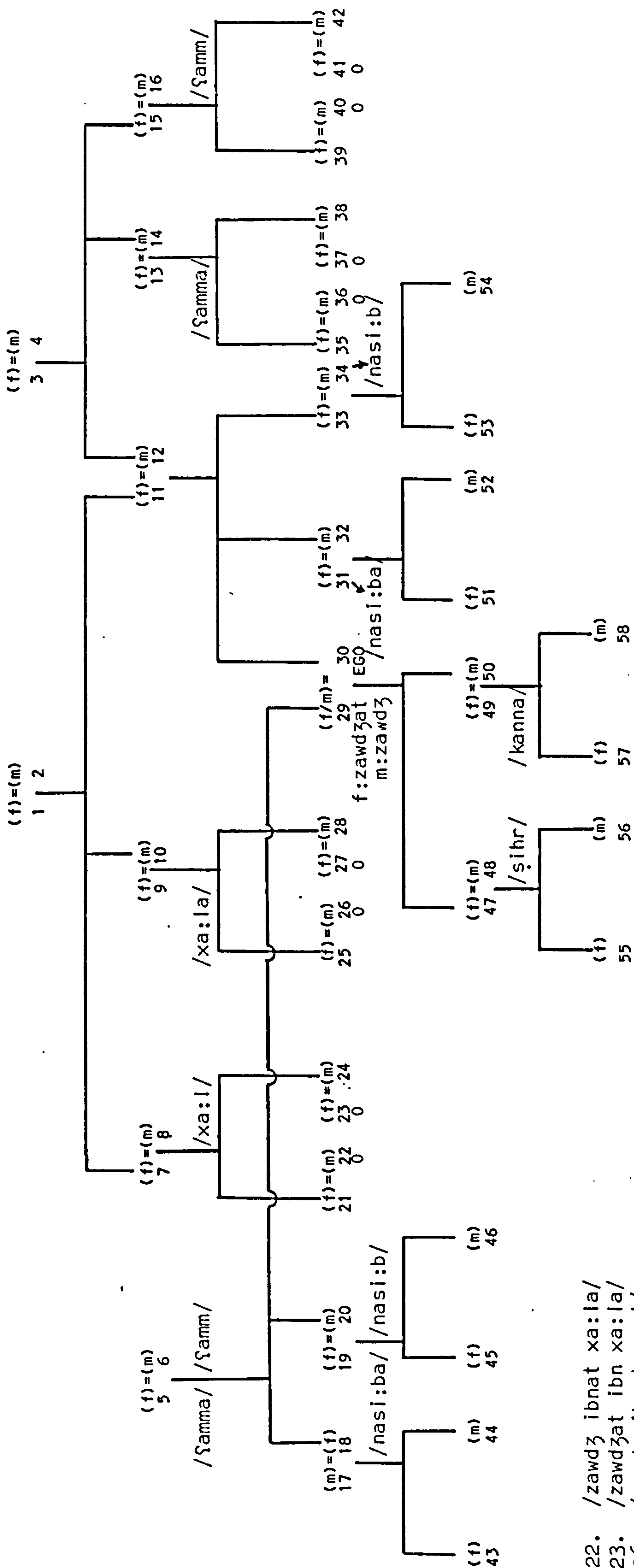


Figure 12

Kinship System In Arabic: Affinal Relationships

- Notes: 1. The symbol (0) indicates a lexical gap.  
 2. For lack of space, non-lexicalized expressions are not written under the relevant numbers.

- 22. /zawdz ibnat xa:la/
- 23. /zawdzat ibn xa:la/
- 26. /zawdz ibnat xa:l/
- 27. /zawdzat ibn xa:l/
- 36. /zawdz ibnat sam/
- 37. /zawdzat ibn sam/
- 40. /zawdz ibnat samma/
- 41. /zawdzat ibn samma/

40. /zawdz ibnat řamma/	:	FaSiDaHu
41. /zawdzat ibn řamma/	:	FaSiSoWi
48. /řihř/	:	DaHu
49. /kanna/	:	SoWi

There are three ways of referring to affinal relatives in Arabic: the first is by using special kin terms which are used exclusively for affinal relatives:

/zawdz/	(No. 29)(m)	:	Hu
/zawdzat/	(No. 29)(f)	:	Wi
/nasi:b/	(male Ego)	:	SpBr (No. 20) and SiHu (No. 34)
/nasi:ba/	(male Ego)	:	SpSi (No. 18) and BrWi (No. 31)
/řamu/	(female Ego)	:	SpBr (No. 20) and SiHu (No. 34)
/řamat/	(female Ego)	:	SpSi (No. 18) and BrWi (No. 31)
/řihř/	(No. 48)	:	DaHu
/kanna/	(No. 49)	:	SoWi

The second way is to use terms which are also employed for consanguineal relatives. This category includes:

/řamm/	(No. 6)	SpFa; (No. 16) FaSiHu (The term is also used to refer to FaBr cf. No. 14 Figure 11.)
/řamma/	(No. 5)	SpMo; (No. 13) FaBrWi (also used for FaSi cf. No. 15 Figure 11)
/xa:l/	(No. 8)	MoSiHu (also used for MoBr cf. No. 10 Figure 11)
/xa:la/	(No. 9)	MoBrWi (also used for MoSi cf. No. 7 Figure 11)

It is interesting to note here that the consanguineal lexeme /řamm/ :FaBr No. 14 Figure 11 and /řamma/ :DaSi No. 15 Figure 11 are also used to refer to spouse's father and mother respectively, i.e. the affinal relationship in which the spouse's father and mother are involved is dealt with through uncle and aunt rather than through father or mother as it is the case in English.

The third way of referring to affinal relatives in Arabic is by the use of the term /zawdz/ : Hu No. 29 (m) Figure 11 and /zawdzat/ : Wi No. 29 (f) Figure 11 plus consanguineal terms. This category includes:

/zawdz ibnat řamm/	(No. 36) :	FaBrDaHu
/zawdzat ibn řamm/	(No. 37) :	FaBrSoWi
/zawdz ibnat řamma/	(No. 40) :	FaSiDaHu
/zawdzat ibn řamma/	(No. 41) :	FaSiSoWi
/zawdz ibnat xa:la/	(No. 22) :	MoSiDaHu
/zawdzat ibn xa:la/	(No. 23) :	MoSiSoWi
/zawdz ibnat xa:l/	(No. 26) :	MoBrDaHu
/zawdzat ibn xa:l/	(No. 27) :	MoBrSoWi

These are to be regarded as non-lexicalized expressions since they can easily be manipulated through the productive (syntactic) rules of the language as the element /zawdʒ/ : Hu and /zawdʒat/ : Wi can be added to all the consanguineal terms and the relationship is still that of kinship e.g. /zawdʒ ʕamma/ to refer to FaSiHu instead of the normal term /ʕamm/ No. 16; /zawdʒat xa:l/ to refer to MoBrWi instead of /xa:la/ No. 9 etc.<sup>4</sup>

### 5.2.3. Points of Similarities and Differences

It should be clear by now that there are some similarities as there are striking differences in the way English and Arabic divide the semantic space of kinship. Let us start with the consanguineal relationships and compare English and Arabic terms used to refer to them. Figure 13 compares these terms:

Relationships	English Terms	Arabic Terms (non-lexicalized expressions between brackets)
MoMo; FaMo	grandmother	/dʒadda/
MoFa; FaFa	grandfather	/dʒadd/
MoSi; FaSi	aunt	/xa:la/ ; /ʕamma/
MoBr; FaBr	uncle	/xa:l/ ; /ʕamm/
Mo	mother	/ʔumm/
Fa	father	/ʔab/
MoSiDa		( /ibnat xa:la/ )
MoSiSo		( /ibn xa:la/ )
MoBrDa		( /ibnat xa:l/ )
MoBrSo	cousin	( /ibn xa:l/ )
FaBrDa		( /ibnat ʕamm/ )
FaBrSo		( /ibn ʕamm/ )
FaSiDa		( /ibnat ʕamma/ )
FaSiSo		( /ibn ʕamm/ )
Br	brother	/ʔax/
Si	sister	/ʔuxt/
Da	daughter	/ibnat/
So	son	/ibn/
BrDa; SiDa	niece	( /ibnat ʔaxl; ) ( /ibnat ʔuxt )
BrSo; SiSo	nephew	( /ibn ʔax ; ) ( /ibn ʔuxt/ )
SoDa; DaDa	granddaughter	/ħafi:da/
SoSo; DaSo	grandson	/ħafi:d/

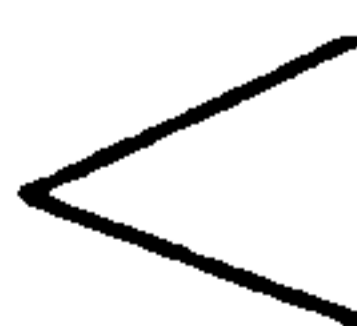
Figure 13 : English and Arabic Consanguineal Terms.

In both languages there is one one lexeme to refer to FaFa and MoFa - the sex of the linking relative is ignored; English uses 'grandfather', Arabic /dʒadd/. We find the same similarity with FaMo and MoMo for which English uses the lexeme 'grandmother' and Arabic /dʒadda/. The same applies also to English 'grandson' (SoSo ; DaSo); 'granddaughter' (SoDa ; DaDa) and Arabic /ħafi:d/ (SoSo; DaSo) and /ħafi:da/(SoDa; DaDa) respectively.

Another similarity is observed in the relationships of the 'immediate family' where some of the English and Arabic lexemes can be put into a one-to-one correspondence as follows:

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
father	/ʔab/
mother	/ʔumm/
brother	/ʔax/
sister	/ʔuxt/
son	/ibn/
daughter	/ibnat/

More striking, however, are the differences in the way the two languages deal with the consanguineal relationships. For these relationships, English uses 15 terms whereas Arabic makes use of 14 lexemes and 12 non-lexicalized expressions. For the English lexeme 'uncle' there are two Arabic lexemes: /xa:l/ referring to MoBr and /ʕamm/ for FaBr; for the English lexeme 'aunt' there are two Arabic counterparts: /xa:la/ which is used to refer to MoSi and /ʕamma/ to FaSi. For each of the English lexemes 'nephew' and 'niece' there are two Arabic non-lexicalized expressions: for 'nephew' there are /ibn ʔax/: BrSo and /ibn ʔuxt/ :SiSo; and for 'niece' there are also two - /ibnat ʔax / : BrDa and /ibnat ʔuxt/ : SiDa. These differences may be presented as follows:

uncle		/xa:l/	(No. 10)
		/ʕamm/	(No. 14)



aunt		/xa:la/	(No. 7)
		/ʕamma/	(No. 15)
nephew		/ibn ʔax/	(No. 52)
		/ibn ʔuxt/	(No. 54)
niece		/ibnat ʔax/	(No. 51)
		/ibnat ʔuxt/	(No. 53)

The matter gets more complicated when we compare the semantic area covered by the English lexeme 'cousin' with how the same area is dealt with in Arabic. There are eight Arabic non-lexicalized expressions dividing up the semantic area that is divided by the English lexeme 'cousin':

'cousin'		/ibnat xa:la/	(No. 21)
		/ibn xa:la/	(No. 24)
		/ibnat xa:l/	(No. 25)
		/ibn xa:l/	(No. 28)
		/ibnat ʕamm/	(No. 35)
		/ibn ʕamm/	(No. 38)
		/ibnat ʕamma/	(No. 39)
		/ibn ʕamma/	(No. 42)

In the cases where Arabic uses non-lexicalized expressions to refer to consanguineal relationships we may speak of lexical gaps in the Arabic consanguineal system. However, Arabic may be regarded as more specific than English in referring to these relationships as it uses a non-lexicalized expression for each relationship. English, on the other hand, uses one term to refer to a number of relationships as it is the case with the term 'cousin'.

English makes use of the suffix '- in-law' functioning as a second element in many compound lexical items e.g. 'father-in-law', 'mother-in-law', 'brother-in-law', 'sister-in-law', etc. Arabic, on the other hand, makes a similar use of two terms /zawdʒ/ : Hu and /zawdʒat/ : Wi added to a number of consanguineal terms forming non-lexicalized expressions referring to affinal relationships e.g. /zawdʒat ibn ʔamm/ FaBrSoWi; /zawdʒat ibn xa:la/ MoSiSoWi.

Compared with Arabic, English uses a very limited number of terms

to describe the affinal relationships. While English uses (11) terms, Arabic uses (22) terms and non-lexicalized expressions to describe the same set of relationships. In English the same affinal terms are used regardless of the sex of Ego e.g. 'brother-in-law'; 'sister-in-law'. In Arabic, on the other hand, the two lexemes /nasi:b/ "brother-in-law" and /nasi:ba/ "sister-in-law" which are used by a male Ego are replaced, when Ego is female, by /ḥamu/ and /ḥamat/ respectively. As a result, the English terms 'brother-in-law' and 'sister-in-law' have four counterparts in Arabic: /nasi:b/ ; /nasi:ba/ ; /ḥamu/ and /ḥamat/ depending upon the sex of Ego.

Another point of difference is the way the two languages refer to spouse's father and mother. English refers to spouse's father and mother as 'father-in-law' and 'mother-in-law' dealing with the affinity through 'father' and 'mother', which may be regarded as logical since we are dealing with fathers and mothers. Interestingly enough, Arabic deals with the relationship through "paternal uncle" and "paternal aunt" using the consanguineal terms /ṣamm/ "paternal uncle" and /ṣamma/ "paternal aunt" to refer to the spouse's father and mother respectively (see 4.5 for an explanation of such a use).

English has two separate lexemes for 'husband' and 'wife' functioning as co-hyponyms to the lexeme 'spouse' which itself functions as a superordinate. Arabic also uses two terms /zawdz/ : Hu and /zawdzat/ : Wi but the latter is often replaced by /ṣa:ʔila/ (lit. "family"). There is no Arabic superordinate for these terms.

### 5.3. Field of Killing

The field of "Killing" to be discussed here will be restricted to the killing of human beings and will thus include such lexemes as 'assassinate' and 'execute' which are not normally used to refer to the killing of other sorts of creatures. Further, the discussion will be limited, for brevity, to two parts of speech: verbs and nouns.

### 5.3.1. Delimitation of the Field

One of the main difficulties with semantic field analysis is the delimitation of any particular field to be analysed. With the field of "Kinship" discussed in the previous section we have confined ourselves to those members which fit into a syntactically-controlled context in reference to some consanguineal and affinal relatives. Here with the field of "Killing" we have consulted a number of English dictionaries and thesauri.<sup>5</sup> The result is a collection of a number of lexical items belonging to the field of "Killing Human Beings" such as:

#### verbs;

'kill, slay, murder, assassinate, massacre, slaughter, execute, butcher, suffocate, asphyxiate, strangle, martyr, hang, dispatch, garrotte, decimate, gibbet, behead, decapitate, guillotine, exterminate, eliminate, liquidate, etc.'

#### Nouns:

'killing, slaying, murder, assassination, massacre, slaughter, execution, butchery, suffocation, asphyxiation, strangulation, martyrdom, hanging, dispatch, decimation, etc.'

To these we can add another set of lexemes which are not used as verbs e.g. 'pogrom, manslaughter, holocaust, suicide, carnage, etc.'

It has been found that, unlike the field of "Kinship" which is a rather closed field, the field of "Killing" is open-ended in the sense that any lexeme or lexical unit which is used to refer to the killing of human beings (whether it is basic, peripheral, metaphorical, euphemistic, etc.) can be included in the field. In addition to those mentioned above, we can thus add such lexical units as 'put to death', 'commit suicide', 'wipe out', etc.

The aim of the contrastive lexical analysis being carried out here is rather limited. It is not to show in detail all the similarities and differences

existing between semantic fields, or some fields, in English and Arabic. Rather, it is to show, in a general way, some of the similarities and differences between the two languages in dividing up the semantic spaces of some fields or subfields. In the light of this limited aim, it seems reasonable to restrict the treatment of the field of "Killing" to only a subfield consisting of some basic lexical items. This seems sufficient to show how the two languages divide up the same semantic area within the broader field. The subfield chosen for this purpose is the one given by LLOCE (1981) based on a well-known EFL dictionary, viz. LDOCE (1978). The subfield includes 'kill, murder, assassinate, massacre, slaughter, butcher'. The lexeme 'execute' has been added to broaden the analysis in terms of contrasting features and also because 'execute' occurs in the teaching materials used in the experiment (see Appendix 7).

### 5.3.2. Field Analysis

Basing the analysis of the subfield chosen on the dictionary definitions of the lexemes, we have been able to construct the following componential grid:

	deprivation of life	deliberateness	judicial sanction	illegality	importance of victim	large number of victims involved
kill	+					
murder	+	+		+		
assassinate	+	+		+	+	
massacre	+	+		+		+
slaughter	+	+		+		+
butcher	+	+		+		
execute	+	+	+			

Figure 14: Componential Analysis of Part of the Field of "Killing Human Beings"  
( The use of the notation is explained in 4.2.1.)

If we add new lexemes to the subfield, we need then a new set of features in addition to the features already used. Thus if we nominalize the lexemes in the subfield and add some new lexemes e.g. 'pogrom, manslaughter, holocaust, suicide and carnage,' we may need at least the following set of features in addition to those used in the componential grid above:

	long duration	not intentionally	organized process	official connivance	killing of oneself
pogrom	+		+	+	
manslaughter		+			
holocaust	+		+		
suicide			+		+
carnage	+		+		

Figure 15: Additional Semantic Features  
( needed when Figure 14 is expanded)

### 5.3.3. Semantic Mapping

Thus far we have discussed the subfield of "Killing Human Beings" and analysed it componentially in English. No analysis has yet been made of the subfield in Arabic. We could follow the same procedure as we did with the field of "Kinship", viz. to analyse the subfield in English and Arabic in turn and then contrast the two analyses for points of similarities and differences. However, this does not seem necessary with the subfield of "Killing" here as there appear to be no significant differences in the set of semantic features needed for the analysis. We can easily make a new table with more or less the same semantic features as those used for the English subfield and plot into it the Arabic lexemes and non-lexicalized expressions. Such an exercise does not seem to yield any significant results. What we need

to do instead is to contrast the subfield as analysed in English with its counterpart in Arabic in terms of the lexemes or lexical gaps it contains. It is hoped this semantic mapping of the subfield will enable us to see how the two languages divide up the semantic space of the field. We shall start with the verbs.

For the lexemes 'kill', 'assassinate' and 'execute', there are Arabic equivalents which have exactly the same applicability.

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
kill	/jaqtul /
assassinate	/jaɣta:l /
execute	/jaʕdum /

For the English lexemes 'murder' (v), 'butcher' (v) (human beings), 'slaughter' (v) (human beings) and 'massacre' (v) there are lexical gaps in Arabic, i.e. there are no Arabic lexemes to refer to what English refers to by single lexemes. Instead, Arabic uses non-lexicalized expressions to convey the meanings of these lexemes. Thus we have:

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
murder (v)	/jartakib dʒari:mat qatl/(lit. "commit the crime of killing") - non-lexicalized expression
butcher (v) slaughter (v)	/jartakib madʒ zara/ (lit. "carry out a butchery or slaughter") - non-lexicalized expression
massacre (v)	/jartakib maðbaħa/ (lit. "carry out a massacre") - non-lexicalized expression

Let us analyse the first non-lexicalized expression that stands for the lexeme 'murder' i.e. /jartakib dʒari:mat qatl /. The verb /jartakib/ is equivalent to the English verb 'commit' or 'carry out'; the noun /dʒari:mat/ is equivalent to the lexeme 'crime' in English. The non-lexicalized expression /jartakib dʒari:mat qatl / can easily be manipulated in Arabic by substituting the last component/qatl /("killing"). Thus we have:

/jartakib dʒari:mat qatl/	(lit. "commit the crime of killing")
/jartakib dʒari:mat sariqa/	(lit. "commit the crime of theft")
/jartakib dʒari:mat xja:na/	(lit. "commit the crime of treason")
/jartakib dʒari:mat tazwi:r/	(lit. "commit the crime of forgery")
etc.	

If we move to the field of "Killing" (nouns), we also find a number

of lexical gaps in Arabic. We can show the semantic mapping of the subfield in the two languages by starting with the English lexemes which have Arabic equivalents with exactly the same applicability as follows:

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
killling	/qatI/
assassination	/iɣtja:l/
execution	/iʕda:m/
suicide	/intiħa:r/

The semantic area covered in English by the lexemes 'massacre', 'slaughter', 'butchery' and 'carnage' are denoted by two synonymous lexemes in Arabic. Thus:

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
massacre slaughter butchery carnage	/madʒzara/                      or                      /maðbaħa/

One can hardly find any diagnostic semantic features to distinguish the senses of these lexemes in Arabic when they are used as nouns.

There are no Arabic lexemes for 'pogrom', 'manslaughter' and 'holocaust'. Arabic refers to what these lexemes refer to in English in the following way:

<u>English</u>	<u>Arabic</u>
pogrom	/maðbaħa munazama/                      (lit. "organized massacre") - non-lexicalized expression.
manslaughter	/dzari:mat qatI ɣajer mutaʕamad/                      (lit. "the crime of unintentional killing") - definition
holocaust	/iba:da ka:mila bil iħra:q/                      (lit. "complete destruction of human beings by using fire") - definition.

#### 5.4. Conclusions

One of the most promising areas for the application of field theory would seem to lie in the comparison of the ways in which aspects of extra-linguistic reality are lexically divided up in different languages. It is a general observation by many linguists, as well as by others, that the semantic spaces of many fields cannot be brought into a one-to-one relationship with one

another when these fields are contrasted in two (or more) languages (e.g. Lyons, 1963, 1968, 1977; Lehrer, 1974; and Hartmann, 1975). In this chapter we have compared two semantic fields, or more precisely subfields, in English and Arabic: "Kinship" and "Killing Human Beings".

The field of "Kinship", a highly culture-specific field, has been extensively studied with illuminating results (e.g. Lounsbury, 1956, 1964, 1969; Wallace and Atkins, 1960; Romney and D'Anrade, 1964; Goodenough, 1965; Romney, 1965 and Brown, 1976). As for the field of "Killing", we know of no contrastive semantic analysis done in terms of the field approach advocated here.

We have discussed the field of "Kinship" at some length because it is so often used as an example to demonstrate the way in which the same substance may have a different form imposed upon it by different languages. It has been shown that the field in English differs sharply from that in Arabic. The difference is both in terms of the number of lexemes used to denote kinship relationships and in terms of the range of relationships each lexeme is used to describe. A striking example is the semantic area covered by the lexeme 'cousin' in English and the same area covered in Arabic by the use of eight non-lexicalized expressions. This may be represented as follows:

English	c o u s i n							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Arabic	ibn ʕamm	ibnat ʕamm	ibn ʕamma	ibnat ʕamma	ibn xa:l	ibnat xa:l	ibn xa:la	ibnat xa:la

Figure 16: The Semantic Area of 'cousin' in English and Arabic

English kinship is an example of the kind of kinship system found in a modern, western society. It is notably different from the Arabic system which operates in an oriental society different in its culture, social norms and traditions. The cultural gap between English and Arabic societies is reflected clearly in the kinship system. Let us take an example. The father's brother in the Arabic society occupies a special place. He is entitled, by



tradition, to assume 'family authority' in the absence of the 'real father' and take decisions concerning the welfare of the family members. For instance, when a person is deprived of his father for any reason, e.g. by death, his father's brother usually takes him into his care. A girl is usually expected to marry her father's brother's son (if there is one) and she rarely refuses to do so if requested. In the Arabic kinship system, the father's brother takes the place next to the 'real father' in importance. This seems to have given the term / ʕamm/: FaBr a prominent place in the Arabic kinship system. In the English culture, on the other hand, the father's brother does not occupy the same place it occupies in the Arabic culture. The use of the term 'father-in-law' for SpFa in English may be regarded as 'logical' since the reference is to a 'father' rather than an 'uncle'. In the Arabic culture it is inconceivable for someone to have a 'second father'. The father's brother, because of his 'family importance', takes the place of the 'second father'; hence the use of the term / ʕamm / for SpFa in Arabic. This supports Lyons' (1968: 432) remark that the language of a particular society is an integral part of its culture.

However, as there are differences between the two kinship systems, there are also similarities as most of the terms referring to the 'immediate family' e.g. 'father': /ʔab /; 'mother': / ʔumm /; 'brother': /ʔax / etc. can easily be seen to correspond to one another as has been shown.

As for the field of "Killing" we may say that the analysis has been more limited. Yet, the field does show, though in a general way, that English and Arabic do differ in the semantic mapping of reality even if this reality is the same for both societies. Arabic is characterized by a large number of lexical gaps to describe what English refers to by using single lexemes. Arabic thus resorts to non-lexicalized expressions to describe some of the semantic areas in the field of "Killing" e.g. the use of the expression / dʒa:ri:mat qatl / (lit. "the crime of killing") to render the meaning of the English lexeme 'murder'. However, we agree with Lehrer (1974: 105-7)

that while we can talk about lexical gaps in a language, we cannot talk about semantic gaps as it is usually the case that a phrase or a definition is used for a specific meaning. This is very true about the field of "Killing" in Arabic.

We may conclude that if a comparison is to be made of the lexicons of two (or more) languages, it is then more revealing to contrast the systems, or at least the subsystems (i.e. the fields) to which the lexical items belong rather than making a comparison of one lexeme with another. This suggests a new approach to contrastive lexical analysis — an approach based on contrasting lexis in fields rather than as 'atomistic units' as has been the traditional practice. The new approach has at least the advantage of 'comprehensiveness'; the meaning of a lexical item can be seen and contrasted as a unit in a system rather than in isolation.

NOTES TO CHAPTER FIVE

1. 'Arabic' here refers to modern written Arabic, viz. the form of the language which, throughout the Arab world from Iraq to Morocco, is found in the prose of books, newspapers, etc. and is employed in formal public address. It provides a medium of communication over the vast geographical area whose numerous and widely diverse local dialects it transcends.
2. Functionally, kinship terms can be divided into two categories: addressive and referential. Addressive terms are used vocatively i.e. in direct addressing. In usual circumstances Ego might say 'father' instead of the referential term 'father-in-law'.
3. See, for example, Goodenough, 1965: 267.
4. There is something interesting about the term /zawdzat/ :Wi. It is socially unacceptable for the majority of non-educated, and even some educated Arabs, to use /zawdzat/ as a referential term; the term /ʕa:ʔila/ (literally "family") is used instead. The term is also replaced by /ʕa:qi:la/ in formal occasions when the reference is to a personality's wife such as the President's, the Governor's etc. On the other hand, the term /zawdz/ (No. 30) (:Hu) may also be used to refer to one's wife in formal literary Arabic.
5. These are: LDOCE, LLOCE, WNDOS, OALDOCE, and CMGTS.

## CHAPTER SIX

### LEXIS AND FIELDS IN EFL TEACHING MATERIALS:

#### SELECTION AND GRADATION

##### 6.1. Introductory

The organization of lexis in EFL teaching materials stems from the conviction that the learning of a foreign language can be made easier if there is some objectivity in selecting the lexical items to be taught, and arranging these items in an appropriate sequence.

This is not the place for a critical and detailed review of the literature on this topic, but a brief discussion of the criteria that have been proposed, and used, for organizing lexis in EFL materials will be useful as it helps us to see the place of lexis and semantic fields in the teaching materials currently in use in EFL situations. The organization of lexis involves two stages: (i) Selection; and (ii) Gradation. We shall deal with each stage in turn.

##### 6.2. Selection

Since it is impossible to teach the whole of a language, it becomes essential to select that part of the language which is thought to meet the objectives of the teaching course.

Having decided on the particular variety of the language (dialect or register) then comes the selection from within this variety of the items that are to be included in the teaching materials. The most important criteria that have been used for the selection of lexis in foreign language situations are: (1) Frequency; (2) Range; (3) Availability; (4) Coverage; and (5) Teachability.

##### 6.2.1. Frequency

The notion of frequency is self-evident. It is based on the assumption that the more frequent a lexical item is, the more useful it is for the learner. The common lexical items are, therefore, to be taught before the rare ones, and the frequency of each individual item is decided by counting

the item concerned in written and/or spoken texts. We shall mention here only a few of the frequency lists; some of which have been designed for pedagogical purposes.

A well-known pedagogical frequency list for English is that by Thorndike: Teacher's Word Book published in 1921. Thorndike was interested in improving the texts from which American children learnt to read and in making it easier for them to acquire a wide reading vocabulary. By counting the occurrences of 'words' in four and a half million words of text he established the frequency of the commonest 5,000 'words' in the materials he selected. In 1944 Thorndike and Lorge produced The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words (TWB) based on a sample of four million running 'words' from forty-one printed sources. Another pedagogical frequency list for English is The General Service List (GSL) by West published in 1953. It is based on the 2,000 'words' of the Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection and Control, and on two semantic counts.

A number of shortcomings were bound to emerge in the above frequency lists. The materials in which the 'words' were counted were all written. The differences between written and spoken language and between the different language functions which writing and speaking fulfil means that any sample which consists only of written materials must be unrepresentative of the range of uses of the language as a whole. The use of written material in these counts was justified on the grounds that the results were to be used for the teaching of reading and writing. But the lists established by the counts were later used as a basis for selecting lexis for L<sub>2</sub> teaching, including the teaching of the spoken language. Another feature common to almost all frequency lists was the large degree of agreement between them up to 1,500 items and then the rapid increase in differences as the statistical validity of the smaller number of occurrences decreased because the subject matter exerted an increasing effect. The above lists were designed for use

in American schools and consequently have a slight American bias. Moreover, the lists are now a generation out of date.

There is one further limitation which is of special interest to us. This is the treatment of semantic fields and the lexical items within these fields. For example, if the concrete nouns in GSL are grouped into semantic fields we discover that the list has excluded some basic items. In the field of "Animals" the list includes 'bear', 'cat', 'chicken', 'cow', 'dog', 'donkey', 'elephant', 'horse', 'monkey', 'rabbit', 'pig' and 'sheep'. It excludes 'lion', 'tiger', 'wolf', 'fox' and 'buffalo'. In the field of "Occupations" it includes 'doctor', 'engineer', 'teacher', 'nurse', 'footman', and 'bodyguard'. It omits 'carpenter', 'mason', 'plumber', and 'blacksmith' (Richards, 1974: 71). Provided, however, that these and other shortcomings are allowed for, the TWB and GSL are most valuable documents and useful sources of guidance for the selection of vocabulary for teaching purposes.

Two more recent word frequency counts of English need to be mentioned here. The first is Kučera and Francis (1967), Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English, based on the Brown Corpus; the second is the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus of British English (LOB) completed in 1981. Both sources of data, rather than concentrating on limited types of texts to be used for specific purposes, aim at a general representation of the text types for use in research on a broad range of aspects of the language.<sup>1</sup>

Although these two counts are not pedagogically-orientated as TWB and GSL are, they clearly have many implications (and applications) for the selection of lexis in EFL teaching materials; but such aspects of the counts are yet to be investigated.

### 6.2.2. Range

Many lexical items have frequencies which are not at all stable, being high in some texts and situations and low in others. The number of texts in which an item occurs is its range. The greater the range of an item,

the more important its frequency. The frequency of an item used in many contexts and situations is more important than that of an item used in only one. A lexical item may, therefore, not be selected for teaching if it has a very low range even though its frequency may be high. Vander Beke (1929) for whom range eventually took precedence over frequency, noticed that of the 19,253 different words in the material he analysed 13,186 (i.e. 68.5%) occurred in less than half the texts. They were, therefore, eliminated because their range was not considered great enough to justify their inclusion. This left only 6,068 for the final list. In more recent counts simple range has been superseded by more sophisticated measures of dispersion, but the principle remains the same.

### 6.2.3. Availability (Disponibilité)

The availability of a lexical item is established by L<sub>1</sub> speakers' responses rather than by the statistical analysis of texts. Subjects are asked to list the items which they would find most useful in certain defined areas of interest, situations or topics.

This is done in order to include in the vocabulary selection list words absent from the frequency list but nevertheless intuitively felt to be necessary. The degree of availability of a lexeme corresponds to the readiness with which it is remembered and used in a certain situation or topic. The criterion of 'disponibilité' was extensively used in the devising of Le Français Fondamental or 'Basic French'. By asking several thousand school children in widely separated regions of France to list the twenty most useful items on a number of topics, a very large number of word-lists were collected and then analysed in close detail to establish for each topic which words occurred with the greatest frequency in the various lists of the subjects. In the field of "Furniture", for example, the lexeme 'table' was universally given but 'vitrine' was rather rare. The lexeme 'table' is then more 'disponible' or available as a lexeme relating to furniture than is 'vitrine'. From these lists the lexemes of greatest

availability were selected for each topic and these lexemes were added to the frequency-based vocabulary list.

#### 6.2.4. Coverage

The coverage of a lexical item can be established by the number of other items which it can replace in contexts. For example, in English the lexeme 'seat' can replace 'chair', 'bench' and 'stool' in the field of "Furniture". The lexeme 'seat' is thus said to have a wider coverage than 'chair' or any of the other lexemes in the field. Mackey and Savard (1967) suggest four constituents or indices for coverage as a criterion of vocabulary selection. These are:

- (i) Inclusion: as in the examples of 'seat' above. It is clear that what we have here is the sense-relation of hyponymy - the lexeme 'seat' is the superordinate and the others are the hyponyms (see 4.1.2.);
- (ii) Extension: as when the meaning of a lexeme e.g. 'branch' is extended to include the meaning of another e.g. 'tributary' of a river.;
- (iii) Combination: a lexeme which can combine with a large number of items can normally be used to replace other lexemes in different contexts e.g. the combination 'handbook' replaces 'manual';
- (iv) Definition: as when 'gosling' is defined as a 'young goose'; and 'puppy' as a 'young dog'. The lexeme 'young' is regarded as more useful because it helps define other lexemes. It is lexemes of such defining capacity that West (1935) includes in his 'definition vocabulary' - a selection of 1,490 items designed, as he claims, to enable the EFL learner to read any text with the help of a monolingual dictionary using only this vocabulary to define all other lexical items. We shall take up this point about using definition in EFL in a later section (see 7.4.1.).

#### 6.2.5. Teachability

Some lexical items are selected on the basis of how easy they are to teach in the light of the techniques for teaching meaning. Items like



'door', 'window', and 'blackboard' are included in a selection list because their meaning is easy to teach by ostensive techniques within the learner's immediate environment (i.e. the classroom). They are clearly easier to teach than a lexeme like 'insurance' which may require a complex definition or translation. Mist and fog are unknown in the Sudan and the lexemes which stand for them (i.e. 'mist' and 'fog') are difficult to understand there. Cultural differences are another factor affecting the teachability of certain lexemes and are clearly to be taken into account when selecting lexis for teaching. The practical experience of the classroom teacher in any language teaching situation must, therefore, feed back to the syllabus design in such a way that, where a choice has to be made between two lexical items, one of the factors to be considered is the teachability of the meanings of these items.

The criteria of selection discussed above clearly have immediate application in semantic field analysis particularly when this analysis is carried out for teaching purposes. Such an analysis should start with the fields whose members have higher frequency, wider range, availability and coverage than others or whose members are easier to teach, and suit the learners' cultural background. Together with the theoretical criteria of basic vs. peripheral lexical items discussed in 3.3.2.1. the criteria of selection above put us in a better position when we wish to select a number of semantic fields, or a number of lexical items within these fields, from the total number of fields found in the language to be analysed and taught.

### 6.3. Gradation

Once an inventory of teaching items has been arrived at according to the criteria of selection, it must be arranged in a way suitable for practical teaching purposes. The process of ordering the language for teaching is usually referred to as 'gradation'.<sup>2</sup> The gradation process can be subdivided into two distinct operations: 'staging' which refers to the organization of

the teaching items into blocks of the right size for the various years, terms, months, weeks, days and classes of the teaching course; while the second operation 'sequencing' refers to the problem of deciding the order in which the items should be taught. Both operations are often imposed upon the teacher by official decisions particularly in EFL situations. The operation of staging is educational and administrative more than linguistic. We shall, therefore, be concerned here with only the sequencing of lexical items in textbooks or other sorts of teaching materials with special reference to the arrangement of lexis in semantic fields.

### 6.3.1. Linear and Spiral Arrangement

Prior to discussing what sort of arrangement the lexical content in a textbook or teaching course material may take, it seems useful to discuss two types of arrangement that may be used in sequencing lexis (or grammatical structures). We shall deal with these two types of arrangement as they affect lexical gradation. The sequencing of lexis may take the form of a simple linear sequence of lexemes or groups of lexemes. The lexemes are introduced one after the other with the implication that each lexeme is 'learnt' at the place in the course where it is first introduced. There is no attempt at bringing the lexemes together or trying to systematically relate the previously taught lexemes to the lexemes that are being taught. This type of arrangement has many drawbacks. First, it runs counter to the notion of structuring in the lexicon which, as we have argued, is a network of relations and interrelated categories where lexemes are related to one another however loose these relations may be in some areas of vocabulary. To adopt the linear sequencing is to behave as though no such relations existed in the lexicon. Secondly, the natural process of learning a language is not just cumulative as the linear arrangement assumes; it is 'spiral' or 'cyclic' in the sense that the same things keep turning up in different situations. The learner is required to return time and again to some aspects of the

teaching input in order to discover how it relates to or is integrated with the part of the language being taught. In its most primitive form a spiral arrangement means no more than the regular inclusion of 'revision' sections into a linear syllabus. In its sophisticated form, it means returning to some language aspect and developing a deeper or more extensive understanding of the items involved. In the case of the lexical content, the 'linear' and 'spiral' arrangement may be illustrated in Figure 17.

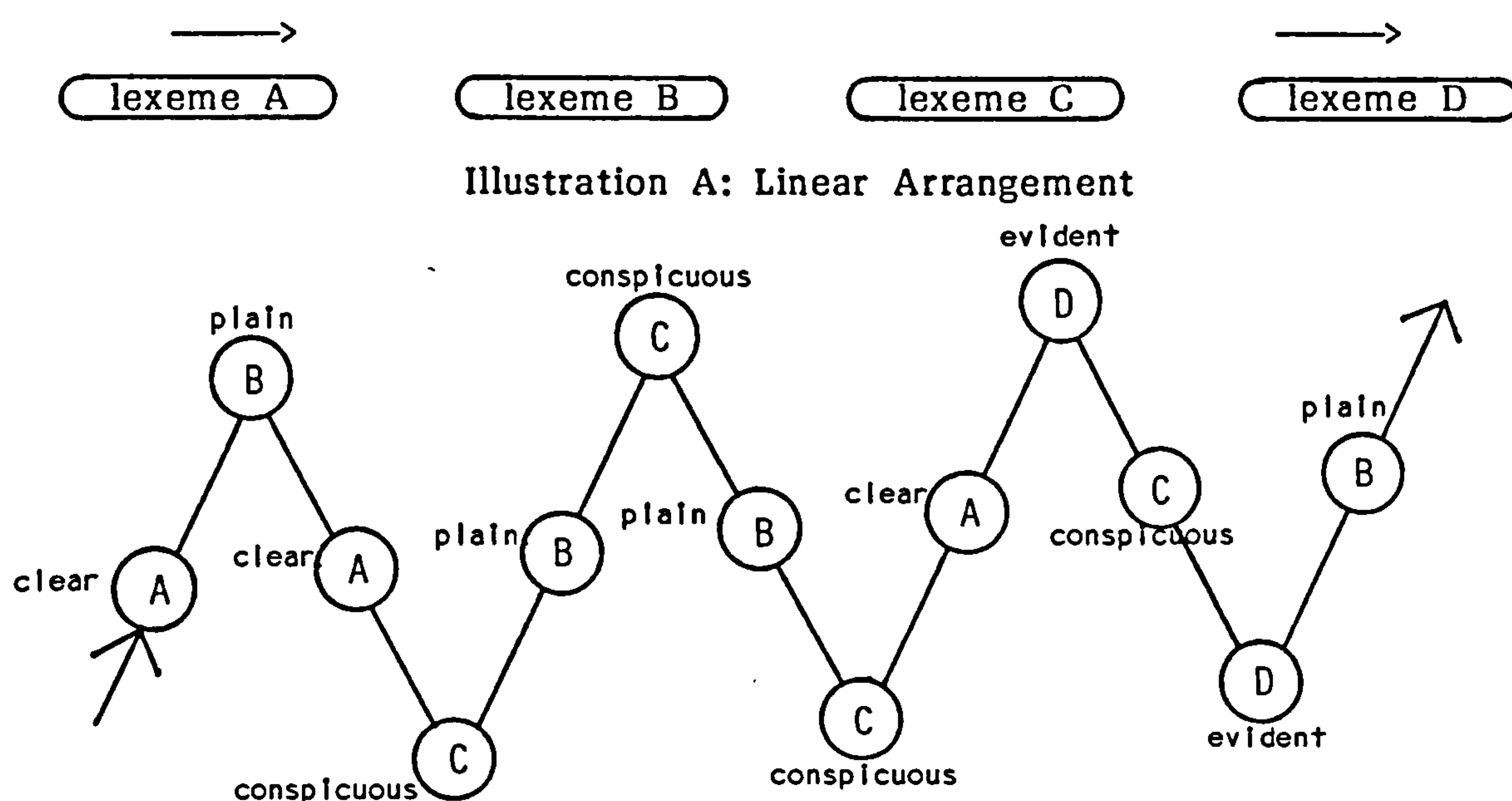


Figure 17: Linear and Spiral Arrangement  
(adapted from Corder, 1973: 297)

In illustration B we have a number of semantically related lexemes 'clear', 'plain', 'conspicuous', 'evident' which may be thought of as part of the field of "Clarity" (or "Being Clear"). The linear arrangement will introduce these lexemes at different points in the course with hardly any attempt at relating one lexeme to another or revising the lexemes already taught, say 'clear' and 'plain', in the light of those being taught at a particular moment, say 'conspicuous' and 'evident'. The spiral arrangement will make use of both revising and drawing the learner's attention to the semantic

relations between lexemes and the distinctions in their meanings.

Any actual course or syllabus could be placed somewhere on the continuum between the wholly linear and the wholly cyclic but the actual decision procedures that have been followed in the process of arrangement will show that it tends towards one pole or the other.

We now return to the sequencing of lexis in the syllabus and the criteria involved in this sequencing. In general, lexical items that are in frequent use need to be taught first and according to their frequency. The criterion of frequency thus helps to decide whether an item shall be selected for inclusion at all; it also helps to decide the sequence in which the items selected shall be taught. The same applies to the other criteria of range, availability, coverage, teachability, etc. The following is a brief discussion of the gradation (arrangement) of lexis in different syllabuses and teaching materials.

### 6.3.2. Lexical Gradation in Syllabuses and Textbooks

#### 6.3.2.1. Grammatically-Based Gradation

In a grammatically-based syllabus the lexical content is determined either in accordance with the criteria of selection mentioned above or in accordance with the need for a lexical content that helps illustrate the grammatical patterns presented, with the result that there hardly seem to be any criteria in introducing some lexemes before others as is the case with the EFL textbooks used in Iraqi schools (see 6.4).

A grammatical syllabus can be 'situationalized' with the use of the item 'situation' in a very limited sense. Here language is taught in association with some physical characteristics of the classroom. Objects, pictures and actions are used to illustrate and give meaning to the lexical items and grammatical patterns. Such classroom situations clearly do not resemble situations of natural language use and have very little communicative value. Other sorts of situations in the form of dialogues may also be devised to

present the language material but the main aim remains the teaching of certain grammatical patterns.

#### 6.3.2.2. Situationally-Based Gradation

A situational syllabus is designed on the assumption that it takes learners' situational needs in natural language use as the starting-point. The syllabus tries to predict the situations in which the learner is likely to need the language that is necessary to communicate in these situations. It is generally more effective than a grammatically-based syllabus as it usually includes what is most relevant to the learner. The syllabus thus consists of three steps: the selection of certain situations determined by the learners' needs, the gradation of these situations and finally the choice of items of 'verbal behaviour' which could fill them. The unit of verbal behaviour is the utterance not the grammatical pattern. The teaching units in the syllabus would have situational rather than grammatical labels 'At the Post Office', 'At the Bank', 'Going on a Holiday', etc. The resulting material would be thus grammatically heterogeneous reflecting how things are in real life where situations do not contain grammatically uniform language. However, in most existing 'situational' textbooks grammatical structures tend to be more or less homogeneous and seem to have been selected and graded according to some criteria (subjective or objective) even though such criteria are not stated by the authors.

Situational syllabuses have been widely used with varying degrees of success in EFL. However, there have been some criticisms of them particularly those made by Wilkins (1976). As Wilkins argues, situational syllabuses seem to assume that the speaker is somehow linguistically at the mercy of the physical situation in which he finds himself. What the individual says is what he has chosen to say in a particular situation; it is a matter of his intentions and purposes. Language use in a given situation is, therefore, never entirely predictable. One may go to the post office not to buy stamps but to complain about the non-arrival of a parcel, to change some money for making a telephone

call or to offer an invitation to a friend working there.

In the situational syllabus, vocabulary is selected and graded according to their appropriateness to the anticipated situations of language use. In a situation like 'At the Airport' the following lexical items may be selected: 'aeroplane', 'wings', 'body', 'engines', 'airhostess', 'passengers', 'pilot', 'engineers', 'control-tower', 'customs', 'runway'. In a different situation, say 'A Holiday at the Seaside', another set of lexical items may be selected e.g. 'fishing-boat', 'harbour', 'beach', 'seashore', 'cliffs', 'pier', 'beach-chair', 'bathing-costume', 'bikini', 'sunshade', 'wind-break', 'surf-board', etc. The lexical content is thus selected and graded according to the situations included in the syllabus.

#### 6.3.2.3. Topically-Based Gradation

Related to the situational syllabus is another type often referred to as the 'topical' or 'thematic' syllabus which is based on the use of topics or themes as an organizing principle of arranging the teaching materials. Cook (1971: 72), Hawkes (1974: 18) and van Ek (1975: 13) speak of 'topics'; Howatt and Treacher (mentioned by Corder, 1973: 318) of 'themes'; Spicer (1969: 155) of 'centres of interest', and Abbe (1971: 12) of 'subject matter'. In spite of the differences in these labels, they have one thing in common: they see topics as the determinant of the course design and, one assumes, the principle for the gradation of lexis involved. A topic like "Travelling", for example, includes such lexemes as 'travel', 'tour', 'journey', 'voyage', 'tourism', 'emigration', 'trip', 'caravan', 'airplane', 'travel agent', 'hotel', 'hostel', etc. The relationship between topics and semantic fields will be discussed in 6.3.2.5.

#### 6.3.2.4. Notionally-Based and Functionally-Based Gradation

Another recent type of syllabus is the notional syllabus which has attracted an enormous amount of attention.<sup>3</sup> The idea of notions has been developed mainly within the Council of Europe project but has been principally developed by Wilkins (1974, 1976, 1981). According to Wilkins, structural

syllabuses give too little attention to what the learner wishes to do with language as the emphasis is on the mastery of the grammatical structures; situational syllabuses fail to exploit the fact that most of what people do with language is common to a wide range of situations. To avoid these drawbacks, Wilkins has suggested the use of 'notions' as the main organizing principle for syllabus design. Here, the process of deciding what to teach is based on considerations of what the learners should most usefully be able to communicate in the foreign language. A general language course will be concerned with those notions and functions that are likely to be of widest value to the learners. Wilkins (1976: 21-3) suggests notional categories for three types of meaning:

(i) Semantico-grammatical categories: to cover 'ideational' or what we have already referred to as 'descriptive meaning'.<sup>4</sup> This is the basic conceptual meaning expressed by the forms within the sentence. In the construction of any sentence the nature of the ideational meaning that the speaker wishes to convey leads us to select an appropriate form of the sentence. It is because of the close relationship between semantics and grammar, that it is feasible to approach decisions about grammatical forms to be taught through semantics.<sup>5</sup>

(ii) Modal categories: to deal with those modifying features of the language which expresses the speaker's attitude towards what he is saying. He vouches for the degree of validity that his statement has. He may present it as simply an objective truth or indicate something that is desired rather than positively asserted or is potential rather than actual.<sup>6</sup>

(iii) Categories of communicative functions: which incorporate the various speech acts that may be performed through language.<sup>7</sup> Wilkins regards these categories as the more original part of the framework and are intended to handle the social use of language.

The organization of lexis in a notional syllabus is very similar to that of situational or topical syllabuses. To a certain, though limited, extent the semantico-grammatical categories have implications for the lexical content.

Notions of time, quantity, and space cannot be expressed without an appropriate lexicon. The model categories through which the speaker communicates his emotional reactions also require a certain set of lexical items. Lexemes like 'certain', 'inevitable', 'likely', 'possible', 'sure', all belong to a set expressing the notion of scale of certainty. Categories of communicative function, though they do not so much demand a specific lexical content, often operate on a lexicon related to the function being performed. This can clearly be seen from the six types of communicative functions given by Wilkins (1976: 44-54). For example, in each of the following functional categories there is a set of lexical items which can be properly regarded as members of the same semantic field.

1. Judgment and Evaluation: This category deals with assessment and the subsequent expression of those assessments. e.g.

Valuation: 'estimate, value, assess, appreciate, judge, rank, place, grade, overestimate, etc.'

Verdiction: 'pronounce, rule, find, award, etc.'

Approval: 'approve, appreciate, comment, praise, etc.'

2. Suasion: These are categories of utterance designed to affect the behaviour of others. e.g.

Inducement: 'persuade, suggest, advise, recommend, advocate, exhort, beg, urge, incite, etc.'

Compulsion: 'command, order, dictate, direct, compel, force, oblige, prohibit, forbid, etc.'

Tolerance: 'allow, tolerate, grant, consent, agree, permit, authorize, etc.'

It is clear that each set of lexical items in the subcategories above may be considered a subfield belonging to a large semantic field headed by the general category (i.e. by 'Judgment' or 'Suasion'). The lists of lexemes are also very much similar to those found in a thesaurus like Roget's. A relationship, therefore, can be seen between the notional syllabus and semantic field analysis. An analysis of language into fields or lexical sets



will clearly help in selecting and organizing the lexical content of a notional syllabus, though the organization will ultimately depend upon the order of notions to be taught.

The use of such functional categories as 'Valuation', 'Identification', 'Approval', 'Disapproval', 'Argument', 'Permission', etc. have given rise to another type of syllabus - the functional syllabus which would involve the use of only the functional part of the notional framework. But for Wilkins (1976: 68) this is the weakest application of the notional approach and that only a syllabus which covers all the types of categories mentioned above is a fully notional syllabus.

What we have just said about the organization of lexis according to communicative functions in a notional syllabus applies exactly here. The lexical content in a functional syllabus is graded according to the order of functions being expressed by the syllabus and this ordering is done, presumably, according to learners' needs.

#### 6.3.2.5. Semantic-Field Gradation

As yet, there has not been a 'semantic field' syllabus as such. The most one finds is the unsystematic (and mostly inexplicit) use of the notion of 'semantic field' in different types of syllabuses like the topical and notional syllabuses as mentioned above. Within a topic or notion (or even a situation) it is quite common to use lexical items related by semantic fields though often this relation is not made explicit and though there may also be a large number of items which are not related by any field. There is one notable exception. The Words You Need (henceforth TWYN) by Rudska et al. (1981a) is a recent textbook designed within a semantic field framework. We shall deal briefly with the approach used in the textbook and how lexis is organized in it though we do not wish our discussion to be a 'review' of the book.<sup>8</sup>

The textbook is divided into ten units, which cover a wide range of topics such as beauty, health, man's relation to his environment, family life,

education and work. Each topic is represented by a number of texts. The texts, some of which are very short, are followed by glossaries explained in English, the target language, and by a Discussion section in which the students are invited to debate along fairly traditional lines.

The most important aspect, and most relevant to our discussion here, is the Word Study section which is divided in each unit into two parts: A and B. In Part A, lexical items are presented in semantic fields, or in contrasting pairs consisting of two members of a field. This is done according to two approaches: first a modified form of componential analysis; and second, collocation. The modified form is based on the same assumption as our 'simplified' approach to componential analysis dealt with in 4.2.4. and used in our experiment (see Chapter Eight). The collocations of the field members are dealt with by means of collocational grids (see 7.4.3. for the use of grids in EFL).

In Part B of the Word Study section pairs of synonymous lexemes are presented with some 'informal' explanation of the differences in their sense being analysed. The analysis of 'synonymous pairs' is also done in terms of a modified form of componential analysis and collocations. But the other sense-relations (e.g. complementarity, converseness and incompatibility) have not been dealt with explicitly as one expects from a textbook based on a semantic field approach. It might have been more helpful if, instead of the Synonymous Pairs section, the authors had included a section on Sense-Relations - synonymy being one of these relations (cf. Appendix 8 which gives the analysis of these relations as used in our experiment).

The learner envisaged by the authors is one who has a "basic vocabulary of 2,000 to 2,500 words" (Teacher Book, p.1). The assumption is that these 'words' will be more or less the same for all learners. The "new words" selected (700 or so, according to the index), derive from the themes of the ten units of the book. However, it is not clear what the authors mean

by the term 'word' or what criteria they have employed for the selection of the words included in the units. More important is the selection and gradation of the fields which seem to have been done on a more or less subjective basis: we are not informed why the authors have selected the fields used in the textbook and not others and how they have graded these fields though they have obviously relied upon their experience in language teaching. Strictly speaking, the approach used in the textbook is a Topical-Semantic Field approach. Each unit, as mentioned above, begins with a topic not a semantic field. The topic is represented by a number of texts related to the theme of the unit. At the end of each unit there are Exercises which aim at checking and consolidating what is presented in Parts A and B of the Word Study section. Some of the exercises are fairly traditional vocabulary activities familiar to most EFL teachers (e.g. providing opposites, giving derivatives, gap-filling, etc.). But the majority of these Exercises are novel ones derived from the componential and collocational analyses used in the units.

#### 6.4. EFL Textbooks in Iraq

The series of English textbooks officially prescribed for EFL in Iraqi general schools (i.e. non-vocational schools) is a home-produced series of textbooks entitled The New English Course for Iraq (henceforth TNECI).<sup>9</sup> The series covers eight years of study from the fifth primary (11 years of age) to the sixth secondary (around 18 years of age). For each year there is a Book; thus the series comprises Books One to Eight. With Books Six, Seven and Eight there is a Literary Reader dealing with a short simplified novel from English literature. Book Seven of this series is of particular interest to us as it is the textbook designed for the Fifth Secondary Classes with whom we carried out an experiment in the use of semantic field analysis for the teaching of lexis. Part of this book was used in the experiment and is given in Appendix 4. What seems necessary here is to discuss the

rationale behind the design of the series and the teaching approach to be followed by EFL teachers in Iraq when using TNECI textbooks.

The educational authorities in Iraq have adopted the structural approach for the teaching of English in Iraqi schools.<sup>10</sup> Language teachers are required to give their pupils a mastery over the formal structural patterns of the language together with training on the essential features of the English sound system. The grammatical structures may be repeatedly presented to the learner in a variety of situations. The assumption is that once the grammatical system and the basic features of the sound system have been learned, the pupil will know how to put the system to use in the reception and production of the language. We have already discussed this assumption in 1.2.

As expected from a 'rigid' grammatically-based textbook like TNECI, lexis is given a very minor role and "new words are presented only when they are needed to present structures" (TNECI, Book One, Teacher's Guide p.8). What is more peculiar is that vocabulary, according to the authors of TNECI, should be kept away from the learning process itself as it is not part of it:

"The reason behind this [i.e. keeping vocabulary away from the learning process] is the conviction that vocabulary learning is not the same as language learning. On the contrary, vocabulary often hinders [my emphasis] the process of language acquisition."<sup>11</sup>  
(Hamash, 1978: 86-7).

Since lexis is given this minor role in TNECI, one does not find any treatment of semantic fields in Iraqi EFL textbooks. Also one does not know what criteria have been used by the authors of TNECI in the selection of the lexical content or the gradation of this content in the textbooks. But from what has been said above, lexical items are introduced where there is a need to present the grammatical structures; yet even the gradation of these structures does not follow any stated criteria and they seem to have been graded on a subjective basis. However, the gradation of grammatical structures

is an issue which need not concern us here.

### 6.5. Selection, Gradation and Learners' Objectives

Obviously, the process of selection and gradation is related to language-learning objectives. A teaching material (e.g. a textbook) should include those items (lexical, grammatical, etc.) which are supposed to meet the learners' objectives in learning a foreign language. For example, in the case of a textbook in EFL for dentists the learners need to be exposed to dentistry terms and expressions that may be of rare occurrence in the general use of English. This leads us to the selection of lexis for ESP (English for Specific Purposes), where it may not be difficult to decide what lexical items should be included in the teaching materials.

In the EFL situations where English is learnt for 'general' purposes (e.g. in secondary schools), the task of selection and gradation becomes rather difficult because of the 'vague' objectives of the teaching course. The traditional division of language activities into four skills: 'speaking', 'listening', 'writing' and 'reading' (with 'understanding' as an important ingredient in each skill) is not entirely adequate as there is still a need to determine what aspects of these skills are to be mastered and in what degree; for example, how much fluency in spoken English the learners are supposed to acquire or how much reading vocabulary they have to learn, bearing in mind that these aspects differ considerably from one EFL situation to another. It is true that language-learning objectives must be geared towards learners' needs but the basic problem still remains: how to determine exactly what the learners need to do with, in our case, English as a foreign language in, for example, 'general' secondary schools. To tackle the problem in terms of situations, topics, notions, functions or semantic fields may make the task clearer but no less difficult as we still need to decide what situations, topics, notions, functions and fields are most relevant to the learners' needs and thus would make an efficient teaching material, and in what sequence these should be presented.

The process of selection and gradation may not seem a problem in designing a teaching material for a group of learners with well-defined language-learning objectives but this is not the typical case in EFL situations. In these situations the process is linked to ill-defined or partially-defined objectives related to a wide range of factors: educational, social, cultural, political, etc. This makes the process a complicated operation and difficult to determine on merely linguistic considerations. In Chapter Eleven we shall briefly discuss the objectives of learning EFL in Iraqi secondary schools and suggest some recommendations, arising out of our research, for the process of selecting and grading lexical items in Iraqi EFL teaching materials.

#### 6.6. Conclusion

In conclusion we may say that at this stage of the development of semantic field analysis and its application in ELT, it is not clear exactly how a semantic field syllabus or textbook is to be designed. It seems that the most sensible use of semantic fields in teaching materials might be the organization of lexis (selected according to the criteria of frequency, range, coverage, etc.) into semantic fields presented to the learners within topics, as they are in TWYN, situations, functions or notions. The fields can then be graded according to the criteria involved in the selection of its members. For example, if a field consists of, let us say, eight lexemes which rate higher in frequency, range, availability, etc. than another set of lexemes in another field, such a field is then to be taught before the second. The topics, situations, functions and notions by means of which semantic fields are presented can then be graded in the order of the fields to be taught. The topic (or situation) dealing with a frequent field is to be presented before a topic dealing with a less frequent or less available one. However, this is an issue related to course design and it needs detailed investigations and statistical analyses. In later chapters we shall discuss an experiment we constructed and carried out in an EFL situation using a number of semantic fields selected from different EFL textbooks.

NOTES TO CHAPTER SIX

1. Like its American counterpart, the LOB Corpus contains 500 texts of about 2,000 'words' each, or about a million running words in all. The sampling principles were identical to those of the Brown Corpus, though there were necessarily some differences in the text selection. For more details see Johansson (1980).
2. The term 'grading' is sometimes used to refer to the process of 'gradation'. Following Mackey's (1965: 204) suggestion, we use here the term 'gradation' rather than 'grading' to avoid confusion with the grading of language tests and examination papers.
3. We shall not deal here with the arguments for or against this type of syllabus.
4. Wilkins borrows the term 'ideational' from Halliday (1970).
5. Examples of semantico-grammatical categories are categories of Time (such as 'point of time', e.g. 'now, then, on Monday, etc.; 'duration' e.g. 'for five years, all the day', etc.); and categories of Quantity e.g. 'house' vs. 'houses', 'all', 'some', 'few', etc.
6. Examples of modal categories are Scale of Certainty (such as 'certainty' e.g. 'He is certain to be there'; 'conviction' e.g. 'I believe there will be a civil war'; 'doubt' e.g. 'I doubt if there are any survivors'; etc.); and Scale of Commitment (such as 'intention' e.g. 'I'll pick you up at the station'; 'obligation' e.g. 'They must pay up by the end of the week'; etc.).
7. It should be noted, however, that these categories are clearly related to, and are, in fact, derived from Speech Act Theory as originated by Austin (1962) and developed by Searle (1969). However, Wilkins' categories are not limited to the speech acts as envisaged by Austin and Searle.
8. For a review of the book, see Williams and Porter (1983).

9. EFL teachers in Iraq are not allowed to choose their EFL textbooks. But for Industrial, Agricultural and Commerce schools, there are other series designed on the same 'structural' principles as TNECI.
10. Appendix 1 gives a 'profile' of English Language Teaching in Iraq, which aims to help the reader understand the role played by English in the Iraqi Educational system and in the social life of the country.
11. Hamash is the Director of IDELTI (Institute for the Development of English Language Teaching in Iraq) and head of various official committees which supposedly deal with 'developing' English Language Teaching in Iraqi schools. He follows the 'traditional structural approach' advocated by some American linguists in the early fifties (e.g. Fries, 1945). He has a number of publications based on this approach and the opinions expressed in these publications reflect the official thinking of IDELTI and the Iraqi educational authorities regarding EFL in Iraq. He is the chief author of TNECI series discussed here.



## CHAPTER SEVEN

### VOCABULARY TEACHING TECHNIQUES: PRESENTATION

In this chapter we shall deal very briefly with some of the techniques used for the presentation of lexis in EFL situations. The aim is not a detailed discussion of these techniques but rather a general view which will enable us to see the relevance of semantic field analysis to the improvement of these techniques or the development of new ones with respect to the language skills for which English is being learnt by EFL learners. The stage of presentation is chosen as this is the stage with which we shall be concerned in our experimental investigation about the use of semantic fields for the teaching of lexis in EFL.

#### 7.1. Translation-Equivalents Technique

This technique is of particular interest to us as it is the one normally used in Iraqi secondary schools for the presentation of lexis. We shall, therefore, deal with it in some detail. The use of translation equivalents for the teaching of lexis derives from the assumption that learning the lexis of a foreign language is a matter of acquiring a new set of 'labels' for 'familiar things'.<sup>1</sup> That is, in learning a foreign language the pupil can acquire the L<sub>2</sub> lexis by learning the lexical items and expressions used to refer to objects, qualities, processes, actions, etc. he is mostly familiar with in the native language. A list of L<sub>2</sub> lexical items with their assumed 'translation equivalents' in the mother tongue are given to the pupils at the start of each lesson period. Such a list, however, is not always necessary; the 'translation equivalents' may be given whenever the need arises: in dialogues, pattern practices, reading comprehension activities, etc. But ultimately the pupil is faced with the task of memorizing lists of lexical items and their L<sub>1</sub> 'equivalents'.

The main argument for using the native language to convey lexical meanings is that it prevents misunderstanding; it can be done quickly and thus saves time. It is not limited like pictures and objects to 'demonstrable'

objects or qualities but can be used to illustrate the meaning of any lexical item (Nation, 1978: 172-3). It also enables the learners to concentrate on the structural patterns of the foreign language which are considered by the advocates of such a technique far more important than lexis.

The technique of 'translation equivalents' has long been advocated by the grammar-translation methods and is now being used by some audiolingual methods as is the case in Iraqi schools. However, it has been found unsatisfactory and has been gradually abandoned in most EFL situations for many reasons. In the first place, such a technique is based on the tacit assumption that all languages denote reality in the same way and that for every lexical item in the  $L_2$  there is an exact, or approximate, equivalent in the  $L_1$ . This is a false assumption as the vocabularies of languages do differ, though in various degrees, from one another. We have already compared some semantic fields in English and Arabic and have seen that there is no one-to-one correspondence between the lexical items of English and Arabic (see Chapter Five). Mackey (1965: 95) gives the following examples from English and French. The English lexeme 'head' has a number of counterparts in French since it covers a semantic area which is only partly equivalent to that covered by the French lexeme 'tête':

'head' =	←	'tête' (of a person) 'chevet' (of a bed) 'face' (of a coin) 'pomme' (of a cane) 'bout' (of a match) 'haut bout' (of a table) 'directeur' (of an organization) 'mousse' (on beer) 'rubrique' (title)
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Another aspect of lexical non-correspondence between languages which may reduce the effectiveness of the 'translation-equivalent' technique is that a particular language may have a single lexeme for some meaning whereas another language has to resort to periphrasis to express the same meaning. German has the term 'Gemütlich'; English has to resort to a whole

phrase or conjunction of lexemes such as 'kindly', 'easy-going', 'good-natured'. French has the simple lexeme 'entamer' for which English uses a whole phrase 'to make the first cut in'. On the other hand, the English lexemes 'kick' (v), 'punch' (v) are rendered in French by periphrasis: 'donner un coup de pied', 'donner un coup de poing' respectively (Corder, 1973: 73). (See also Chapter Five for some examples from English and Arabic in the fields of "Kinship" and "Killing Human Beings").

The arguments against the use of the mother-tongue 'equivalents' are based not only on linguistic considerations but also on pedagogical ones. The process of deriving the meaning of  $L_2$  lexical items out of their  $L_1$  'translation equivalents' is certainly a complex process and may cause some sort of confusion in the minds of the learners who are not equipped to deal with it (Mackey, 1965: 241). However, most methods which make use of 'translation equivalents' assume that the learner will translate anyway in his mind, and that it is useless to try to prevent him from doing so. This is certainly not the case as many EFL learners feel they can learn more rapidly if the entire class period is conducted in the foreign language. Further, it is commonly observed that foreign language speakers can use a foreign language without making use of translation:

"It is well known that there are many people who can use foreign languages without the intermediary of their own language. When speaking a foreign language or reading foreign texts these people make no use of translation; they understand speech and writing in the foreign language without making a link with their native language." (Belyayev, 1963: 37-8)

Another drawback for the use of the 'translation equivalent' technique is that it encourages the learner to think in the mother tongue. The more the native language is used, the less the learner will think in the foreign language.

Obviously, the use of 'translation equivalents' will ultimately depend upon the degree of semantic isomorphism between  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ . The greater the non-correspondence between the meanings of lexical items in the two

languages, the less justifiable the use of translation equivalents as a technique of teaching vocabulary. As far as English and Arabic are concerned, we may say that the non-correspondence between the two languages is of such a degree that the use of Arabic 'translation equivalents' as the only way of teaching English lexis to Arabic-speaking learners of English is unjustifiable. There are a large number of cases where the two languages differ greatly in the way they divide up the same semantic area as we have already seen from the contrastive lexical analysis in the previous chapter. In the cases where there are lexical gaps in Arabic, one may resort to the use of definitions or descriptions to render the meanings of the English lexical items as is the case in TNECI and the Literary Reader used in Iraqi secondary schools e.g.

'lodging' : /muka:n ʔaw yurfa          lll sakan/  
                                 (place      or      room                      for living)

(Literary Reader 2, 1980: 36)

'identify' : /jata ʕaraf          ʕala      hawja      ʔaw      ʃaxʃat  
                                 (recognize          over      identity      or      personality  
                                 n  
                                 /ʃaxas/  
                                 person

(op.cit. p.147)

The procedure of giving such definitions and explanations in Arabic as the 'translation-equivalents' of the English lexical items is certainly unhelpful: the learner will undoubtedly spend some time trying to learn them by heart whereas he can spend this time learning the definitions in English rather than in Arabic (see Scholfield, 1982 for a discussion of the usefulness of learning definitions within English).

Certainly, there is some place for the use of translation equivalents for the teaching of vocabulary in EFL situations e.g. to teach the meanings of various types of disease (or names of diseases), or meanings of items that are difficult to teach by other techniques e.g. 'logic', 'philosophy', 'metaphysics', 'astronomy', etc. But, in general, we may say that learning the lexis of a foreign language is not the learning of an automatic translation

device. It cannot be just a matter of learning to substitute a new set of labels for the familiar ones of the mother tongue. Here we agree with Meara (1980) that:

"Learning vocabulary is not just a matter of acquiring translation equivalents, as it is well known that languages rarely map their lexical items onto each other in a one-to-one fashion. Some lexical structuring must go on when even the shortest word list is learned, and any view of vocabulary acquisition which treats the problem as a simple matter of pairing words with their translation equivalents is an oversimplified one." (p. 225)

## 7.2. Ostensive Techniques

These techniques are based upon the idea of identification by pointing to real objects to help the learners form a sort of 'bond' between the lexeme and what it denotes or refers to. The immediate classroom environment with its things and people to identify offers obvious scope for ostensive techniques. But its limitations are soon felt after the most elementary lessons. Supplementation of the classroom's physical resources is possible by bringing into the classroom real objects (realia) e.g. 'banana', 'knife', 'fork' etc. Thus lexemes denoting such objects as 'door', 'window', 'ceiling', etc. are taught by a pointing-and-naming technique the success of which lies in making clear what is being pointed at. The meanings of adjectives may be presented in contrast which brings out their opposite qualities e.g. 'long' is clear when contrasted with 'short' and taught by means of contrasting pairs of objects such as long and short lines, pencils, sticks, etc. When the meaning of lexemes could not be made clear by concrete demonstration, the teacher makes use of miming in the foreign language but never gives mother tongue 'translation equivalents'.

In foreign language teaching, ostensive techniques have long been associated with the Direct Method which advocates learning without recourse to the mother tongue. Even in reading, the learners are encouraged to form this associative bond between the printed word and their understanding of it without passing through an intermediate state of translation into the native language.

Ostensive techniques have their drawbacks, however. It is true that they are successful in conveying the denotation of 'demonstrable' items and expressions particularly to learners who are learning an L<sub>2</sub> related both linguistically and culturally to their own. But once we have 'undemonstrable' lexical items such as abstract lexemes (e.g. 'love', 'justice', 'courage', 'honesty' etc.) and once the FL is linguistically and culturally distinct from that of the learners, the position will be quite different. Here the learners will experience great difficulty in understanding what the teacher is pointing or aiming at. This is partly due to the somewhat vague nature of the pointing-and-naming technique itself. As Palmer (1981) states:

"...in order to understand an ostensive definition we have to understand precisely what is being pointed at. If I point to a chair and say 'This is a chair', it is first of all necessary to realize that I am pointing to the whole object, not to one of its legs, or to the wood it is made of". (pp.22-3)

Ostensive techniques have been found very helpful in the early stages where much of the teaching of vocabulary is of the demonstrable sort and is possible because the meanings of such lexemes as 'pencil', 'book', 'blackboard' are relatively simple. But in the later stages, meaning becomes too complex to be taught by an ostensive technique alone.

### 7.3. Pictorial Techniques

These are clearly related to the ostensive techniques discussed above and they share with them more or less the same limitations. They include wall pictures, picture cards, film-strips, slides, etc. Here we may apply the same evaluative procedures as we did for ostensive techniques, considering the context, the features of the picture and the amount of linguistic, cultural, and general knowledge they assume the learners possess. Pictorial techniques also require a number of conditions to be successful. For instance, when a picture is used, it is important to make sure that it is not ambiguous, does not contain confusing details, it can be seen by the whole classroom and it is culturally acceptable to the learners. But, on the whole, pictorial

techniques are extremely helpful in teaching the meanings of a large number of lexemes particularly those which denote objects that are impossible to bring into the classroom e.g. 'elephants', 'buses', 'mountains', and actions like 'flying', 'parachuting', etc.

#### 7.4. Lexical Techniques

The extent to which ostensive and pictorial techniques are used for teaching meanings depends on the language level of the learners and how much vocabulary they possess. Once the learner has acquired a certain amount of vocabulary, this nucleus can be used to teach him the meanings of new lexical items and structures.

It is probably clear that the techniques discussed in the previous sections deal with teaching the denotation or applicability of lexemes to the total exclusion of any explicit or systematic treatment of the semantic relations existing in the lexicon of the foreign language. In order to make use of these relations, or at least some of them, some procedures, ideas and suggestions have been put forward and actually used in some EFL situations though they lack an organized and systematic framework. These we shall refer to, for lack of a better term, as 'lexical techniques'.

##### 7.4.1. Definition by Sense-Relations

These techniques involve the use of sense-relations holding between the lexical items of the target language. They involve defining the meaning of a lexeme by using one or more of the lexemes related to it in a particular semantic field together with some qualification if necessary. For instance, the lexeme 'ravenous' is related to 'hungry'; 'filthy' to 'dirty'; 'gosling' to 'goose'; 'mare' to 'horse', etc. Assuming that the meaning of the second lexeme in each pair is already known by the learner, it is possible then to teach the meaning of the first member by using such definitions as the following:

'ravenous' : "very hungry" [ intensifier + synonym ]

'filthy' : "very dirty" [intensifier + superordinate]

'gosling' : "a young goose" [adj. + superordinate]  
 'mare' : "a female horse" ]

In general, there is great freedom in making such statements; the larger the number of possible semantic relations any given lexeme has, the richer and more varied the definitions of that lexeme can be. Here we shall deal with these techniques in respect of the sense-relations discussed in Chapter Four.

#### 7.4.1.1. Synonymy

As we have seen in 4.1.1. there are two points of view concerning synonymy. The broad interpretation which regards two or more lexemes as synonymous if they have more or less the same meaning in a particular context. The lexemes in brackets may be given as synonyms to the underlined ones in the following sentences:

1. A child usually has absolute trust in his mother.  
(complete; perfect)
2. An accusation of murder was brought against him.  
(charge)
3. A man is assisting the police in their enquiries.  
(helping)

The teacher may also indicate the stylistic differences between synonyms if he believes the learners are in need of such information:

'demise' (legal) : "death"  
 'commence' (formal) : "start", "begin"  
 'abode' (literary) : "house"

Dale et al. (1971) represents this view of synonymy:

"Although a synonym for the lexeme may not have the exact meaning of the defined lexeme, it is often one of the best and shortest defining devices [for teaching lexical meaning]. For example, 'bondage' may be defined as 'servitude', 'slavery', even though each defining lexeme carries its own particular connotation." (p.30)

The second interpretation of synonymy is a narrow one which suggests that there are no two lexemes which are synonymous in a language; if there were, one of them would drop out of the language. Those who adopt



this interpretation, or some other interpretation similar to it, reject the use of synonymy in language teaching on the grounds that it is confusing and leads the learners to overlook the distinctions between the meanings of the lexical items resulting in erroneous strategies and frequent errors that will prove difficult to eradicate in later stages. A recent interpretation of this view is Channell (1981):

"The term 'synonymy', widely used in foreign language teaching, is often confusing rather than helpful for the learner, since there are in practice very few words in any language which are interchangeable in all contexts." (p.118)

The arguments for and against both interpretations of synonymy have already been discussed in detail (see 4.1.1.) and as we mentioned, we shall use synonymy in language teaching only as a way of helping the learners acquire some approximation of meaning provided they are made aware of the distinctions between synonyms as soon as possible and certainly before they develop erroneous strategies. What we want our pupils to learn, when giving them synonyms, is to recognize the similarity not the identity of the two lexemes. And we are willing to postpone temporarily the teaching of shades of meaning. For the early stages, EFL teachers are normally satisfied if the learners can acquire an-approximate meaning of what a particular lexeme precisely means. It is sufficient, for example, if a learner is able to figure out, as a first step, that 'abandon' means 'give up' in a context like 'The crew abandoned their sinking vessel'. But at some later point, we want that same pupil to recognize that 'to abandon one's vessel' involves a different shade of meaning from 'to give up one's vessel'. At the post-intermediate stage, in particular, EFL learners need direct instruction in discriminating the subtle shades of lexical meanings. Some techniques other than giving synonyms are required to achieve this task. We will return to this point in 7.4.3.

#### 7.4.1.2. Hyponymy

The sense-relation of hyponymy is sometimes used to convey the



his own evaluation of the situation. This choice depends upon the personal feelings of the speaker, including his attitude to the listener or to something he is talking about. Thus the amplitude between points on the scale may vary with speakers. Various speakers may use different lexemes to describe the same reality because the spacing between two consecutive points on the scale may be fluctuant, as illustrated by Figure 19 :

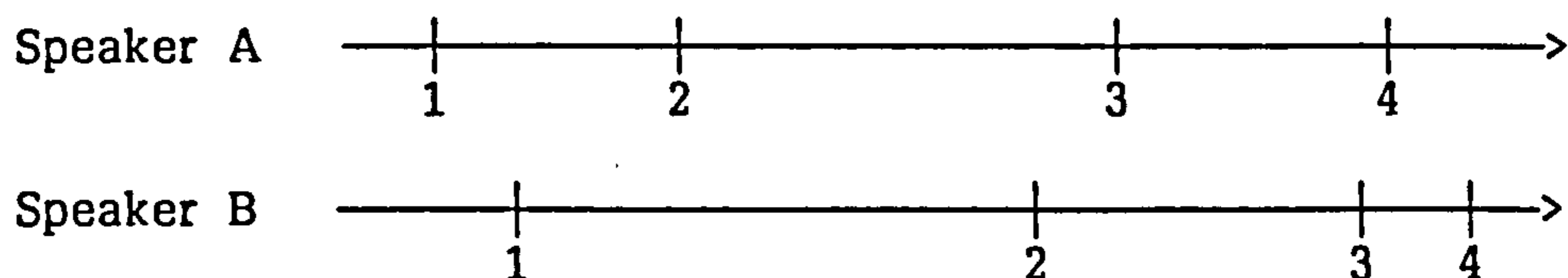


Figure 19: Fluctuation of Scalar Opposites among Speakers  
(from Cornu, 1979: 266)

Two speakers may thus use two different lexemes (e.g. 'warm' and 'hot') to describe the same temperature depending upon their personal feelings towards the degree of temperature. Yet, while the degree of intensity may vary between speakers, the order of the points on the scale remain the same in most cases.

#### 7.4.2. Definition by Description

This is the type of definition we normally find in dictionaries. It is beyond the scope of our research to deal in detail with the theoretical problems of definition.<sup>2</sup> For pedagogical purposes, definitions should be framed in a simple and controlled vocabulary in order to bring the meanings of items within the reach of the learner's lexical repertoire. This is often not the case even in dictionaries that claim to be designed mainly for EFL learners and from which EFL teachers often pick up their definitions e.g.

'horse': "four-legged solid-hoofed animal with flowing mane and tail, used from early times to carry loads, for riding, etc."  
(OALDOCE, p. 419)

'apricot' : "a round soft pleasant-tasting but slightly sour fruit with a furry outside like a PEACH and a single large stone. It is orange or yellow and red in colour."  
(LDOCE, p. 41)

Such definitions as the above raise a number of questions. If we take the first definition, for example, we find that some lexemes (e.g. 'solid-hoofed') are more difficult for the learner than the lexeme being defined. If the purpose of the definition is to get the meaning across and enable the speaker to use the lexemes correctly, then it is quite possible for a learner to know what a horse is and use the lexeme denoting it correctly without having to learn its definition. From a pedagogical point of view, therefore, the definition will be redundant.<sup>3</sup> It is far less difficult to teach the meaning of 'horse', 'apricot', 'seal' by ostensive or pictorial techniques than by definitions. Further, EFL teachers may find it more useful to formulate their own definitions instead of picking them up. But even here there are some problems. Pedagogically, as well as theoretically, there are no obvious grounds for distinguishing what is criterial to the meaning of a lexeme, and therefore to be included in the definition, from what is not. And a short reduced definition such as that of 'seal' as a "large sea animal", though helpful as a first step, is too inclusive to be a satisfactory way of teaching meaning. It only serves to distinguish the lexeme in a field from those in another - to distinguish 'seal' from those that do not refer to sea animals. But it covers a large number of lexemes denoting sea animals e.g. 'whale', 'walrus', 'shark', etc. In the last resort, such pedagogical definitions will be based on the teacher's intuition which, leaving aside the inadequacies of intuition in the L<sub>2</sub>, may end up with definitions not less difficult than those of dictionaries. On the other hand, short linguistic definitions of the sort suggested by some linguists may not be as useful as the learner needs.

Definitions like:

'horse' : "an animal called 'horse'" (Wierzbicka, 1972: 54).

'elephant' : "an animal of the species 'elephant'" (Leech, 1974: 88).

'dog' : "an animal of the canine species" (Leech, 1981: 84).

leave a great deal more to say about the meaning of horses, elephants and dogs even though one does not expect to find in a definition a compendium

of everything that is known about what a lexeme denotes, i.e. an encyclopedic entry.<sup>4</sup> However, it is possible to supplement such a reduced definition as that of 'seal' (" a large sea animal") or 'cod' ("an edible fish") with a pictorial aid (a picture, a sketch, etc.) to help the learner restrict the meaning to a certain kind of sea animal or a certain kind of fish.

#### 7.4.3. Componential and Collocational Grids

As explained in a previous section (see 7.4.1.1.) synonyms may be used for the teaching of lexical meaning. They help the learner to see the semantic links between the lexical items he already knows and those he is being taught. This technique clearly aims at developing the learner's ability to generalize and classify lexemes into semantic areas. Of greater value is the development of the learner's ability to make distinctions between one synonym and another. The Componential Analysis to meaning outlined in Chapter Four has provided teachers with a technique for developing this ability. A number of lexemes from a particular field are collected, presumably from those the learners are required to learn, compared and contrasted. The outcome is a componential grid that both links these lexemes into a semantic area and differentiates them on various dimensions. The following is a componential grid suggested for the teaching of the meaning of 'surprise', 'astonish', 'amaze', 'astound' and 'flabbergast'.

	affect with wonder	because unexpected	because difficult to believe	so as to cause confusion	so as to leave one helpless to act or think
surprise	+	+			
astonish	+		+		
amaze	+			+	
astound	+				+
flabbergast	+				+

Figure 20: A Componential Grid of a Set of Lexemes  
(from: Channell, 1981: 119)

All the theoretical criticisms that are directed against the Componential Analysis Approach can be raised against the Componential Grid. One point which needs to be emphasized, however, is the usefulness of such a technique for the teaching of lexis in EFL. It is unhelpful, we believe, to use this technique for the teaching of lexemes that are much easier to teach by other means such as a pictorial technique. The following componential grid suggested by an EFL teacher seems useless.

	liquid	solid	sticky	bottled	swallowed	chocolate coated
candy bars		+	+		+	+
soda pop (Br. fizzy drink)	+			+	+	
chewing gum		+	+			
cookies (Br. biscuit)		+			+	+
licorice		+	+		+	

Figure 21: A Componential Grid without Apparent Pedagogical Utility  
(from: Stieglitz, 1983: 71)

It is far more effective and far less complicated to teach the above lexemes by showing the learners samples or pictures of what they denote than to use a componential grid like that given above.

The use of componential grids clearly requires some sophisticated understanding on the part of the learners to be able to understand the whole notion of comparing and contrasting. The use of such grids, therefore, is to be recommended for the intermediate and advanced rather than beginning stages of learning.

Componential grids are sometimes accompanied by the use of collocational grids which aim to teach the collocational possibilities of lexemes as learners often fail to understand the collocational differences between even the lexemes they already know.

The idea of a collocational grid is based on the notion of collocation already discussed (see 4.3.). An important aspect of lexical competence to be developed in the learner is assumed to be the knowledge of the collocations of lexemes. A learner may know that the lexemes 'under', 'below' and 'beneath' are synonyms but he may not be able to realize that they differ markedly in their collocations. For example, we do not say "We live beneath a democratic form of government", we say 'under a democratic form of government'. A suspect is not 'below the protection of the police', he is 'under the protection of the police', etc. We have already discussed this aspect of lexical competence (see 4.3.). What needs to be emphasized here is the assumption that it is helpful to present a good number of typical collocations of lexemes, at the same time these lexemes are being taught, in a grid like the following:

	woman	man	child	dog	bird	flower	weather	landscape	view	house	furniture	bed	picture
handsome		+									+		
pretty	+		+	+	+	+		+	+	+		+	+
charming	+		+							+			
lovely	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Figure 22: A Collocational Grid of a Set of Lexemes  
(from: Channell, 1981: 120)

The use of such a grid in language teaching may be objected to on the grounds that the grid is 'uninstructive' as more collocational combinations are possible than the grid suggests (Williams and Porter, 1983: 70). We feel, however, that in EFL situations where the teaching process is concerned with teaching a limited amount of a foreign language, EFL teachers do not have to offer their pupils ALL the collocations of lexical items in order

for their teaching to be 'instructive'. Rather, having selected the items to be taught, then showing a representative sample of their collocations becomes an effective means of showing the collocational differences between the items of a field. The grid may thus be said to be representative rather than complete.

Another point of criticism that has been raised against the use of componential and collocational grids for the teaching of lexis in semantic fields is that these techniques are borrowed from linguistics and thus have no 'psychological validity' (Williams and Porter, 1983: 69-71). This is a somewhat peculiar objection since it casts doubts on the whole field of applied linguistics, which is generally understood as the application of linguistic theories and descriptions to language teaching and other activities concerned with language. Some applied linguists, prominent in the field, (e.g. Corder, 1973) go even further and restrict the term 'applied linguistics' to the application of linguistics to language teaching. It is, therefore, a complete fallacy to assume that because componential and collocational grids are techniques derived from linguistics, they have no 'psychological validity'. Whether derived from linguistics or not, language teaching techniques can be judged as to their usefulness or effectiveness in so far as they help in the learning of the target language. And this is largely an empirical rather than a theoretical issue. Furthermore, Williams and Porter seem to ignore the important psychological evidence which can be offered in support of the psychological validity of semantic field analysis in terms of componential and collocational grids (see 10.4.). We shall also offer in the following chapters some empirical evidence which supports the application of componential and collocational analyses, as used by Rudska et al. (1981a), to the teaching of lexis in EFL situations.

#### 7.5. The Monitor Theory and Semantic Fields

The Monitor Theory (or Monitor Model) has been proposed by Krashen (e.g. Krashen, 1975, 1976, 1977a, 1977b, 1978, 1979, 1981, 1982a, 1982b) as a general theory for adult second-language performance. The theory makes



a number of hypotheses about how adults acquire a second language. We shall deal briefly with only the basic hypotheses that seem most relevant to our research, and then discuss what implications, if any, such hypotheses might have for the explicit teaching of semantic fields in EFL situations.

#### 7.5.1. Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

According to Krashen, the adult  $L_2$  learner can both acquire and learn. Here 'acquire' means, to use Krashen's own words (Krashen, 1981: 2), 'pick up' the second language; and 'learn' means to gain 'formal' knowledge of it, i.e. to learn 'about' rather than to perform. 'Acquisition' is a subconscious process concerned with internalizing the rules of a second language 'naturally'; whereas 'learning' is a conscious process concerned with 'knowing about' the  $L_2$  and is the result of a formal language learning situation or self-study programme (Krashen, 1977a: 153). The process of 'acquisition' requires meaningful interaction in the target language in which speakers are concerned not with the 'forms' of their utterances but with the 'messages' of the communicative situation. Error correction and explicit teaching of rules are not relevant to language acquisition because language acquirers need not have a conscious awareness of the 'rules' but may self-correct only on the basis of a 'feel' for grammaticality (Krashen, 1981: 1-2; 1982b: 59). 'Learning', on the other hand, is thought to be helped by error correction and the presentation of explicit rules (Krashen and Seliger, 1975).

#### 7.5.2. The Monitor Hypothesis

The fundamental claim of Monitor Theory is that the conscious learning of a language (or what Krashen, 1982b: 58 calls 'conscious linguistic processing') acts as a Monitor — to monitor performance and improve accuracy through self-correction. In general, the  $L_2$  learner initiates utterances from the acquired system but his conscious learning of  $L_2$  may be used to correct the output of the acquired system, sometimes before and sometimes after the utterance is produced (Krashen, 1981: 2). But there are three conditions to be met

to operate the Monitor successfully: (i) the learner must have time; (ii) he must be concerned with 'form' (or correctness) rather than with the meaning of the message; and (iii) he must know the rule applying to the forms within the utterance. Since all three of these conditions can only sometimes be met, the Monitor operates only for certain aspects of language use, such as formal speaking or writing. But in normal conversation, both in speaking and listening, the Monitor has little or no effect since  $L_2$  performers "do not generally have time to think about and apply conscious grammatical rules" (Krashen, 1981: 3). However, Krashen seems to have recently modified his position as he now believes that the Monitor normally operates in natural conversation:

"The editing function of the monitor comes into play when a student attempts to edit compositions and correct ungrammatical sentences in language test items, as well as when the student spontaneously self-corrects errors made during natural conversation" (Krashen, 1982b: 59)

### 7.5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The Monitor Theory has been criticised by many researchers in the field of  $L_2$  acquisition (e.g. McLaughlin, 1978; Rivers, 1980; Smith, 1981) for making a number of distinctions and assumptions with little or no empirical evidence. Here we will discuss some points of criticism that have some bearing on pedagogical issues relevant to our research.

The distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning' has not been substantiated; nor has been the assumption that there is no 'interface' between the two processes. It is extremely difficult to maintain the distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning' — between self-correction by 'feel' and self-correction by 'rule' in the sense in which Krashen uses these terms.  $L_2$  performers may claim to be self-correcting by 'feel' rather than 'rule' because they are unable to verbalize the 'rule' satisfactorily (McLaughlin, 1978: 317). We also reject the assumption that acquisition and conscious learning are two non-interactive separate processes as the assumption "does not tally with the great body of recent research in cognitive processing" (Rivers, 1980: 52). Instead, we assume that there are different types of knowledge involved in  $L_2$  performance — two

of which can be referred to as 'implicit linguistic knowledge' and 'explicit linguistic knowledge' (in the sense these terms are used by Bialystok, 1978). Both sources of knowledge are simultaneously exploited, among other sources, by L<sub>2</sub> learners to achieve communicative functions to the extent that a clear-cut distinction between the two is impossible to maintain in normal use of the language. And this applies to the learning of lexis in semantic fields as to the other aspects of L<sub>2</sub> acquisition. It will also be assumed that conscious learning of L<sub>2</sub> plays a vital role in L<sub>2</sub> performance. This conscious learning is available to the learner both as an Initiator of utterances and as a Monitor for self-correction. L<sub>2</sub> performers often make use of their conscious learning of L<sub>2</sub> rules in their receptive and productive use of the language. Krashen (1982b) seems to have taken this position recently:

"The linguistic knowledge that one gains through monitoring can be used to consciously formulate sentences and to correct one's own speech and writing [my emphasis]." (p.59)

An important point which needs to be clarified here is the use of the term 'rule' in the Monitor Theory. We find it essential to extend the term 'rule' to mean "rules at all levels of language", i.e. to cover 'phonological rules', 'grammatical rules', 'lexical rules', etc.

The Monitor Theory has many implications for vocabulary acquisition and for our research in spite of the fact that Krashen and his followers have not dealt with the theory in relation to the lexicon. Krashen agrees with the basic assumption of our research that vocabulary is an important concern of L<sub>2</sub> learners and that more vocabulary means more comprehension (Krashen, 1979: 163). We believe that a 'modified' version of the Monitor has important implications for the explicit teaching of lexis in semantic fields. This modified version gives the Monitor an essential role in initiating L<sub>2</sub> utterances and looks at the explicit teaching of semantic fields as a systematic attempt to optimize the use of the Monitor by L<sub>2</sub> learners in order to improve their performance and self-correct their receptive and productive use of the L<sub>2</sub> vocabulary. Componential

and collocational grids will be seen as important classroom procedures which can be used to achieve this optimization.

### 7.6. Conclusions

We have very briefly considered a number of techniques for the teaching of lexis in EFL situations. They range from total dependence upon the use of the learners' mother tongue to the total exclusion of  $L_1$ . Each technique has its adherents and opponents, its merits and drawbacks — sometimes, the drawbacks far outweigh the merits as in the case of the 'translation-equivalent' technique. We have demonstrated in some detail how the reliance upon this technique is both theoretically and pedagogically flawed. This is especially true in the situations where the semantic non-isomorphism between  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  becomes a very misleading exercise. Pedagogically, the 'translation-equivalent' technique has proved itself, at least with some informal evidence from our teaching experience, to be a very harmful technique at the intermediate and secondary stages of learning. It usually leads EFL learners to develop erroneous strategies based upon misconception of the semantic structures of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ . The most harmful of these strategies is the reducing of lexical competence to no more than the 'memorization' of lists of lexical items of  $L_2$  with other items, expressions and definitions assumed to be their equivalents in  $L_1$ . The result of this approach, if accompanied by the use of translation in the classroom, is that "the target language was very little used in the foreign language lessons — most of the time was taken up with the mother tongue" (Wallace, 1982: 47). However, there are some cases where the use of the 'translation equivalents' can save time and effort e.g. teaching the names of diseases and lexical meanings that are difficult to teach by other techniques e.g. 'logic', 'astronomy'.

The other techniques of vocabulary teaching have not been so controversial as their use in the classroom has always been limited and they are often used in one and the same lesson period. They are compatible even with the use

of 'translation equivalents' and are not derived, except for componential and collocational grids (and perhaps some uses of sense-relations) from any specific linguistic theory; they have developed mainly out of pedagogical necessities.

It is an observed fact that the application of the findings of recent semantic studies to the teaching of vocabulary in EFL lags behind the use made of other linguistic studies on the phonological and syntactic levels. One searches the literature in vain for any major treatments or applications of linguistic theories and insights in vocabulary teaching, one is assured that there are big gaps to be filled.

The use of componential and collocational grids in the teaching of vocabulary is an attempt to fill some of the gaps. They attempt to apply some linguistic approaches to meaning in a way that helps the learners retain and use the meanings more efficiently and operate the Monitor successfully at the lexical level. But they have also grown out of dissatisfaction with the results obtained by other techniques.

Applied linguistics is an empirical science. And this applies to vocabulary teaching as to anything else in language teaching and learning. It is to be demonstrated empirically that a teaching approach to lexis is more or less effective than another in the teaching of the various language skills for which a foreign language is learnt in a particular situation. It is not sufficient to assume, as we have done, that a 'translation equivalents' technique, for example, is less effective than other teaching techniques even though there are 'good' reasons and some teaching experience to back up the assumption. The assumption has to be supported by empirical evidence. The same applies to the use of componential and collocational grids as techniques derived from linguistics.

As for the use of a semantic field approach in the teaching of vocabulary it can be seen that such an approach can certainly make use of componential and collocational grids though it can also make use of other techniques as well. The important thing in such an approach is the systematic and explicit use of the semantic relations holding between the lexical items of the foreign

language. As yet, this approach has not been experimented with to any extent that justifies regarding it as a viable technique for the teaching of lexis. In the following three chapters we shall report and discuss an experiment we formulated and conducted in an EFL situation with this aim in mind.

NOTES TO CHAPTER SEVEN

1. We are not discussing here the teaching of translation as a skill. The discussion is limited to that familiar technique of using the mother tongue as a way of conveying the meanings of L<sub>2</sub> lexical items.
2. For discussion of some of these problems, see Weinreich (1962) and Whitcut (1978).
3. Scholfield (1982) offers a nice discussion of the uses of definition for pedagogical purposes.
4. For a distinction between a dictionary definition and an encyclopedic definition (and the rejection of such a distinction), see Haiman (1980).

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### SEMANTIC FIELDS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING:

#### AN EXPERIMENT

##### 8.1. Introductory Note

We have argued in the previous chapters that semantic fields constitute major lexical patterns in the vocabulary of a natural language. They are regarded as part of the native speaker's lexical competence. It has also been argued that learning a foreign language vocabulary entails learning, among other things, the meanings of lexical items in fields and the sense-relations in terms of which these fields are structured. Rudska et al. (1981a) offers the only systematic pedagogical approach which makes use of semantic fields for the teaching of lexis in EFL (see 6.3.2.5.). There are also a number of ideas and suggestions for the teaching of lexis through some sense-relations, particularly synonymy and hyponymy (e.g. Cornu, 1979) or through the use of componential and collocational grids (e.g. Channell, 1981 ; and Harvey, 1983).

What is needed then is empirical investigation of the usefulness of semantic field analysis in the teaching of lexis in foreign language situations with respect to the language skills for which the EFL learners are learning English.

In order to find out empirically whether or not semantic field analysis is useful in the teaching and learning of lexis in EFL, an experiment was formulated and conducted in a foreign language situation. Although the experiment dealt with a very specific type of situation (a secondary school in Iraq), it is hoped that the findings will be potentially relevant to teachers working in a wide variety of different situations.

##### 8.2. Reading Comprehension in Iraqi Secondary Schools

It is generally agreed that assessing the language ability of learners



would involve taking account of what these learners need to do with the language they are learning. For most learners of EFL, the skill of comprehending texts written in English is considered one of the most important skills to be acquired, if not the most important one. This is certainly true of EFL learners in Iraqi secondary schools. For them English has no 'internal' social function as they use Arabic in their daily life and they have little, if any, opportunity of using English for communicating with other speakers of the language. Reading texts written in English gets the priority for them in spite of the official recommendation that English is to be taught for spoken as well as written communication.

Reading comprehension skill is normally taught in EFL classes through a set of texts (or passages), as it is the case in Iraqi secondary schools. Reading passages are selected from different genres of writing and are presented to the learners with various comprehension questions few of which deal with vocabulary. The passages vary in length, contents and style. The aim is "to promote the pupils' ability to read and understand (and later discuss) reading materials on different topics. The topics can be exploited for discussion purposes and the passages in general can be used, whenever necessary, for further language practice and remedial work" (TNECI, Teacher's Guide, Book 7, p.3).

Once the pupils have identified the gist of a text, it is then essential to consider specific problems which may cause difficulties in getting full comprehension. Unfamiliar lexical items would most likely be the greatest source of difficulty. A large part of the unfamiliar vocabulary will consist of lexical items related in different ways to the items the learners already met, acquired or partially acquired.

The traditional technique for teaching unfamiliar vocabulary in a reading comprehension passage is to make use of glossaries. Widdowson (1978) distinguishes two types of glossaries. The first type consists of listing the

new or 'key' lexical items and expressions and their senses, as used in the passage, for the learners to go through, often as an oral class activity, before they begin to read the passage. The items are those which are judged to be outside the learners' current competence and which could pose a comprehension problem. Widdowson calls glossaries of this type 'priming glossaries' since their purpose is to prepare the learner beforehand for his encounter with possible lexical problems in the passage. The alternative procedure is to provide what he calls 'prompting glossaries'. These are explanations of the difficult and new lexical items and expressions as the learners actually encounter them in context. They usually appear after the passage and it is assumed that the reader will refer to them whenever he comes up against a difficulty. Occasionally, however, prompting glossaries appear as footnotes or in the margins alongside the passage itself.

The type used in Iraqi secondary schools for the teaching of lexical items in reading comprehension texts is the second. Each reading text is followed by a list of 'key' lexical items and expressions together with their 'translation equivalents' in Arabic (see Appendix 4). It is not clear how the TNECI differentiates between 'key' and 'non-key' lexical items. But it seems these items are selected on a more or less subjective basis or according to some of the objective criteria of selection (frequency, availability, usefulness, etc.) without mentioning these criteria.

### 8.3. Experimental Design

The experiment was a 'small-scale' study in the sense in which the term is used by Carroll (1966: 104) to mean that the experimental treatment manipulated only a single variable. The study was therefore different from 'global' experiments in which numbers of variables are included in each treatment. The following is a detailed account of the experimental design.

#### 8.3.1. Aims

The main aim of the experiment was to investigate whether or not

giving EFL learners explicit instruction on semantic fields would have a positive effect on their lexical competence and reading comprehension abilities as manifested in responses to written vocabulary tests dealing with some semantic fields. Two approaches for the teaching of lexis were compared as to their effectiveness in the teaching of lexical items in fields. The first was the 'traditional' approach which makes no use of the notion of semantic field in teaching. It was represented in our experiment by the Translation-Equivalents Technique already discussed (see 7.1.). The meanings of lexical items and expressions were explained by giving their so-called 'translation-equivalents' in Arabic. The second was a 'new' approach based on the systematic use of semantic field analyses for the teaching of lexis. This approach was manifested in the use of the Componential and Collocational Grids also discussed before (see 7.4.3.).

There were two sub-aims. One was to study the interaction between using the translation-equivalent techniques and the acquisition of lexis in fields. The other was to investigate the learners' reactions to the use of linguistic models, in our case Componential and Collocational Grids, for vocabulary teaching.

### 8.3.2. Hypotheses

Two hypotheses were tested:

#### (i) Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the learning of lexis in semantic fields even if the learners in the Experimental Group are given explicit instruction based on semantic field analyses.

#### (ii) Positive Hypothesis

The explicit instruction of semantic fields helps the learners in EFL situations to acquire vocabulary more efficiently and results in better long-term retention of lexis and comprehension of written discourse.

### 8.3.3. Method

8.3.3.1. Language: English as a Foreign Language

8.3.3.2. Place of the Experiment: a secondary school in Basrah, Iraq.<sup>1</sup>

8.3.3.3. Period of the Experiment: 25 January - 26 April, 1984.

8.3.3.4. Independent Variable: Explicit teaching of lexis based on semantic field analysis using componential and collocational grids and definitions based on sense-relations. The independent variable will also be referred to as the 'experimental treatment'.

8.3.3.5. Subjects: The participants in the experiment were five groups of pupils learning English as a foreign language in a secondary school in Iraq.

8.3.3.5.1. Previous Learning Experience: The majority of them had studied English for seven and a half years previously.

8.3.3.5.2. Level of Learning: The participants' level of learning might be described as 'post-intermediate' — the level that EFL learners generally reach after seven and a half years of exposure to the language. It is characterized by the following points:

- (i) The learners' productive use of the language (spoken and written) was marked by numerous (and repeated) errors: lexical, grammatical, etc.
- (ii) They were able to engage in conversation to a limited degree, i.e. not fluently.
- (iii) They had limited 'expressive abilities' in written English. But, generally, they were able to comprehend written texts provided the difficult items of vocabulary and grammar were explained to them and provided the text was not too difficult.
- (iv) They could answer written questions more easily than spoken ones.

8.3.3.5.3. Age: The average age of the learners was 18 years.

8.3.3.5.4. Characteristics:

- (i) The subjects showed linguistic homogeneity in that they were all speakers of the same mother tongue, Arabic.
- (ii) They all came from the same social background — from 'working-class'

families living in the same area.

(iii) They had a limited degree of 'instrumental' motivation in learning English as a foreign language. Generally, they could perceive some practical use for English in their future careers.

(iv) There was some degree of similarity in their personal characteristics, experience of the world (having come from the same social background), maturity (being of almost the same age; their range of age was 18 - 20 years), etc.

#### 8.3.3.6. Experimental and Control Groups

There is no streaming in the Iraqi educational system. The pupils in Iraqi schools are randomly assigned to classes referred to as Class A, Class B, Class C, etc. (see 8.3.3.7. below). Each class consists of about 33 - 37 pupils. On the basis of performance on the pretest, two classes were selected to be the 'Experimental Group' (henceforth, Exp.G.) and the 'Control Group' (C.G.). The other classes were made additional or 'back-up' groups — these will be referred to as Group 2, (G.2.), Group 3 (G.3.), and Group 4 (G.4.). We shall discuss the selection of these groups in 8.3.3.8.1.5. when we deal with the pretest.

#### 8.3.3.7. Indirect Randomization

Since all pupils are randomly assigned to classes, the subjects of the experiment may thus be regarded as randomly assigned to the experimental conditions. However, this process of randomization was not carried out specifically for the experiment; it was simply part of the educational system as we mentioned in the previous section. Investigators are not officially allowed to move pupils from one class to another for the sake of experimentation. In our case, the random assignment of pupils to classes was carried out by the two teachers of English who were in charge of the five classes.<sup>2</sup> We may, therefore, refer to this process of random assignment, as far as our experiment is concerned, as 'indirect randomization'. The essential point is that the pupils were not assigned to classes selectively i.e. not according to some criterion of previous achievement as it may be the case in other EFL situations. Clearly, the task of creating groups

that are equivalent in all respects is an impossible one; the goal can only be approximated. Randomization, even if it is indirect, as in our case, is the basic safeguard against differences between the experimental and control groups that might lessen the validity of inferences about the effects of the experimental treatment. In itself, random selection does not actually control any variable; but rather mixes up all the characteristics that differentiate people and pour them into the experimental and control groups, thus pulling apart any ties that might exist between uncontrolled variables and the independent variable (Selltiz et al., 1976:31).

#### 8.3.3.8. Phases of the Experiment

The experiment followed what Selltiz et al. (1976) refer to as "before-after" design. "Before" indicates a "pretest"; "after" a "posttest" with the independent variable taking place between the two tests. Following Selltiz et al. (1965; 1976) we shall use the following notation:

- X indicates exposure of a group to the experimental variable.
- Y indicates some process of assessment of the experimental group with respect to the dependent variable.
- $Y_1$  indicates assessment before the introduction or occurrence of X.
- $Y_2$  indicates assessment after the introduction or occurrence of X.
- $Y'_2$  indicates assessment of a control group with respect to the dependent variable.
- R indicates random assignment of individuals to experimental group.
- $R'$  indicates random assignment of individuals to control group.
- d indicates change in the achievement of experimental group.
- $d'$  indicates change in the achievement of control group.

Adopting this notation we may represent our experimental design in the following schema:

Condition	Experimental Group (Exp.G.)	Control Group (C.G.)
Random Assignment of Individuals to the Group	Yes (R)	Yes ( $R'$ )
"Before" Measurement	Yes ( $Y_1$ )	Yes ( $Y'_1$ )
Exposure to Experimental Variable	Yes	No
Exposure to Uncontrolled Events	Yes	Yes
"After" Measurement	Yes ( $Y_2$ )	Yes ( $Y'_2$ )
Change	$d = Y_2 - Y_1$	$d' = Y'_2 - Y'_1$

Figure 23: A Schematic Representation of the Experimental Design (from: Selltiz et al., 1965: 110; 1976: 131-3)

### 8.3.3.8.1. Pretest

#### 8.3.3.8.1.1. Purpose

Since we wished to test the hypothesis that explicit instruction in semantic fields (X) is a means or a cause of improving the learners' lexical competence and reading comprehension abilities (Z) by comparing a group that had been exposed to such instruction (Exp.G.) with one that had not (C.G.), it was obviously essential to measure the two groups with respect to (Z) before subjects were exposed to (X) in order to ensure that the two groups did not differ initially in (Z) to the extent that renders the results of the experiment meaningless.

The measure chosen for this purpose was an achievement (attainment) test concerned with assessing what had been learnt of the lexical contents of the syllabus previously studied, with particular emphasis, of course, on the testing of lexical items belonging to fields.

#### 8.3.3.8.1.2. Construction

The selection of lexical items to be used in a vocabulary achievement test is relatively easy, inasmuch as these can be drawn directly from the particular textbooks that have been used in class. In constructing the pretest, however, we were concerned not with lexical items as units unrelated to one another but, and this should be obvious by now, with lexical items related in semantic fields. The selection of such items for the pretest of the experiment was not an easy task for us. As already mentioned (see 6.4), the Iraqi EFL textbooks do not deal explicitly or systematically with lexis in fields nor do they treat vocabulary itself as an important element in foreign language learning.<sup>3</sup> Nevertheless, since semantic fields are lexical patterns existing in the lexicon of a natural language, and for that matter in English, one then expects to find some lexical items related in fields, or at least partial fields, through a detailed and thorough analysis of the lexical contents of any EFL textbook though there may be no systematic

or explicit treatment of such fields. A meticulous examination (what we may refer to as a 'lexical survey') of the lexical contents of Iraqi EFL textbooks studied in the previous seven and a half years prior to the experiment was therefore conducted with three aims: (i) to help select a number of lexical items, sense-relations and fields to construct a valid achievement pretest; (ii) to find out the lexical items that fall into fields or subfields or enter into sense-relations and which one may reasonably expect the participants in the experiment to have acquired, or at least partially acquired, since these items occurred in the previous teaching materials; and (iii) to find out what lexical items had already been taught in the previous years so as not to 're-teach' these items if such re-teaching is not necessary for the experiment. The previously taught lexical items would be re-taught only when they are part of the experimental semantic fields.

The lexical survey mentioned above covered The New English Course for Iraq (TNECI), Books 1 - 7 and the Literary Reader 1 which was the school reader the pupils were supposed to have read before the experiment.<sup>4</sup> It was found that a number of lexical items used in TNECI did in fact fall into fields though the majority of these fields are of the 'simple' denotative type, that is, fields whose members denote simple material entities such as the field of "Clothing" (e.g. 'coat', 'shirt', 'sweater', 'raincoat'); "Container" (e.g. 'box', 'bag', 'jug', 'cup'); "Animal" (e.g. 'monkey', 'bear', 'lion', 'tiger'); "Body of Water" (e.g. 'lake', 'ocean', 'sea', 'river'); "Vehicle" (e.g. 'car', 'bus', 'lorry', 'truck', 'van'); "Furniture" (e.g. 'chair', 'stool', 'table', 'desk'); etc. There were also a number of lexical items entering into sense-relations especially synonymy, antonymy and converseness e.g. 'help' : 'assistance', 'put out' : 'extinguish', 'take part in' : 'participate' (synonymy); 'modern' : 'ancient', 'wild' : 'tame', 'wide' : 'narrow' (antonymy); 'wife' : 'husband', 'sell' : 'buy', 'lend' : 'borrow', 'send' : 'receive' (converseness). A number of such fields and lexical items were selected



for the construction of the pretest. Having been constructed, the pretest (format, instructions, contents, etc.) was discussed with a number of postgraduate research students with some knowledge and experience of the EFL situation in Iraq.<sup>5</sup> Some minor modifications on the pretest were carried out to give us the final form of the pretest used in the experiment.

#### 8.3.3.8.1.3. Contents

The pretest is given in full in Appendix 2.

#### 8.3.3.8.1.4. Other Aspects of the Pretest

Number of correct answers: 40 lexical items

Marking: 40 marks, one mark for each correct answer

Time: One and a half hours

#### 8.3.3.8.1.5. Administration and Results

The pretest was administered to five classes of pupils (Scientific Section) on the same day. The mean score and standard deviation for each class were calculated. Table 1 summarizes the results; Appendix 3 gives the raw scores of the pretest.

Class	Number of pupils in each class	Number of pupils present for the pretest	$\bar{x}$	SD
A	34	18	18.72	6.65
B	33	27	16.46	6.43
C	36	27	14.41	6.20
D	34	32	18.91	7.01
E	33	25	17.52	5.93

Table 1 : Results of the Pretest

( $\bar{x}$  = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation. Notice the large number of absentees in Class A; see Note 6 for explanation)

It was decided to make Class C the Experimental Group (Exp. G.) and Class B the Control Group (C.G.). As the table above shows, the performance of Class C on the pretest was the lowest but it was nearer to Class B than to any other group. The variation of scores of both groups was almost identical;

the difference of standard deviations was just (0.23). There were other possible choices of classes which could have been made experimental and control groups e.g. Classes A + D; Classes A + E; Classes B + E; Classes D + E. Notice, however, the large number of absentees in Class A which clearly cast doubts on the performance of the group who took the pretest as representing the performance of the whole class.<sup>6</sup> However, we opted for Classes B and C as the latter was of particular interest since it scored lower than any of the other groups. If Class C, as an experimental group, actually performed better in the posttest than the other groups, the results would be more significant than with any other combination of groups. In addition, the standard deviations of the two groups, as already mentioned, were very close to each other.

#### 8.3.3.8.2. Practical Language Teaching

This involved practical teaching of the Exp. G. and C.G. by the writer of this thesis for a period of about two months - from 3 March to 24 April, 1984.<sup>7</sup> There were 42 teaching sessions; each of 45 minutes duration.

The teaching materials used in the practical teaching were the same for both groups except the lexical exercises that were used with the Exp. G. only as reinforcement to the explicit teaching of semantic fields (see 8.3.3.8.2.3.1. and Appendix 10). Some minor teaching points (e.g. Class Activity 7.6.C; Appendix 4) were given to the C.G. but not to the Exp. G. in order to make up for the difference in time resulting from giving reinforcement exercises to the Exp. G. but not to the C.G. The teaching approaches used with the two groups were, naturally, different. The following is a brief account of the teaching materials and approaches used with both groups.

##### 8.3.3.8.2.1. Teaching Materials

The teaching materials used in the experiment consisted of the following:

###### 8.3.3.8.2.1.1. The Officially-Used Textbook (TNECI)

This was Book 7 of The New English Course for Iraq (hence, TNECI)

designed for the teaching of English to Iraqi pupils in their seventh year of learning English as a foreign language. The teaching materials of the book used in the experiment are given in Appendix 4. In order to meet the school's requirements and disguise the purpose and nature of the experiment from the pupils, it was felt that most of the teaching items of TNECI had to be taught, that is, not only the reading passages but also dialogues, exercises, oral practice, etc. (see Appendix 4).

#### 8.3.3.8.2.1.2. The Literary Reader (Book 2)

The Literary Reader read by the pupils during the period of the experiment was a simplified version of Oliver Twist by Charles Dickens. It was divided into thirteen chapters. Six chapters (1 - 6) were read before the experiment and seven chapters were read during the experiment; these were Chapters 7 to 13. They are given in Appendix 5.

Following the school requirement the Literary Reader was incorporated in the general plan of work. For example, Chapter 7 was treated as part of Unit Seven of the Official Textbook (i.e. TNECI), Chapter 8 as part of Unit Eight, and so on. The Literary Reader, it should be emphasized, was read at home, not in class. In the school teaching sessions we had to: (a) assign part of a chapter to be read at home; (b) assign the appropriate exercise to be done at home; and (c) check whether the pupils had done the home assignment through question-answer techniques and by doing the exercises orally in class.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.1.3. Supplementary Materials

The EFL teacher in Iraq is officially allowed to supplement the TNECI with any other teaching materials he deems necessary. Having analysed the lexical contents of TNECI in detail, we found that its treatment of semantic fields is extremely inadequate (see 6.4.). To overcome this inadequacy, the lexical contents of a number of EFL textbooks, some of which were especially designed for the Arabic-speaking learners of English, were thoroughly analysed

and a number of reading passages were selected from these textbooks to be used as supplementary materials. Also used as supplementary materials were a few authentic passages and short texts taken from various sources and simplified by the writer of the thesis specifically for the experiment.

Only the Exp. G. and C.G. were exposed to the supplementary reading texts. The other groups (i.e. G.2., G.3. and G.4.) were taught by other teachers and were not exposed to these texts. It was not possible to get the official permission to allow the other teachers to use the supplementary texts. The supplementary materials are given in Appendix 6.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.2. Experimental Semantic Fields

##### 8.3.3.8.2.2.1. Selection

The selection of semantic fields to be used in our experiment was not a simple task. As mentioned before, the main textbook used in the experiment was the TNECI which neither deals with semantic fields nor takes the notion of semantic field into account in its organization of contents. In order to select an appropriate number of semantic fields for the experiment, we carried out a thorough examination of the lexical contents of TNECI and the other EFL textbooks which were to be used as supplementary materials to find out what lexical items could be related to one another in fields or through sense-relations. Through this examination, we were able to collect a number of semantic fields for the experiment. The fields collected differed clearly in the level of difficulty for an EFL learner and in the number of lexical items they contained. The lexical items belonging to these fields were also different in their frequency, range, availability, etc. These attributes of field members were subjectively decided, that is, we did not carry out any statistical analysis to determine the most frequent or useful lexical items as this was considered a peripheral issue for the experiment though the lexical items involved are in common use - at least in the EFL materials we have examined.

A selection of semantic fields for the experiment had, therefore, to be made on a more or less subjective basis. That is, there was no reason a priori why we should experiment with the fields we had chosen and not with others. It just happened that the fields selected were the most common ones found in the EFL materials we examined.<sup>8</sup> If we had examined another set of materials we might have obtained different fields or different lexical items belonging to these fields. However, those selected could be seen to cover a wide spectrum of fields ranging from the easiest to the most difficult - a matter which could be taken to contribute to the validity of selection. The fields and the lexemes used in the experiment are given in Appendix 7.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.2.2. Componential Grids

The theoretical assumptions and criticisms of componential analysis have already been dealt with (see 4.2.); so has been the relevance of componential analysis to the teaching of lexis in EFL (see 7.4.3.). In carrying out our experimental teaching we made use of a 'simplified form' of componential analysis in presenting the experimental fields to the learners in the Exp. G. (see 4.2.6.). However, the field of kinship was taught by means of 'kinship diagrams' rather than componential grids. These diagrams were thought to be more useful than the componential grids which, in the case of kinship, were too complicated for the learners at this stage to understand.

The componential grids were constructed from the dictionary definitions of field members. These definitions were taken from a number of EFL dictionaries and thesauri.<sup>9</sup> The only textbook we used in our construction of the grids was Rudska et al. (1981a) simplifying the grids the book uses as far as possible. The componential grids and kinship diagrams used in the experiment are given in Appendix 8.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.2.3. Collocational Grids

As discussed before (see 7.4.3.), the idea of collocational grids is based on the concept of collocations. It is often the case that lexical items

belonging to the same semantic fields do not share the same collocational relations; nor do they share the same syntactic behaviour. For instance, the lexical items 'beautiful', 'lovely', 'pretty', belong to the same semantic field (i.e. "Being Beautiful") which also includes, among others, such items as 'charming', 'attractive', 'good-looking' and 'handsome'. A collocational grid designed to show the differences in the collocational behaviour of items was presented to the learners in the Exp. G. The collocational grids are given in Appendix 8 together with the relevant componential grids.

In addition to the collocational grid method, the collocational behaviour of lexical items was shown to the Exp. G. in two more ways:

- (i) by model sentences or examples. These model sentences were taken from some EFL dictionaries where they were used as typical contexts of the lexical items concerned.
- (ii) by explanation in a section called 'Usage Notes' or 'Semantic Notes' dealing with some typical collocations of the lexical items with other items of the language. These are also given in Appendix 8.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.2.4. Translation Equivalents

These were used to teach the experimental semantic fields to the C.G. The same model sentences as those used with the Exp. G. were used to exemplify the uses of the lexemes to the C.G. This is in order to control the variable of context. The translation equivalents together with the model sentences are given in Appendix 9.

There are two points that need to be emphasized about the experimental semantic fields. First, more lexical items were taught than tested as we shall see from the posttest. This applies to both the Exp. G. and C.G. The aim was to avoid making the experiment take the form of just emphasizing a small number of lexical items in fields and then testing what was emphasized in the classroom. The second point concerns the

componential analyses of fields used in the experiment. There might have been many 'imperfections' in the componential grids used but this was assumed to have no material effect on the results of the experiment. On the contrary, these 'imperfections' may be taken as 'errors on the right side', as it were, in the sense that they would strengthen rather than weaken any positive conclusion based on superiority of performance by the Exp. G. in the posttest. That is, it is plausible to assume that if the componential grids had been 'perfect' analyses of the experimental fields (if such 'perfection' can ever be attained in componential analysis) the Exp. G. would have achieved a higher rather than lower superiority in performance.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.3. Teaching Approaches

The teaching approach used for the teaching of language activities e.g. dialogues, oral practices, drills, etc. was the same with both the Exp. G. and C.G. It was the approach recommended by the authors of TNECI for the teaching of these activities (see Appendix 4). The approaches used for the teaching of lexis to the two groups were quite different. We shall deal here with the approaches of teaching lexis used with the Exp. G. and C.G. each in turn.

##### 8.3.3.8.2.3.1. Experimental Teaching Approach

The approach used with the Exp. G. consisted of the following steps:

#### 1. Text-Preparation

The texts used in the experiment varied considerably in form and content and as such could lend themselves to a wide variety of uses. Before being studied in class, each text was distributed (as a handout) to the pupils to be read at home. This home-reading of text was intended to help give the pupils more time to comprehend the texts and, more important, to save some time on the activity of helping the pupils comprehend the texts in class. It thus used to help establish 'the context of situation' in which the lexical items occurred.

The time allocations to different language activities did not follow the officially-recommended timetable strictly. In order to complete the experiment in a reasonable period of time, this timetable was slightly modified. For example, it is officially recommended that each text (reading passage) is to be divided into sections (e.g. four or five sections) and each section is to be studied in one lesson period. We used, however, to take more than one section in one lesson period in order to cover the experimental teaching materials within the time-limit set up for the experiment and in order to have sufficient time for the important activity of offering the pupils in the Exp. G. explicit instruction in semantic fields. But not more than 15 - 20 minutes of each teaching session were spent on the explicit instruction of fields and the class activities revolving around it.

## 2. Lead-In

Experimental lexical items were taught to the Exp. G. in semantic fields or in contrastive pairs consisting of two members of a field. These items were singled out from the text e.g. by requesting the pupils to underline them. However, not all the lexical items in a field occurred in one text at one time. In this case, some of the experimental items which did not occur in the text in question but would occur in the other texts later were added to make up the field. This may be regarded as 'pre-teaching' of these items. Thus a particular field was divided into two or more parts, each part being taught in one teaching session until the whole field had been covered during the experimental period of about eight weeks. There were also some lexical items which had been taught before the experiment. In such a case, the teaching of such items in the experiment may be regarded as simply 're-teaching'. However, the experimental teaching of these lexemes was quite different from the 'translation-equivalent' technique which had been used in previous years.



### 3. Presentation (Conveying Meaning)

This step aimed at conveying the meanings of the experimental lexemes (and buffer items) used in the experiment. The following techniques were used:

#### (i) Word's Definition Within English (WDWE)

This was to define the meanings of the experimental lexical items using English rather than Arabic. Two types of definition were used:

##### 1. Definition by Sense-Relations

This was sometimes used as a first step in teaching the meanings of lexical items related in semantic fields. It was to define a lexical item occurring in a particular context by using one or more of the items related to it through sense-relations with some qualification if necessary assuming, of course, that the learners had previously met the defining lexical items. The lexeme 'furious', for example, occurred in a text at one point in our teaching and we wished to convey its meaning to the learners without attempting to teach all the experimental lexemes to which it is related (e.g. 'angry', 'disturbed', 'annoyed', etc.). We thus used the definition by sense-relations as a first step of conveying its meaning; thus 'furious' was defined as 'very angry' invoking the sense-relation of synonymy holding between 'furious' and 'angry' together with an intensifier ('very').

##### 2. Definition by Simplified Dictionary-Descriptions

We have already discussed the use of dictionary-definitions in language teaching (see 7.4.2.) and concluded that unless simply constructed, dictionary-definitions may prove more difficult than the lexical items being defined.

As a first step towards teaching lexical items in fields, it was found helpful to give simplified dictionary-definitions for some items prior to the teaching of the whole fields to which they belong. For example, the lexical items 'glare', 'glance' and 'stare' belonging to the field of "Looking" were given simplified definitions before being taught in a field with the other

lexical items which belong to the same field (e.g. 'gaze', 'glimpse', 'peer', etc.); thus we had:

'glare' : to look in an angry way .

'glance' : to give a brief look.

'stare' : to look fixedly with eyes wide open.

The WDWE served two aims: first, they helped the learners to unconsciously build up the fields or parts of the fields and the sense-relations in terms of which the fields were structured before this was made explicit; second, they were used to convey the meanings of the other lexical items which, though new to the learners, were not part of the experimental fields and were, therefore, not taught in componential grids.

#### (ii) Componential and Collocational Grids

The componential and collocational grids used in the experiment were discussed in previous sections (see 8.3.3.8.2.2.2. and 8.3.3.8.2.2.3.). This step in the teaching approach consisted of presenting each grid to the learners in a prepared handout with explanation of how the grid works. The presentation of each grid did not exceed 20 minutes in any teaching session. However, it was felt necessary to divide some componential grids into parts and teach each part together with the collocations of the lexical items involved in a lesson period when it was not possible to cover the presentation of the componential grid, the relevant collocational grid, the model sentences and the usage notes in one teaching session.

#### 4. Reinforcement

An important aspect of learning lexical items in semantic fields in our experiment was to provide the learners with a variety of contexts in which the lexical items may be used. This took the form of systematic reinforcement of the teaching method by means of different types of lexical exercises which aimed at reinforcing the learner's awareness of the similarities and differences between the meanings of lexical items in the experimental

fields and the sense-relations in terms of which these fields were structured. Since we were concerned with receptive rather than productive vocabulary, our reinforcement exercises were receptive in the sense that they were intended to reinforce the comprehension of lexical meanings rather than the production of lexical items in actual use. Appendix 10 gives the types of Reinforcement Exercises used in the experiment.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.3.2. Control Teaching Approach

The Experimental Teaching Approach discussed in the previous section was part of the experimental treatment except for steps 1 and 2. It was used with the Exp. G. only. The one used with the C.G. consisted of the following steps:

##### 1. Text-Preparation

The home-reading of texts (reading passages) by the learners was not part of the experimental variable since it was not part of the explicit instruction of semantic fields. This step was, therefore, used with the C.G. and the teaching texts were distributed to the learners in the C.G. in advance for preparation and comprehension at home.

##### 2. Lead-In

In each teaching session, the learners in the C.G. were requested to underline the experimental lexical items occurring in each text. These items were regarded as part of the 'new' vocabulary to which the learners had to pay special attention. The step of 'Lead-In' used with C.G. was the same as that of the experimental teaching approach.

##### 3. Presentation (Conveying Meaning)

For conveying the meanings of the experimental lexical items to the C.G. the Arabic 'translation equivalents' were used. These 'equivalents' were normally used for the teaching of lexical meanings in Iraqi EFL classes, as already mentioned (see 7.1). They were arrived at in the experiment by the help of some well-known English-Arabic dictionaries and by the use of our knowledge of the two languages (English and Arabic). In addition,

some of the Arabic 'equivalents' were given in the official textbook and the Literary Reader and these were also used (see Appendix 4). In a large number of cases, these 'equivalents' were not single lexical items but were phrases and expressions, sometimes definitions in Arabic, as there is no one-to-one correspondence between the two languages at the lexical level, as has been shown in Chapter Five.

#### 8.3.3.8.2.4. Buffer Items

It was found necessary for the participants in the experiment to be kept in ignorance of the aim of the experiment lest their awareness of the aim would colour their responses or prevent them from reacting naturally in the classroom. We had thus to avoid establishing in the subjects of the experiment a 'mental set' — a specific expectation of what the posttest would consist of or what sort of response the experimenter would require. For this purpose, we had included in the experiment what might be referred to as 'buffer items'. These were 'new' lexical items found in the official textbook (i.e. TNECI) and the supplementary reading texts used in the experiment. For example, in one of the teaching sessions the following lexical items were introduced: announce, impress, style, argue, dispute, submit, discuss, debate, propose, superior, humble, disturbed, rival'. The underlined lexical items 'announce, argue, debate, discuss, humble, disturbed' belong to the experimental fields whereas the other items (that is, 'impress, style, dispute, submit, propose, superior, rival') can be regarded as 'buffer items' in the sense that they helped to conceal the true purpose of the experiment from the pupils.

The buffer items were taught to the Exp. G. by definitions within English, and to the C.G. by the use of Arabic 'translation equivalents'. This was consistent with the teaching approaches used with the two groups. Appendix 11 gives the buffer items used in the experiment and how they were taught to the Exp. G. and C.G.

### 8.3.3.8.3. Posttest

#### 8.3.3.8.3.1. Construction

In order to test our hypothesis about the usefulness of semantic fields in the teaching of vocabulary, an objective achievement posttest was constructed. The test items were chosen from among the experimental semantic fields and the buffer items used in the experiment.

#### 8.3.3.8.3.2. Behaviour Sample

A test should essentially be an objective measure of a sample of behaviour. Educational tests are like tests in any other science, insofar as observations are made on a small but carefully chosen sample of an individual's behaviour. Whether or not the test adequately covers the behaviour under consideration obviously depends on the number and nature of items in the sample. For example, an arithmetic test consisting of only five problems, or one including only multiplication items, would be a poor measure of the individual's computational skill. A vocabulary test composed entirely of baseball items would hardly provide a dependable estimate of a learner's total range of vocabulary.

Since we were interested in semantic field aspects of vocabulary, the posttest was based on a sample chosen from the experimental semantic fields and buffer items as mentioned above.

#### 8.3.3.8.3.3. Try-Out

There was a try-out of the posttest on a number of native speakers of English and EFL students in some British educational institutions to help us see the reactions of testees to a test on semantic fields.<sup>10</sup> The answer sheets were informally (that is, not statistically) analysed and a number of modifications were carried out on the posttest such as the omission of a reading passage and some lexical items required as correct responses because they appeared to be exceptionally difficult. In spite of the fact that there were characteristic differences between the 'pilot testees' and

the Iraqi pupils to whom the final posttest was to be administered, the posttest try-out helped us detect some test items that might have been unsuitable.

The posttest was also sent to some applied linguists in a number of British Universities for comments on the various aspects of the test. A number of valuable comments were received and these were examined in detail for insightful hints. They indicated to us the sorts of questions that may be asked not only about the posttest but also about the experiment as a whole.<sup>11</sup> We have tried to answer such questions and included the answers at various points in the discussion of the experiment.

#### 8.3.3.8.3.4. Contents

The posttest is given in full in Appendix 12.

#### 8.3.3.8.3.5. Other Aspects of Posttest

Number of correct answers : 53 lexical items

Marking: 53 marks, one mark for each correct answer

Time : One and a half hours

#### 8.3.3.8.3.6. Testing Procedures

##### 8.3.3.8.3.6.1. Uniformity of Procedures

If the scores obtained by different individuals are to be comparable, testing conditions must obviously be the same for all. Such a requirement is only a special application of the need for controlled conditions in all scientific observations. In order to secure uniformity of testing conditions in our experiment, the classes forming our Exp. G., C.G. and other groups were ALL tested on the same day for both the pretest and posttest; they were ALL provided with the same conditions as to time limits, oral explanations of test instructions, ways of handling queries from them, etc.

##### 8.3.3.8.3.6.2. Oral Instructions to Subjects

The test instructions of both the pretest and posttest were explained to the testees in Arabic, their native language, in both the Exp. G. and

C.G. (and the other groups) in order to ensure that they clearly understood what they were required to do. Thus any incomprehension of the test instruction as a factor for poor performance was eliminated from the experiment.

#### 8.3.3.8.3.7. Posttest Questionnaire

There was a questionnaire of eight items falling into two combined parts: the first part was intended to elicit some factual information about the participants in the experiment such as their name, age, native language (in case some might have a native language other than Arabic which was assumed to be the native language of all the participants), the number of years they had been learning English as a foreign language, etc. The second part was intended to elicit their reactions to the posttest as to the level of difficulty (very difficult, difficult, average, etc.) or the amount of time needed to do the test. They were also given an opportunity to record in the second part any suggestions or comments on the posttest. For this purpose, they were allowed to use Arabic if they wished as it was felt that their 'expressive abilities' in English might be too limited for them to be able to express themselves freely. The Posttest Questionnaire is given in Appendix 13.

#### 8.4. Learners' Reactions to the Experiment

The participants in both the Exp. G. and C.G. were given an opportunity on the day of the posttest to record their reactions to the experiment as a whole such as the teaching approach used for teaching them English in the second term (that is, during the period of the experiment), the componential grids and collocational grids, the teaching materials in general (e.g. the reading texts, the exercises, etc.). They were also given a second opportunity (on the day after the posttest) to record their comments on the posttest as they might not have sufficient time to formulate these comments when taking the posttest. In addition, they were requested to write any comment or information concerning any happening or experience that had some effect

on their learning of English in the second term. The learners' reactions to the experiment will be discussed in the following chapter.

#### 8.5. Contemporaneous Events

It is possible that some contemporaneous events might be at work during the experiment, independent of X (the assumed causal variable), that influence Z (the dependent variable). However, as mentioned before, all the participants belonged to the same school and were living under identical conditions during the experiment except for their differential exposure to the independent variable. Thus, features of the experimental situation or external events that occurred during the experiment were likely to influence the two groups equally and would not be confounded with the effect of the independent variable. Yet, the contemporaneous event which might be taken as having some effect on the experiment and which is worth reporting here is the Iraq-Iran War. The War broke out in September, 1980, and was still raging at the time of the experiment. In fact the fighting was intensified in February, 1984 just before the experiment was due to start. Schools in the city of Basrah, where the experiment was carried out, were closed because of the fighting for approximately two weeks after which they were re-opened for the second term. Fortunately, life in the city returned very rapidly to normal to enable us to start the experiment. There had also been some shelling of Basrah by the Iranians during the experimental teaching. Luckily, the school chosen for the experiment was in an area far away from the shelling and other war activities. In addition, the participants in the experiment were requested to report to the investigator (i.e. the writer of the thesis) or to the headmaster, with whom there was close co-operation on this matter, any happening affecting their normal life such as deaths of relatives in the war front or as a result of the shelling or any other accident that might interfere with their studies. However, nothing was reported to the investigator or the headmaster. Certainly, the war has had many effects



on the Iraqi society as a whole. But such effects were regarded as irrelevant to our experiment inasmuch as they did not affect the participants in any directly observable way. At least, they form a theme for another sort of investigation.

To conclude: we assume that the direct effects of the Iraq-Iran War in the experiment were negligible, or at least unobservable. But the fact that there was a conflict at all should be taken into account when interpreting the outcomes of the experiment.

NOTES TO CHAPTER EIGHT

1. The school was Al-Maqil Secondary School for Boys in Basrah. Basrah is Iraq's second largest city lying in the southern part of the country.
2. According to the two teachers of English in the school, the method of 'lottery' was followed in assigning pupils to classes. This was to place the names of the pupils in cards and then pick them up by chance.
3. For example, The Teacher's Guide (Book 7) recommends that in teaching English to Iraqi pupils "the main thing is to get the words out of the way of language learning" (p.14).
4. Literary Reader 1 was a simplified version of Kipps by H. G. Wells.
5. I mention, in particular, Miss Faiza Al-Anni currently reading for a Ph.D. in English Language and Mr. Abdullah Twafique previously reading for a Ph.D. in English Language Teaching, both at the Department of English, University of Sheffield.
6. According to the headmaster of the school there were many reasons for the large number of absentees from the pretest in Class A. The main reason, however, seemed to be that the teacher of English in charge of the class was on a 'sick leave' as he fell ill two days before the pretest. There was no other teacher to take his place on that particular day, i.e. the day of the pretest. The pupils in the class did not expect to be given an English session and preferred to stay out of the lesson period in which the pretest was due to take place. Some even stayed out of school on that day.
7. Groups 2 - 4 (G.2. - G.4.) were taught by the two teachers of English in the school through the use of the translation-equivalents techniques used with the C.G.
8. Except for the fields of "Kinship" and "Killing Human Beings" in which we had special theoretical interest as they were contrastively

studied in English and Arabic before the experiment. Their inclusion in the experiment was, therefore, theoretically determined though they turned out to be quite common fields in the supplementary materials we examined.

9. These were LDOCE; OALDOCE; LLOCE; CMGTS and WNDOS.
10. These institutions were: Sheffield University, Sheffield City Polytechnic, and Richmond College in Sheffield.
11. They were: Dr. Anita Pincas (Lecturer in Education with special reference to TEFL, Department of TESOL, Institute of Education, University of London); Mr. M.J. Wallace (Lecturer, Scottish Centre for Education Overseas, Moray House College of Education, Edinburgh); Dr. Paul Meara (Lecturer, Department of Applied Linguistics and Language Centre, Birkbeck College, University of London); Mr. Phil Scholfield (Lecturer, Department of Linguistics, University of Bangor, North Wales), and Mr. Eddie Williams (Lecturer, Centre for Applied Language Studies, University of Reading).

## CHAPTER NINE

### RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

#### 9.1. Data Analyses

As mentioned in Chapter Eight, the purpose of the pretest, as originally planned, was only to determine the initial position of the groups involved in the experiment with respect to lexical competence and the acquisition of lexis in semantic fields manifested in reading comprehension skills. As already shown, the performance of the Exp. G. on the pretest was lower than that of the C.G. and of all the other groups. The performance on the pretest, therefore, has to be taken into account when analysing the results of the experiment in spite of the many differences between the pretest and the posttest as to contents or level of difficulty.

We shall present two analyses of the results of the experiment. In the first analysis the results will be based only on the performance of the groups on the posttest as was originally planned. In the second analysis which will take the form of a statistical model, the Linear Regression Model, the pretest results will be included.

#### 9.1.1. Posttest Results

##### 9.1.1.1. Raw Scores

The achievement of the Exp. G. which was exposed to the experimental treatment will be compared with that of the C.G. and the other groups which were not exposed to the treatment. The raw scores of all groups are presented in Table 2. They were obtained simply by counting the number of right answers; one mark was given for each correct answer.<sup>1</sup>

Looking at Table 2, we can see that the total raw scores for the groups are: 1128 marks (Exp. G.); 475 marks (C.G.); 386 marks (G.2.); 509 marks (G.3.); 446 marks (G.4.). Taking into account the number of subjects in each group, the total raw scores clearly show that the Exp. G. has scored more correct answers than any of the other groups; that is, they

Pupil	Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G.3.	G.4.
1	50	31	21	30	33
2	48	24	20	27	30
3	48	23	20	26	28
4	48	22	18	25	27
5	45	20	18	24	26
6	44	20	17	21	24
7	44	19	17	21	20
8	43	19	17	20	19
9	43	19	17	19	19
10	42	18	16	19	18
11	42	18	15	18	18
12	42	18	15	17	18
13	39	17	15	17	16
14	37	16	15	16	14
15	37	16	15	16	14
16	37	16	15	15	14
17	35	15	14	15	13
18	35	15	14	14	13
19	34	15	13	14	13
20	34	14	13	13	11
21	32	13	13	13	11
22	32	12	13	13	10
23	31	12	11	12	10
24	28	12	9	11	10
25	27	12	9	11	9
26	27	11	6	11	8
27	27	10		11	
28	25	9		11	
29	25	9		11	
30	24			11	
31	22			10	
32	21			10	
33	19			9	
Total	1128	475	386	509	446
N	33	29	26	33	26

Table 2 : Posttest Raw Scores Arranged in  
Descending Order of Size  
(N = Number of Pupils)

outperformed the other groups in the posttest.

However, in the absence of additional interpretive data, a raw score on any test is meaningless. To say that an individual has correctly solved 20 problems on an arithmetic test or made 30 correct choices in a vocabulary test conveys little or no information about his standing in any of these functions. Nor do the familiar percentage scores provide a satisfactory solution to the problem of interesting test scores. A score of 65 percent correct on one vocabulary test, for example, might be equivalent to 30 percent correct on another, and to 80 percent correct on a third. The difficulty of the items making up each test may help us, of course, determine the meaning of the scores, but there are still important analyses to carry out on test scores in order to make them meaningful.

#### 9.1.1.2. Frequency Distribution

One way of organizing and summarizing test scores so as to facilitate their understanding is to tabulate the scores into a Frequency Distribution. Table 3 shows the frequency distribution of the scores obtained by the subjects in the Exp. G, C.G. and the other groups:

Class Interval	(f) Exp. G.	(f) C.G.	(f) G.2.	(f) G.3.	(f) G.4.
47 - 50	4	0	0	0	0
43 - 46	4	0	0	0	0
39 - 42	5	0	0	0	0
35 - 38	5	0	0	0	0
31 - 34	5	1	0	0	1
27 - 30	4	0	0	2	3
23 - 26	3	2	0	3	2
19 - 22	3	6	3	5	3
15 - 18	0	10	11	7	4
11 - 14	0	7	9	13	8
7 - 10	0	3	2	3	5
3 - 6	0	0	1	0	0
N =	33	29	26	33	26

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Posttest Scores  
(f = frequency)

Looking at Table 3, we can see immediately that the scores obtained by the Exp. G. tend to occupy the class intervals at the top of the scale whereas those obtained by the C.G. and the other groups tend to cluster around the class intervals at the bottom of the table. In fact, not a single score obtained by any pupil in the C.G. or the other groups occupies a class interval above 31 - 34 whereas there are 18 scores obtained by the Exp. G. clustering above that class. This clearly indicates to us the superiority of performance achieved by the Exp. G.

### 9.1.1.3. Central Tendency

A group of scores can also be described in terms of some measure of central tendency. Such a measure provides a single, most typical or representative score to characterize the performance of the entire group. The mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) is the most familiar of measures to indicate the central tendency of scores. Table 4 shows the means of scores obtained by ALL the pupils who took the posttest regardless of the fact that some of them did not take the pretest. Table 5 shows the means of scores of only those pupils who took both the pretest and the posttest.<sup>2</sup>

Notice, however, the slight difference between the two tables.

Class	Group	N	$\bar{x}$
C	Exp.G.	33	66.72
B	C.G.	29	30.90
E	G.2.	26	28.01
D	G.3.	33	30.36
A	G.4.	26	32.36

Table 4: Means of Posttest Scores Obtained by ALL Pupils Who Took the Posttest

Class	Group	N	$\bar{x}$
C	Exp.G.	24	68.87
B	C.G.	24	31.37
E	G.2.	23	28.06
D	G.3.	27	32.07

Table 5: Means of Posttest Scores Obtained by the Pupils Who Took Both the Pretest and Posttest (excluding G.4.)

Both tables clearly indicate the superiority of scores obtained by the Exp. G. compared with any other group. If we take Table 4 we find the mean difference between the Exp. G. and C.G., for example, is  $66.72 - 30.90 = 35.82$  and the mean difference between them in Table 5 is  $68.87 - 31.37 = 37.50$ . Obviously, this is a huge difference and later we will talk in detail about this difference and how much practical and statistical significance can be attached to it.

Two other measures of central tendency of scores can be mentioned here: the Mode and the Median. The mode refers to the most frequent score. In a frequency distribution, the mode is the midpoint of the class interval with the highest frequency. Thus, in Table 3, the highest frequency score for the C.G. is (10), for the class interval (15 - 18). The midpoint for this interval is 16.5, which is the estimate of the mode. But for the Exp. G. in the same table the maximum frequency is shared by three neighbouring class intervals. In this case we estimate the mode at the dividing point between the three which is 36.5. In the same way we can find the mode of the other groups.<sup>3</sup>

The other measure of central tendency, the median, refers to the point on the scale of measurement above which - and correspondingly below which - half the cases lie. Using the data in Table 3 we find that the midpoint score of the Exp. G. is (35) more than two times higher than that of the C.G. (16) or the other groups 15 (G.2.); 15 (G.3.); 16 (G.4.). It is clear that the median and the mean for each of the two main groups, i.e. the Exp. G. and C.G., are nearly equivalent: median = 66.04, mean = 66.72 (Exp. G.); median = 30.19, mean = 30.90 (C.G.) because the scores tended to cluster fairly symmetrically around a central point as they followed a normal distribution.

#### 9.1.1.4. Variability

Further description of a set of scores is given by measuring the variability or the extent of individual differences around the central tendency. Knowing



the central value of a set of scores tells us a great deal about the overall performance of a group but it does not give us the total picture of the distribution of scores. Two groups may have the same arithmetic mean, from which we could conclude that taken as a whole, one group is equal to the other in test performance. Yet there may be considerable differences between the two groups in the variability or dispersion. One group may be considerably more homogeneous than the second. We should expect the first group to grasp new ideas at nearly the same rate whereas the second would show considerable disparity in the speed of grasping new ideas.

There are many measures of interindividual variation. The purpose of each of them is to indicate how similar or how different the individuals in the group are with respect to a given characteristic.

Two measures of variability will be used in our analysis of test scores here: the range, and the standard deviation.

#### (i) Range

The most obvious and familiar way of reporting variability is in terms of the Range between the highest and lowest score. Using the data given in Table 2 we find that the range of test scores for the Exp. G. is 50 - 19; for C.G. is 31 - 9; for G.2. is 21 - 6; for G.3. , 30 - 9; and for G.4., 33 - 8.

The range, however, is extremely crude and unstable, for it is determined by only two scores. It is affected by extreme cases, and therefore may be misleading as an indicator of the variability of the group. A single unusually high or low score would thus markedly affect its size.

#### (ii) Standard Deviation

A more precise and serviceable measure of variability is the Standard Deviation (SD). Like the mean, it assumes that the data corresponds to an internal scale. Table 6 gives the standard deviations of scores obtained by the pupils taking the posttest.

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Exp.G.	33	66.72	16.46
C.G.	29	30.90	9.14
G.2.	26	28.01	6.49
G.3.	33	30.36	10.39
G.4.	26	32.36	13.01

Table 6: Standard Deviations of Posttest Scores

The table clearly shows that the Exp. G. was less homogeneous than the C.G. The most homogeneous group was G.2. This indicates a wider range of scores within the Exp. G. than within any other group.

#### 9.1.1.5. Standard Error

The Exp. G. is to be regarded as a sample drawn from population A and the C.G. as another sample drawn from population B. Population A is, we assume, all the Iraqi pupils at the secondary schools who might have been taught (or might in future be taught) lexis by the experimental method. Population B is the pupils (at the same schools) taught by the traditional method i.e. 'translation-equivalent' techniques. By contrasting samples or studying the differences between experimental and control groups, we wish to test our hypothesis about the nature of the true difference between the larger populations represented by the samples. Sampling has to be limited for practical reasons; ordinarily we cannot measure total populations, or at least, it is generally inefficient and unnecessary to do so. Yet we usually wish to generalize beyond our samples, arriving at scientific decisions that transcend the observations made at a particular time and in a particular place, or reaching administrative decisions that apply to larger groups of individuals. In previous sections we have been concerned with statistics used to describe the properties of particular samples. If we want to apply these same statistics beyond the limits of samples, we should like to know how much risk we take of being wrong in doing so. To be more specific, when

we obtain the means of a sample that is measured in some respect, before we can say that this obtained mean also describes the mean of the population sampled, we need to find some basis for believing that it does not deviate very far from the population mean. Fortunately, there is a statistical procedure that will inform us about how far our obtained means can deviate from the population mean. The statistics that will do this is known as the Standard Error (SE) of the mean. In a similar manner, there are standard errors of other sample statistics - medians, standard deviations and the like - which inform us of the accuracy of our obtained figures as estimates of the corresponding population values.<sup>4</sup>

The formula we shall use for computing the standard error of a mean is:

$$SE\bar{x} = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{N}} \quad (\text{standard error of a mean estimated from SD})$$

(Guilford and Fruchter, 1978:126)

where  $SE\bar{x}$  = standard error of a mean  
 SD = standard deviation of a sample from the population  
 N = size of sample

Applying the formula to our data in Table 6 we obtain the standard errors of our sample means as follows:

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	SE
Exp. G.	33	66.72	16.46	2.87
C.G.	29	30.90	9.14	1.70
G.2.	26	28.01	6.49	1.27
G.3.	30	30.36	10.39	1.81
G.4.	26	32.36	13.01	2.55

Table 7: Standard Errors of the Means

When we estimate the standard error, we are essentially asking "How far from the population mean are the sample means, like this one we obtained, likely to vary in random sampling?" We do not know what the population mean is, but from the SE 2.87 (Exp. G.), for example, we conclude that means of samples of 33 cases each would not deviate from it in either direction

more than 2.87 units about two-thirds of the time. We may conclude this because in a sample as large as 33, we may assume that the sample means are normally distributed. This assumption makes possible a number of inferences that we could not make without it.

Since we may conclude that two-thirds of the sample means (when N is 33) - in the case of Exp. G. - will lie within 2.87 units, plus or minus, of the population mean, we can also say that there is only 1 chance in 3 for a sample mean to be further than 2.87 units from the population mean in either direction. The same applies to the means of the other groups in Table 7.

#### 9.1.1.6. Confidence Intervals

The kind of conclusion that we should most like to make is slightly different from the one just given. We are attempting to estimate the population mean, knowing the sample mean. We should, therefore, like to know how far away from the sample mean the population mean is likely to be.

It might seem that if we can say that two-thirds of the sample means are within the SE of the population mean, we could also say that about two-thirds of the time the population mean is within one SE of the sample mean. But note that the last statement implies a normal distribution about the sample mean, whereas, actually, the sampling distribution is about the population mean. Logically, we cannot reverse the roles of  $\mu$  (population mean) and  $\bar{x}$  (sample mean) in this manner. But through some mathematical reasoning, which we need not go into here, we can do something equivalent.<sup>5</sup> The process results in setting up Confidence Intervals (CI) for the population mean. The CI inform us of how much risk we take in being wrong in our estimates. The CI for a mean can be set up by applying the following formulas:

$$CI_{.95} = \bar{x} - 1.96 SE\bar{x} \text{ to } \bar{x} + 1.96 SE\bar{x} \text{ (Confidence Intervals for a mean)}$$

$$CI_{.99} = \bar{x} - 2.58 SE\bar{x} \text{ to } \bar{x} + 2.58 SE\bar{x}$$

(Guilford and Fruchter, 1978: 133)

where  $CI_{.95}$  stands for the confidence interval at the .95 level and  $CI_{.99}$  stands for the corresponding interval at the .99 level. Applying the CI formulas to the data of Table 7, we obtain the following information:

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	SE $\bar{x}$	$CI_{.95}$	$CI_{.99}$
Exp.G	33	66.72	16.46	2.87	61.09 - 72.35	59.32 - 74.12
C.G.	29	30.90	9.14	1.70	27.59 - 34.23	26.51 - 35.34
G.2.	26	28.01	6.49	1.27	25.52 - 30.50	24.73 - 31.29
G.3.	33	30.36	10.39	1.81	26.82 - 33.91	25.69 - 35.03
G.4.	26	32.36	13.01	2.55	27.36 - 37.36	25.78 - 38.94

Table 8: Posttest Means and Confidence Intervals

If we take the Exp. G. in Table 8 we find that there is confidence at the .95 level that the interval 61.09 - 72.35 contains the population mean. That is, the score limits of 61.09 and 72.35 mark off a confidence interval within which the population mean probably lies. Only once in 20 times would we be in error by making this estimate. And there is confidence at the .99 level that the interval 59.32 - 74.12 contains it. The odds are 99 to 1 in favour of this conclusion. The same interpretation can be said about the means of the other groups in the table.

## 9.2. Hypothesis Testing

Our data have shown that the Exp. G. did better than C.G. or any other group in the posttest. Clearly, the findings are in line with the positive hypothesis: pupils taught by a semantic field approach comprehend lexis in written discourse more effectively as manifested in reading comprehension than do pupils taught by a non-semantic field approach. But we know that the findings based on our samples are not very likely to be exactly the same as the findings we would obtain if we had experimented with the total population which may be defined as the Iraqi EFL learners in secondary schools. Now we want to estimate whether, if we had experimented with the total population, we would still have superiority of performance in the

acquisition of lexis on the part of the Exp. G. This we do, ordinarily, by testing the Null Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) — the hypothesis that in the Iraqi secondary schools population as a whole, pupils do NOT differ in the acquisition of lexis even if some are given explicit instruction in semantic fields and made aware of the existence of such lexical patterns in English.

It may seem odd that, when interested in one hypothesis (that there IS a difference between the two populations represented by our samples), we should test its opposite (that there is NO difference). But the reason is not too difficult to follow. Since we do not know the true state of affairs in the population, all we can do is make inferences about it on the basis of our sample findings. If we are comparing two groups, there are obviously two possibilities: either the two populations are alike, or they are different.

The mean of scores obtained by the Exp. G. in the posttest is 66.72 and by the C.G. is 30.90. The difference between the two mean is  $66.72 - 30.90 = 35.82$ . It may be satisfactory to say that the difference is so huge between the two means that it is clearly very significant. However, we are not sure (and this is also to satisfy the sceptical mind) what statistical significance we can attach to these figures. Are we justified statistically in saying that the two sample means are far enough apart to give confidence that there is a real difference in lexical acquisition? The question about "real difference" pertains to population parameters. With sample means fluctuating as they do in sampling, it is possible that the obtained difference of 35.82 could have been due to random sampling from the same population — same, that is, with respect to lexical acquisition under the conditions of the experiment. There is also the question of how big the differences have to be before we can ascribe them to our independent variable.

In order to make a test of significance of a difference between two means, we need a special mathematical model describing what would happen in the case of purely random sampling of such pairs of means. With large

samples like ours, the model to be used is a normal distribution of differences  $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$  with a mean of Zero and a standard deviation that is called the SE of a difference between means.<sup>6</sup> Such a standard error can be estimated from the standard errors of the two means  $SE\bar{x}_1$  and  $SE\bar{x}_2$ . The formula is:

$$SEd \bar{x} = \sqrt{SE\bar{x}_1^2 + SE\bar{x}_2^2} \quad (\text{SE of a difference between uncorrelated means})$$

(Guilford and Fruchter, 1978:148)

Applying the above formula to our sample means, we get:

$$SEd \bar{x} = \sqrt{2.87^2 + 1.70^2} = 3.34$$

In accordance with the usual null hypothesis, we assume a sampling distribution of differences, with the means at Zero, or at  $\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$ .<sup>7</sup> The deviation of each sample difference  $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$  from this central reference point is equal to  $(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$ , or  $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 - 0$ . The deviation of each sampled difference given in terms of standard measure would be the deviation divided by the standard error, which gives us a Z value. This operation is symbolized by the formula:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{SE d\bar{x}} \quad (\text{A Z ratio for a difference between means})$$

(op. cit. p. 150)<sup>8</sup>

from this we get:

$$Z = \frac{35.82}{3.34} = 10.72$$

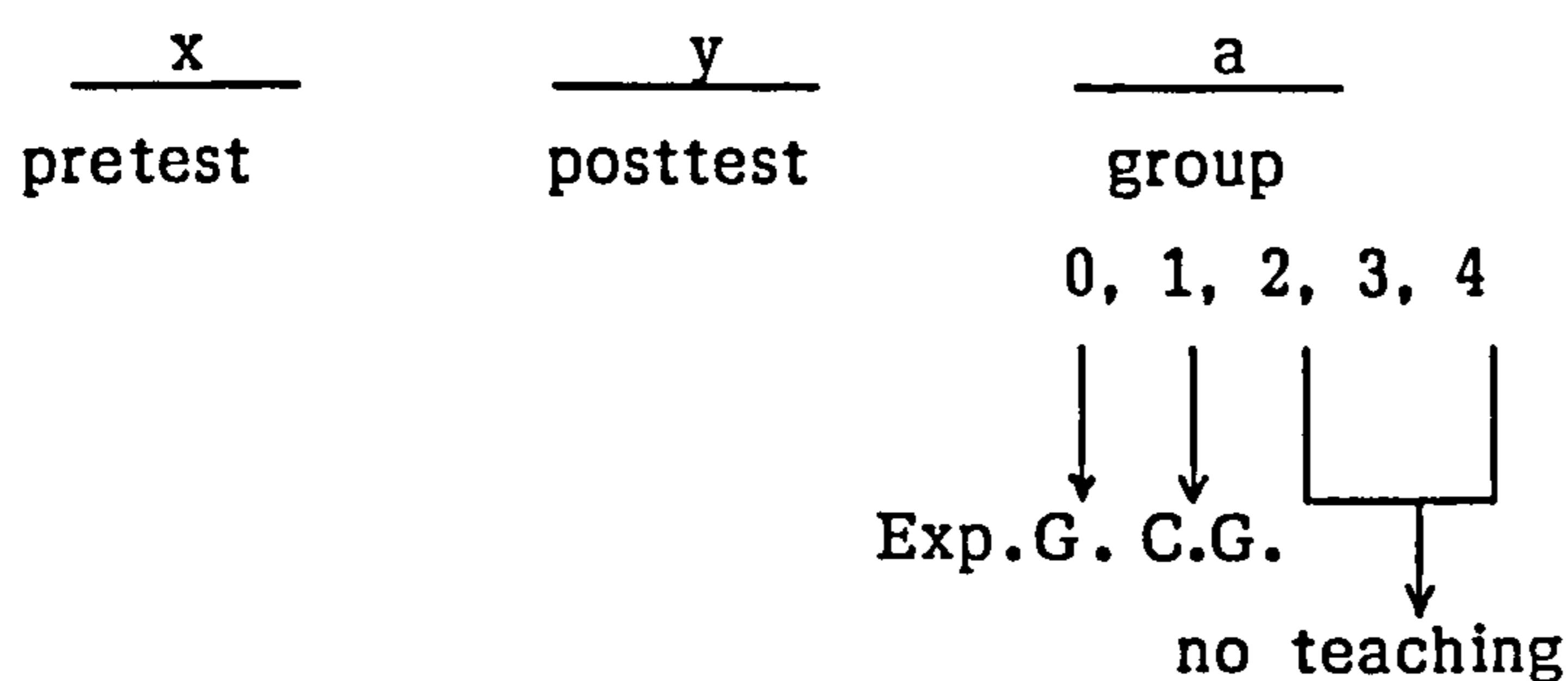
The value 10.72 tells us how many  $SEd\bar{x}$ 's the obtained difference extends from the means of the distribution. The mean, under the null hypothesis that is being tested, is a difference of Zero. Since the sample is large, we may assume a normal distribution of the Z's. The obtained Z exceeds the .05 level of significance (which for large samples is 1.96) and the .01 level (which is 2.85); consequently we would reject the null hypothesis, and we would say that the obtained difference is statistically 'very significant'

at both the .05 level and the .01 level.<sup>9</sup>

### 9.3. Linear Regression Model

In the previous sections we analysed the results of the experiment as seen in the posttest performance. The pretest results were not taken into account; nor was the fact that the Exp. G. and C.G. were taught by the writer of the thesis and were both exposed to all the experimental semantic fields and teaching materials (though by different methods) whereas the other groups (i.e. G.2., G.3. and G.4.) were taught by other teachers and were exposed to most (but not all) experimental materials.<sup>10</sup> In order to take these two aspects (i.e. pretest performance and teaching by the writer of the thesis vs. no teaching) in the analysis of the results, a statistical model, the Simple Linear Regression Model, will be used.<sup>11</sup>

To apply this model, we need to pair the Pretest-Posttest raw scores obtained by the pupils who took both tests. These are given in Appendix 14. This means that the pupils who took either the pretest or posttest but not both will be excluded from the analysis. The total number of pupils to be involved in the analysis is thus: 24 (Exp. G.) + 24 (C.G.) + 23 (G.2.) + 27 (G.3.) + 11 (G.4.) = 109. Thus we shall have:



The model is:

$$y = ai + bx$$

where

y = posttest; a = group; b = allowance for 'natural ability'; x = pretest

We shall also use the two symbols  $\beta$  (Greek beta) and  $\alpha$  (Greek alpha) as follows:



Control Teaching vs. No Teaching  $\longrightarrow \beta$   
 Experimental Teaching vs. Control Teaching  $\longrightarrow \alpha$

The model can be represented by the following diagram:

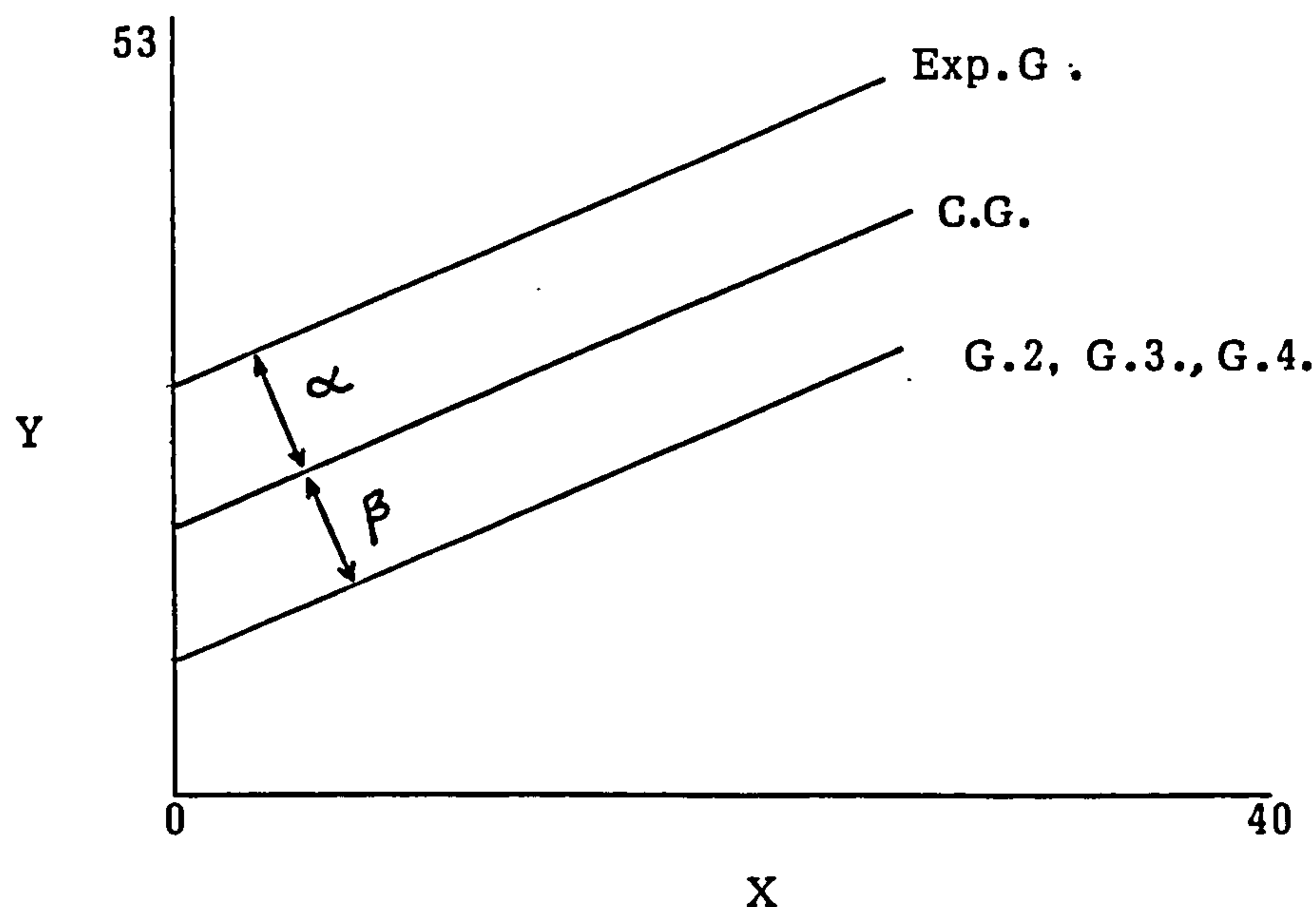


Figure 24: Scatter Diagram with Regression Lines  
 (adapted from: Hatch and Farhady, 1982: 217)

$Y - X = \text{difference } (d)$

For groups 2, 3, and 4 we shall have:  $Y = a_0 + bx$  (i.e.  $Y = C + bx$ )

↓  
a control group

For group 1 we shall have:  $Y = a_0 + \beta + bx$  (i.e.  $Y = a + C + bx$ )

For group 0 we shall have:  $Y = a_0 + \alpha + \beta + bx$  (i.e.  $Y = a + C + d + bx$ )  
 $\alpha = d; \quad \beta = C$

The model was used to test two null hypotheses. The first hypothesis is that there is no difference between the teaching of the C.G. and the teaching of G.2, G.3. and G.4. That is, the mere exposure of the C.G. to the experimental lexical items in the reading comprehension passages did not have any significant effect in the performance of the C.G. on the posttest. Whether the group is exposed to the experimental items or not, there is no significant difference in performance unless the exposure is combined with the experimental treatment. The second null hypothesis is that there

is no difference between the Exp. G. and the C.G.; that is, the teaching of lexical items in semantic fields has no effect in the acquisition of lexis as manifested in reading comprehension skills. Thus we have:

Null Hypotheses:

$$H_o^{(1)} : \beta = 0$$

$$H_o^{(2)} : \alpha = 0$$

The estimates of true  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  will be symbolized as:<sup>12</sup>

$\hat{\beta}$  (beta hat) ;  $\hat{\alpha}$  (alpha hat)

Following the above model, the data obtained from the pretest and posttest in our experiment was computed to give the following results:<sup>13</sup>

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hat{\beta} = 1.65 & \hat{\alpha} = 20.9 \\ SE = 1.28 & SE = 1.53 \end{array}$$

to test  $H_o^{(1)}$

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta} - 0}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \left[ \frac{1.65}{1.28} \right] = 1.2$$

According to the model, we reject  $H_o^{(1)}$  if  $|t| < 2$  approximately (that is, smaller than 2). Since  $|t|$  above is less than 2, then we accept  $H_o^{(1)}$ .

That is, we accept the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the C.G. and the other groups (i.e. G.2., G.3. and G.4.). This means that the exposure to the lexical items of the experimental semantic fields had no significant contribution to the test performance.

To test  $H_o^{(2)}$ :  $\beta = 0$

$$t = \frac{20.9}{1.53} = 13.66 > 2$$

since  $\beta$  here is significantly higher than 0; then we reject  $H_o^{(2)}$ . That is, we reject the hypothesis that the explicit instruction of semantic fields has no effect on the learning of lexis. To apply the Confidence Intervals to true  $\alpha$ , we get:

$$\bar{\alpha} = 20.9 \pm 2 \times 1.53$$

The true difference between the Exp. G and C.G. thus lies between

17.9 and 23.9 which is statistically very significant.

#### 9.4. Final-Year Examination Results

The experiment ended on 26 April, 1984. The participants, together with other pupils in the school, had to take their Final-Year Examinations in the first or second week of May. The types of questions in the English Language Examination Paper were 'grammar-centred' with little, if any, attention being paid to lexis as may be seen from Appendix 16 which gives us the Final-Year Examination Paper of the English Language taken by the groups of pupils involved in the experiment. Looking at the questions being asked in this paper we may say that they were 'very traditional', testing such 'traditional aspects' of language acquisition as the mastery of grammatical points (e.g. tenses), the knowledge of 'phonetic symbols' and general reading comprehension based on the schools textbooks of English (in our case, TNECI and Literary Reader 2, i.e. Oliver Twist). Table 9 gives us the performance of the five groups involved in the experiment:

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Exp.G.	36	65.64	13.30
C.G.	33	67.30	11.30
G.2.	27	70.15	12.48
G.3.	32	67.38	16.05
G.4.	31	68.97	11.09

Table 9 : Means of Scores (and Standard Deviations)  
Obtained by the Five Groups in the Final-Year Examination  
(Raw Scores are given in Appendix 15)

Looking at Table 9 above we find that the difference between the means of scores obtained by the Exp. G. and the C.G. in the Final-Year Examination is only (1.68) in favour of the C.G. - a difference which is clearly very small. Comparing the performance of the Exp.G. with that of the group whose means of scores is the highest (i.e. with that of G.2.) we can see

that the difference is (4.51). This difference, though higher than the difference in performance between the Exp. G. and C.G., is still small if we take into account the differences before the experiment i.e. the differences between the means of scores of the Exp. G. and the other groups in the First-Term and Mid-Year Examinations.<sup>14</sup> Table 10 gives the means of scores (and their standard deviations) obtained by the groups in these examinations:

First-Term Examination				Mid-Year Examination		
Group	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
Exp.G.	36	54.11	19.39	36	56.75	17.31
C.G.	33	53.88	14.38	33	59.78	13.15
G.2.	27	64.15	18.18	27	59.93	15.79
G.3.	32	64.28	19.95	32	62.84	16.55
G.4.	31	55.94	14.60	30	58.43	15.88

Table 10: Means of Scores (and their Standard Deviations) Obtained by the Five Groups in First-Term and Mid-Year Examinations

(Raw Scores are given in Appendix 15)

The table shows that the difference in means between the scores of the Exp. G. and C.G. in First-Term Examination is (0.23) in favour of the Exp. G. but in Mid-Year Examination the difference is (3.03) in favour of the C.G. It is clear then that the performance of the C.G. in the 'traditional' type of test was marginally better than the Exp. G. in the period prior to the experiment. This had continued to the Final-Year Examination in which the C.G. did better than the Exp. G. But it should be emphasized that the difference was certainly small. If we compare the performance of the Exp. G. with the group which obtained the highest scores in the Final-Year Examination i.e. G.2. we find that the difference is (4.51) compared with (10.04) in the First-Term Examination and (3.18) in the Mid-Year Examination. This clearly shows that the Exp. G., compared with the C.G. or the 'best' group in performance in the 'traditional' type

tests, did quite satisfactorily in the Final-Year Examination i.e. after the experiment. This leads us to conclude that the experimental treatment did not have any 'negative effects' on the performance of the Exp. G. in the acquisition of the 'traditional' aspects of language in the Final-Year School Examination whatever reservations we may have about the types of questions being asked in the examination paper.

NOTES TO CHAPTER NINE

1. Pupils' names are omitted for 'ethical reasons' as some may object to their names being included in the thesis. The pupils were not told that they were taking part in an experiment.
2. G.4. (i.e. Class A) is excluded from Table 5 as there were very few pupils who took both the pretest and posttest (there were only eleven pupils).
3. Unless the data are reasonably numerous and there is clearly a class interval of highest frequency, an estimated mode is in some doubt. Furthermore, it may happen that the frequencies of scores present an unusual situation, with the greatest frequency at one end of the distribution. It would be rather meaningless in this case to say that the mode represents a 'central value'.
4. The measures of population values are referred to by statisticians as 'population parameters'; those concerning a sample are referred to as 'sample statistics' (see Guilford and Fruchter, 1978: 119-21).
5. For details of this mathematical reasoning, see Guilford and Fruchter (1978: 130-2).
6. In statistics, the sample is usually regarded as large when  $N$  is 20 or more.
7. Actually, we could arbitrarily adopt any other difference we preferred as the hypothesis to be tested. Customarily a Zero difference is tested because it is of special interest, often with the expectation that it will be rejected, thus favouring the experimental hypothesis.
8. To be quite complete, the numerator should read  $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 - 0$ , as was stated before. But since the Zero makes no contribution to the computation, it is dropped from the formula.
9. To say that the difference between two means is significant at the 0.1 level indicates that we can conclude, with only one chance out

of 100 being wrong, that a difference in the obtained direction would be found if we tested the whole population from which our samples were drawn. If a difference is said to be significant at the .05 level, the possibility of error is 5 out of 100. Of course, other more subtle levels (e.g. 00001) can be used but this is thought to be unnecessary to employ in our analysis here.

10. This was because G.2., G.3. and G.4. were not exposed to the supplementary reading texts (see 8.3.3.8.2.1.3. and Appendix 6) for administrative reasons.
11. For a detailed description of this model, see Walpole and Myers (1978: 280-8) and Edwards (1984). For an outline of the model and its use in applied linguistics research, see Hatch and Farhady (1982: Chapter 16).
12. Whenever 'true' (e.g. true  $\beta$  and true  $\alpha$  ; true difference, etc.) is used in this section, it is used to refer to the population parameters corresponding to the sample statistics.
13. The computation work was done by Dr. M.J.Maher, (Lecturer) Department of Probability and Statistics, University of Sheffield, to whom I owe deep gratitude.
14. The Second-Term Examination results are excluded from the comparison being done here because the scores obtained by the Exp.G. and C.G. represented their performance in the posttest of the experiment (with emphasis on lexis and comprehension as related to semantic fields) whereas the performance of the other groups (i.e. G.2., G.3. and G.4.) was evaluated on the basis of a 'traditional' type of test almost identical with that of the Final-Year Examination. There is thus no point in comparing the performance of the groups on the basis of scores obtained in two totally different types of test.

## CHAPTER TEN

### DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

#### 10.1. Objectives of the Experiment

As mentioned in Chapter Eight, the main objective of the experiment was to find out whether the teaching of lexis by a semantic field approach using componential and collocational grids and by a non-semantic field approach using the 'translation-equivalent' techniques would result in differing learning effect. That is, whether there is a place for semantic field analysis in the teaching of lexis for reading comprehension purposes in EFL situations.

The experiment was of the sort referred to by Selltiz et al. (1976: 118) as 'field experiment' — a situation that appeared to the participants to be natural 'real-life' experience, but in which the investigator was able to select the participants, control the conditions under which contact occurred and decide which subjects should be exposed to which condition.

Five groups of EFL learners in an Iraqi secondary school were involved in the experiment. On the basis of performance on the pretest, two groups were made an Exp. G. and a C.G. They were taught a number of lexical items falling into semantic fields according to the two approaches mentioned above; the remaining three groups were made 'back-up' or additional groups and taught by other teachers following the non-semantic field approach. The independent variable (experimental treatment) was a semantic field approach consisting of explicit instruction in semantic fields based on componential grids, collocational grids and reinforcement exercises.

The experiment was designed in such a way that the subjects of the Exp. G. and C.G. were exposed to the same teaching material except the materials of the experimental treatment (that is, the grids and the reinforcement exercises) to which only the Exp. G. was exposed.<sup>1</sup> The practical teaching of the two groups lasted for about 2 months after which all five groups were posttested. The performance results of the groups on



the posttest were then analysed and compared.

The basic outline of the experiment was thus simple: an 'experimental group' was exposed to the assumed causal (or independent) variable while a 'control group' was not. The groups were then compared in terms of the assumed effect (or dependent variable) as manifested in vocabulary test designed to test the acquisition of lexical items in semantic fields for reading comprehension purposes.

### 10.2. Experimental Evidence

The pattern of the experiment makes possible the collection of three major types of evidence relevant to testing hypotheses about causal relationships: (1) evidence of concomitant variation — that is, that the causal variable and the dependent variable are associated; (2) evidence that the dependent variable did not occur before the causal variable; and (3) evidence ruling out other factors as possible determining conditions of the dependent variable (Selltiz et al., 1965: 94).

Evidence of the first type — concomitant variation is provided very clearly in the experiment. The performance of the Exp. G. was superior to that of the C.G. and to any other group regarding the acquisition of lexical items in semantic fields as we have seen in the analyses of the results.

Evidence of the second type — that the assumed effect did not occur before the assumed cause — is secured by the pretest which measured the position of the groups on the dependent variable before exposure to the independent variable. As demonstrated in the analysis of pretest results (see 8.3.3.8.1.5.), the performance of the Exp. G. in the pretest, was the lowest among the groups involved in the experiment. This clearly shows that their superior performance in the posttest was not due to any advantage in their initial position on the acquisition of semantic fields; on the contrary, they were in a position of disadvantage before the start of the experiment. This naturally strengthens the evidence of superiority obtained.

Evidence of the third type — ruling out other factors as possible determining conditions — may be secured in several ways. Among the major ones are: (i) contemporaneous events other than the exposure of the experimental variable, and (ii) maturational or developmental changes. These two factors can be definitely ruled out as the determining conditions since the Exp. G. and the C.G. were exposed to the same contemporaneous events and maturational and developmental changes as already discussed (see 8.5.).

### 10.3. Advantages of Field Approach

The semantic field approach used in the experiment consisted mainly of analysing sets of lexical items belonging to various semantic fields, taking into account the ability of the lexical items analysed to collocate with other items in contexts. In a sense, then, the approach was a Componential-Collocational Approach combining both types of analyses, as used by Rudska et al. (1981a). This is in line with our view expressed in the early chapters that in the treatment of semantic fields, componential and collocational analyses are to be regarded as complementary rather than mutually exclusive.

However, the explicit teaching of lexical items in componential and collocational grids may be objected to on the grounds that it is 'talking about the language' rather than 'teaching the language'. This is clearly related to the role of explanation in foreign language instruction (see Cooke, 1974, for details of this role). Certainly, 'talking about grammar' and 'talking about pronunciation' in language teaching are matters of debate. We believe, however, that 'talking about vocabulary' has an important role in foreign language teaching. In this we agree with Corder (1973) that:

"'Talking about vocabulary' is one accepted way of 'teaching vocabulary' and it has never provoked the same criticism that the 'teaching of grammar' has in its 'linguistic sense'." (p.30)

An important sub-aim of the experiment was to try to find out whether teaching and learning lexical items entirely with the help of the learners' mother tongue (that is, through the translation-equivalent techniques) is

sufficient for the acquisition of lexical items in semantic fields. It is often held that in the teaching of L<sub>2</sub> lexical items reference should not be made to the learners' native language as we have seen from the arguments against the use of 'translation-equivalents' in EFL (see 7.1). As early as the thirties, Bloomfield (1933), for instance, pointed out that there is no one-to-one correspondence between the lexical items of different languages and warned against interference from the mother tongue in the learning process:

"Translation into the native language is bound to mislead the learner, because the semantic units of different languages do not match, and because the student under the practised stimulus of the native form is almost certain to forget the foreign one". (p.50)

Brooks (1964) summarizes what the English learner of a foreign language must not do in the following negative advice: "(a) he must not speak English, (b) he must not learn lists of English - foreign-language equivalents, and (c) he must not translate from the foreign language into English. All these activities will nullify his efforts to establish within himself a coordinate system of two languages, and will instead only collapse the structure into a compound system with English dominant" (p.52).

Our experimental findings do support these views regarding the acquisition of lexical items in semantic fields. The non-correspondence between the lexical items of English and Arabic has already been dealt with (see Chapter Five). It is clear from the responses of the subjects in the C.G. and other groups taking the posttest that they were incapable of distinguishing between the lexical items of most experimental semantic fields particularly those fields with which Arabic exhibits noticeable differences such as the field of "Kinship". This extends even to the lexical items the learners had encountered a long time before the experiment e.g. 'husband', 'wife', 'cousin', 'aunt', 'uncle', etc.

#### 10.4. Explanation

The question which now arises is why a semantic field approach is more effective in the teaching of lexis for reading comprehension purposes

than a non-semantic field approach as the findings of the experiment strongly suggest. This is clearly a psychological question which cannot be answered properly without psychological experimentation on the acquisition of lexis by EFL learners. However, we may offer the following explanatory notes.

It is assumed by many (e.g. Deese, 1965; Tulving, 1972; Smith et al. 1974; Luria, 1982; Corson, 1983) that lexis is 'stored in memory', as it were, in organized structures; that is, in such a way that lexical items sharing common semantic features are stored together so that when a lexical item in that structure is activated, the whole structure becomes activated and available for use. There is some psychological, and psycholinguistic, evidence which seems to support this assumption though the difference between the linguist's and psychologist's interest in the lexicon poses many problems for anyone who wishes to apply the results of psychological investigations to linguistic descriptions. We shall, therefore, provide only the minimum account necessary to support the assumption that lexis is 'stored in memory in organized structures' which may be offered here as an explanation for the findings of our experiment. There will be no attempt to review or evaluate all the evidence for or against such an assumption as this certainly falls within the scope of a psychological rather than a linguistic study of semantic fields.

#### 10.4.1. Free Word-Association Tests

Probably the most widely known method for probing into the organization of semantic memory is the free word-association test.<sup>2</sup> The convenience of the method and its apparent objectivity have contributed to its popularity. Subjects are given a list of words (lexemes) and asked to respond to each with the first word that comes to mind. They may also be required to respond with several lexemes they associate with each stimulus. Studies of such associations have shown that lexemes are never randomly associated with one another. They can be divided into at least two large groups on the basis

of whether an 'external' or 'internal' association is involved. External associations usually have been understood as associations by contiguity. In this case, the lexeme evokes some component of the concrete situation in which the referent of the first lexeme appears. Such associations as 'house' - 'roof'; 'dog' - 'tail' are examples of external associations. Internal associations are usually understood to be associations evoked by the inclusion of a lexeme in a certain field or category e.g. 'dog' - 'animal'; 'chair' - 'furniture'; and 'oak' - 'tree'. In classical psychology, these are referred to as 'associations by similarity' or 'associations by contrast' (Luria, 1982: 72).

There have been a number of studies of word-associations in second language acquisition, e.g. Ruke-Dravina (1971); Meara (1978); Randall (1980) but they all seem to cover much the same ground, producing little in the way of new findings. There are no theoretical models which account satisfactorily for word-association behaviour in a second language. Consequently, almost all the studies have been content merely to describe the sorts of responses that learners produce (Meara, 1982: 32).

What is more damaging in word-association tests in  $L_2$  situations is the stability of learners' responses. It is a general finding of word-association tests that native speakers' associations are relatively stable: subjects tend to give the same responses to stimulus words if they are tested twice. This means that one can be reasonably confident that a single test is a reliable tool to use with native speakers, and that it is unlikely that a second test would produce wildly different response patterns. It is much less clear that this assumption can safely be made about  $L_2$  learners, however. Learners' vocabularies are by definition in a state of flux; the indications are that semantic links between lexemes in the learners' mental lexicon are somewhat tenuous — all these considerations would lead one to suspect that learners' responses could be considerably less stable than the response patterns of native speakers. This severely reduces the value of one-off

studies of learners' associations and it would be unjustifiable to ascribe to them the same sort of status we usually ascribe to one-off studies of native speakers' associations (op. cit. pp. 34-5). It seems we would be in a safer position not to place any confidence in studies of word-association tests carried out so far in foreign language situations and not to use the results as an evidence for the organization of semantic memory.

#### 10.4.2. First Language Vocabulary Acquisition

It has been found by experimental research that when a child first acquires language, he learns to attach meanings to the lexemes he encounters by gradually adding semantic features until their meanings coincide with the adult ones. The child will thus begin by identifying the meaning of a lexeme with only one or two features rather than with the whole combination of semantic features that constitute the full meaning of the lexeme for the adult. This hypothesis, referred to by Clark (1973) as the 'semantic feature hypothesis', assumes that the child's use and interpretation of lexical meanings may differ considerably from the adult's in the early stages of the language acquisition process but, over time, will come to correspond to the adult model. For example, the child may learn the lexeme 'dog' (or 'doggie') but he uses only one feature to characterize the meaning of this lexeme e.g. [+ Four-Legged]. As a result, the child overextends the meaning of the lexeme, that is, he uses it for a broader range of referents than an adult would. The set of objects referred to as 'dogs', therefore, might include 'cows, sheep, zebras, etc.' and everything else that is four-legged. With the addition of other features, the child will gradually narrow down this initially very general meaning of 'dog' until it corresponds with the adult's meaning. This narrowing-down process will presumably run concurrently with the introduction of new lexemes into the child's vocabulary that take over parts of the overextended lexical items. To continue with the same example, if the child next acquires the lexeme 'zebra', he must

add something to the feature [+ Four-Legged] to keep the meaning of this lexeme distinct from that of 'dog' — he might add any of the following features: [+ Hoofs], [+ Mane], [+ Striped], etc. At the same time, the child will probably add to the lexeme 'dog' features like [+ Barking], [+ Relatively Small], etc. to distinguish it from 'cow', 'zebra', etc. But this remains a hypothetical example which needs to be supported by empirical evidence.

It seems that part of what the child has to learn is which lexemes are related to one another in meaning. For example, he will learn not only what the verbs 'walk', 'run', 'skip' and 'stride' denote but also that these lexemes all refer to motion and are related in a basic way. Clark (1972) investigated the question of whether the child is aware that a lexeme is a member of a particular semantic field before he has learnt the full meaning of that lexeme. She investigated the acquisition of two semantic fields: dimensional terms (e.g. 'big' - 'small'; 'tall' - 'short'; 'long' - 'short'; 'wide' - 'narrow'; 'thick' - 'thin'; 'deep' - 'shallow') and spatio-temporal terms (e.g. 'in' - 'out'; 'up' - 'down'; 'above' - 'below'; 'first' - 'last'; 'early' - 'late'). Two lists of antonyms were constructed of the two fields and were presented in two experiments. In Experiment 1, the list consisted of single lexemes, while in Experiment 2, the same lexemes were embedded in short phrases e.g. 'the old house'; 'down the stairs'; 'the tall man'. The child's knowledge of these two fields was studied in a lexeme-game where the experimenter would say a lexeme upon which the child had to reply with its antonym. The general hypothesis that semantic fields are set up early on by the child was clearly supported. As predicted, the lexeme-game elicited a number of substitutions among lexemes that are semantically related to one another. Examples are the substitutions of 'under' for 'below'; 'after' for 'behind'; 'second' for 'last', etc.

#### 10.4.3. Linguistic Errors

The assumption that the lexicon is organized in terms of semantic

fields is also supported by evidence from speech errors made by native speakers (often referred to as 'slips of the tongue'). A great number of these errors show that they are far from being random mistakes - the wrongly chosen lexemes often come from the same semantic field as the intended ones.

#### Examples

1. I really like to - hate getting up in the morning.  
( 'like' - 'hate' ).
2. It's at the bottom - I mean - top of the stack of books.  
( 'bottom' - 'top' ).
3. The room is too hot - cold.  
( 'hot' - 'cold' ).
4. The oral - written part of the exam.  
( 'oral' - 'written' ).

(Fromkin, 1973: 235-6).

Such errors are accounted for nicely by Nootboom (1969):

"The fact that we find selectional mistakes in the semantic field as distinct from selectional mistakes in the formal field might be taken as an indication that the selection of a word meaning in the construction of an utterance must be distinguished as a separate process from the selection of a word form. The observation that a word may be wrongly replaced by a semantically-related word may lead to the conclusion that semantically-related meanings are easily activated by one another or by the same intentional determinant" (pp. 155-6).

In some cases the error is a 'blend' of two lexemes from the same semantic field as shown in the following examples:

- |                 |        |                           |
|-----------------|--------|---------------------------|
| 1. minal        | —————> | (minor/trivial)           |
| 2. swindged     | —————> | (switched/changed)        |
| 3. momentaneous | —————> | (instantaneous/momentary) |
| 4. evoid        | —————> | (avoid/evade)             |
| 5. horrible     | —————> | (terrible/horrible)       |
| 6. surview      | —————> | (survey/review)           |
| 7. dealsman     | —————> | (dealer/salesman)         |
| 8. specisely    | —————> | (specifically/precisely)  |

(Fromkin, 1973: 260-1)

We may account for such errors in the following way. A speaker has in mind some meaning which he wishes to convey. In selecting lexemes, it appears that he is matching semantic features. Where there are a number



of alternative lexemes within a field, rather than making an immediate selection, he brings them together in his mind. At this point either a selection of a lexeme occurs or two lexemes are blended resulting in the above kind of error. The blend is thus a result of confusion between two lexemes sharing common semantic features. It is also possible to suggest that the blend might sometimes result from the speaker changing his mind in midstream from one lexeme to another in the same field.

#### 10.4.4. Language Disorders (Aphasia and Dyslexia)

Often by looking at the kinds of deficiencies exhibited by patients suffering from language disorders one can determine what specific linguistic abilities have been disrupted. In those cases in which aphasic and dyslexic errors can be shown to be systematic, hypotheses can sometimes be formulated as to the nature of the system which has been disrupted as a result of brain damage.

##### 10.4.4.1. Aphasia

One of the consequences of brain injury in human beings can be a disruption of linguistic performance commonly known as 'aphasia'. There is still no generally agreed definition of aphasia as this concerns an area about which there is still much more speculation than knowledge — the mental organization of language and the relationship between this organization and the brain. However, the term 'aphasia' is often used to refer to acquired disorders of language following brain damage in people who have previously been normal speakers of their own language (Lesser, 1978: 1). If aphasia is a language disturbance, any description and classification of aphasia must then begin with the question of what aspects of language are impaired in the various cases of disorder.

All types of aphasic patients have some difficulty processing individual lexemes. They may have trouble "finding" the right lexeme to express what they have in mind; they may inadvertently produce an unintended lexeme;

they may misunderstand a lexeme that is spoken to them. "Lexeme-Finding" difficulties are pervasive in aphasia (Goodglass and Geschwind, 1976; Caramazza and Berndt, 1982). One common type of difficulty suffered by aphasic patients at the lexical level involves the inappropriate use of lexemes which are semantically related to one another. Analysis of some of the data in the literature shows that various investigations have observed symptoms of breakdown in the lexical structure of the 'mental dictionary' in aphasic patients. One frequent observation is that the lexeme-selection errors made by aphasic speakers often fall within semantic fields rather than widely off-target; that is, the aphasic patient often replaces a certain lexeme he wishes to produce by another lexeme belonging to the same field (Luria, 1970).

Rinnert and Whitaker (1973) analysed a large corpus of published data in an attempt to determine the semantic relationships between what a patient said and the correct target lexeme. They found that when the two lexemes (the lexeme produced and the target one) were compared on the basis of shared semantic features, the two lexemes tended to share common features but differ in certain specific diagnostic ones. For example, patients substituting 'ride' for 'walk' retained information about the common feature of [Movement] but confused some differentiating features e.g. [Means of Moving: Vehicle/Feet]. Rinnert and Whitaker also compared the semantic confusion errors they found with some of the published data on word associations of normal speakers to gain insight into the semantic structure that underlies both processes. In order to carry out a systematic comparison, they looked up both lexemes of each semantic confusion pair in some tables of word association norms from various sources e.g. Palermo and Jenkins (1964); Deese (1965); Miller (1970) and Postman (1970).

Figure 27 gives some of the results of the comparison carried out by Rinnert and Whitaker.

Semantic Confusion Pairs		Word Associations		
Intended Lexeme	Substituted Lexeme	Presented Lexeme	Associated Lexeme(s)	Source
arm	leg	arm	leg	189
		arm	leg	D-182
		leg	arm	D-198
black	white	black	white	11,191
		white	black	36,237
brown	yellow	brown	colour	D-185
		yellow	brown	38
buy	sell	buy	sell	193
		sell	buy	D-205
cat	mouse, dog, rat	cats	1. dog(s) 2. mouse (mice)	194
		mouse	1. rat 2. cat 3. mice	215
		dog	cat	338
chair	table	chair	table	D-186
		chair	table	13,42
		table	chair	D-208

Figure 25: Comparison of Semantic Confusion Pairs and Word Association Norms

(from: Rinnert and Whitaker, 1973: 72)

(The Source refers to page numbers in Postman and Keppel, 1970; the letter D followed by a number gives the page number in Deese, 1965).

Rinnert and Whitaker came to the conclusion that the word associations of normal speakers are based on the same lexical organization that apparently underlies the semantic confusion in aphasia.

#### 10.4.4.2. Dyslexia

Several of the cognitive operations involved in reading can be selectively disrupted by brain damage resulting in what is usually termed 'dyslexia' (or sometimes 'alexia') - an acquired difficulty in reading abilities. As categorized by Marshall and Newcombe (1973), the reading disorders are of three major varieties: (1) 'visual dyslexia': a disturbance of the early stages of visual

information processing e.g. 'dug' might be read 'bug'; (2) 'surface dyslexia' described as a partial failure of grapheme - phoneme correspondence rule e.g. reading 'phase' as 'face'; and (3) 'deep dyslexia' in which the error lexeme bears a semantic relationship to the target one e.g. 'wed' for 'marry'; 'uncle' for 'nephew' (Marshall and Newcombe, 1966). The semantic disorder in reading is termed 'deep dyslexia' because the mismatch between the target and response lexemes must arise at a fairly late stage in the reading process, after the grapheme is analysed, and after it has made contact with another lexeme from the same field of meaning.

Weigl and Bierwisch (1970) also demonstrate that neurolinguistic errors in their data often fall into the same semantic fields as the intended lexemes as in the cases when patients would read 'tree' for 'flower'; 'trouser' for 'blouse'; 'dates' for 'figs' and 'radish' for 'parsley'.

#### 10.4.5. Conclusion

A lot of psychological evidence has been gathered to support the hypothesis that the lexical structure of a language is organized according to semantic fields or some arrangement similar to semantic fields. We have examined, very briefly, some psychological data that hint at the richness of the semantic relations holding between lexical items in natural language, and in the current psychological literature are to be found many other examples verifying the validity of such relations. We have dealt with the ways in which free word-association tests, observations of  $L_1$  vocabulary acquisition, the types of speech errors made by native speakers and the investigations of language disorders (aphasia and dyslexia) provide insights into the organization of vocabulary in memory and thus serve to support, in a general way, the assumptions of field theory.

It seems that when a language user masters his vocabulary he organizes it into 'memory structures' in such a way that whenever a particular lexeme in that structure is activated the whole structure becomes activated and

available for use because every lexeme in the structure shares common semantic features with every other lexeme. The explicit teaching of lexis in semantic fields helps the learners to 'store the fields in their minds', so to speak, in a clear and distinguishable way so that, when the need arises, they are able to activate the structure of the field needed and perceive the similarities and differences between the field members. This, however, remains a very tentative explanation and should not be emphasized here.

#### 10.5. Limitations

In any discussion of the results of an experiment like ours, we have to bear in mind the limitations of the experiment itself. For one thing, there are a number of restrictions which result from attempting to experiment within 'live classrooms'. For another, there is the question of generalization to the other aspects of learners' communicative abilities.

The experimental teaching approach used in the experiment, except for the reading comprehension passages and reinforcement exercises, was intended for teaching lexis for both the productive and receptive use of language, whereas the posttest was designed to test the receptive use of vocabulary as manifested in reading comprehension skills. This, however, was essential in order to disguise the purpose and nature of the experiment and make it a period of 'natural' or 'ordinary' teaching for the learners.

It may also be argued that the other skills or aspects of the teaching programme (e.g. dialogues, grammatical acquisition, listening comprehension, etc.) were not taken into account when evaluating the performance of the groups in the experiment. The posttest, therefore, cannot be taken as an indicator of the overall performance of the groups in the teaching programme. This is a weighty argument. But the scores obtained by the participants in the Final-Year Examination results have indicated very clearly, as we saw in the previous chapter, that the independent variable (the explicit instruction of semantic fields) did not have any 'negative' effects on the acquisition of

the other aspects of the teaching programme. This proves that giving lexis at least as much weight in exercises, activities, and so on, as grammar and structure, is not 'harmful' in achieving the 'skills' or 'aspects' of language required by a 'very traditional' type of teaching programme as the one used in Iraqi secondary schools. It is true that we cannot generalize the results obtained in the posttest to all aspects of communicative performance since only lexis for reading comprehension was posttested. Nevertheless, from the arguments given earlier about the important role of lexis in communication, the acquisition of lexis in fields cannot be taken to be harmful to the communicative use of a foreign language in real life situations. Such acquisition would make comprehension easier for the learner, would equip him with an important ability to enable a more effective communication to take place and would extend listener tolerance (McCarthy, 1984: 14).

#### 10.6. Learners' Reactions

We have already mentioned (see 8.4.) that the members of both the Exp. G. and C.G. were given opportunities to record their reactions towards the experiment as a whole such as the teaching approach, the componential and collocational grids (for the Exp. G.), the reading passages, the teaching material in general, etc. They were also given opportunities to write their opinions of the posttest. The learners' reactions are summarized below.

In the beginning of the experiment, the pupils in the Exp. G. found the componential grids very complicated, boring and not immediately 'relevant' to their study of English which, before the experiment, consisted mainly of 'memorizing' grammatical patterns and dialogues. After two weeks, however, this unfavourable attitude greatly changed. They gradually began to realize the value of the grids in clarifying the similarities and differences between the meanings of the lexical items used in the grids. Their reaction in the end was very positive; they thought the grids were very helpful, instructive and challenging. They went as far as to suggest that all other

lexical items should be taught in grids and the use of the grids themselves should start from the beginning of the year — not only during the second term (that is, not only for the period of the experiment). They found the grids useful in helping them understand and retain the meanings of the lexical items involved and made them rely more on comprehending lexical meanings than memorizing lists of 'English-Arabic equivalents' as they used to do. However, some of them found that some lexical items in the grids were 'easy' and should not have been taught during the experiment as they already knew them (see 8.3.3.8.2.3.1. for comment on this point). Others suggested (perhaps not unreasonably) the use of Arabic for the explanation of the grids particularly in the beginning so as to avoid confusion. The learner's attitude towards the 'Usage Notes' and 'Model Sentences' was also favourable; they found the usage notes very helpful for comprehending the other aspects of lexical meanings not covered in the grids, and the model sentences essential as typical contexts of occurrence for the lexical items.

As for the teaching approach in general, the Exp. G. found it very different from the one used with them before the experiment as they started to 'love' English and think of it as a means of communication rather than as an academic subject to be studied for examination only as in the previous years. Both the Exp. G. and C.G. found the reading passages interesting and exciting and had been a useful change in the teaching materials.

Regarding the posttest, both groups agreed that the posttest should not be concerned with vocabulary only. It should be more comprehensive in its coverage of the teaching programme. That is, it should have included some comprehension questions on the reading passages and the Literary Reader studied during the experiment, and some grammatical points such as prepositions, conjunctions, tenses, etc. particularly that such points would be major test items in the Final-Year Examinations and the Baccalaureate Examinations they would have to take the following year (see Appendix 1 for a description

of these examinations). It should be noted that such points were included in the teaching programme but not in the posttest as this would certainly make the posttest too 'lengthy' for the learners.

Furthermore, the pupils in the C.G. thought the posttest was 'difficult' for them - they faced great difficulties in correctly choosing the lexical items given as responses. It should also be noted that the teaching programme which the pupils had followed up to the time of the experiment excluded any explicit teaching of lexis in semantic fields and put heavy emphasis on the teaching of grammatical patterns at the expense of lexis with the exception of the sense-relation of synonymy dealt with in some exercises. While the learners' final attitude in the Exp. G. was very positive, the initial reactions of some of them were that the new teaching approach, particularly the componential and collocational grids, seemed 'strange' and unnecessary. This certainly demands from investigators in similar situations to be exceptionally tolerant with the members of the experiment and not to be discouraged by any initial negative reaction.

#### 10.7. Experimental Conclusions

Conclusions from the experiment will necessarily be limited in their implications. As already discussed, there are a number of limitations imposed on the experiment and these should be taken into account when drawing conclusions from the findings. The place of the experiment in the wider context of applied linguistics will be dealt with in the following chapter. Here, we shall deal with the immediate conclusions.

The experiment offers strong evidence for the usefulness of semantic field analysis in the teaching of lexis for reading comprehension skills at the receptive level. This seems particularly true of those EFL situations where the learners' native language shows lexical differences from English. Reading comprehension is seen here as a skill assisted by organizing the various relations formed by the lexical items of the written text rather



than as a series of problematic syntactic frames into which lexical items are slotted. Doing things with lexis thus involves for the EFL learner, particularly at the intermediate and advanced levels, the relating of lexical items one to the other paradigmatically and syntagmatically — a skill demonstrably evident in the adult native speaker of English.

The semantic field approach thus offers a useful new approach to the teaching of lexical meanings in EFL.

An important conclusion from the experiment is that the meanings of lexical items can be conveyed in an ordered and systematic way. This certainly challenges the basic premise of closed-system items versus the amorphous mass of open-set items that has caused the approach of teaching lexis to be unordered and unsystematic. The belief that vocabulary has only a minimal role to play in language teaching is difficult to uphold. The choice of 'how many' items to present at the different levels of learning will still be a matter for debate but the presentation of these items has to contribute to the acquisition of the language skills for which the learner is learning the foreign language.

An increase in the number of activities and exercises with a specifically lexical aim need not replace the teaching of grammar or language functions, but complement them, and alter the negative attitude towards the role of vocabulary in English language teaching. However, since only receptive vocabulary for reading comprehension was involved in the experiment, it is a natural conclusion that further experiments are needed to investigate whether a semantic field approach such as the componential-collocational one used in the experiment will contribute to better learning at the productive level of vocabulary than a non-semantic field approach.

NOTES TO CHAPTER TEN

1. As already mentioned (see 8.3.3.8.2.1.3.) the other groups (i.e. G.2., G.3. and G.4.) were not exposed to the supplementary reading texts used in the experiment. This appeared to have no effect in performance as it did not result in any significant difference in posttest performance between the C.G. and the other groups.
2. The term 'word' is normally used in the psychological literature. It is used to refer to 'single-word' lexical items. The terms 'lexeme' and 'lexical items' are seldom used. Multi-word lexical items are not normally used as stimuli in free word-association tests. The terms 'word', 'lexeme' and 'lexical item' will be used interchangeably in this section to mean 'single-word' lexical units.

## CHAPTER ELEVEN

### CONCLUDING REMARKS

#### 11.1 Place of the Study in Applied Linguistics Research

Applied linguistics is generally understood, as it is here, as the activity of applying what is known about language as a result of scientific linguistic research to the solution of problems arising in a number of fields particularly language teaching. In this sense applied linguistics exists only if the science of general, descriptive linguistics itself exists. If general linguistics has not been developed to a satisfactory level, then it is in no fit state to be applied to anything. However, in language teaching we face pedagogical problems and look to other fields, including linguistics, for solutions. We cannot afford to wait till the linguistic sciences have produced precise accounts of language and language acquisition. We have to compromise and make do with approximate theories and descriptions.

Semantic field theory is a theory of lexical semantics. As we have seen from the 'theoretical part' of this study there are still a number of questions to be answered by the theory e.g. how to delimit precisely the boundaries of semantic fields, how best to formalize the relations holding between field members, what exactly is the relationship between the syntactic behaviour of field members in utterances and their semantic properties, the scientific status of methods (e.g. componential analysis) as a way of describing these properties, etc. In the light of such unresolved questions, the description we have adopted in our study here is approximate rather than scientifically accurate, if such accuracy can ever be attained in linguistic descriptions. And this has been the first goal of our research: an attempt to clarify some of the 'obscurities' surrounding the theory of semantic fields and give an account of the theory that may be applied to lexical problems in foreign language teaching.

The evaluation of the adequacy of a linguistic theory is a matter

internal to linguistics; whether a theory succeeds according to some objective criteria in accounting for what it sets out to account for (Corder, 1972: 15). Semantic field theory has achieved a great deal of adequacy in accounting for the semantic relations holding between the lexical items of a natural language in spite of some unresolved problems as has been mentioned. However, in applied linguistics we are not interested only in the adequacy or validity of linguistic theories but also in their utility for solving the practical problems faced by the language learner. A wholly invalid theory is, of course, of no utility, but it does not follow that a valid theory is useful in application. Just as a linguistic theory must be validated empirically according to criteria internal to linguistics, so a linguistic theory must also be proved useful in application. The test of a theory's utility is therefore empirical. In this sense applied linguistics is an experimental activity (op. cit. p.16). In order to assess the utility of semantic field theory an experiment was formulated and conducted in a foreign language situation. Although the experiment was limited and applied to a specific language skill (reading comprehension) and to a very specific situation (a secondary school in Iraq), it has clearly shown, as has been discussed in Chapter Ten, that semantic field theory is a useful theory when applied to reading comprehension. It is yet to be shown that the theory is also useful when applied to other language skills (e.g. listening comprehension, writing, etc.) and to other language situations. This certainly requires further investigation and experimentation.

### 11.2. Implications for TEFL in Iraq

As our research is concerned mainly with the secondary school situation in Iraq, we find it useful to deal first with the implications of the study to this stage and then generalize from it to the other stages of learning. In order to do this, we should deal with the objectives of the syllabus at the secondary stage and see how the results of the study can improve on the existing teaching programme designed to achieve these objectives.

### 11.2.1. Objectives of the Syllabus

The secondary school syllabus aims at enabling Iraqi pupils to:

(i) review and reinforce the four language skills (i.e. listening, reading, speaking and writing) they have acquired during the previous two stages (i.e. during the primary and intermediate stages).

(ii) develop these skills in order to be able at the end of the secondary stage to:

1. manipulate the four language skills effectively in their daily life in case they do not intend to continue their higher education.
2. develop self-confidence in understanding written and spoken English used outside the school limits.
3. participate effectively in discussion and conversations carried out in English.
4. study some or all university subjects in English and express opinions, analyses and information in clear and idiomatic English.
5. use English effectively for the purpose of pursuing higher education abroad or for purposes related to tourism and similar functions.

(Hamash, 1978: 5-6)

Some of these objectives (e.g. objective 1) above are unrealistic as the pupils do not need English in their daily life as the syllabus assumes.

In order to show what implications, if any, our research holds for TEFL in Iraq, we shall discuss these implications as they affect the teaching materials and techniques used to put the syllabus into practice, each in turn.

### 11.2.2. The Textbook (TNECI)

One of the striking features of the official Iraqi textbook (TNECI) is, as has been mentioned at various points in our study, the heavy emphasis given to the teaching and learning of 'grammatical structures' at the expense of lexis. Vocabulary teaching and testing are uncommon activities in the textbook. This can be said to run against the 'felt needs' of the Iraqi

learners. One can hardly meet an Iraqi learner of English, even at postgraduate level, who does not regard vocabulary as the main problem for him in his attempts at using English for communicative purposes. Taking into account the language skills the Iraqi learner mostly makes use of after leaving school one finds that the skill of reading comprehension rates high among the skills that are to be mastered by him while he is at school — though we recognize here that a detailed "learners' needs analysis" for Iraqi schools is urgently needed. Since our study is concerned with lexis and with reading comprehension then it certainly has some implications for both the teaching materials and techniques currently in use in Iraq.

As far as the lexical content of TNECI is concerned, we may suggest the following changes in the light of the results of our research:

#### 11.2.2.1. Selection, Arrangement and Presentation of Lexis in Lesson Units

The objective criteria of selection (e.g. frequency, range, availability, etc.; see Chapter Six) should be made use of in selecting lexis for TNECI. It is unhelpful for any investigator if these criteria are left 'unstated' by the textbook authors nor is it helpful for the learners to be exposed to lexis selected on arbitrary and subjective basis.

The arrangement and presentation of lexical items in individual lesson units need to follow some sort of 'grouping' — on a 'semantic field', 'themes' or 'topics' basis. As our experiment has shown such an arrangement helps the learners understand and retain lexical meanings more effectively when reading for comprehension than the presentation of lexis at random. The value of fields or other sorts of grouping and their translation, however imperfect, into teaching materials lies in their challenge to the basic assumption of closed-system items versus the amorphous mass of open-system items that has caused the arrangement of lexis in teaching materials to be random. Once the decision to adopt a semantic field arrangement, or at least incorporate such an arrangement in the existing textbook, has been made, a list of the

fields to be covered has to be drawn up — no easy task if the fields are to be both well differentiated and suitable as a basis for the production of workable teaching units.

#### 11.2.2.2. Vocabulary Lists

Lists of lexical items with their assumed 'translation-equivalents' in Arabic should be omitted altogether as they encourage the learners to erroneously equate the acquisition of lexis with the memorization of these lists out of context. The use of  $L_1$  should be limited to only those cases where Arabic may be more helpful in presenting lexical meanings e.g. when one needs to avoid the use of long definitions within English or complicated explanations to convey meanings. And these cases are to be specified in the Teacher's Guide rather than the pupil's textbook.

#### 11.2.2.3. Receptive Versus Productive Lexis

It is certainly helpful for the teacher and learner alike to be told by the authors of TNECI which lexical items in the textbook are to be learnt for receptive skills i.e. listening and reading with understanding and which are intended for productive skills i.e. speaking and writing correctly and appropriately. Lexis for both receptive and productive use could be included in each unit. This will help save time and effort by avoiding teaching some lexical items for productive use when they are intended by the course designers to be taught solely for receptive skills. It will also help the teacher and learner understand their task clearly.

#### 11.2.2.4. Lexical Exercises

The learner needs to be given at least two kinds of exercise as a follow-up to the presentation stage. First, he needs to have the opportunity to check his understanding of the newly-acquired items. Secondly, he needs practice in recognizing and using those items in syntactic patterns and lexical contexts somewhat different from those in which he has met them.

A notable feature of TNECI is the marked lack of exercises of both

types. There are only a few exercises in TNECI involving synonymy and quasi-synonymy (e.g. Exercises 7.4 and 12.6 — Appendix 4) but these clearly need to be increased in number and supplemented by exercises intended to capture the meaning differences between these, and other, synonyms and quasi-synonyms. Exercises involving other sense-relations obviously need to be included.

#### 11.2.2.5. Spiral Arrangement

It is more helpful for the learner if the arrangement of lexis follows a cyclical or spiral arrangement (see 6.3.1.) in which case intermediate or advanced pupils should be reintroduced to the lexical items they studied earlier. The difference in the levels of study would be centred around the number of items to be included in each unit. Advanced pupils would be expected to find more items with finer distinctions of meaning. Such an arrangement clearly needs to be taken into account by the authors of TNECI particularly at the secondary stage if the learner is to make a maximum use of the lexical content he has already met in the primary and intermediate stages.

#### 11.2.3. Teaching Techniques

In an EFL situation like Iraq, the teaching techniques are largely determined by the nature of the textbook and methods of teaching officially 'prescribed'. Teachers are not at liberty to opt for methods that run completely counter to the official 'prescription' even though they may be allowed some variation within the general framework of method which, at present, uses Arabic 'translation-equivalents' for the teaching of lexical meanings as has been explained (see 7.1.). They may also be allowed to make a limited use of techniques they deem essential but, on the whole, they are expected to follow the 'official' method of teaching.

We have suggested a number of changes in the lexical content of the textbook, which, if carried out, would naturally require techniques



different from the ones currently in use. For example, the omission of lists of Arabic 'translation-equivalents' from the textbook and the use of Arabic only when necessary (see 7.5.) mean that the teacher no longer teaches lexical meanings through Arabic nor does he make it a matter of daily practice to check whether his pupils have learnt (or more precisely, 'memorized') the assumed 'translation-equivalents' given them in the textbook. The inclusion of lexical exercises as has been suggested is another example of change in material that will affect teaching techniques.

Any change in the content or organization of the textbook requires an official decision which is out of the teacher's control. However, teachers in Iraq may supplement the techniques they already use with ones (e.g. componential and collocational grids) that specifically aim to develop in their pupils an awareness of the similarities and differences of the senses of related sets of lexical items whenever such an awareness is felt necessary to prevent the learners from developing erroneous strategies in acquiring English vocabulary, though we expect the use of such techniques to be too limited for the reasons mentioned above.

### 11.3. Implications for Other EFL Situations

As for the relevance of our research for other EFL situations, we would expect that the theory would be universal but that the detailed application of it would vary according to the differences from the Iraqi situation. In a situation very similar to the EFL situation in Iraq (e.g. an Arab country) one can reasonably expect the application (or implication) of the study, both in terms of theoretical assumptions and experimental findings, to be very similar to the assumptions formulated in our research and the results obtained in the experiment. Where there are big differences from the situation investigated in the study, obviously less can be expected. However, in the situation where the EFL teacher has the 'freedom' of choosing his teaching materials and techniques, we anticipate a greater use of the notion of semantic

field in the teaching of lexis for reading comprehension purposes.

The study has been concerned with an area widely recognized as a 'neglected area' in foreign language teaching, viz. the teaching and learning of lexis. The research, therefore, is a step on the way of 'striking a balance' between lexis and grammar and rectifying the misconception about the role of lexis in EFL particularly that our assumptions have been supported by empirical evidence. Here we envisage (with Freedman, 1971) a series of small-scale experiments which, by frequent repetition in different situations, will enable a general picture to be built up of the usefulness of particular methodological approaches and teaching materials.

Our research has been concerned with the secondary school situation in EFL. The starting-point is after a course in 'elementary English' has been completed.

What implications (or applications) our research may have for the secondary school situation cannot be said to hold for the other stages of learning without caution. It is unrealistic to envisage a primary school situation where the EFL teacher 'indulges' in the explicit teaching of lexis in semantic fields through the use of componential and collocational grids to pupils who have not even mastered the basic structures of the language. The same kind of caution, though in a different degree, may well apply to the intermediate school situation where the emphasis is still on the acquisition of basic structures and the learners may lack the lexical resources needed for the understanding of the finer distinctions between lexical meanings. But here one expects a greater role for lexis than in the primary school situation since the pupils have been exposed to the foreign language for a number of years.

The research is an attempt to be explicit about solving a practical problem in vocabulary acquisition in secondary schools in the EFL situation. The issues discussed vary in level of generality, but they all have relevance

to most English, and other foreign language, teaching situations, and they represent attempts to be systematic about the problem of teaching and learning lexis in semantic fields, combining theory and application.

## APPENDIX 1

### The EFL Situation in Iraq

#### 1. Role of English

1.1. The official language of Iraq is Arabic, but a large minority of the 13 million population speak Kurdish, and there are smaller groups speaking Assyrian, Turkish or Turkoman and Armenian. Turkish ceased to be the language of government after the First World War, when English established itself in the schools and became the second language of the ruling and educated classes. The rapid growth of education in the last twenty-five years, together with pan-Arab aspirations and the Government's recent decision to make Arabic the language of instruction in all University undergraduate courses means that English no longer has the status of a second language, especially as the school system was Arabised some years ago. English is now the most important foreign language. Other foreign languages are French and German.

1.2. Within the country, English is no longer used as a means of communication except in the medical world, in parts of the oil industry and in the newer specializations e.g. computers. It is virtually the sole language of international communication in trade, diplomacy, industry, technology and science, and of access to research in all fields of learning.

1.3. English is used in the emerging postgraduate courses in Iraqi Universities. It is also considered important for those scholarship holders hoping to gain postgraduate places overseas. The United Nations Agencies all insist on high standards of English before allocating study awards.

1.4. English is learnt by every Iraqi child in school from the fifth year of education (about 11 years of age) until the end of secondary school (about 18 years of age). In Higher Education English was, at least in theory, the language of instruction and examination in medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, nursing, engineering, science and veterinary science. In practice there was

always a translation into Arabic for some of the lecturing and for most of the practical work in most subjects. Since October 1976 all entrants to all faculties have been taught and examined in Arabic. The only exception is in the field of Medicine where the original decision to teach in Arabic has been postponed until all arrangements (e.g. translation of textbooks, finding qualified teaching staff, etc.) have been completed.

## 2. English within the Educational System

### 2.1. Primary Level

2.1.1. The primary school course lasts 6 years, children normally entering the system at the age of six.

2.1.2. English is begun at the beginning of the fifth year, with 6 periods a week, although in 'model schools' (very few in number and mainly in Baghdad) it is begun earlier, normally in the third year. The prescribed textbook for every child is The New English Course for Iraq (TNECI), produced by a Committee in the Ministry of Education.

### 2.2. Secondary Level

2.2.1. Secondary education is divided into two stages:

- i. Intermediate - 3 year course
- ii. Secondary (or Preparatory) - 3 year course

At secondary preparatory level a degree of specialization is introduced, the main concentration being on science or literature. In addition, there are a smaller number of technical, agricultural and commercial vocational schools.

2.2.2. The number of English periods a week at post-primary level is as follows:

Intermediate 1st year	6 periods
Intermediate 2nd year	5 periods
Intermediate 3rd year	5 periods
Secondary 1st year	5 periods
Secondary 2nd year	5 periods (Scientific Section)
	6 periods (Literary Section)
Secondary 3rd year	5 periods (Scientific Section)
	6 periods (Literary Section)

The reason why scientific classes have fewer periods of English is attributed

to the assumption that the pupils are, generally speaking, more able, including ability in English, than those in the literary classes. Both sections sit for the same Ministry examinations in English and most other subjects. From our teaching experience, we have not found any notable differences between the two sections as far as the learning of English is concerned. All the classes involved in our experiment belong to the Scientific Section.

### 2.3. University Level

2.3.1. There are six universities in Iraq: Baghdad; Al-Mustansiriyah; Mosul; Basrah; Kufa; and the University of Science and Technology (in Baghdad). In these universities, the typical pattern of formal English teaching outside the English Section of the Department of Foreign Languages in a College of Arts or College of Education is one course of 2-4 hours per week for the first two years of a 4 or 5 year undergraduate course. At the non-formal level, one subject course per term in science and technology will be taught through the medium of English.

2.3.2. The first MA course in English began at Baghdad University in 1974. In 1977 Mosul University began its MA (TEFL) programme with 5 students. Al-Mustansiriyah was prepared to begin its MA (Translation) programme but the project was postponed as was the MA (TEFL) at Basrah University. The main reason for the postponement was lack of qualified staff.

### 2.4. Examinations

2.4.1. There are now two Baccalaureate examinations set centrally by the Ministry of Education. They are taken at the end of the Third-Year Intermediate and at the end of the Third-Year Secondary. In addition to the Ministry Examinations, there are monthly-tests, mid-year examinations and in the case of 'non-Baccalaureate years' there are final-year examinations. The results of these examinations determine promotion to the next class (i.e. to study for a higher level). The Intermediate Baccalaureate determines

entry to the secondary schools - only the pupils who pass it are promoted to the secondary school; those who fail have to 'repeat the year'. If they fail the examination for two consecutive years, they have to drop out of the educational system. The Secondary Baccalaureate determines entry to the universities and other forms of post-secondary education. Pupils who pass it are eligible to join the various faculties of universities on the basis of their achievement (i.e. their scores on the Secondary Baccalaureate).

2.4.2. In the past the examinations in English were very unrealistic and tended to lead to a form of teaching that concentrated on 'spotting' the typical examination questions. However, reforms for the Baccalaureate examinations have been carried out recently. The new format involves a revised paper consisting of guided composition, a comprehension passage tested by multiple-choice questions. The new Intermediate Baccalaureate was introduced in 1978 and the Secondary in 1981. However, some other reforms are still needed as the revised paper still puts heavy emphasis on grammatical structures at the expense of lexis and 'real' communicative functions due to the nature of the TNECI currently in use in Iraqi schools which emphasizes the learning of grammatical structures as has been explained (see 6.4.).

### 3. Teaching Cadre

3.1. At all levels the teaching cadre is almost exclusively Iraqi except for a few British teachers in some university departments of English who have been recruited directly by the Universities from overseas. British Council recruitment, operating in 1975/76 and 1976/77 has been discontinued.

3.2. At the primary level, teachers have generally had very little pre-service professional training. But in the last eight years 36 new Primary Training Institutes have been opened in an attempt to give more systematic training. There is unfortunately no specialization available for the training of English teachers in these Institutes. In the school system, however, more teachers

are beginning to teach English exclusively. Generally speaking, the standard of primary school English teachers is low.

3.3. At the secondary level English teachers are overwhelmingly graduates of the Colleges of Education or the Colleges of Arts. The Colleges of Education are assuming a greater importance. The calibre of secondary school teachers of English is at present very much higher than that of their primary counterparts.

3.4. In-service training of English teachers is taken seriously. There are two main vehicles for such training. First, IDELTI has for a number of years run in-service courses for large numbers of both primary and secondary school teachers, on courses ranging from one to six month's duration. The second method of providing in-service courses, especially for English teachers outside the capital, is by means of locally-run courses. These are directed by 'trainer-teachers', a specially selected group of mainly excellent secondary school teachers who underwent a six months' course at IDELTI to fit them for the role of local teachers. The scheme appears to be promising.

#### 4. Teaching Materials

4.1. As mentioned in Chapter 6, the TNECI is in use in all schools in the country. The book is 'audiolingual' in approach and based on the 'traditional structural method' advocated by some American linguists (e.g. Fries, 1945) in the early fifties (see 6.4. and Appendix 4).

4.2. Books for University courses are bought from European and American publishers through the University bookshops. However, a very recent development has been the establishment of textbook-writing committees to produce textbooks for Iraqi University courses. The political climate favours all home-produced courses and the authors are paid very well. There is a strong directive to centralise all syllabuses.

#### 5. British Support for ELT

5.1. There was a British Council officer (usually referred to as Assistant Dean) at IDELTI who used to help run EFL courses for Iraqi teachers of



English until 1978. As from October 1, 1978 a British Council/Iraqi Ministry of Education Agreement to cover British support to IDELTI has been in effect.

5.2. The British Council are not, at present, able to recruit staff for Iraq because of the terms of agreement of the contract. At present there are a number of British lecturers in Iraq recruited directly by the Universities through the Iraqi Cultural Attaché in London.

#### 6. American Support for ELT

As diplomatic ties between Iraq and USA, broken off in 1967, have not been renewed, there is no American support for ELT at the time of writing.

APPENDIX 2PRETEST

Name:

Age:

Time: One and a half hours

N.B. Answer ALL questions.

Q.1. Read the following text carefully and then answer the questions that follow: (1)

I had a dozen brothers and sisters, but I seemed to have a special place among them. I do not now remember whether I was pleased or displeased with the special treatment I got from my parents. My mother was especially kind to me and my father treated me kindly too. My brothers and sisters  
5 were a little careful in their treatment of me and in their conversation with me. I often felt they were not telling me everything they ought to tell their brother. But I also sometimes felt that my mother was rather careless and that my father was not interested in me. They often seemed to forget that I was in the room with the rest of the family. This, together  
10 with too much kindness from my parents puzzled me and often caused me great pain.

When I was a very little boy, I did not understand the reason for this special treatment. But I soon learnt. My brothers and sisters could do many things that I could not do. My mother (allowed) them to do some  
15 things that I was never allowed to do. At first this made me angry and jealous. But soon my anger and jealousy changed into a deep sadness that I could not even imagine, because they could see those things but I couldn't. I was blind.

From early childhood I was a very (curious) boy. I always tried to  
20 discover new things by myself, but my actions often brought many troubles. One day something happened that changed my life. Since then my curiosity has not been so strong, and I have become quite shy. I was sitting at supper with the whole family. My mother asked the maid and my sisters to (serve) food. We soon started to eat. I had always eaten just like the  
25 others. But a strange thought came into my mind at that moment. "Why don't I try to eat with both hands instead of one? Why don't I try? Why don't I try?" As soon as I tried to do this, all my brothers and sisters

began to laugh. My mother began to cry, and my father said quickly but very sadly, "That is not the way to eat, my dear son". I couldn't sleep 30 at all that night.

### Questions

1. The following words are underlined in the text. Find them and then put the letter A, B, C or D preceding the word (or words) having the same meaning or nearly the same meaning into the boxes provided.

got (line 3)

A. stole B. bought C. hired D. received

D

parents (line 3)

A. father and mother B. brother and sister  
C. mother and sister D. father and brother

A

little (line 12)

A. big B. large C. huge D. small

D

at first (line 15)

A. finally B. in the beginning C. at last D. in the end

B

discover (line 20)

A. get back B. examine C. find out D. look for

C

troubles (line 20)

A. pleasures B. possibilities C. difficulties D. conversations

C

started (line 26)

A. began B. finished C. put an end to D. stopped

A

2. The following words are placed between brackets in the text. Choose the correct meaning from each group below and then put the letter A, B, C, or D preceding the correct meaning in the boxes.

allowed (line 14)

A. made something difficult to understand  
B. talked about several things  
C. explained something or made it clear  
D. let somebody do something

D

curious (line 19)

- A. eager to know or learn
- B. afraid to meet people
- C. unable to see or understand
- D. unable to see clearly

A

serve (line 24)

- A. eat quickly
- B. offer for eating
- C. give food to the blind
- D. buy from the market

B

Q.2. Read the following text carefully and underline the most appropriate words from those given in brackets which are needed to make a meaningful text. Then answer the questions that follow. (2)

One day, a rich merchant of Baghdad sent his servant to the market to buy food. The servant returned very quickly and rushed into his master's room, his eyes wide and glassy, his whole body shaking with fear.

'Master,' he cried. 'As I was walking through the crowded market, a woman ran into me and nearly fell. When I turned to help her, I saw she was Death, and she raised her hand and was about to lay it on me. I ran from that (beautiful, lovely, pretty, evil) place and did not look back. Now I must escape from this town at once.'

'But how do you know that this woman was Death?' asked the merchant.  
 10 'I know her perfectly,' replied the man, and his voice dropped to a whisper as he remembered the (pleasant, afraid, fearful) moment when he looked into her face and knew her.

'I have good reason to know her,' continued the servant. 'I was alone with her face to face for six long days and nights, two years ago,  
 15 when I had fever. And once, only a month ago, she looked me in the face when a madman threw a knife at me and scratched my skin an inch above my heart.'

Please lend me your fastest horse and I will ride like the wind to Samarra, where I shall be safe.' The merchant lent the poor man a horse, and  
 20 watched him (die out, disappear) along the (route, road, path) to the north in a cloud of dust.

Then the merchant walked to the market and looked about until he at last saw a woman who was a stranger to him. He greeted her and

told her who he was.

25 'Why did you raise your hand in order to take my servant?' he asked  
'I did not mean to take him then,' she replied. 'I raised my hand in a  
moment of surprise. I was surprised to see your servant in Baghdad today,  
because I arranged long ago to meet him in Samarra tonight.'

### Questions

1. The following words are underlined in the text. Find them and then put in each box the letter A, B, C or D preceding the word (or words) having the same or nearly the same meaning.

returned (line 2)

A. set out B. came back C. fade away D. took off

B

shaking (line 3)

A. vibrating B. rotating C. nodding D. trembling

D

raise (lines 6, 25, 26)

A. drag B. rise C. lift D. pull

C

surprised (line 27)

A. puzzled B. bewildered C. astonished D. embarrassed

C

2. Put the letters A, B, C or D preceding the most appropriate answers in the boxes given at the end of the sentences.

1. The servant returned very quickly to his master because he was:

A. amazed B. worried C. excited D. frightened

D

2. The servant wanted to go to Samarra in order to be:

A. in danger B. in safety C. away from the merchant

B

D. at risk in Samarra

3. What does the writer mean us to think happened to the servant?

A. he died in Baghdad B. he was killed on the way to Samarra

C

C. he died that night in Samarra D. he was murdered by the merchant

Q.3. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words from the list given below paying special attention to the underlined words. Change the forms of the words if necessary. Not ALL words are relevant

(Accept, ancient, aunt, borrow, buy, car, cousin, home, house, husband, inherit, lorry, niece, place, receive, reject, rent, sell, tree, uncle, van).

1. We offered a good price for his car but he [rejected] our offer.
2. Baghdad is not an [ancient] city it's a quite modern one.
3. Mary is John's wife; so John is Mary's [husband].
4. I'd like to buy your house if you are willing to [sell].
5. Can you tell me where to stay in Hilla? I've never been to the [place].
6. Henry has bought himself a new Volvo. He practically lives in the [car].
7. A. There's a boy climbing the old elm.  
B. That [tree] isn't very safe.
8. He's my uncle and I am his [niece].
9. She sent me two letters but I never [received] them.
10. I lent him another 20 dinars; that is the second time he [borrowed] money from me.

Q.4. Put the letters A, B, C or D preceding the words that best fit the meanings in the following sentences in the boxes given.

1. They ..... the city completely.

A. damaged B. spoiled C. destroyed D. cracked

C

2. The Government will introduce a new ..... of elections.

A. order B. system C. project D. discipline

B

3. The child is cold, hungry and tired, so of course he's feeling ....

A. displeased B. happy C. cheerful D. miserable

D

4. This year there have been a large number of railway ..... in which hundreds of people have been killed.

A. happenings B. accidents C. situations D. clashes

B

5. He decided to ..... his job and look for a new one

A. keep B. refuse C. give up D. avoid

C

6. They ..... a large amount of money when their father died.

A. rented B. inherited C. hired D. bought

B

Q. 5. Read the following sentences carefully. If there is a contradiction in meaning, put the letter (A); if there is no contradiction, put the letter (B), in the boxes given.

1. John smashed the mirror but did not break it

A

2. The bus was behind the lorry but the lorry was not in front of the bus.

A

3. Sally is a cat, so Sally is an animal.

B

Notes

(1) The text is taken from TNECI, Book V, pp. 72-3.

The correct answers are given here for the convenience of the reader of the thesis.

(2) The text used here is taken from Bright and McGregor (1970) pp. 103-6.

APPENDIX 3Raw Scores of the Pretest

(Maximum Score: 40)

Pupil*	Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G.3.	G.4.
1	11	18	11	25	31
2	13	19	23	16	17
3	11	22	18	23	12
4	9	10	18	18	19
5	10	19	15	13	25
6	25	5	17	13	9
7	18	29	17	19	19
8	9	19	20	24	15
9	14	23	16	15	18
10	27	16	20	6	13
11	18	8	25	23	28
12	23	30	14	10	13
13	19	10	11	19	22
14	10	17	13	31	14
15	9	13	9	22	31
16	8	20	23	19	11
17	12	19	21	18	25
18	12	19	12	27	15
19	6	13	14	5	
20	11	29	26	21	
21	11	15	24	24	
22	24	17	27	17	
23	28	11	8	11	
24	13	10	20	11	
25	19	16	8	20	
26	9	10		29	
27	10	8		15	
28				8	
29				30	
30				21	
31				23	
32				32	

\* Names of pupils are omitted here for 'ethical reasons' as some of the pupils may object to their names being used in the thesis. The pupils were not told that they were taking part in an experiment.



## APPENDIX 4

### Experimental Teaching Materials: The Official EFL Textbook in Iraq (TNECI)

#### 4.1. Introduction

The English language syllabus for the fifth year secondary aims at further development in the pupils' communicative skills. It consists of three major divisions. The first division involves the training and development of the receptive skills (listening and reading). It contains twelve passages that are to be used for listening comprehension practice, and twelve passages for reading comprehension practice.

The second division involves language training and contains sections carrying the following titles:

- (1) Dialogue
- (2) Pronunciation
- (3) Oral Practice
- (4) Written work

The third division is a literary reader. Charles Dickens's Oliver Twist has been chosen for this purpose. It has been simplified and supplied with vocabulary notes as well as comprehension exercises.

Book 7 contains all the work in the first and second divisions of the syllabus and includes the comprehension exercises of the third division. The third division, i.e. Oliver Twist, is published separately under the title: Literary Reader.

#### The Horizontal Structure of the Syllabus

Book 7 consists of fifteen units. The Literary Reader is divided into thirteen chapters. Each unit of the language book should be introduced together with a chapter of the Literary Reader.

#### The Vertical Structure of the Syllabus

Each unit of Book 7 comprises a comprehension passage followed by a list of new vocabulary items, their meanings and pronunciation, a dialogue, a pronunciation section, oral practice, written homework exercises, one chapter from the Literary Reader and one listening comprehension passage.

##### 1. Reading Comprehension

The twelve medium-sized reading comprehension passages vary in content as well as style. The aim is to promote the pupils' ability to read and understand (and later discuss) reading material on different topics. The topics can be exploited for discussion purposes and the passages in general can be used, wherever necessary, for further language practice and remedial work.

The vocabulary list that follows each passage contains the key lexical items in the passage as well as those that appear for the first time in the

Course. The comprehension questions are only suggestions. They can, wherever necessary, be freely modified or supplemented by the teacher. The aim is to check the pupils' comprehension and to start the pupils discussing the topic.

## 2. Pronunciation

Pronunciation exercises continue the training on the recognition and production of the segmental aspects of the English sound system that have been started in the previous Book.

## 3. The Dialogue

The dialogue in each unit comprises a situation where different language elements are introduced in a specific social setting. The dialogues are not only intended for mere imitative repetition. Care is taken to lead the pupils' steps gradually towards free conversation. The teacher's notes on dialogue often contain notes on how to exploit the dialogue for communication purposes.

## 4. Oral Practice

Each Oral Practice section is composed of three sections: Structure Notes, Situations and Drills. The Structure Notes offer a summary of the grammatical point that is going to be introduced. The Situations contextualize the use of the grammatical point. The Drills draw the pupils' attention to certain aspects of the grammatical points. They also offer intensive practice material for those who might have little mastery over both the form and use of the grammatical point being introduced.

The grammatical points that are introduced and practised include:

1. Tenses, including all types of morphological changes and time statements.
2. Passive Voice.
3. Direct and Indirect Statements, Questions and Commands.
4. Notions, such as the notion of intention or possession.

## 5. Written Work

This section comprises three types of activities. The first is a set of written exercises that aim to reinforce the grammatical points introduced earlier in the oral practice section. The second is controlled composition work with the aim of helping the pupils to write correctly one or more paragraphs on a wide variety of suggested topics. The control is slackened as the pupils progress in the course. The third activity includes pronunciation exercises done in writing.

## 6. Listening Comprehension

This exercise was not taught during the experiment as it was found unnecessary since the skill of listening comprehension was involved in the other language activities.

### 4.2. Teaching Techniques

The following is a brief description of the techniques recommended by the authors of TNECI for the teaching of the various language activities

of the textbook and which were used for teaching these activities during our experiment.

#### 4.2.1. Reading Comprehension

The following are the steps followed for the teaching of the reading comprehension passages:

1. The teacher talks about the passage giving a brief idea of what it is about.
2. The teacher reads the passage aloud.
3. Pupils read silently. Teacher can answer any query the pupils may have.
4. Oral questions and answers. The aims here are:
  - a. to check the pupil's comprehension of the passage.
  - b. to encourage oral discussion.

A number of important points must be considered in relation to these aims:

- i) The pupils' books can be left open.
- ii) Several types of questions should be used: some should check the comprehension of the meanings of lexical items of the passage; with others the pupils are expected to draw conclusions from what they have read; others, still, require the pupils to connect information or ideas of the various paragraphs of the passage.

#### 4.2.2. Dialogue

In teaching dialogues the teacher should follow the steps below:

1. The teacher says the dialogue at normal speed. The native language (i.e. Arabic) may be used in explaining the new words and expressions.
2. The pupils repeat each sentence chorally and individually. The teacher then takes one part and helps a pupil to take the other. Roles are reversed. This should be tried with several pupils.
3. Pairs of pupils are asked to say the dialogue or act it out in front of the class.

#### 4.2.3. Oral Practice

##### 4.2.3.1. Structure Notes

The structure notes describe what the pupil is going to learn. It is a brief summary of the grammatical points to be introduced. They can be ignored by the teacher if he has sound, pedagogic reasons, or read aloud in class briefly.

##### 4.2.3.2. Situations

The situations contextualize the use of the grammatical point. Each situation is provided with a picture that depicts the context of that situation. The aim here is to give the pupils the maximum amount of oral participation. The following steps of presentation should be considered as general guidelines:

1. The teacher should direct the pupils' attention to the picture provided for each situation.

2. The teacher gives an oral presentation of the situation. The pupils only listen.
3. Question-answer activity is carried out on the situation.

#### 4.2.3.3. Drills

The drills are intended to provide the pupils with a chance to focus attention on particular features of the pattern. The drills also serve as a review of the patterns since most of the patterns have already appeared earlier in the course (i.e. Books 1 — 6). Nearly all the drills are conversational. The procedures for teaching the drills are:

1. The teacher says the model conversation.
2. The pupils repeat chorally and/or individually.
3. A pair of pupils are asked to say the short conversation.
4. Several pupils are then asked to say the conversation.
5. Pupils are divided into pairs to practice the conversation.

#### 4.2.4. Written Work

The steps recommended for teaching this activity are:

1. The teacher discusses the topic orally with the pupils giving them the necessary information and helping them whenever necessary to form correct sentences.
2. Having done that, the teacher assigns the work to be done at home.
3. Next time the teacher collects the copybooks, correcting them. He may then ask some pupils to read their compositions in the classroom if necessary.

#### 4.2.5. Literary Reader

Literary Reader 2 consists of thirteen chapters, to be covered at the rate of one chapter per unit, for the first thirteen units of the Pupil's Book — except for the last two units — there is a reading comprehension exercise based on the material of the chapter that goes with it. These comprehension exercises fall into the following types:

1. Multiple-Choice Items.
2. Matching Beginnings with Endings.
3. Supply Type (Fill-in-the-Blanks Type).
4. Rearranging Statements.

When the pupils have covered a whole chapter of the Reader, they should do the relevant comprehension exercise at home, in writing. Later on, the teacher discusses the answers with the class, points out any mistakes that may have been made and helps the pupils to correct them.

#### 4.3. Contents

The materials of TNECI used in the experiment are given below. The lexical items belonging to the experimental fields, or were buffer items, are underlined. It should be noted that teaching items 7.6.C and 9.7.10 were taught to the C.G. but not to the Exp.G. (see 8.3.3.8.2. for comment on this point).

Text No. 1.

## UNIT SEVEN

### READING COMPREHENSION

#### 7.1 THE PROPHET OF GOD

##### 2. After the Hijrah

In Medina, the Prophet was able to settle the disputes of the people there and establish peace. Those who migrated to Medina were called the emigrants, and the people of Medina who welcomed the Prophet and his followers came to be known as the helpers. Both emigrants and helpers were united by Islam and they lived together as brothers.

In the second year of Hijrah, a battle took place at Badr between the Moslems and the Meccan unbelievers. Although the Moslems were fewer in number, they won the battle. This victory is one of the most important events in the history of Islam.

After that the Prophet fought two more battles against the unbelievers in Mecca. In 6 A.H. (628) the Prophet decided to go on a pilgrimage to Mecca. The unbelievers in Mecca would not allow this; the Moslems and unbelievers met at Hudaibiya and declared a truce which gave them peace for ten years. This truce gave the Prophet more time to convert more and more people to Islam. He also made strong alliances all over Arabia.

One day, however, the Meccans took part in fighting between a

tribe in their alliance and another in Mohammad's. The Prophet declared that the truce had been broken and led an army against Mecca. By this time the leading men in Mecca were mainly on his side and Mecca surrendered without a battle. The Prophet destroyed all the idols in Kaba.

In 9 A.H. deputations from different tribes in Arabia came to declare their loyalty to the Prophet and to the new religion. That year, therefore, was called the year of Deputations.

Towards the end of the tenth year after Hijrah the Prophet made his last pilgrimage to Mecca. When he returned to Medina, he fell dangerously ill and died there in 11 A.H.

The Prophet was a great religious, social and political leader. He never claimed to be divine and led a very simple life. His personality was so strong that it was not difficult for him to win over even his enemies. He had a forgiving spirit and he taught the Moslems to love and help each other and to live in peace. He treated people kindly and gave rules which still organize our daily life. Islam unified the Arabs in one strong state. Within a century of the Prophet's death the cry of «Allah is the Greatest» was heard from Spain to China.

## VOCABULARY

### 7.2

settle	/ 'setl /	يُحْمَد
disputes	/ dis 'pju: ts /	نزاعات
establish peace	/ is 'tabliʃ pi:s /	يقيم السلام
emigrants	/ 'emigrənts /	المهاجرون
the helpers	/ ð 'helpəz /	الأنصار
A.H.	/ ei 'eit /	بعد الهجرة

truce	/tru: s/	هدنة
alliances	/ə'laɪənsɪz/	أحلاف
surrendered	/sə'rend əd/	استسلمت
idols	/'aɪdlz/	أصنام
deputations	/depju'teɪ j ənz/	الوفود
loyalty	/'lɔɪəlti/	ولاء
forgiving spirit	/fə'gɪvɪŋ 'spɪrɪt/	روح سعة
Allah is the greatest	/'alə ɪz ðə'greɪtɪst/	الله أكبر

### 7.3 Match the beginnings in List A with the endings in List B.

#### List A

1. In the year II A.H. the Prophet
2. The emigrants were the Moslems who.....
3. In spite of their small number, the Moslems...
4. The battle of Badr .....
5. The Prophet led an army against the unbelievers because they ...
6. Al – Hudaibiya truce .....
7. The helpers were the people in Medina who
8. The year 9 A.H. was called the year of Deputations because many tribes .....

#### List B

- a. .... helped the emigrants.
- b. ....took place between the unbelievers and the Moslems.
- c. .... gave the Moslems and unbelievers peace for ten years.
- d. .... became loyal to Islam.
- e. ....won the battle of Badr.
- f.....left Mecca to settle in Medina.
- g. .... broke Al–Hudaibiya truce.
- h. ....made the last pilgrimage.

- 7.4 In the reading passage find out words or phrases that are similar in meaning to the underlined words or phrases.
1. After the Badr battle, many tribes announced their loyalty to the Prophet Mohammad.
  2. The Iraqi Army participated actively in the October war, 1973.
  3. The accident happened at midnight.
  4. As a result of bad treatment, the Moslems moved to Medina.
  5. The disputes between the Arabs and the Zionists can only be determined by armed struggle.
  6. Compulsory education was one of the most important happenings in the modern history of Iraq.

## DIALOGUE

### 7.5 A VISIT TO BASRAH

- Hello, Ali. Glad to see you. Did you have a comfortable journey?
- Yes, thanks. I came up yesterday on the 8 a.m. from Baghdad.
- Where are you staying?
- At the Shat - el - Arab Hotel. I booked a few days ago so I had no trouble at all.
- Good. That's one of the best in Basrah. How long are you staying?
- For a couple of days.





- Do you know Basrah well?
- No, this is my first visit.
- Look, I won't be very busy this afternoon. If you like, I'll take the afternoon off, and show you around.
- Thanks a lot. That's very kind of you.
- Right. Meet me here at twelve - thirty for lunch.

---

booked	/bʊkt/	حجز
a couple of days	/ə'kʌpl əv 'deɪz/	بضعة أيام
take the afternoon off	/'teɪkðɪ'a: ft ənu: n'ɒf/	أخذ إجازة لفترة ما بعد الظهر
show you around	/'ʃəʊ ju ə'raʊnd/	آخذك في جولة

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

7.6

## ORAL PRACTICE

### 7.7 Tenses – The Past Simple Tense

#### A. Structure Notes

1. This tense is used to describe past actions or states. Examples:
  - I saw him yesterday.
  - We finished the work early.
  - She was very tired.
2. Notice that in English there are two types of verbs:
  - a. Regular verbs: the base verb is made past by the addition of the suffix - ed or - d.  
Examples: walk/walked; play/played.
  - b. Irregular verbs: Examples:  
go/went; drink/drank; put/put.

3. Adverbs and adverbials of past time, such as **yesterday**, **ago**, **last week**, **last Friday**, **in 1968**, are usually used with the past simple tense. Examples:

We met three days ago.

I bought a new radio – cassette last week.

4. To make questions and negatives in the past, **did** and the base form of the verb are used. Examples:

She did not get up early.

Did they go to the pictures last night?

5. When the verb is **was** or **were**, then we use it for forming the questions or negatives.

Ali wasn't here yesterday.

Was Ali here yesterday?

You weren't in the office.

Were you in the office?

#### B. Situations

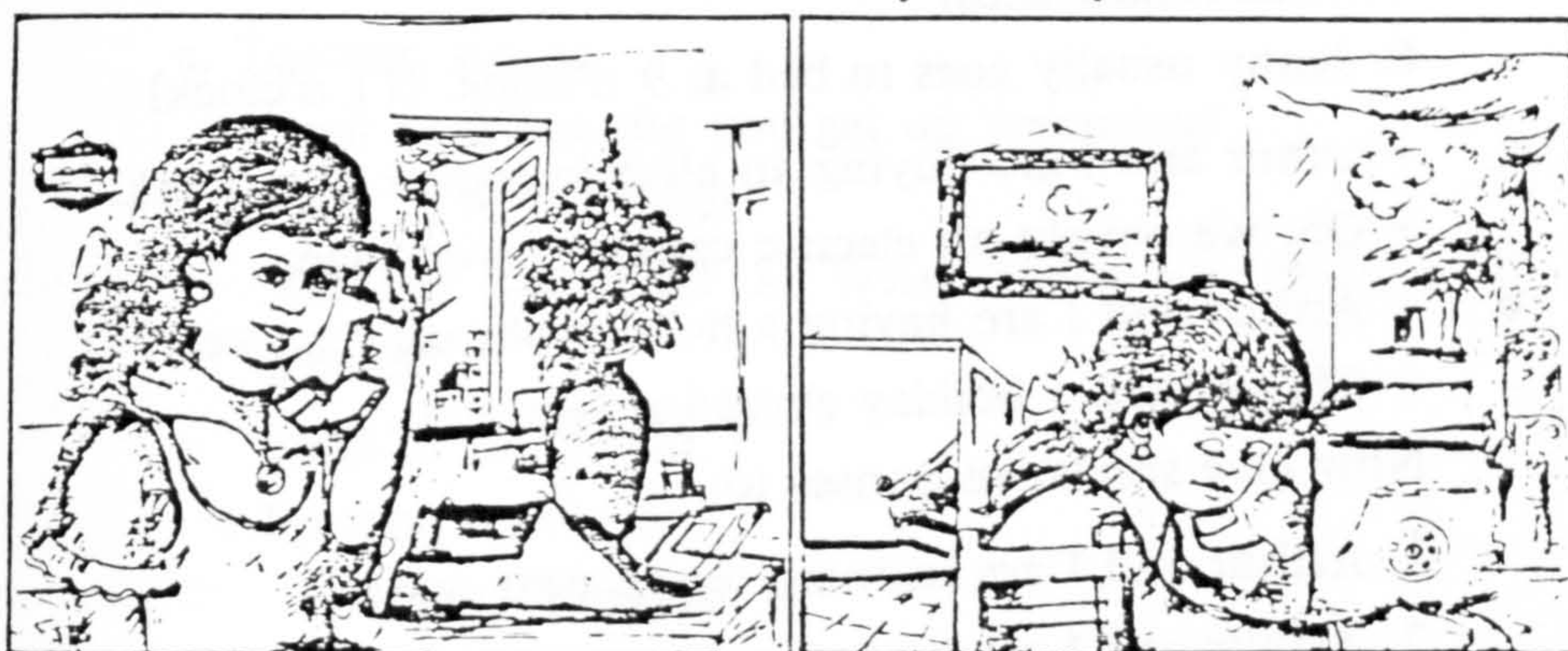


1. This is Arthur's office. It's 5.30 and Arthur is not in the

office. He left half an hour ago and went home. All the other clerks went home, too.



2. Before 1972 foreign oil companies had full control over Iraqi oil. They did a lot of harm to the Iraqi economy. On the first of June, 1972, President Ahmed Hassan Al – Bakr gave a historic speech to the nation. He announced the nationalization of the oil industry in Iraq.



3. There was a party here yesterday. Jenny celebrated her eighth birthday. A lot of people came to the party. But Helen didn't come. She was ill in bed and had to phone and apologize. Today Helen feels better. She's phoning Jenny.

«Did you enjoy yourself?» Helen wants to know.

«Oh, yes. It was wonderful.»

«Were there a lot of people?»

«Yes: everybody came and we all enjoyed ourselves. I'm sorry you didn't come».

### C. Drills

1. a. – The train usually arrives on time. (late)  
– But it arrived late yesterday.
- b. – Arthur usually leaves the office at 5 o'clock. (4 o'clock)  
– But he left the office at 4 o'clock yesterday.

Now give similar responses to:

1. The programme ends at 12 o'clock. (11 o'clock)
  2. Arthur Collins usually goes to the office by bus. (on foot)
  3. Jack usually has lunch at that restaurant. (home)
  4. He usually stays home in the evening. (went to the pictures).
  5. I usually eat one chicken sandwich for lunch. (two chicken sandwiches)
  6. Jenny usually goes to bed at 9 o'clock. (11 o'clock)
2. a. – Arthur and I are buying an electric cooker next week.  
– Oh, we bought an electric cooker a week ago.
  - b. – Arthur and I are having a holiday abroad next year.  
– Oh, we had a holiday abroad a year ago.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Arthur and I are learning tennis next year.
  2. Arthur and I are buying a motor-car next month.
  3. Arthur and I are going to meet the Minister next week.
  4. Arthur and I are joining the sports club next month.
  5. Arthur and I are dining at a big restaurant tomorrow.
  6. Arthur and I are getting a bigger house next month.
3. Peter Green is the manager of an office. He is Arthur's boss. He has a careless secretary. After work, he calls her to his office to ask her about the work.

a. – Did you type the letter? (the report)

– No, I didn't. I didn't type the letter. I typed the report instead. I'm very sorry.

b. – Did you phone the Spanish Company? (the French Company).

– No, I didn't. I didn't phone the Spanish Company. I phoned the French Company. I'm very sorry.

Now practise with:

send a telegram/a letter

file the letters from Mr. Brown/from Mr. Smith

make an appointment with Mr. Brown/with Mr. Smith

telephone the bank/the agency

book a flight to Madrid/to Paris

#### 4. Class Activities

a. Teacher: got up

Pupil 1: When did you get up yesterday?

Pupil 2: At 7 o'clock.

Teacher: (to Pupil 3) What happened yesterday at 7 o'clock?

Pupil 3: He got up.

Practise with:

had your breakfast

came to school

left school

did your homework

met your friends

went to the pictures

went to bed

b. Teacher: Hadi, go to the door. What are you doing?

Hadi: I'm going to the door.

Teacher: Now go back to your seat. (Hadi sits down)

What happened a moment ago?

Class: Hadi went to the door.

Pupil: What did you do a moment ago, Hadi?

Hadi: I went to the door.

## WRITTEN WORK

7.8 Write a paragraph describing the Prophet's migration to Yathrib. Give it a suitable title. Your paragraph should include answers to the the following:

1. Why did the Prophet advise his men to migrate to Yathrib?
2. Why did the Prophet choose Yathrib in particular?
3. How did the people of Yathrib treat the Prophet and his followers?
4. Why is the migration to Medina an important event in Islam?

7.9

### A. The Pattern of a Letter

	Writer's Address
	_____
	_____
	Date
Dear _____	Day, Month, Year
_____	
_____	
_____	
The letter	
_____	
_____	
_____	
	Writer's name

## B. The Form of a Letter

Markaziya Secondary School for Boys

Rasafa,

Baghdad,

Iraq.

1 May, 1980

Dear Bill,

I received your letter three days ago. It was very nice to hear about your progress in school. However, I still think you should work a little harder in algebra.

I am also doing well at school. My teachers and my parents are pleased with me. I hope I shall do well in the final examinations.

I am sorry I cannot write you a long letter this time. I am busy, as you know, with my examinations. I promise to write a longer letter next time.

Yours, Ali

C. Use the same pattern and write a letter to your friend Henry/Margaret on July 14th telling him/her about (a) the 14th of July Revolution, when it took place, why, etc., (b) the 17th of July Revolution, when it took place, why, major achievements: nationalization of oil, progress in agriculture, industry, education, etc.

7.10 In your copybook do drills 1, 2, 3 and 4 of 7.7 (Oral Practice).

## LITERARY READER

7.11 Choose the most appropriate alternative:

1. Rose and her aunt were surprised because
  - a. the boy seemed to be suffering from pain and fatigue.
  - b. Oliver's arm was bandaged and crossed upon his breast.

- c. the boy lying in bed had never known a mother's love.
- d. the thief was only a small, innocent – looking boy.

2. After hearing Oliver's story,

- a. Mrs. Maylie asked the doctor to tell her what she could do to save the boy.
- b. Dr. Losberne convinced Giles and the policemen that Oliver had nothing to do with the thieves.
- c. the policemen went upstairs where they saw Oliver and learned from him everything about the robbery,
- d. Giles was quite sure that Oliver was the same boy that had been put through the window the night before.

3. Fagin screamed with anger when Toby Crackit told him what had happened to Oliver because

- a. he was afraid that Oliver would cause him trouble if he was unable to get him back soon.
- b. Bill had threatened him before that he might not see the boy again.
- c. the newspaper report did not say that Oliver had been shot and left in a ditch.
- d. Bill would say that the plan would not have failed if the Jew had not chosen Oliver for the job.

4. Nancy

- a. would rather Oliver was left in a ditch than brought back to Fagin.
- b. could not bear to have Oliver about her because she did not like him at all.
- c. thought that it was her own fault that she was drunk.
- d. told Fagin not to worry about the boy because she knew that he was all right.



## 4. Fagin threatened

- a. to kill Nancy if she did not tell him where Bill was.
- b. to kill Bill if he did not bring the boy back to him.
- c. that the boy would be dead if Bill did not bring him back.
- d. that they would lose the boy if Nancy did not mind him.

## 5. Monks

- a. wanted Oliver to be turned into a thief so that he might be caught and sent out of the country.
- b. knew that Oliver was not like the other boys, so he told Fagin to kill him.
- c. was happy to hear that Oliver had been wounded and might die in the ditch.
- d. told Fagin to kill Nancy because she had helped to bring Oliver back from Mr. Brownlow.

## 7. Monks stopped talking suddenly because

- a. the idea of Oliver's death filled him with terror.
- b. he saw Bill's shadow and grew frightened.
- c. he was afraid that someone might have overheard him.
- d. Fagin rushed out of the room and went to look for the woman downstairs.

## UNIT EIGHT \*

### READING COMPREHENSION

#### 8.1 How Plants Take in Water

The food of plants, which they make themselves, is manufactured out of the raw materials which the plants can get from the air, from the earth and from water. The plant makes use of the carbon dioxide from the air in making its food and from the soil it takes water and the mineral salts which are dissolved in the soil water.

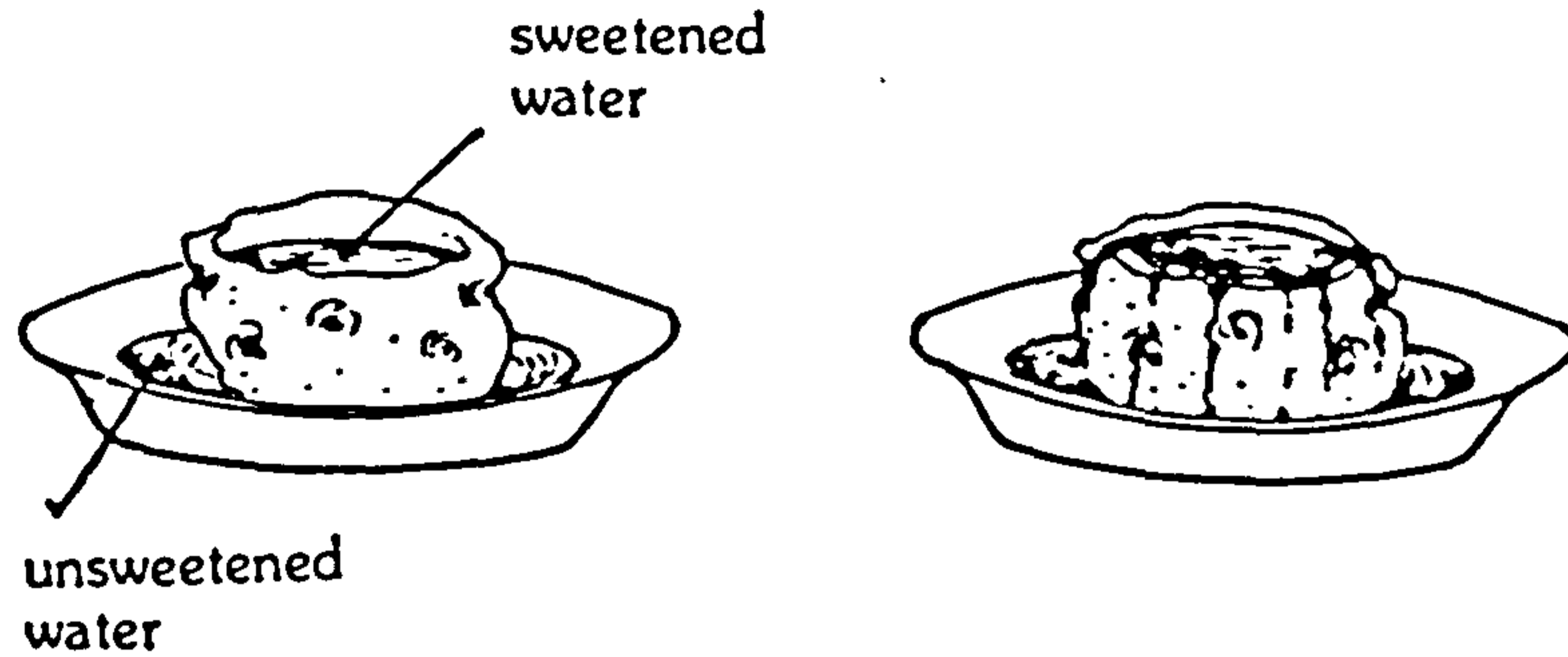
Plants take in the water they need from the soil by means of very small, thin hairs near the tips of their roots. The root – hair comes into close touch with the particles of soil and also with the soil water which clings around the soil particles. There is always liquid, known as «cell sap», inside a plant, so that the root–hair is not empty but has some of the plant's sap in it. The soil water is thinner than this cell sap and, as thinner liquid tends to pass through living membranes and mix with thicker liquids, some of the soil water passes through the wall of the root – hair and mixes with the cell sap. This is called osmosis.

The following diagram shows a model of a root – hair which you can make for yourself by scooping out half a potato and putting in a thick mixture of sugar and water. Stand this in a saucer of unsweetened water. If you have set up this experiment

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\* This unit was not used in the experiment as there were no lexical items of any interest to us.

correctly, the water from the saucer will pass through the potato wall and mix with the sweetened liquid. After a time the potato will overflow.



## 8.2 VOCABULARY

manufactured	/manju'fakt fəd/	يُصنَع، يُعمل
raw materials	/'ro: mətiəriəlz/	مواد أولية
carbon dioxide	/'ka: bən'daioksaɪd/	ثاني أكسيد الكربون
mineral salts	/'mɪnərəl so: lts/	أملاح معدنية
dissolved	/di'zɒlvd/	مُذابة
hairs	/heəz/	شعيرات
tips	/tips/	نهايات
roots	/ru:ts/	جذور
root - hair	/'ru:theə/	شعيرة جذرية
particles	/'pa: tiklz/	جزيئات
clings	/kliŋz/	تعلق
cell sap	/'sel 'sɒp/	سائل الخلية
tends to	/'tendz tu/	تميل الى

membrane	/ˈmembrein/	غشاء
osmosis	/ozˈmouːsɪs/	التنافذ (الخاصة الشعرية)
scooping	/ˈskuːpɪŋ/	عملية تجويف
mixture	/ˈmɪkstʃə/	مزيج
unsweetened	/ənˈswiːtnd/	غير محلى
overflow	/oʊvəˈfləʊ/	يطنح

8.3 Complete the following sentences with suitable endings.

1. Plants make their food with the materials they get from \_\_\_\_\_ .
2. From the soil a plant gets \_\_\_\_\_ which are dissolved in the \_\_\_\_\_
3. From the air the plant gets a gas called \_\_\_\_\_ .
4. Soil water mixes with the cell sap because soil water is \_\_\_\_\_
5. Clear water mixes with sugared water because \_\_\_\_\_

8.4 Fill in the blanks with suitable words or expressions from the reading passage.

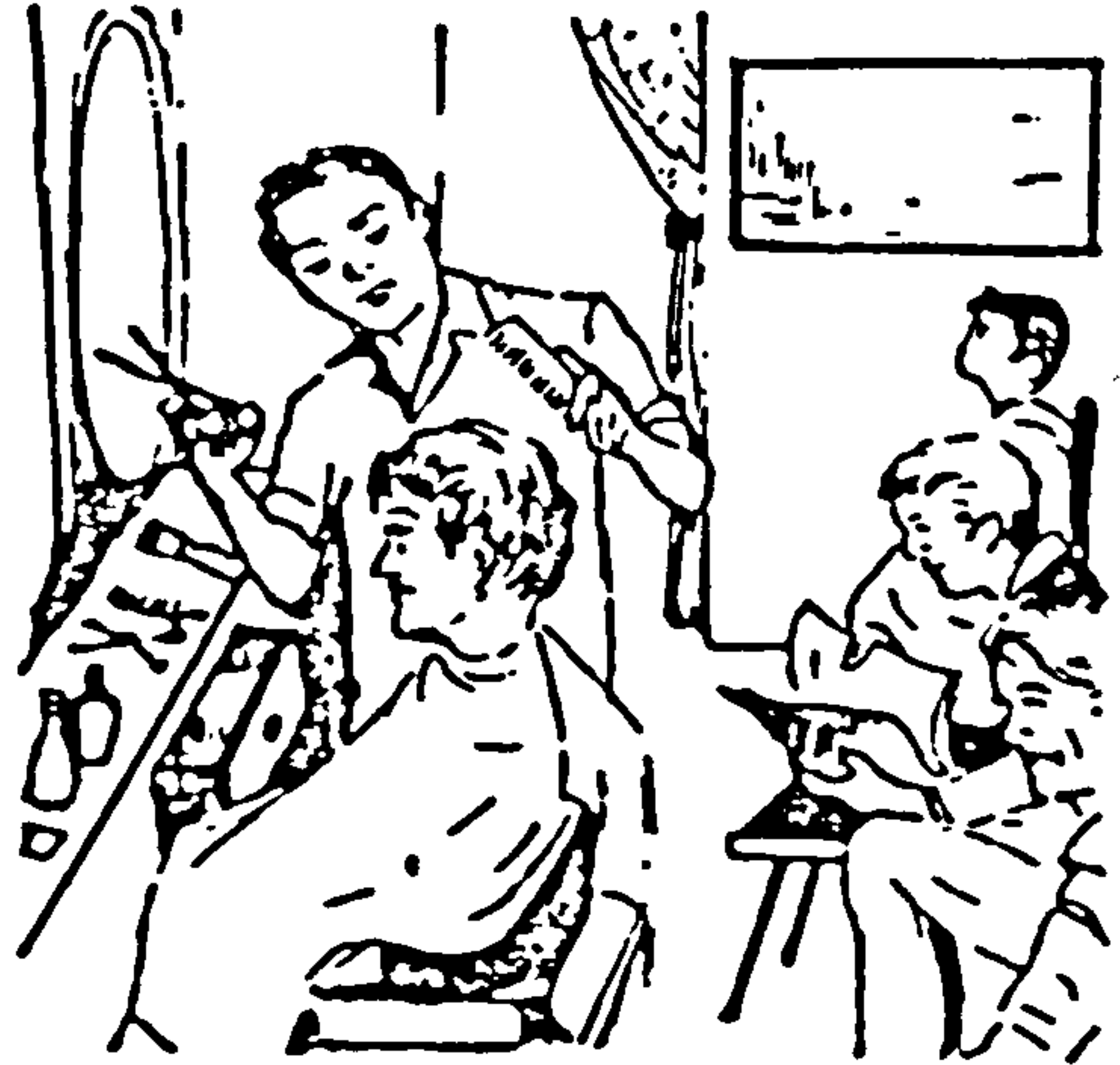
1. Hungry children \_\_\_\_\_ to eat too fast and too much.
2. He was able to move the rod by \_\_\_\_\_ a lever.
3. Water does not \_\_\_\_\_ with oil.
4. When you erect a fence, you first \_\_\_\_\_ the posts.
5. Concrete is a \_\_\_\_\_ of cement, sand and water.

## DIALOGUE

### 8.5 AT THE BARBER'S

- I think it's your turn next, sir. Would you like a haircut?

- Yes, please.
- How would you like it?
- I just want it tidy.
- All right, sir I think I know what you want. Just a light trim.
- That's what I want. A light trim.



your turn next	/ 'jo: 'tə: n'nekst/	دورك هو التالي
a haircut	/ ə'heəkʌt/	حلاقة الشعر
tidy	/ taɪdi/	مرتب
a light trim	/ ə laɪt trɪm	تهذيب. تعديل خفيف للشعر

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

8.6

## ORAL PRACTICE

8.7

### A. Structure Notes

1. all, some, none, not all, enough, plenty of, no:

These can be used with unit (countable) and mass (uncountable) nouns.

Examples:

1. He ate some of the cake.
2. He ate all of the cake.
3. There are enough spoons on the table.
4. There is plenty of sugar in the bowl.
5. There are no pencils in this drawer.

2. several, both

These are used with unit nouns. Examples:

I have several books.

Both of them work hard.

They both work hard.

3. every, each

These two words pick out the members of a set or group singly, rather than look at them all together. Examples:

Each boy has something to do.

Every girl will tell a story.

4. Other determiners that describe number are:

a number of, a fair (large/considerable) number of, hardly any.

5. Other determiners that describe amount are:

a large (small/considerable) quantity of, a large (small/considerable) amount of, a great deal of, a good deal of, a bit of, hardly any.

6. Compare:

She has a few friends. (probably enough)

She has few friends. (certainly not enough)

She has a little money. (probably enough)

She has little money. (certainly not enough)

7. Compare the use of only and just with a few and a little:

I have just a few friends. (= few friends)

I have only a little time. (= little time)

8. Notice how much is used:

I don't have much free time. (a negative sentence)

Do you have much free time? (an interrogative sentence)

Yes, I have plenty of time. (much cannot be used here)

I like chocolate very much.

Much time was lost during the strike. (rather formal)

Much of what you said is not clear. (rather formal)

How much money have you got on you?

Not much.

9. Words such as: all, none, some, enough, a lot, a few, each, several, much.. etc, may act as pronouns and adjectives.

Do you have plenty of free time?

No, I don't have much. I have only a little.

Have you got any coloured pencils?

Yes, I've got some. (I've got a few)

10. Certain determiners act as adverbs.

Examples:

I speak English a little. (I speak a little English)

I go to the pictures a lot. (I often go to the pictures)

#### B. Situation



The boys in the picture are all fifth year pupils. All of them are very busy. Tomorrow is 23rd November. It's Student Day and the boys have plenty of work to do. Every boy is doing something. Firas and Haitham are carrying plenty of coloured decorations, a big amount of coloured paper and a few balloons. Both of them

will decorate the hall. Samir and several other boys are drawing some pictures.

decoration: /dekə'reɪʃn/

زينة

### C. Drills

1. a. Samir has got a lot of friends.

Firas has got a few friends.

Haitham has got no friends.

b. Samir knows a lot of English.

Firas knows a little English.

Haitham knows no English.

Now practise with:

1. Samir has got a lot of plans.

2. Samir has got a lot of money.

3. Samir makes many mistakes.

4. Samir drank a lot of milk.

4. Samir had a lot of pencils in his bag.

6. Samir's car has plenty of petrol in it.

2. a. Firas and Haitham work hard.

(1) They both work hard.

(2) Both of them work hard.

(3) Both Firas and Haitham work hard.

b. Ali and Ahmed are intelligent.

(1) They are both intelligent.

(2) Both of them are intelligent.

(3) Both Ali and Ahmed are intelligent.

Now respond to the following as in 1, 2 and (3).

1. Ali and Ahmed live in the same area.

2. The typist and the secretary asked for a rise.

3. The clerk and the typist resigned.

4. Samir and Nada are hard – working.



5. Firas and Haitham are decorating the hall.
  6. Hassan and Mustafa work in the Mosul Sugar Mill.
3. a. Firas, Haitham and Samir work hard.
    - a. They all work hard.
    - b. All of them work hard.
  - b. Ali, Ahmed and Layla are intelligent.
    - a. They're all intelligent.
    - b. All of them are intelligent.

Now respond to the following as in (a) and (b):

1. Shatha, Nada and Samar live in the same area.
  2. Ali, Ahmed and Sami travel a good deal.
  3. The secretary, the typist and the clerk took the day off.
  4. Firas, Noori and Haitham paid the bills.
  5. Mehdi, Shakir and Salman work on a collective farm.
  6. Samir, Firas and Haitham joined the Popular Army last month.
4. a. – How many books have you got? (only a few)  
– Only a few – a history book, an English book and a dictionary.
  - b. – How much money have you got on you? (only a little)  
– Only a little – about a hundred fils.
  - c. – Do you do much walking? (hardly any)  
– Hardly any – just at weekends.
  - d. – Have you got enough time? (plenty)  
Yes, plenty – about two hours.

Now answer the following questions using the quantity expressions in brackets, and follow them with short comments that give further information.

1. How much does a newspaper cost here? (not much)
2. Do you have any hobbies? (not many)

3. Does Martin spend much time at the library? (only a little)
  4. Were there many people at the party yesterday? (only a few)
  5. Do you speak much English? (hardly any)
  6. Have you got enough money? (plenty)
  7. Do you have many English books? (just a few)
  8. How many engineers work in this factory? (quite a few)
5. a. desks – classroom (enough)
- How many desks are there in the classroom?
  - There are enough desks in the classroom.
- b. money – on you (plenty of)
- How much money have you got on you?
  - I've got plenty of money on me.
- Now practise with:
1. sugar – bowl (a little)
  2. petrol – car (hardly any)
  3. friends – Arthur (not many)
  4. magazines – bookstall (lots)
  5. rooms – hotel (a large number of)
  6. oil – tank (a great amount)
  7. money – account (a good deal of)
  8. hotels – village (not any)
  9. milk – fridge (not enough)
  10. intelligence – Bob (hardly any)

### WRITTEN WORK

- 8.8 Write a composition on Lions. Make use of the following pieces of information:
- a. largest of the great cats
  - b. found in many parts of ....

- c. live in districts where a large number of natural prey, such as ....
- d. hunt at night
- e. lie asleep during the day
- f. very often hunt in groups
- g. frequently join company, attack large animals: buffaloes
- h. run at great speed ; leap a distance of 30 ft at one bound
- i. bring victim to ground with weight of body

8.9 Change the following nouns into the plural and point out how the plural suffix (- s) is pronounced:

creature	creatures	/ - z/
animal	_____	_____
size	_____	_____
quality	_____	_____
glance	_____	_____
elephant	_____	_____
base	_____	_____
chief	_____	_____
wife	_____	_____
substance	_____	_____
limb	_____	_____
mark	_____	_____
step	_____	_____
language	_____	_____
feeling	_____	_____
coach	_____	_____
phrase	_____	_____
chap	_____	_____
proverb	_____	_____

## 8.10 A. The Envelope

Begin well away from the stamp.

<div style="border: 1px solid black; display: inline-block; padding: 5px 10px;">Stamp</div>
<p>Address: Mr. Henry Brown. 12, High St., York, England.</p>

Each line a little way in.

## B. Re – arrange the letter and the envelope.

Punctuate correctly.

(1) Letter: 12 Windwill Street Southend 30 August 1973; dear Jack I have been here with Mum and Dad for a week now and we are having a lovely holiday. We haven't had a drop of rain and I have played on the sands everyday. There are crowds of people here. Love from Sue. Yours. Bill.

Envelope: Jack Snook 12 High St. Chicago Illinois USA.

(2) Letter: 112 Thornton Avenue Dover 19 May 1978. dear Mr. Lewis; your suit is now ready and I should be glad to have it fitted as soon as possible. We close each day at half past five. Yours sincerely J. Robinson.

Envelope: Mr. B. Lewis 17 Hope Street Dover.

8.11 In your copybook do drills (1), (2), (3) and (4) of 8.7 (Oral Practice).

## LITERARY READER

8.12 Re – write the following paragraphs, filling in the blank spaces with the missing bits of information:

After \_\_\_\_\_ recovery, the Maylies took him to \_\_\_\_\_ where he spent \_\_\_\_\_ and learned to \_\_\_\_\_. This happiness did not last long, however, because \_\_\_\_\_ fell seriously ill. Mrs. Maylie wrote to \_\_\_\_\_ and her son, Harry, to tell them about it, and she asked Oliver to \_\_\_\_\_ at the market – town.

As Oliver was passing \_\_\_\_\_ on his way back from \_\_\_\_\_, he stumbled against Monks. \_\_\_\_\_, who was shocked to \_\_\_\_\_, advanced towards the boy, cursing and \_\_\_\_\_. Oliver \_\_\_\_\_ as fast as he could.

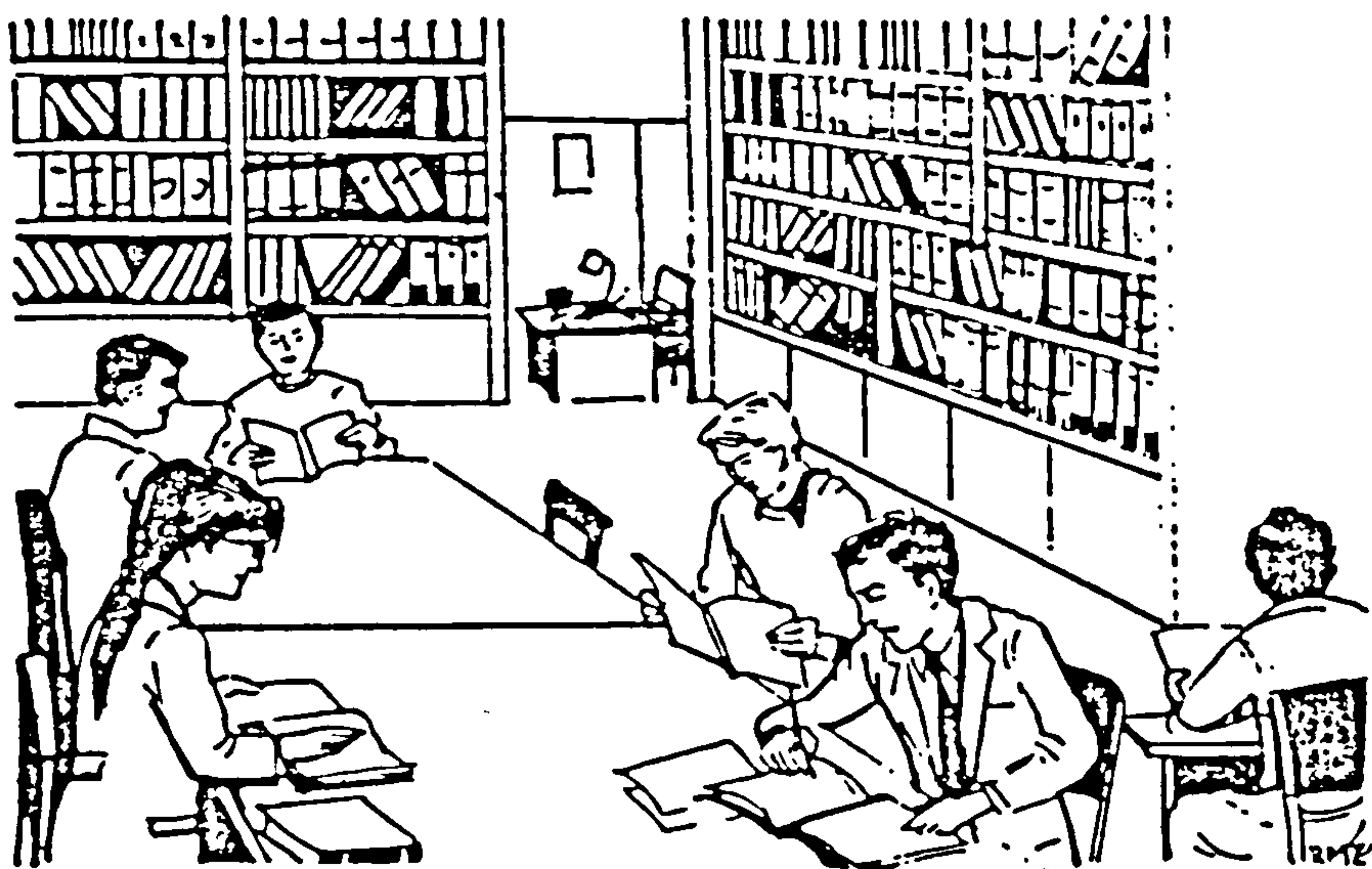
A few days later, while Oliver was \_\_\_\_\_ in his room, he saw \_\_\_\_\_ looking at him through \_\_\_\_\_. He started up and \_\_\_\_\_ for help. Harry, Giles and Dr. Losberne rushed out to \_\_\_\_\_, but they could not find anybody. The two men had \_\_\_\_\_. Later on, Giles went to \_\_\_\_\_ in the town, but he could not find them there, either.

Text No. 8

## UNIT NINE

### READING COMPREHENSION

#### 9.1 Libraries



The term «Library» is usually used in two senses. It may refer to the whole stock of books and other resource materials in a school; or it may refer to the room or building where the stock is mainly kept and largely used. The person who is in charge of a library is called a librarian.

There are several kinds of libraries. However, to most young people like you the important kinds of libraries are school and public libraries.

The school library is an important part of the school. every school library has three main purposes: it is a place to which pupils can go to enjoy the pleasure of reading; it is a centre for studies where pupils can learn by enquiry; and a place where they can get facts and information from reference books such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, etc.

Even the best school library, however, will not be able to meet the needs of all the pupils or provide enough books for them. So the next step is to use the public library. Every city and town in Iraq has a public library. The use of public libraries is free but most of them do not lend books to be taken away.

You must use the library properly right from the beginning if you are to enjoy its full benefit and not to waste time. You must first know how the books are classified and arranged. Most libraries divide the books into two groups, fiction and non-fiction.

If you want to find a particular book or books on a particular subject, you will find a catalogue of all the books in the library. This is usually found on cards arranged in three sections. The first section is a list of all the books arranged alphabetically by author. There is also an alphabetical list of subjects so that you can find what books the library has on a particular subject. The third list has, in alphahetical order, the titles of the books in the library.

The library is a place for study and reading. Therefore, take good care of the books and do not write on them. You should also remember always to keep quiet and not to disturb other readers.

## 9. 2 VOCABULARY

senses	/'sensiz/
refers to	/ri'fə:z tu/
stock	/stok/

معاني  
يدل على  
الموجود

librarian	/laɪ breəriən/	مكتبي
public library	/pʌblɪk laɪbrəri/	مكتبة عامة
purposes	/'pə:pəsɪz	اغراض
pleasure	/'pleʒə/	متعة
enquiry	/ɪnkwaɪəri/	بحث، تحقيق
references	/'refrənsɪz/	مصادر، مراجع
information	/ɪnfə'meɪ ʃn/	معلومات
encyclopaedia	/ɪn saɪklə 'pi:diə/	موسوعة
atlas	/'atləs/	اطلس
meet the needs	/'mi:t ðə 'ni:dz/	تلي حاجات
properly	/'propəli/	مصورة متقنة
full benefit	/'fʊl 'benɪfɪt/	فائدة قصوى
classified	/'kla:sɪfaɪd/	تُصنّف
arranged	/'ə'reɪndʒd/	تُرْتَب
fiction	/'fɪkʃn/	قصة
non - fiction	/'nɒn 'fɪkʃn/	كتب غير قصصية
alphabetically	/alfə'betɪkli/	أجديا
headings	/'hedɪŋz/	عناوين
particular	/pə'tɪkjʊlə/	معيّن
catalogue	/'kætəlɒg/	قائمة أسماء
disturb	/'dɪ'stə:b/	يزعج

### 9.3 Answer the questions below:

1. What does the pronoun it in the second sentence refer to?
2. What does a librarian do?
3. In the second paragraph the writer mentions two kinds of libraries. Mention some other kinds?
4. In the third paragraph the writer mentions three main purposes. Which one do you think is the most important.
5. What are the main differences between a school library and a public library?



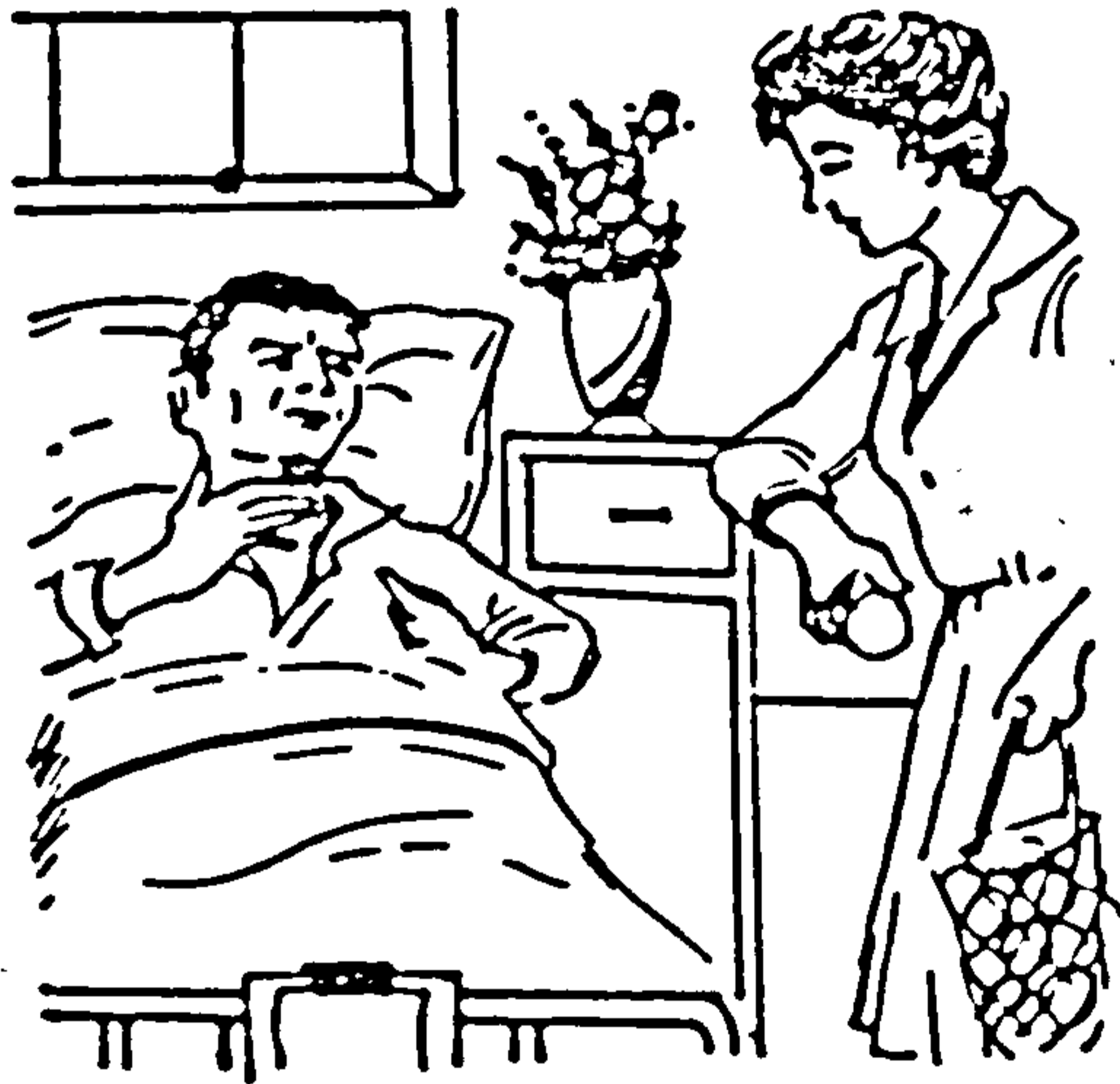
6. How should you behave inside a library?
- 9.4 Find in the reading passage words or phrases that have similar meaning to the underlined words or phrases:
1. If you don't behave In the right manner, you must leave the place at once.
  2. These books must be put in order on that shelf.
  3. They will supply him with money and clothes.
  4. Haitham is responsible for organizing the games.

## DIALOGUE

9.5

### FATHER IS IN HOSPITAL

- Hello, dear.-How are you?
- Oh, I'm all right, but my neck hurts me.
- Are you being well looked after?
- Yes, everybody is nice, especially the nurses.
- I've brought you some fruit and this bunch of flowers.
- Thanks very much.
- How did the operation go?
- Everything went well. Dr. Mohammad did a very good job. How are the kids? I really miss them.



- They're all right. They miss you, too. Oh, I think I'll have to leave now. Visiting time is over.
- Please take care of yourself and the children.
- I'll do that. Good-bye.
- Good-bye.

are you being well	/ə ju:bi:iŋ 'well' lukt'a:ftə/	
looked after		هل العناية بك جيدة
bunch of flowers	/'bʌntʃ əv'flauəz/	باقة ورد
operation	/opə'reiʃən/	عملية
did a good job	/did ə 'gud' dzɒb/	قام بعمل جيد
kids	/kɪdz/	الأطفال. الأولاد
miss	/mɪs/	افتقد
visiting time is over	/'vɪzɪtɪŋ 'taɪm ɪz' ouvə/	انتهى وقت الزيارة

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

### 9.6 ORAL PRACTICE

### 9.7 Tenses – The Present Perfect Tense

#### A. Structure Notes:

1. The verbs in the following sentences are used in the present perfect tense:

I have seen this film.

She has typed the letters.

2. The verb is formed as follows:

have	}	+ past participle of the verb.
has		

3. In speech, the contracted forms (I've, you've, he's, she's, we've, they've,) are much more common than the full forms.

4. The present perfect tense is used to describe an action which is now completed and its effect is still present.

Examples:

I've typed the letters. (They are now on the table ready to be posted).

She's broken her leg. (It's still broken).

5. Notice that the adverbs just, already and yet are often (but not always) used with the present perfect.

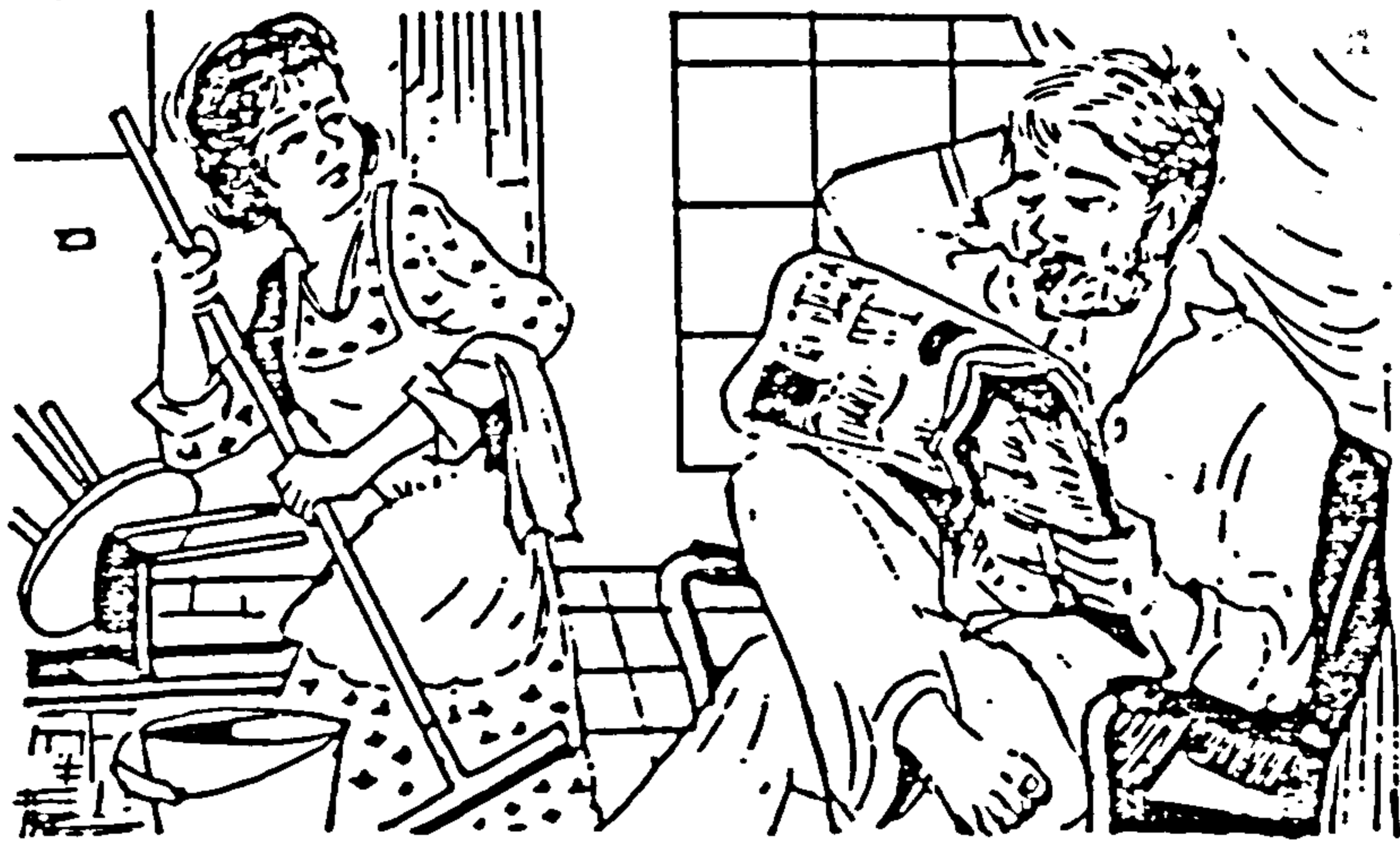
Examples:

I have just bought a newspaper.

He has already finished his homework.

He has not come home yet.

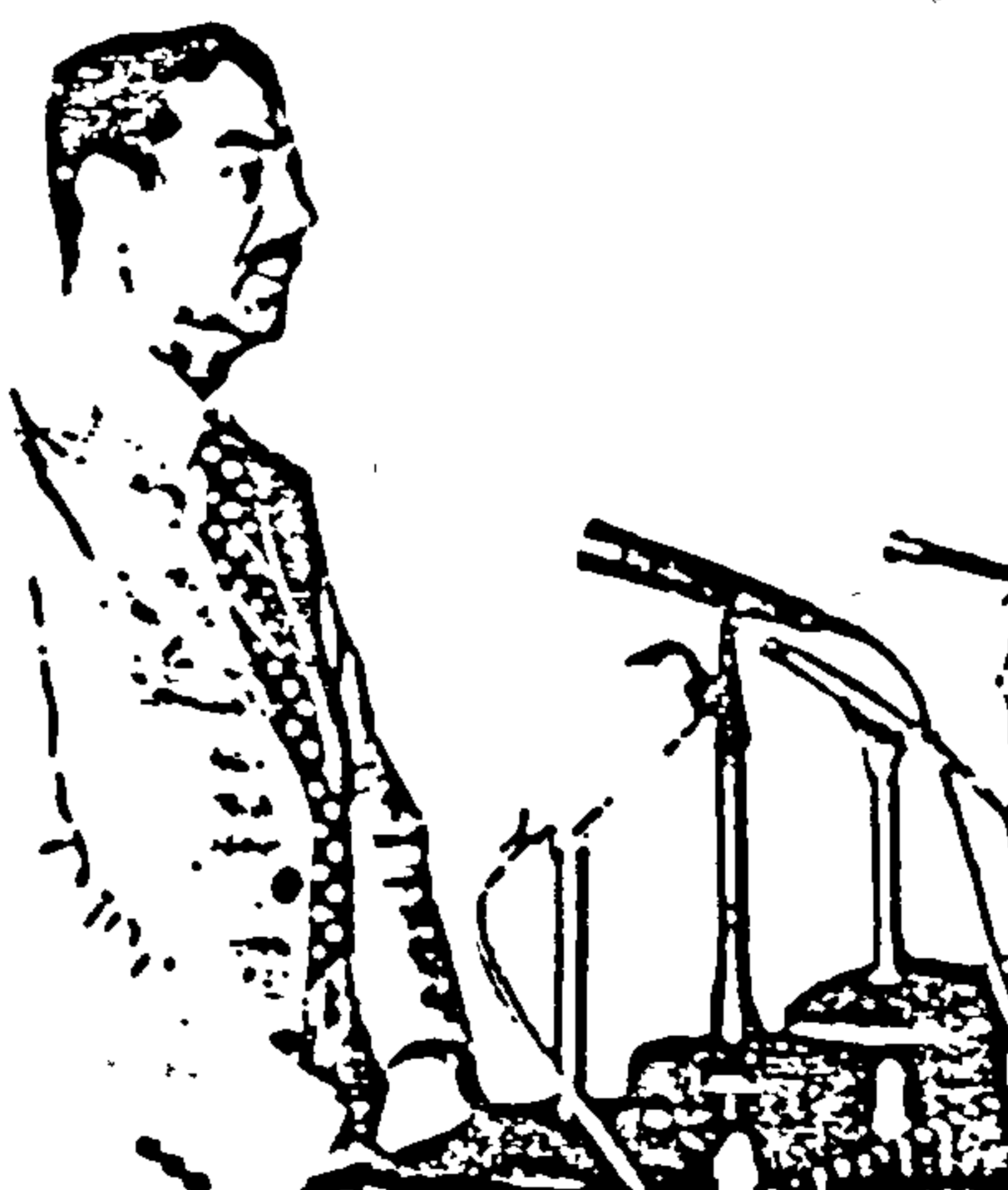
#### B. Situations:



1. Today is Sunday. Arthur Collins is reading a newspaper. He feels very lazy. His wife, Jane, has just done the housework. She's saying to Arthur, «Oh, Arthur! Look at the time. It's twenty to twelve and you haven't had a shave. You've been in that armchair all the morning reading the newspaper and I've done all the cleaning and I've washed all the dishes. I've put the meat into the oven and I've had a bath. Come on! Get ready! The Browns are going to arrive at any minute.»



2. Sally Gray will be twenty-one on Saturday, so she has decided to celebrate with a party at a restaurant. She has already spoken to several of her friends and asked them to come. Now she is phoning Ann to invite her, too. Ann's mother has answered the phone. Ann has not arrived home from work yet; so Ann's mother is saying, «Can I take a message?»



3. The conference started fifteen minutes ago. Comrade Saddam Hussein, Chairman of the Revolution Command Council,

has just begun his speech. He's speaking to the heads of the delegations who have attended the meeting. He has talked about various aspects of the Palestinian issue. Now, he's discussing the Iraqi aid to the Resistance Movement. We have sent aid and volunteers to Lebanon and the Palestinian Resistance. We shall keep supporting the Palestinians within the limits of our capabilities.»

### C. Drills

1. (a) – Move the table.  
– But I've already moved it.
- (b) – Answer the question.  
– But I've already answered it.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Put the meat in the oven.
2. Wash the dishes.
3. Do your homework.
4. Answer the telephone.
5. Clean the carpet.
6. Make the tea.
7. Type these letters.
8. Pay the bills.

2. (a) – Remind him to write the letter.  
– But he's already written it.
- (b) – Tell her to buy those books.  
– But she's already bought them.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Ask him to look for the book.
2. Remind him to pay the rent.
3. Ask her to type the letters.
4. Tell him to telephone Firas.
5. Remind him to attend the meeting.

6. Ask her to check the results.
3. (a) – Are you having a bath?  
– No, I've just had a bath.
- (b) – Is Samir doing his homework?  
– No, he's just done it.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Are you cleaning the carpet?
  2. Is Samir having a shave?
  3. Is Layla typing the report?
  4. Is Nada cooking?
  5. Are you checking the results?
  6. Are you doing the washing?
4. (a) do the washing – do her homework.  
Nada is still doing the washing. She hasn't done her homework yet.
- (b) telephone – ring – answer.  
The telephone is still ringing.  
Nada hasn't answered it yet.

Now practise with:

1. have breakfast – go to school
  2. wait – bus arrive
  3. study – finish
  4. sew – finish
  5. look at the necklace-put on
  6. read – go to bed
5. Ali and Ahmed are applying for a driving-licence.
- (a) – I have applied for a driving-licence.  
– Oh, have you? I haven't applied yet.
- (b) – I have given the application to the officer there.  
– Oh, have you? I haven't given it yet.

paid the fees  
 gone out with the officer for a check  
 taken the driving test  
 passed the test  
 received the licence

6. (a) – I'm going to drive my father's car tonight.  
 – Have you ever driven it before?  
 (b) – I'm going to visit Mr. Brown next week.  
 – Have you ever visited him before?

Now practise with:

act in a play; keep a diary; join the Popular Army; take a driving test; buy a radio-cassette.

7. (a) Samir's left his English book at home.  
 – Read out the passage, Samir.  
 – I'm sorry. I can't; I've left my book at home.  
 (b) Samir hasn't paid the bills yet.  
 – Give me the receipts, Samir?  
 – I'm sorry, I can't; I haven't paid the bills.

Now give Samir's responses to:

1. Samir's broken the best glass.  
 – Give me the best glass, Samir.
  2. Samir's just lost the key.  
 – Unlock the door, Samir.
  3. Samir's hurt his foot.  
 – Run after the ball, Samir.
  4. Samir hasn't done his homework yet.  
 – Let's go to the pictures, Samir.
  5. Samir hasn't written the composition yet.  
 – Show me your composition, Samir.
8. – What have you done this week?  
 – I have seen an interesting film.

– When did you see it?

– On Monday.

Now practise with:

visited my uncle; bought a new bicycle; finished the report;  
played tennis; applied for a driving–licence; applied for a job;  
repaired the fence of the garden.

9. – Have you received any letters recently?

(a month ago)

– No, I haven't.

– When was the last time you received any?

– I received one a month ago.

Now practise with:

1. Have you written any reports lately?

(a week ago)

2. Has the clerk spoken to the manager recently? (last  
Monday)

3. Have they held any meetings recently?

(last month)

4. Has Nada bought a shirt lately?

(two months ago)

5. Have you checked any receipts yet?

(yesterday)

## 10. Class Activities

(a) Teacher: Open your book, Hadi. What has Hadi done?

Class: He has (or He's) opened his book.

Teacher: What have you done, Hadi?

(or Pupil)

Hadi: I have (or I've) opened my book.

Now practise with:

close your book

open the window



put the book in your bag  
 give me your pencil  
 take the pencil  
 close the door

(b) Teacher: Firas, write your name in English on the blackboard.

What's Firas doing?

Pupil(s): He's writing his name.

Teacher: Firas has written his name on the blackboard.

What has he done?

Pupil(s): He has (He's) written his name on the blackboard.

Teacher: What have you just done, Firas?

Firas: I've just written my name on the blackboard.

Now practise with:

open the window; clean the blackboard; break the stick; place the book on the floor; comb your hair; draw a lorry.

## WRITTEN WORK

9. 8 Write two paragraphs on your school library (or the public library in your area). The first paragraph should include the following bits of information:

1. Location (first floor, end of corridor, near the lab, opposite our school, near the youth centre, ... etc.).
2. Number of books, where books are kept.
3. Kinds of books (reference, fiction, non-fiction, etc.).
4. Types of reference books.
5. Number of catalogues.
6. Furniture.

The second paragraph should contain the following bits of information:

1. The librarian (his name, age, ... etc.).

2. Opening hours.
  3. Who uses the library.
  4. How the librarian runs the library.
- 9.9 In your copybook do drills 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 of 9.7

### LITERARY READER

9. 10 Re-arrange the following statements according to the order of events in the text:
- a. Mr. Bumble told Monks that Mrs. Bumble knew something that might interest him.
  - b. Nancy went to Fagin's house to get some money for Bill.
  - c. Nancy overheard Monks saying that he wanted Oliver to be made a thief.
  - d. Nancy went to the hotel and told Rose all that she knew.
  - e. Monks came to Fagin's house and saw Nancy there.
  - f. Oliver's mother gave her wedding ring to the old nurse.
  - g. Mrs. Bumble gave the gold locket to Monks.
  - h. Nancy left Fagin's house and sat down crying on a door-step.
  - i. Monks saw Nancy's shadow on the wall.
  - j. Mr. and Mrs. Bumble went to Monks's house.
  - k. Mr. Bumble met Monks at the public-house.
  - l. Nancy learned that Monks was Oliver's brother.
  - m. Fagin said that Oliver was worth hundreds of pounds to him.
  - n. The old nurse gave the gold locket to Mrs. Bumble.
  - o. Monks threw the ring into the river.
  - p. Nancy grew suspicious and followed Fagin and Monks into Fagin's house.

## UNIT TEN

## DIALOGUE

## 10. 1 AT A SHOE SHOP

- May I help you, sir?
- Yes. I want some shoes.
- What size?
- I take size 42.
- Which do you prefer, black ones or brown ones?
- I'd rather have black ones.
- Try this pair on, please. How do they feel?
- They're too tight. I think I'll have to have a larger size.
- Try this pair on, please. How do they feel?
- Too big, I'm afraid.
- That's all we have, sir.
- Oh dear. What a pity.



how do they feel

/'hau də ðei fi:l /

کیف تشر بہا

tight

/tait/

ضیق

## ORAL PRACTICE

### 10. The Passive Voice (Present and Past Simple)

#### A. Structure Notes

1. The passive voice is used if we are more interested in what is done than in who or what performed the action.
2. The passive form in the present simple tense is:

is  
are } + past participle form of the verb  
am }

#### Examples:

The meeting is held every year.

Questions are answered in the class.

I am paid for doing this job.

3. The passive form in the past simple tense is:

was  
were } + past participle form of the verb

#### Examples:

The city was built about a century ago.

The books were packed in cases.

#### B. Situations:



1. My name is Muna and I work as a secretary. In my office a board meeting is held every month and is attended by the members of the board who are senior executives. The meeting is usually chaired by the director general of the office. A lot of preparations are needed for the meeting. I



do most of them. Notices are typed and agendas are prepared. In the meeting the items on the agenda are discussed thoroughly. The minutes of the meeting are written down and later summarized by the secretaries. These minutes are then signed by the chairman and the other members.



2. In Preston (North of England), there was a big fire over the New Factory yesterday. Reporters say that the factory was badly damaged and the machinery was destroyed. Fortunately, all the people inside the factory were rescued. Those who were injured were immediately taken to hospital. The man who started the fire was identified.

### c. Drills

1. (a) – The letters are kept in this filing cabinet. (the clerks)  
 – But who keeps them there?  
 – The clerks do. That's their job.
- (b) – The machine is oiled everyday. (the mechanic)  
 – But who oils it?  
 The mechanic does. That's his job.
- (c) – The floor is washed every day. (somebody)  
 – But who washes it?  
 – I don't know. Somebody. does.
- (d) – Ploughs are used in farming. (the farmers)  
 – But who uses them?  
 – The farmers, of course.

Now practise with:

1. The case is investigated carefully. (the police)
2. The typewriters are cleaned every week. (somebody)
3. The workers are paid by the week. (the accountant)
4. The carpet is swept every day. (somebody)
5. All the exercises are done. (the pupils)
6. The mail is delivered twice every day. (the postman)
7. These textbooks are used in all schools. (the teachers)
8. The minutes of the meeting are summarized and typed.  
 (the secretary)

2. Pupil 1: What plant is grown in Ceylon?

Pupil 2: Tea. What food is eaten in China?

Pupil 3: Rice. What clothes are worn in London?

Pupil 4: Jeans. What mineral is produced in Iraq?

Pupil 5: Oil.

Now practise with:

What tree is grown in the Shatt-el-Arab area? (date-palms)

What plant is grown in Egypt? (cotton)

What fuel is needed in industry? (oil)

What raw material is needed in the Basrah paper mill? (reeds)

What raw material is used in the Mosul Sugar Mill? (sugar beets)

What products are exported to Japan? (dates)

What products are imported from Japan? (cars)

What game is played in England? (football)

3. (a) cheese / sold/ grocer's.

– Where's cheese sold?

– At the grocer's.

(b) – letters /posted/ post office

– Where are letters posted?

– At the post office.

Now practise with:

1. butter /sold/ grocer's

2. meat /sold/ butcher's

3. cars /repaired/ garage

4. photos /taken/ studio

5. cheques /cashed/ bank

6. clothes /made/ tailor's

7. stamps /sold/ post office

8. food /cooked/ kitchen.

4. (a) – It's grown in Ceylon.

It's drunk in Iraq.

What's it called?

– It's called tea.

- (b) – It's grown in Iraq, Egypt and other places.

It's used for making clothes.

What's it called?

– It's called cotton.

- (c) It's obtained from sheep.

It's used for making thick clothes.

What's it called?

– It's called wool.

- (d) – It's made of plastic, metal and glass.

It's used for taking pictures.

What's it called?

– It's called a camera.

- (e) – It's made of metal.

It's used for opening cans.

What's it called?

– It's called a can-opener.

- (f) – It's made of paper.

It's used for getting the news.

What's it called?

– It's called a newspaper.

Now use the same type of questions and structures to ask about:

a telephone, a cigarette lighter, olives, dates, a stamp, a motor-car, a copybook, a dictionary.

5. (a) – The door was painted yesterday.

– Well, who painted it?

– I don't know. You'd better ask the office boy.

- (b) – The documents were kept in the filing cabinet.



- But who kept them there?
- I don't know. You'd better ask the secretary.

Now practise with:

1. The typewriter was cleaned.
  2. The windows were repaired.
  3. The furniture was polished.
  4. The files were arranged on the shelf.
  5. All the letters were typed.
  6. Later they were mailed.
  7. The bills were checked.
  8. The workers were paid.
6. (a) A manager is back from a journey. He's asking his secretary:

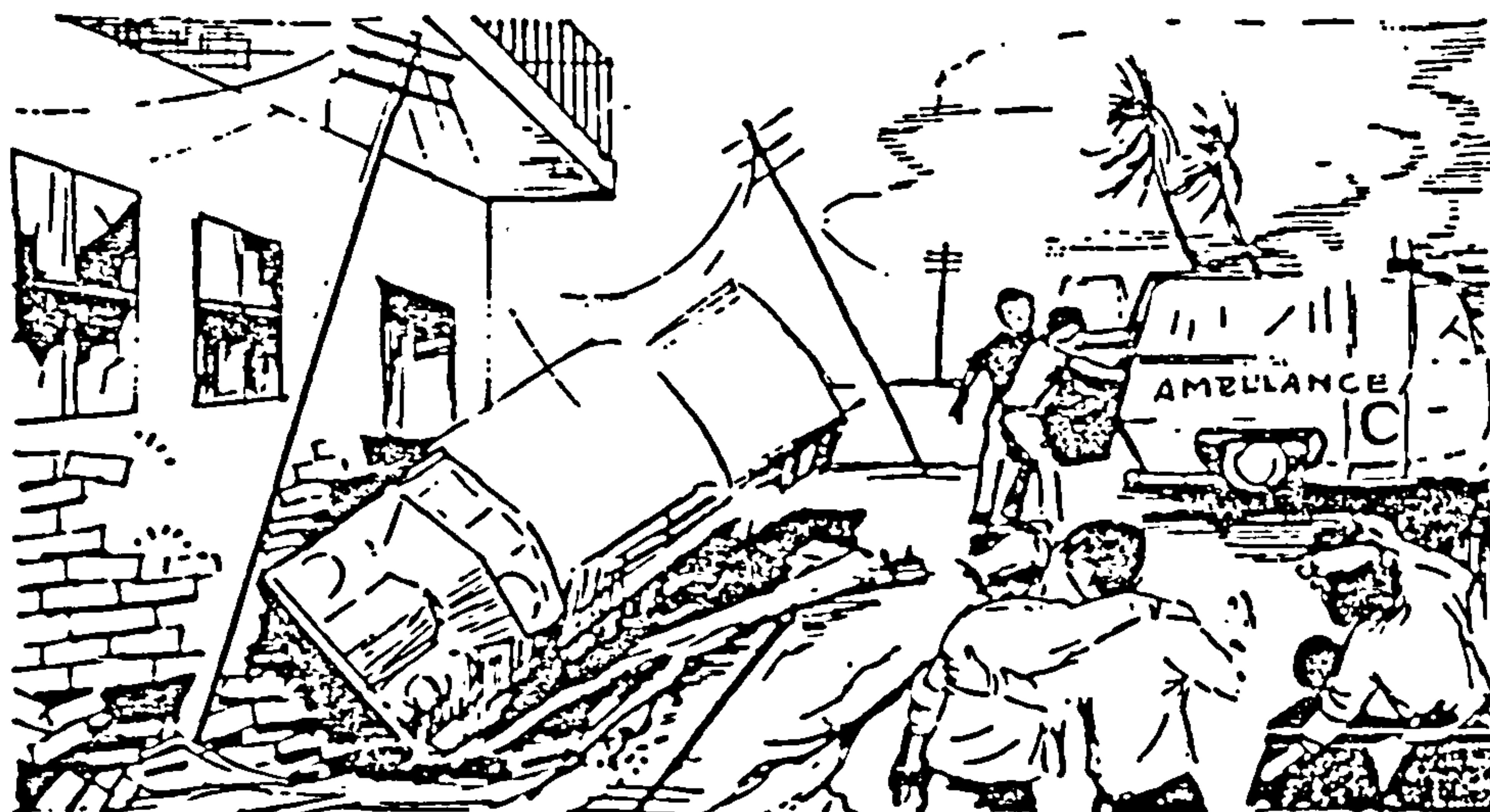
1. - Have you typed the letter?  
- Yes, it was typed yesterday.
2. - And have you mailed it to the agents?  
- Yes, it was mailed yesterday afternoon.

Now practise with:

prepared the report  
sent it to the agents  
cashed the cheques  
cancelled the appointment for next Monday  
prepared the agenda for the board meeting  
prepared the chairman's agenda.

- (b) Your teacher comes to the classroom after a two-day leave. Say the questions and give the possible answers using the pattern in(a)above. For example:

- Have you done the exercises?
- Yes, they were done yesterday.



7. Examine the picture carefully, and then answer the questions below:
1. When did the storm break out? (during the night)
  2. How much damage was done? (a lot of)
  3. What happened to the trees? (blown down)
  4. What happened to the telephone wires? (blown down)
  5. What happened to the cars? (overturned)
  6. What happened to the windows of the house? (smashed)
  7. What happened to the fence? (badly damaged)
  8. What happened to the people inside? (injured)
  9. Who was fetched? (a doctor)
  10. Why was he late? (roads/blocked)
  11. What was called later? (an ambulance)
  12. Where were the people taken? (to hospital)
8. (a) I like your dress. Where (make)?  
I like your dress. Where was it made?
- (b) This is a very old house. When (build)?  
This is a very old house. When was it built?
- Now practise with:

1. These cakes are terrible. When (cook)?
2. The robber will appear in court tomorrow. Where (catch)?
3. This edition of the book is very old.  
When (publish)?
4. I have to pay the bill tomorrow. Why (not pay) yesterday?
5. The windows are open and it's very cold.  
Why (open)?
6. The exercise was very difficult. How (do)?

**10.3 In your copybook do drills (1), (3), (4), (7) and (8) of 10. 2  
(Oral Practice.)**

### **LITERALLY READER**

**10. 4 Choose the most appropriate alternative:**

1. The first person to know about Nancy's secret visit to Rose was
  - a. Dr. Losberne.
  - b. Harry Mylie.
  - c. Mr. Brownlow.
  - d. Mrs. Maylie.
  
2. During Mr. Brownlow's visit to Mrs. Maylie and Dr. Losberne at the hotel, it was agreed that
  - a. the secret of Oliver's parentage should be forced from Monks without the help of the police.
  - b. they would have extreme difficulty in arresting Monks unless all the members of the gang were arrested.
  - c. unless Monks was brought upon his knees, Fagin and his gang could never be arrested.
  - d. Monks knew nothing about Oliver's parentage because there was no proof against him.

3. Mr. Brownlow wanted
  - a. to ask for Harry Maylie's help because he knew that Harry was a very good lawyer.
  - b. the police to arrest Monks when he was not surrounded by the members of the gang.
  - c. to prove that Monks was connected with the robberies that the gang had committed.
  - d. to see Nancy and ask her to point out Monks or describe him fully so that he could be identified.
  
4. After seeing Mr. Brownlow, Mrs. Maylie decided to
  - a. stay in London for three days only.
  - b. leave London immediately after Harry's arrival.
  - c. stay in London until Fagin's case was settled in court.
  - d. leave London only after the truth about Oliver's origin was discovered.
  
5. The reason why Nancy insisted she should go out that night was that she wanted to.
  - a. see Rose on the bridge.
  - b. have some fresh air,
  - c. meet her new boy – friend.
  - d. show Bill some obstinacy.

Text No. 16

## UNIT ELEVEN

### READING COMPREHENSION

#### 11.1 IBN SINA



One of the greatest figures that contributed to Arab civilization was Abu Ali Al-Husain Ibn Sina, known in Europe by the corrupted form of his name, Avicenna. He was born near Bukhara in 370 A.H. (980 A.D.) and during his early boyhood he learned the Quran and studied a great deal of literature. He had a very strong memory and was able to learn whole books by heart. His father sent him to the best teachers in the town to learn arithmetic and philosophy. But before long Ibn Sina left his teachers and started reading books on his own. He studied logic, mathematics,

philosophy and science and later he read all the books on medicine he could find. When he was 16 he invented new methods of medical treatment and at 17 he was appointed physician to the ruler of Bukhara. Later, he left Bukhara and wandered from the court of one prince to the court of another.

Ibn Sina has been called the Prince of Physicians, and for centuries his Qanun was the most important textbook in all European centres of medical studies. But he wrote also on philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, geology and music.

The Qanun was an attempt to systematize all the medical writings of the world up to the time of Ibn Sina. It had an appendix which contained the original case records of Ibn Sina. This appendix is unfortunately now lost. The Qanun is divided into five books. The first two books deal with theoretical medicine and with uncompounded drugs. The last three deal with diseases and their treatment, with general diseases and with the compounding of drugs.

In philosophy Ibn Sina wrote the Kitab al Shifa, which deals with theoretical knowledge related to physics, mathematics and metaphysics. The practical aspects of the book deal with economy, politics and ethics. He also made many astronomical observations, and he studied force, light, heat, motion and gravity. Being an encyclopedic figure he was also interested in music and his knowledge of the theory of music was much ahead of his time. Thus, Ibn Sina played a vital role in the continuity of human progress and one can hear people talking about his opinions up to this day all over the world.

## 11.2 Vocabulary

figure

/'figə/

شخصية

contributed to	/kən'tribjutid tə/	أسهم في
corrupted	/kə'rʌptid/	مُشوّه
literature	/'litrət ʃə/	ادب
memory	/'meməri/	ذاكرة
philosophy	/fi'losəfi/	فلسفة
logic	/'lɒdʒik/	منطق
physician	/fi'zi ʃən/	طبيب
ruler	/'ru:lə/	حاكم
court	/ko:t/	بلاط
prince	/prins/	امير
systematize	/'sistəmətaiz/	ينظم
appendix	/ə'pendiks/	ملحق
original	/ə'ridʒɪnəl/	أصلي
case records	/'keis'rekɔ:dz/	سجلات تشخيصية
unfortunately	/ʌn'fɔ:tʃnitli/	لسوء الحظ
deal with	/'di:lwið/	يتعامل مع
theoretical	/eiə'retikəl/	نظري
uncompounded	/'ʌnkəm'paundid/	بسيطة، غير مركبة
compounding	/kəm'paundɪŋ/	تركيب
knowledge	/'nɒlɪdʒ/	معرفة
related to	/ri'leitɪd tu/	متعلق بـ
metaphysics	/metə'fɪzɪks/	علم ما وراء الطبيعة
practical aspects	/'praktikəl aspekts/	الجوانب العملية
economy	/i:'kɒnəmi/	الاقتصاد
ethics	/'eɪɪks/	علم الأخلاق
astronomical	/astrə'nɒmɪkəl/	فلكي
observations	/ɒbzə'veɪ ʃənz/	ملاحظات
motion	/'mɒʃən/	حركة
gravity	/'grævɪti/	جاذبية
theory	/'eɪəri/	نظرية
vital role	/'vɪtəl 'rəʊl/	دور حيوي

continuity	/kəntin'ju:ti/	استمرارية
opinions	/ə'pinjənz/	آراء

### 11.3 Complete the following:

1. At an early age, Ibn Sina proved to be \_\_\_\_\_ because \_\_\_\_\_.
2. For centuries Ibn Sina's Qanun was the major textbook of medicine in Europe. This is because \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Although Qanun was Ibn Sina's well-known book, he also \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Ibn Sina is considered an encyclopedic figure because \_\_\_\_\_.

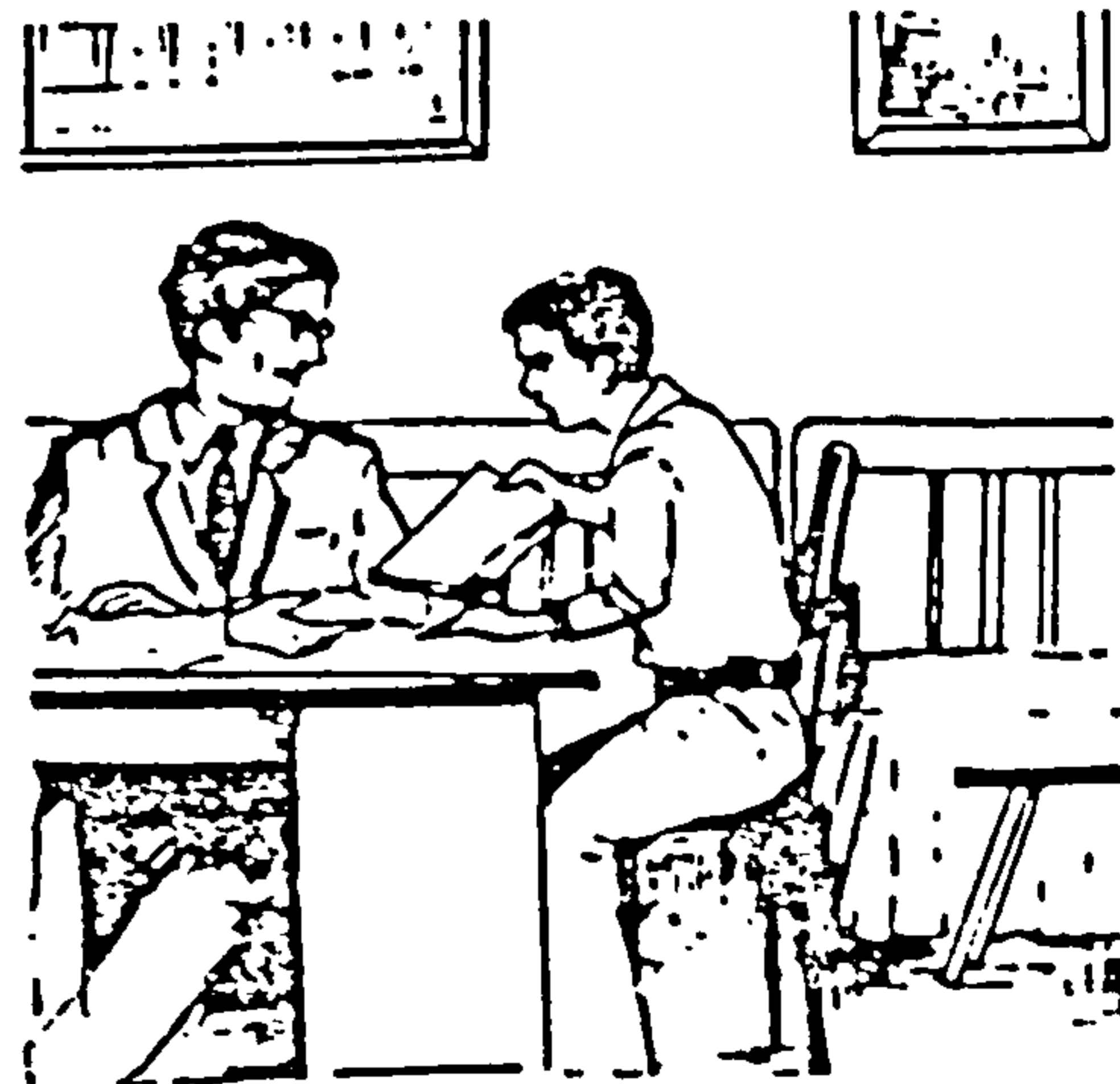
### 11.4 Answer the following:

1. Give subtitles to each paragraph in the reading passage. The subtitle should summarize the basic idea in the paragraph.
2. Which paragraph deals mainly with Ibn Sina's Qanun?
3. How are paragraphs 3 and 4 related to paragraph 2?
4. What word in paragraph 4 best describes Ibn Sina as a scientist and philosopher?

## DIALOGUE

### 11.5 HANDING IN AN ESSAY

- Good morning, sir. Can you spare a minute?
- Good morning. Haitham. Yes come in and sit down.
- Thank you very much.
- Now, what can I do for you?





- I'de like to talk to you about the essay I wrote on Compulsory Education in Iraq.
- What about it?
- Is it possible to include it in the next issue of the school magazine?
- Give it to me. I'll read it first and let you know later.
- Thank you very much, sir.
- Not at all.

can you spare a minute	/kən ju 'spe ə r' ə minit/	هل تسمح لي بدقيقة من وقتك
compulsory education	/kəm'pʌlsəri edʒu'keɪʃən/	التعليم الالزامي
what about it	/'wɒt əbaʊt it/	ماذا عنه
include	/in'klu: d/	يدرج
issue	/ iʃu: /	المدد

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

11.6

### ORAL PRACTICE

#### 11.7 Tenses – Present Perfect Continuous

##### A. Structure Notes

1. This tense is formed by:

have }  
has } been + - ing form of the verb.

##### Examples

They have been living in Basrah.

He has been sitting under the tree.

2. This tense is used to indicate an action or state which began in

the past, has continued up to the present and is either still continuing or has only just ended.

**Examples:**

He has been working in this office for five years.

This means that he began to work in this office five years ago and that he is still working there, or has done so until very recently.

**3. Since**

Since is always followed by a phrase or clause expressing a point in time. This means times that we can point to by using the calendar or clock, e.g. since 6 o'clock, since yesterday, since April, since 1968, since Christmas.

It is also used with phrases to which we can give a definite time or date, e.g.. since his birthday, since the morning, since breakfast, since the end of the war, since I was six.

Since is often used with the perfect tenses.

**4. For**

For is followed by a phrase expressing a period of time, e.g. for half an hour, for two hours, for three days, for five weeks, for a month, for a long time, for ages.

For + period of time may be used with all tenses:

She cried for two hours.

He'll stay there for six days.

Ali's been learning French for three years.

(However, in the drills that follow for is used mainly with the present perfect tense in order to bring out the contrast between for and since).

**B. Situations**

1. This is a summer camp. It's arranged by the N.U.I.S. We've



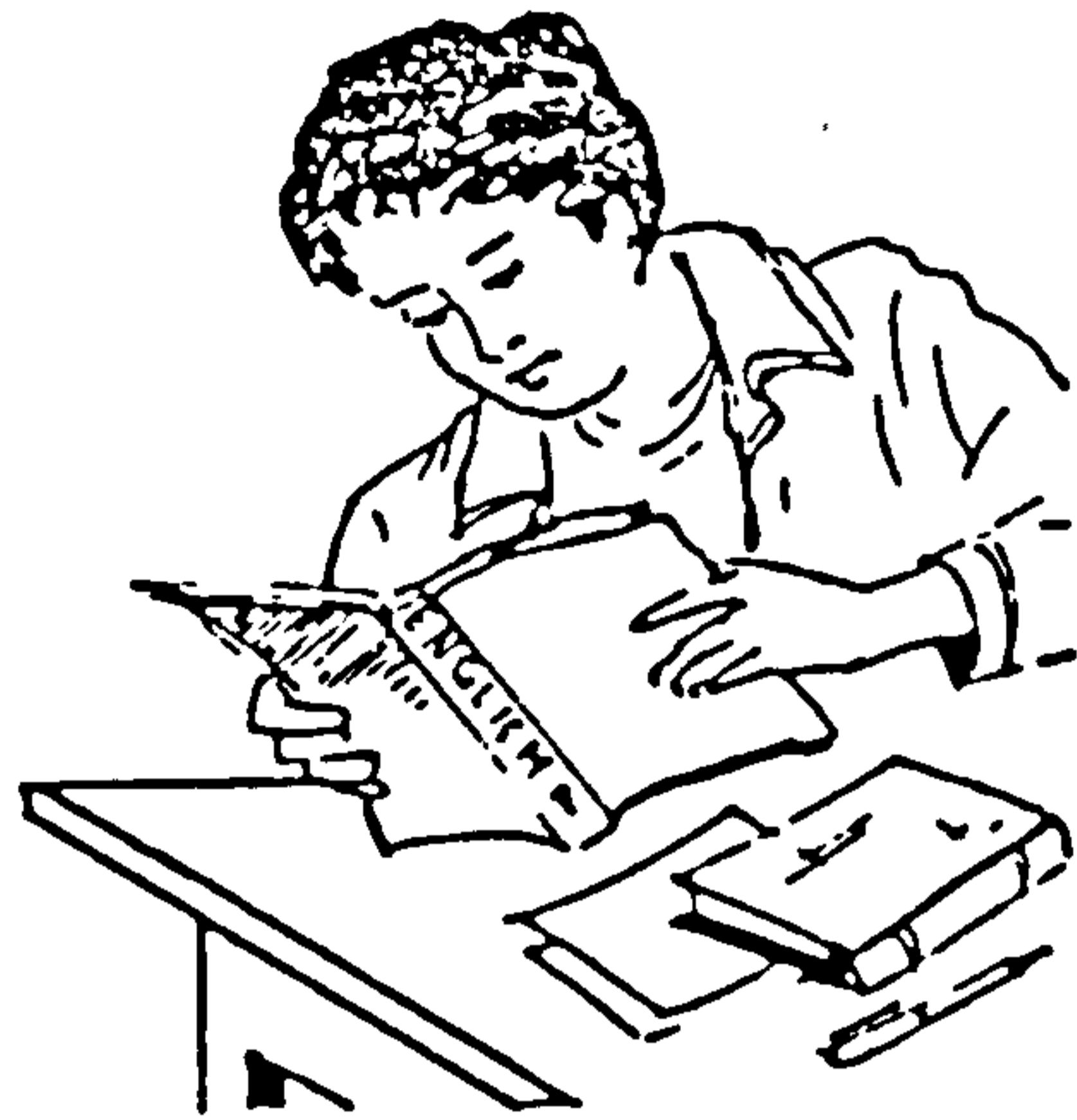
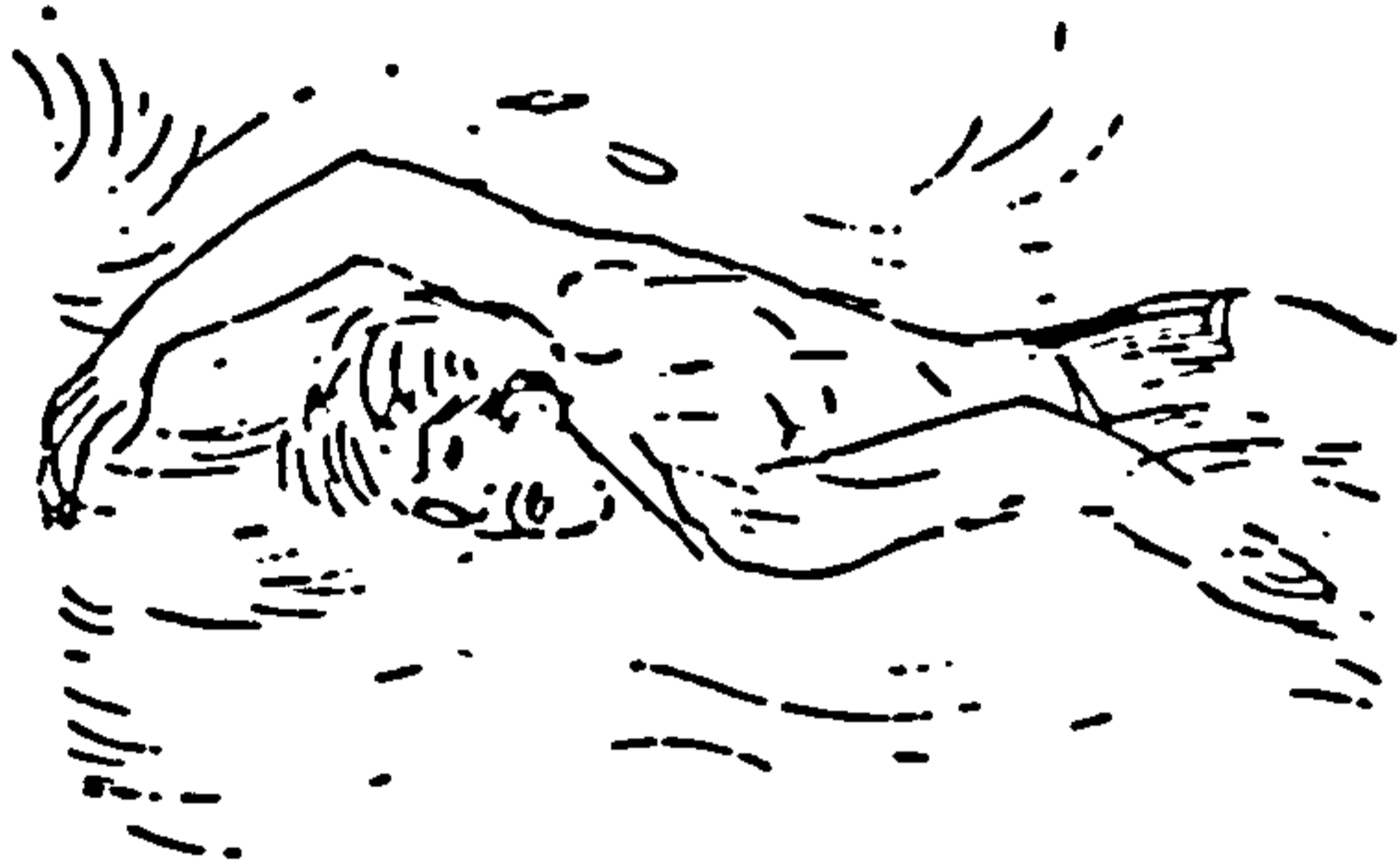
been working here for a week now. We've been trying to dig a drainage canal. We work eight hours every day, but in the evenings we have parties that include different types of entertainment. We've been having evening parties since the beginning of the work on the camp. Everyone here is enjoying himself.



2. This bit of news appeared in an English newspaper. «The police are anxious to interview Alan Jackson, a porter at the New Factory in Preston. He has been living in Preston for five

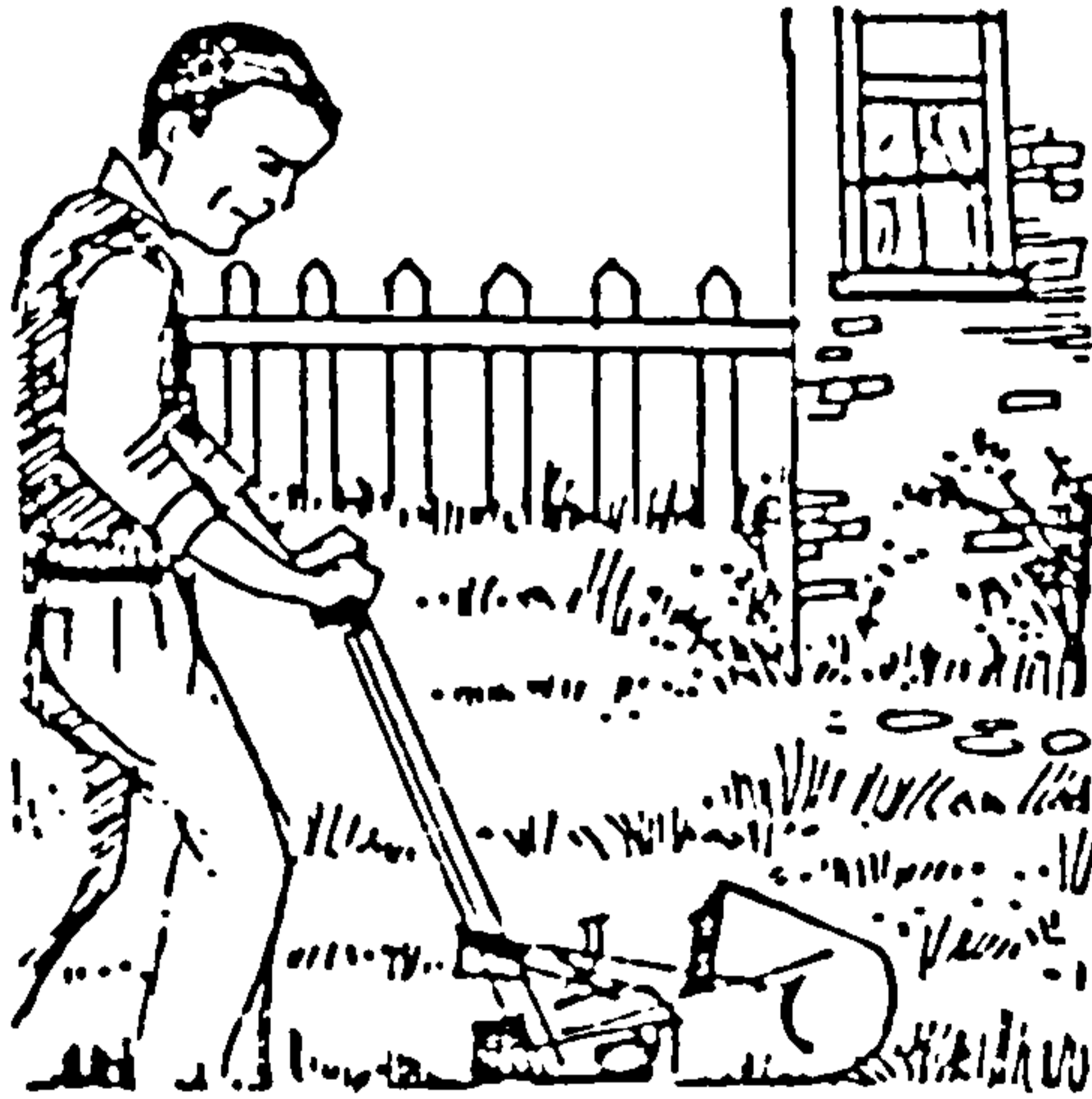
years and during the past three years he has been working at the New Factory. The police believe that he would be able to help them in their enquiries into the causes of the recent fire in the New Factory. If anybody has seen him, would they please contact any police station».

### C. Drills



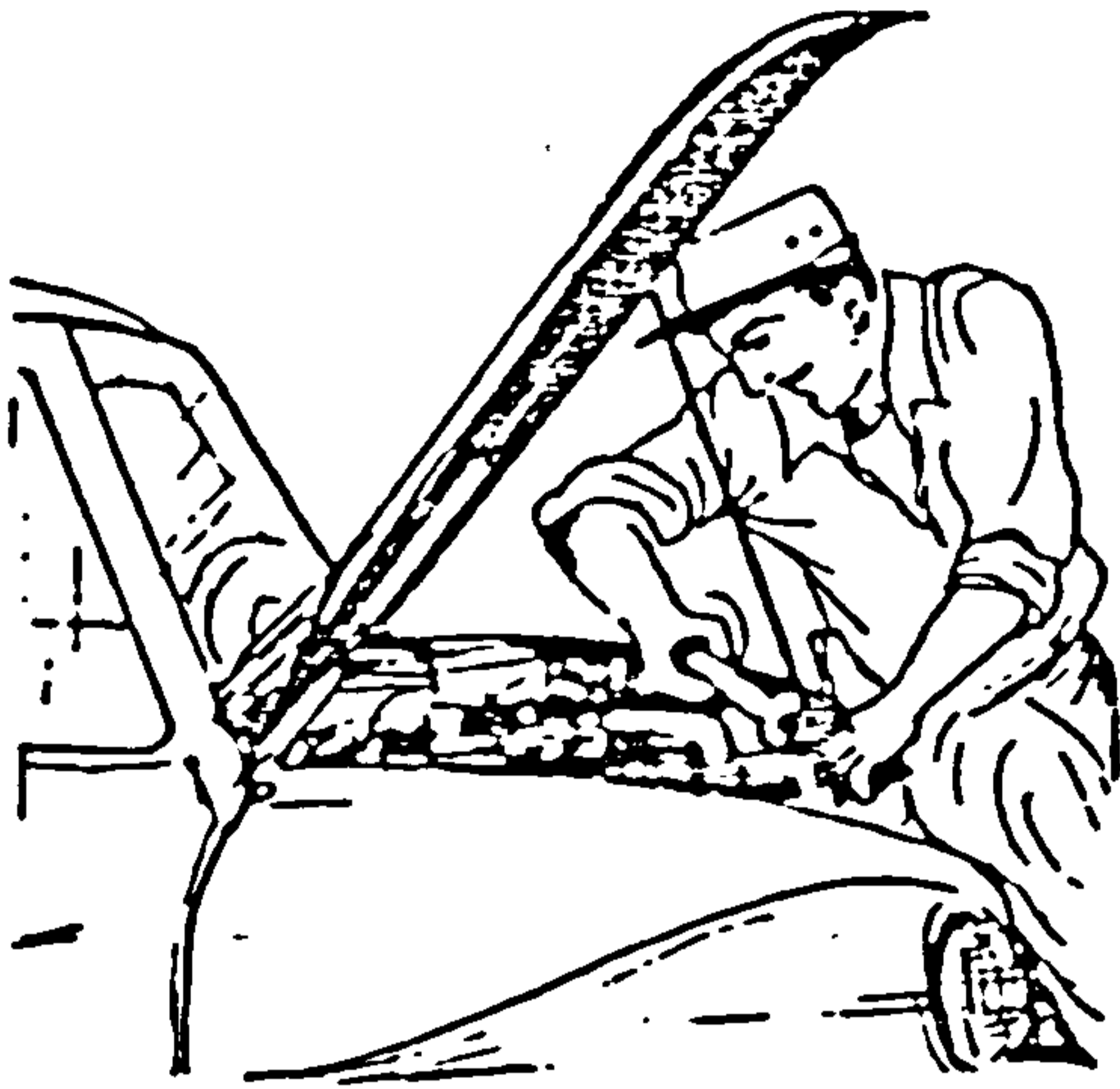
1. (a) – Why is Ahmed's hair wet?  
– He's been swimming.
- (b) – Why is Ahmed tired?  
– He's been reading for a long time.

Now give responses to:

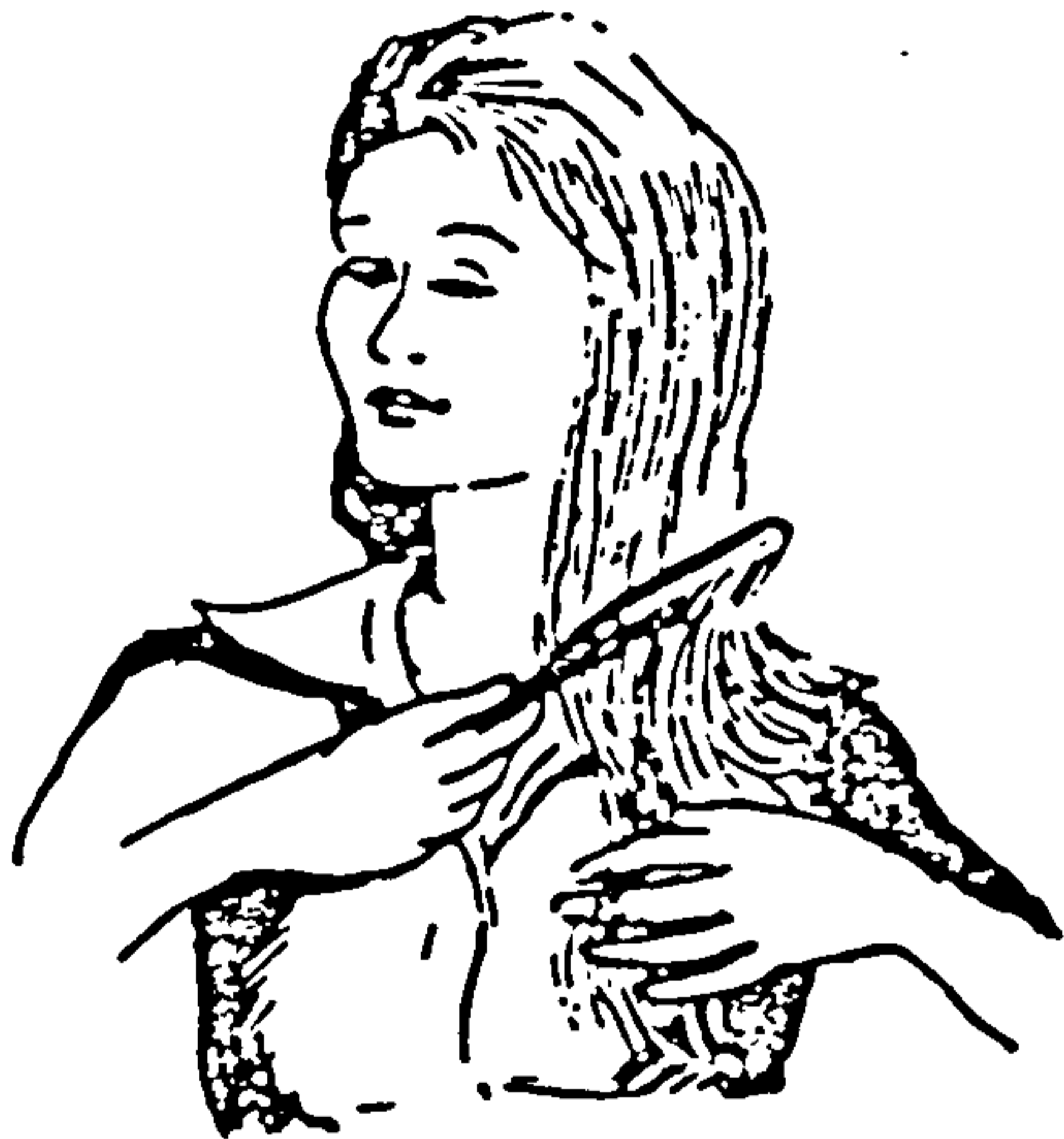


1. Why is Ali's lawn short?

2. Why are the boy's knees dirty?



3. Why are Wa'el's hands dirty? 4. Why is Haitham's suit smart?



5. Why is Sally's hair beautiful? 6. Why is Samir's cat happy?

2. (a) – Layla – typing

– Is Layla still typing?

– Yes, she's been typing for an hour now.

(b) – The boys – playing football

– Are the boys still playing football?

– Yes, they've been playing for three hours now.

Now practise with:

Firas – working here  
 the Browns — living here  
 you — waiting  
 the children — watching TV.  
 Samir's cat — sleeping before the fireplace  
 board — discussing the problem  
 Haitham and Firas — arguing  
 police — looking for the thief

3. – What are you doing?  
 – I'm reading.  
 – You've been sitting there since eight o'clock.  
 – I've been reading since then.

Now practise with:

thinking  
 writing some letters  
 listening to the radio  
 studying the new project  
 doing my homework  
 drawing out a new design  
 trying to solve some problems  
 writing a report  
 checking the lists

4. (a) – Samir is learning English. (7 years)  
 – How long has Samir been learning English?  
 – He's been learning English for seven years.  
 (b) – The Browns live in Liverpool. (1973)  
 – How long have the Browns been living in Liverpool?  
 – They've been living there since 1973.

Now practise with the following. Choose between since and for.

1. Mehdi works on a collective farm. (1974)
2. Adnan wears glasses. (15 years)
3. Firas and Haitham are arguing. (two hours)
4. Nada's drawing. (two o'clock)
5. Zainzb's knitting. (the morning)
6. Firas is watching TV. (a long time)
7. Arthur's staying in a hotel now. (a month)
8. Samir's father is mowing the lawn of his garden.  
(breakfast)
9. Ali's thinking of getting married. (he met Layla)
10. Layla's typing the report. (an hour and a half)

### WRITTEN WORK

- 11.8 Use the following outline and write one paragraph. Punctuate your paragraph properly and use capital letters where necessary.

#### PACKING A PARCEL

1. Need for strong carboard box.
  2. Contents to be arranged neatly and tightly.
  3. If contents are breakable they should be covered with soft material.
  4. Strong brown paper for outside cover.
  5. Parcel should be tied strongly with cord, tape or rope.
  6. Put label, i.e. correct address.
- 11.9 In your copybook do drills (1), (2), (3) and (4) of 11.7 (Oral Practice).

### LITERARY READER

- 11.10 Complete each of the sentences in list A with an appropriate option from list B:

## A

1. Charlie Bates believed that the Dodger would certainly be
2. Although the Dodger tried hard to pretend that he was innocent, the judge
3. Fagin's spy followed Nancy to London Bridge and
4. After listening to Nancy's description of Monks, Mr. Brownlow
5. Mr. Brownlow assured Nancy that his purpose was only to
6. Nancy did what she did not because she had decided to turn against the gang, but because she
7. Blinded with anger at what Nancy had done, Bill
8. Feeling lonely, and haunted by the vision of Nancy's dead body, Bill could not
9. Bill decided to
10. Bill tried to catch the dog so as to

## B

- a. went straight home and beat her up to death.
- b. drown it in a pond, but the dog sensed the danger and ran away.
- c. force the secret of Oliver's parentage from Monks, and not to bring Fagin's game to justice.
- d. banished from the country because the police had strong evidence against him.
- e. listened to every word she said to Mr. Brownlow and Rose.
- f. wanted to help Oliver.
- g. continue running away in the fields and decided to go back to London.
- h. found him guilty and sent him to prison.
- i. kill his dog lest the animal should lead to his arrest.
- j. thought he knew the man.

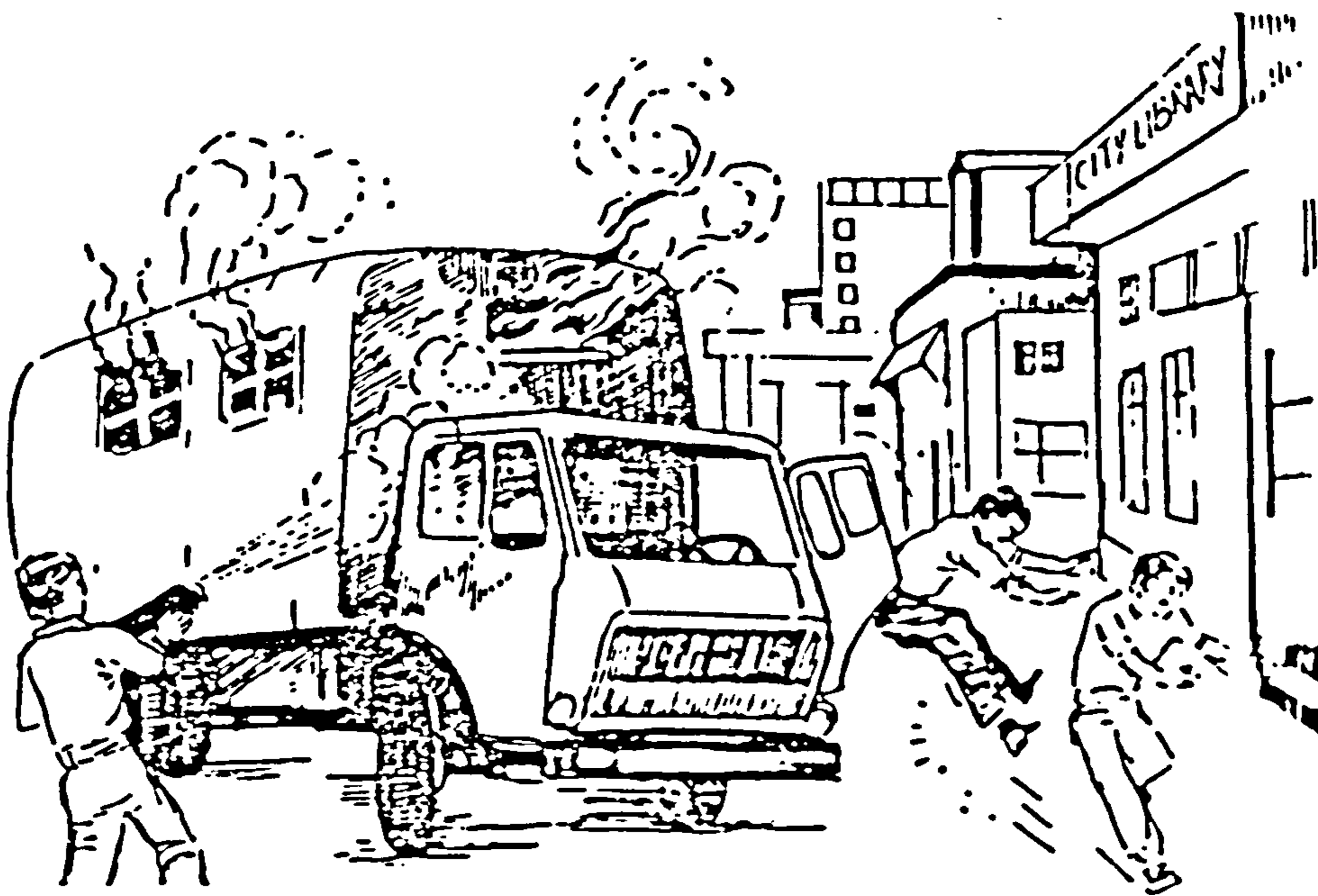


Text No. 4

## UNIT TWELVE

## READING COMPREHENSION

12.1 The following is an extract from a British daily newspaper

**TWO INJURED BY BLAST IN CARAVAN**

Two men on a touring holiday were injured by an explosion in their motor caravan in the centre of Norwich yesterday.

Shoppers, traders and businessmen in Red Lion Street were startled by a loud bang, and seconds later the two men leapt from the vehicle, which had stopped outside the City Library.

Several people rushed to give assistance and helped to put out the fire inside the vehicle, a light truck converted to provide living accommodation, before Norwich firemen arrived. Police came to the scene in a minute and started an enquiry. «The blast was caused by a leakage of gas», said a police spokesman.

### Treatment

The men—American, Mr. Robert Swing, aged 25, of Ohio, who was driving, and his passenger Mr. George Beams, 23, of New York—were taken to Norwich Hospital with minor burns.

They were allowed to leave after treatment.

«I heard this explosion. It was pretty loud, I thought it

could have been a bomb, »said Mr. Thomas Brown, deputy clerk of the markets, who was working in his office in Red Lion Street.. «I looked out of the window and saw this chap leap from the van and roll on the pavement».

«Then another chap came out of the van. He seemed to be in a worse state—parts of his trousers were hanging in shreds below his knee.»

«I came downstairs to get a fire extinguisher, but by the time I got outside someone from the Library was in the street with an extinguisher».

Mr. Brown, who lives at 32, East Street, Norwich, said both victims were shocked. One was taken into the market's office to await an ambulance.

«The second man insisted on going back into the van to see if everything was all right, and five minutes later he came out with a drawer that was blazing», he added.

The explosion was also heard inside the Town Library. Staff provided a fire extinguisher and telephoned for an ambulance.

Although a plastic window was blown out, damage inside the vehicle was mainly

superficial.

The two men have spent the last three weeks touring the Continent and had travelled to Norwich from Ostend (Belgium). At the time of the incident their wives were shopping in the city.

## VOCABULARY

### 12.2

blast	/bla:st/	انفجار
touring holiday	/'tuəriŋ'hɒlədeɪ/	عطلة سياحية
explosion	/'iks'pləʊʒn/	انفجار
startled	/'sta:tld/	زوعوا
leap	/li:p/	يقفز
assistance	/'ə'sistəns/	مساعدة
truck	/'trʌk/	سيارة حمل (لورى)
converted	/'kɒn'və:tɪd/	حولت
accommodation	/'ækɒmə'deɪʃn/	سكن
enquiry	/'iŋ'kwaiəri/	تحقيق
leakage	/'li:kɪdʒ/	تسرب
spokesman	/'spəʊksmən/	ناطق
minor	/'maɪnə/	طفيف. ثانوي
treatment	/'tri:tment/	معالجة
roll	/'rəʊl/	يتدحرج
in shreds	/'ɪn'ʃredz/	ممزق
fire extinguisher	/'faɪə'ɪkstɪŋgwɪʃə/	مطفأة حريق
victim	/'vɪktɪm/	ضحية
ambulance	/'ambjuləns/	سيارة اسعاف
blazing	/'bleɪzɪŋ/	مشعل

staff	/sta: f/	موظفون
superficial	/su:pə'fiʃl/	سطحي . طفيف

12.3 Choose the best answer:

1. The explosion took place
  - (a) during a week day.
  - (b) on a holiday.
  - (c) during the night.
  - (d) in the evening.
2. The two men in the caravan were
  - (a) slightly hurt.
  - (b) badly injured.
  - (c) shocked but unhurt.
  - (d) badly burnt.
3. How many people were touring in the caravan?
  - (a) Two.
  - (b) Three.
  - (c) Four.
  - (d) The passage does not tell us.
4. Mr. Brown's office was
  - (a) on the ground floor of a supermarket.
  - (b) in one of the upper floors of a supermarket.
  - (c) in the City Library.
  - (d) in 32 East Street, Norwich.
5. The explosion caused
  - (a) leakage of gas.
  - (b) serious damage to the caravan.
  - (c) minor damage to the caravan.
  - (d) destruction of the City Library.
6. Mr. Brown didn't take a fire extinguisher to the caravan because
  - (a) he couldn't find one.

- (b) the fire extinguisher didn't work.
- (c) there wasn't any in the supermarket.
- (d) someone else got there first.

12.4 Put these events into their order of happening:

1. Several people hurried to put out the fire.
2. A loud explosion was heard in the town centre.
3. Fire started inside the caravan.
4. The firemen arrived.
5. The Police arrived at the spot.
6. The two Americans were taken to Norwich hospital.
7. One of the two victims was taken to the market's office.
8. Gas escaped.
9. The gas caught fire.
10. The two men jumped out of the caravan.
11. The two men left the hospital after treatment.
12. One of the victims insisted on going back to the caravan.
13. One of the victims came out of the caravan with a drawer alight in his hand.

12.5 The following statements are false according to the passage.

Explain why each statement is false and give the true one.

1. The explosion took place on a train.
2. The police arrived very quickly to arrest the two men.
3. The two Americans started the fire on purpose.
4. After jumping out of the caravan, one of the two men insisted on going back to save his friend.
5. The two men had to stay in hospital for serious injury.
6. The two victims' wives were badly injured in the blast.
7. When the explosion occurred, Mr. Brown couldn't do much because the caravan was completely damaged.

12.6 The following sentences are taken from the reading passage.

Replace the underlined words with words that have similar meaning taken from the following list:

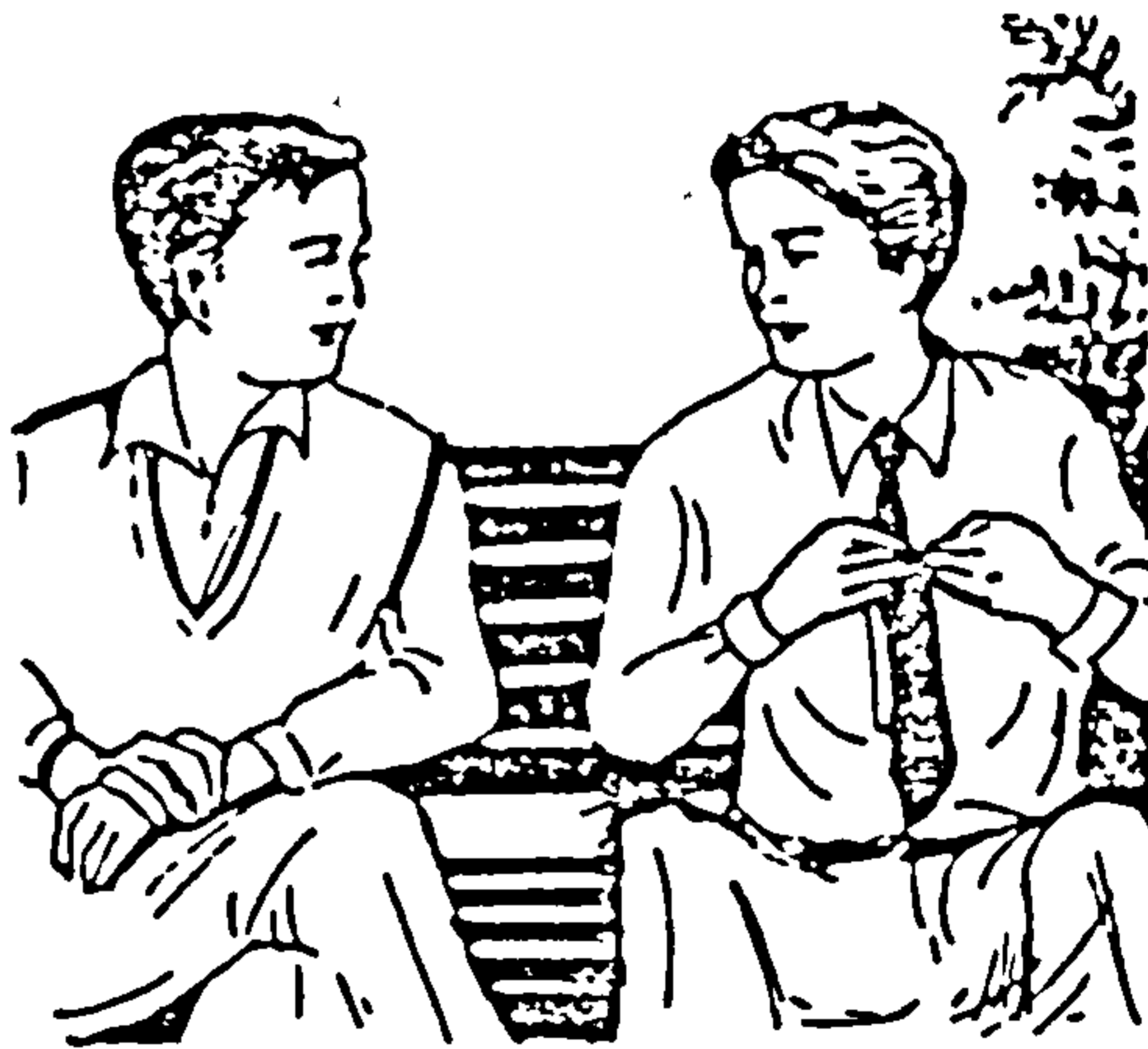
when, arrived there, permitted, help, extinguish, smaller, condition.

1. Several people rushed to give assistance.
2. Police came to the scene in a minute and started the enquiry.
3. The men were taken to Norwich Hospital with minor burns.
4. They were allowed to leave after treatment.
5. He seemed to be in a worse state.
6. By the time I got outside, someone from the Library was in the van with an extinguisher.
7. They helped to put out the fire inside the vehicle.

## DIALOGUE

### 12.7 TALKING ABOUT A CAR ACCIDENT

- My father had a car accident.
- He didn't! When was that?
- Last night. My father was driving home along the Mosul road.
- He must have been driving very fast.
- No, he was driving rather slowly, but a small car shot out of a side-road.
- Didn't your father try to stop?
- He tried, but it was impossible.



- What happened then?
- The small car went into my father's car. My father's in hospital now.
- I'm very sorry to hear this.

car accident	/'ka: r 'aksid ənt/	حادثة سيارة
shot out	/'ʃot aʊt/	اندفعت بسرعة
side - road	/'saɪd rəʊd/	طريق جانبي

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

12.8

## ORAL PRACTICE

### 12.9 Tenses – The Past Continuous Tense

#### A. Structure Notes

1. The form of this tense is:

was } + - ing form of the verb.  
were }

2. This tense describes an action which was going on at a certain time in the past.

Example:

She was cooking dinner at 6 o'clock.

3. The time conjunctions with which the past continuous is sometimes used are as, when, and while. Examples:

I met Ali as I was going home.

I read a newspaper while I was waiting.

#### B. Situation

We were having supper when we suddenly heard loud beating on the door. Somebody was shouting, «Open the door,» in an ugly voice. My two little sons looked at one another. As I was making for the door, the beating increased. The door was pushed and flung



open. Four Zionist soldiers moved in. They were carrying guns which they pointed at me.

«Where's your husband?»

«My husband? Why do you want him?»

By this time the soldiers were searching every corner in the house. They were turning things over, kicking everything and looking into every box or drawer. Evidently they were not only looking for my husband, but for guns too. In a short time the house was a complete mess.

«Tell us where your husband is. If you don't speak we'll arrest the two boys instead.»

### C. Drills

1. (a) – I saw you at the petrol station yesterday.

– What were you doing?

– I was buying petrol, of course.

(b) – I saw you at the butcher's yesterday.

What were you doing?



– I was buying some meat, of course.

Now practise with:

baker's	some bread
bookshop	a book
shoe shop	a pair of shoes
newspaper shop	a newspaper
fish market	a fish
camera shop	a camera (or a film)

2. (a) – Why haven't you finished typing the report yet?  
 – I was typing it all day yesterday, but today I haven't had time.
- (b) – Why haven't you finished painting the sitting – room yet?  
 – I was painting it all day yesterday, but today I haven't had time.

Now practise with:

repairing the machine  
 tidying your room  
 mowing the lawn  
 planting the new trees  
 studying the project  
 drawing up the design  
 sewing your new dress  
 digging the garden  
 mending my radio

3. Haitham, Firas, Samir and their class went on a picnic. The next day, the teacher asked Firas.
- (a) – Did Haitham eat anything?  
 – Eat anything! He was eating things the whole time.
- (b) – Did Samir sing a song?  
 – Sing a song! He was singing songs the whole time.

Now practise with:

Waleed	/ discuss the problem
Salah	/ ask questions
Jabbar	/ buy anything
Hadi	/do anything
Jalal	/ take pictures
Ahmed	/ read anything.
Zaid and Ali	/ play games.

4. (a) – Why don't you mend the radio? (having your rest)  
 – I mended it while you were having your rest.
- (b) – Why don't you type the letters? (attending the meeting)  
 – I typed them while you were attending the meeting.

Now practise with:

- Why don't you do your homework? (mowing the lawn)
  - Why don't you repair the tractor? (ploughing the field)
  - Why don't you wash the dishes? (watching TV)
  - Why don't you prepare the report? (studying the new project)
  - Why don't you mend the fence? (cleaning the kitchen)
  - Why don't you join the Popular Army? (studying abroad)
  - Why don't you feed the chickens? (playing table – tennis)
  - Why don't you go for a walk? (swimming)
5. (a) – What were you doing when Jalal came? (reading a newspaper)  
 – I was reading a newspaper.
- (b) – What was Najat doing when her friends called? (washing the dishes)  
 – She was washing the dishes.

Now give similar responses to:

1. What were you doing when the telephone rang? (having a bath)
2. What was Layla doing when the manager came in? (typing)
3. What were the children doing when the father opened the door? (making a lot of noise)
4. What were you doing when I phoned you? (studying the new project)
5. What was Muna doing when the light went out? (sewing)
6. What was Zainab doing when you returned home? (playing the piano)
7. What were the Vanguards doing when you saw them? (practising driving)
8. What was the band doing when you went into the hall? (playing)

#### WRITTEN WORK

12.10 Imagine yourself one of the men in the caravan. The police are questioning you about the incident. Write a report of what happened. Begin like this:

George and I were in the caravan waiting for...

12.11 In our copybook do drills 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 of 12.9 (Oral Practice).

#### LITERARY READER

12.12 Re – write the paragraphs below, filling in the blanks with the missing bits of information:

With the help of \_\_\_\_\_, Mr. Brownlow managed to kidnap \_\_\_\_\_ and bring him to \_\_\_\_\_. There, he made Monks \_\_\_\_\_ that Oliver was his \_\_\_\_\_ and that he had tried to get rid of him \_\_\_\_\_. he could have his share of \_\_\_\_\_ that their father had left. Monks confessed these \_\_\_\_\_ and agreed to sign \_\_\_\_\_ of his confession and to repeat it before \_\_\_\_\_. He did

so because he became sure that \_\_\_\_\_ had enough \_\_\_\_\_ against him and could \_\_\_\_\_ him serious trouble.

In the meantime, the search for \_\_\_\_\_ continued. Bill's \_\_\_\_\_ was seen somewhere and the \_\_\_\_\_ had hopes of arresting \_\_\_\_\_ soon. Trying to hide from \_\_\_\_\_, Bill joined \_\_\_\_\_ and two other members of \_\_\_\_\_ who were hiding in \_\_\_\_\_. Soon afterwards, Charlie Bates arrived. He got excited when \_\_\_\_\_, shouted for help and jumped upon him. As they were \_\_\_\_\_ on the floor, the police arrived and \_\_\_\_\_ started gathering round the house. Bill got desperate. He took \_\_\_\_\_ and tried to climb down to \_\_\_\_\_. But he was so confused by \_\_\_\_\_ of the crowd and so terrified by the \_\_\_\_\_ that he lost his \_\_\_\_\_, fell down \_\_\_\_\_ and was dead.

Text No. 19

## UNIT THIRTEEN

### READING COMPREHENSION

13.1

### NEWSPAPER



SUNDAY, APRIL, 8 1979. \* DAILY \* Vol. VII, No. 3396. PRICE: 30 FILS

PRESIDENT BAKR IN YOUTH DAY MESSAGE AFFIRMS:

## YOUTH REPRESENT THE REVOLUTION

President Ahmed Hassan al-Bakr said that the Revolution represents youth, because it means renewal, movement and development, and that youths are privileged and have the priority in its plans and the programs of his Leader Party.

A newspaper is printed material which is published and circulated regularly. Its main purpose is to provide news for its readers; it also tries to explain what the news means; therefore it includes comments and opinions. Another purpose is to entertain the reader with interesting material such as photographs, cartoons, etc.

Some newspapers are published daily; others are published weekly. Some papers are general, usually political, such as Al - Thawra and Al-Jumhuriya; others cater for certain types of

readers. There are also newspapers that are devoted to certain fields such as finance, sports, etc. In Iraq everyone can find the newspaper most suited to his particular interests: for instance, farmers have their own newspaper that deals with news and topics related to farming; children also have their own weekly newspaper.

A newspaper usually contains domestic as well as foreign news. The more important news is printed on the front page; the last page is mainly devoted to topics and news items of a light nature. Most general newspapers also contain sports news, book reviews, special columns for women and a collection of readers' letters to the editor.

In a newspaper office the working day begins with short meetings to decide the broad outlines of the contents of the next day's paper. The news editor presents his ideas at a meeting; the art meeting decides the photographs, cartoons, and drawings that are going to appear. The literary editor and the sports editor decide the organization of their pages. At the end of these meetings everyone knows what is required during the day. This, however, is often altered by events, even up to the last minute before printing starts.

Work continues: news reports flow in and are edited; leaders are written and re-written; some materials are chosen; others are left out. Later, pages are organized and news items, features, articles, comments and advertisements are all fitted in. Everything must be done carefully and accurately, and yet everyone must be prepared to change if important news comes in the last minute.

The printing of the first edition must start by a fixed time, called the «deadline». Later the newspapers are despatched to reach their farthest destination by the next morning. These are the morning newspapers. Some other newspapers are called «evening»

newspapers, though the first editions may be on sale as early as 10 a.m. Various editions are then published during the day, up to about 6 p.m.

All dailies in Iraq are «morning» newspapers. The newspaper that has the widest circulation is Al-Thawra, established in 1968. It is the official newspaper of the Arab Baath Socialist Party. Al-Thawra has established a reputation for accurate reporting of news, thoughtful comments and educative articles. It is an influential newspaper which appeals to an increasingly wide section of the public.

Nearly all Iraqi newspapers are run either by the government or by popular organizations. They are not after making money out of circulation. They are usually subsidized by the government in order to keep their prices as low as possible. The government considers newspapers one of the most effective means by which mass media can play a vital role in educating the people.

## VOCABULARY

### 13.2

circulated	/'sə:kjuleitid/	توزع
regularly	/'regjuləli/	بصورة منتظمة
comments	/'komentz/	تعليقات
entertain	/ent ə'tein/	تلى
political	/pə'litikəl/	سياسية
cater for	/'keɪt ə fo:/	تخدم
devoted	/di'voutid/	مكرمة
finance	/fai'nans/	المالية
suited	/'su:tɪd/	مناسب
domestic	/də'mestɪk/	محلي. داخلي
topics	/'topɪks/	مواضيع
edit	/'edit/	يجرر (يعد كتابات الآخرين للنشر)

editor	/'editə/	محرر
editorials	/edi'to: riəlz/	الافتتاحيات
outline	/'autlain/	خطوط عامة
contents	/'kontents/	محتويات
literary editor	/'lit ə r ə ri'edit ə/	المحرر الأدبي
organization	/o: g ə nai'zeiʃn/	تنظيم
alter	/'ʌ: ltə/	يغير
flow in	/'flou in/	تدفق
leader	/'li: də/	مقال افتتاحي

13.3 Complete the following statements according to the reading passage:

1. A newspaper tries to explain the news by.....
2. Important news is usually printed on the.....
3. A working day at a newspaper office begins with short meetings. The purpose is.....
4. The organization of a page may be changed when.....

13.4 What arguments do you have to support each of these statements:

1. Al - Thawra is an influential newspaper.
2. A working day in a newspaper office is usually very busy.
3. There is a growing need for different types of newspapers.
4. Newspapers are one of the most effective mass media.
5. In Iraq everyone can find the newspaper or magazine suited to his own interests.

13.5 Answer these questions:

1. Give paragraphs 1, 2, 3, and 6 a sub-title each, which gives the important idea in the paragraph.
2. What two words in paragraph 5 connect its ideas to those in paragraph 4?

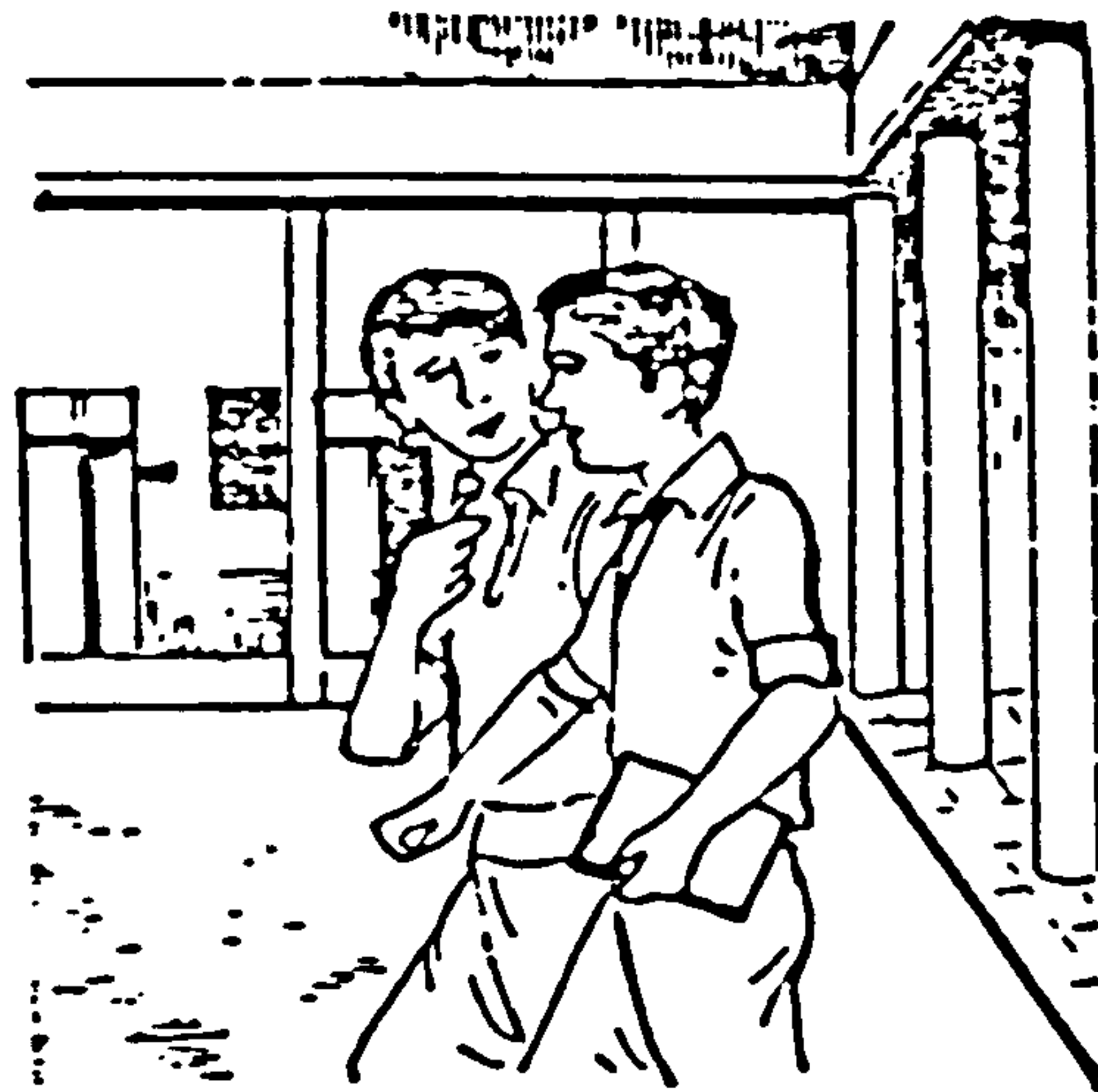


3. What paragraphs deal mainly with the newspapers in Iraq?
  4. How is paragraph 6 related to paragraphs 4 and 5?
13. 6 From the reading passage choose words or phrases that have similar meaning to the underlined words or phrases.
1. I have read the local news.
  2. They decided to make changes in certain articles.
  3. This newspaper comes out every day.
  4. The editorial that appeared in Al- Thawra yesterday attracted many readers.

## DIALOGUE

### 13. 7 TALKING ABOUT BOOKS

- Have you read the book by Adil Fawzi?
- Not yet. But I read a review of it in Al-Thawra two days ago.
- Oh, I didn't read that. What did it say?
- It said it was very well written.
- All his books are excellent , aren't they?
- Yes, they are. By the way, the book has been translated into English.



review

/ri'vju:/

نقد

has been translated

/həz bin'transleitid /

ترجم

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

13. 8

### ORAL PRACTICE

#### 13. 9 Possession:

##### a. Structure Notes

Possession can be expressed in one of the following ways:

1. by a determiner (my book, your book, his book, her book, its tail, our book, their book). Example:

This is my book.

2. by a pronoun (mine, yours, his, hers ours, theirs.)

Example:

This pen is mine.

3. by adding 's to singular nouns that refer to people and animals. Example:

This is Ali's pencil.

4. by adding ' to plural nouns that refer to people or animals. Example:

These are the boys' pens.

5. by using of, usually when we describe possession of inanimate things. Example:

What's the colour of the dress?

6. Certain nouns, besides those for living beings, also have the form 's. Example:

a week's work, the sun's rays.

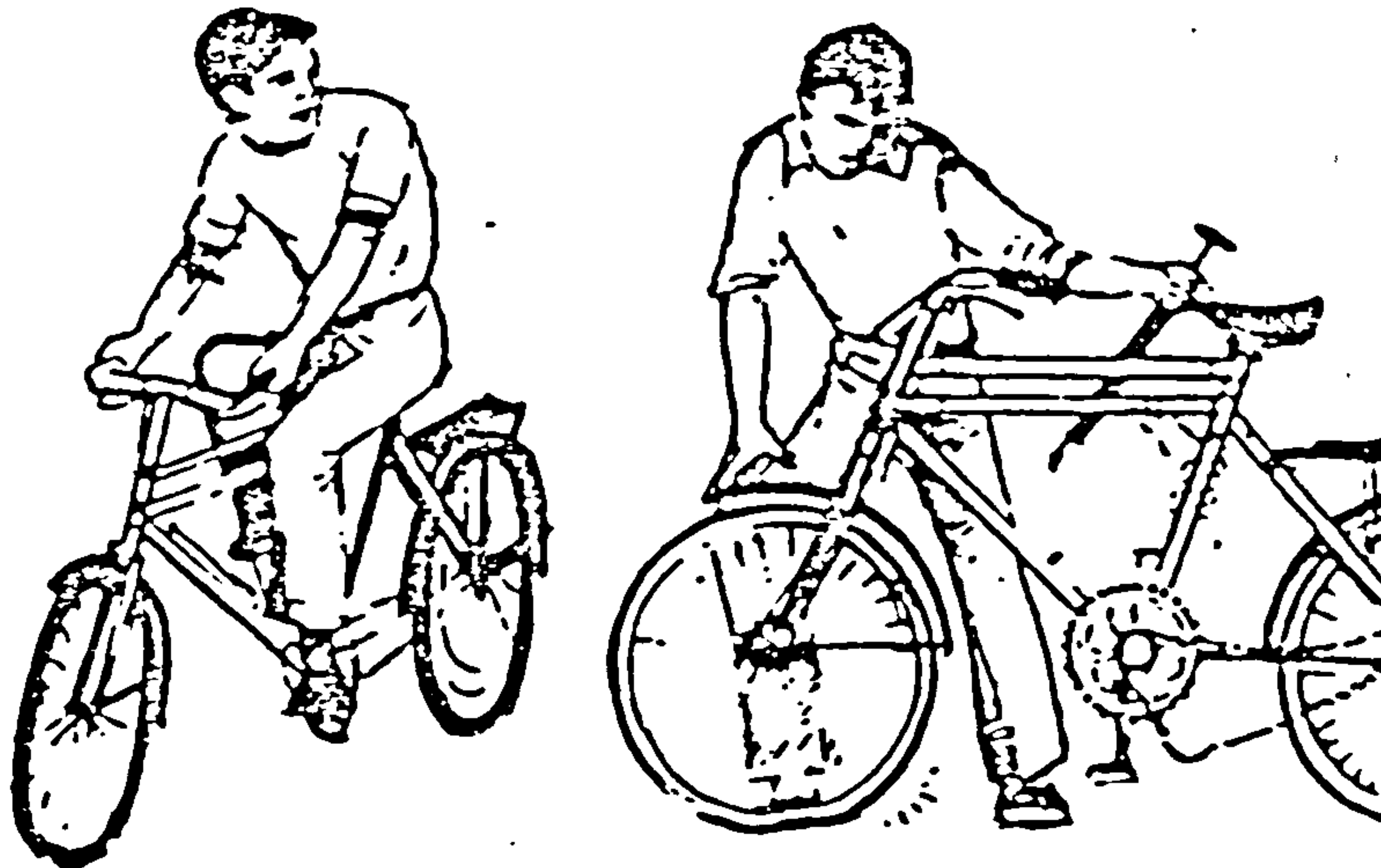
7. The verbs belong to, have, have got, own, possess also express possession. Example:

This car belongs to the Browns.

I've got a new pen.

The Browns own a big car.

I'm Samir. The new bicycle on the left is mine. My



father bought it for me only last week. The old bicycle on the right belongs to Haitham. He has owned it for years. The two tyres of Haitham's bicycle are worn smooth and often get punctured. Nevertheless, it is a very strong bicycle and Haitham is very proud of it.

### Drills

1. – Is this your book, Hadi?  
 – Yes, it is. It's my book. It's mine.  
 – Is this pencil yours?  
 – No, it isn't. It belongs to Samir. It's Samir's pencil.  
 Now practise with other things that the pupils in the class have.

2. The book belongs to me. It's my book. It's mine.

Now practise with:

dictionary – you

keys – Hadi

bag – Muna

magazines – us

bicycles – Samir and Haitham

3. - Whose camera is that?  
 - Which one?  
 - The small one.  
 - Oh, it's Ahmad's.

Now practise with:

car	green	Peter's
house	big	the Browns'
blouse	brown	Nada's
magazine	new	Firas's
handbag	black	Jane's
flat	big	the Smiths'

4. (a) price / goods -  
 Does Ali know the price of the goods?  
 (b) end / story  
 Does Ali know the end of the story?  
 (c) owner / house  
 Does Ali know the owner of the house?

Now practise with:

value / book; owner / ring; name / ship; title / story; price / car;  
 size / shoes; colour / sweater.

5. 1. - There was a delay. Was it for one hour?  
 - Yes, there was an hour's delay.  
 2. - Hasan did some work. Was it for one day?  
 - Yes, he did a day's work.  
 3. - He asked for leave. Was it for three days?  
 - Yes, he asked for three days' leave.  
 4. - There was a holiday. Was it for one week?  
 - Yes, it was a week's holiday.  
 5. - There was a break. Was it for ten minutes?  
 - Yes, there was a ten minutes' break.

### 13. 10 The Passive Voice (Present Perfect and Future)

#### A. Structure Notes

1. The passive form in the present perfect tense is:

have } + been + p. p. form of the verb  
has }

Examples:

The letters have been posted.

The fence has been painted.

2. The passive form in the future simple tense (with will or shall) is:

will + be + p. p. form of the verb

Examples:

The house will be sold.

The car will be repaired.

3. The passive form of going to is:

is } + going + to + be + p. p.  
are } form of the verb  
am }

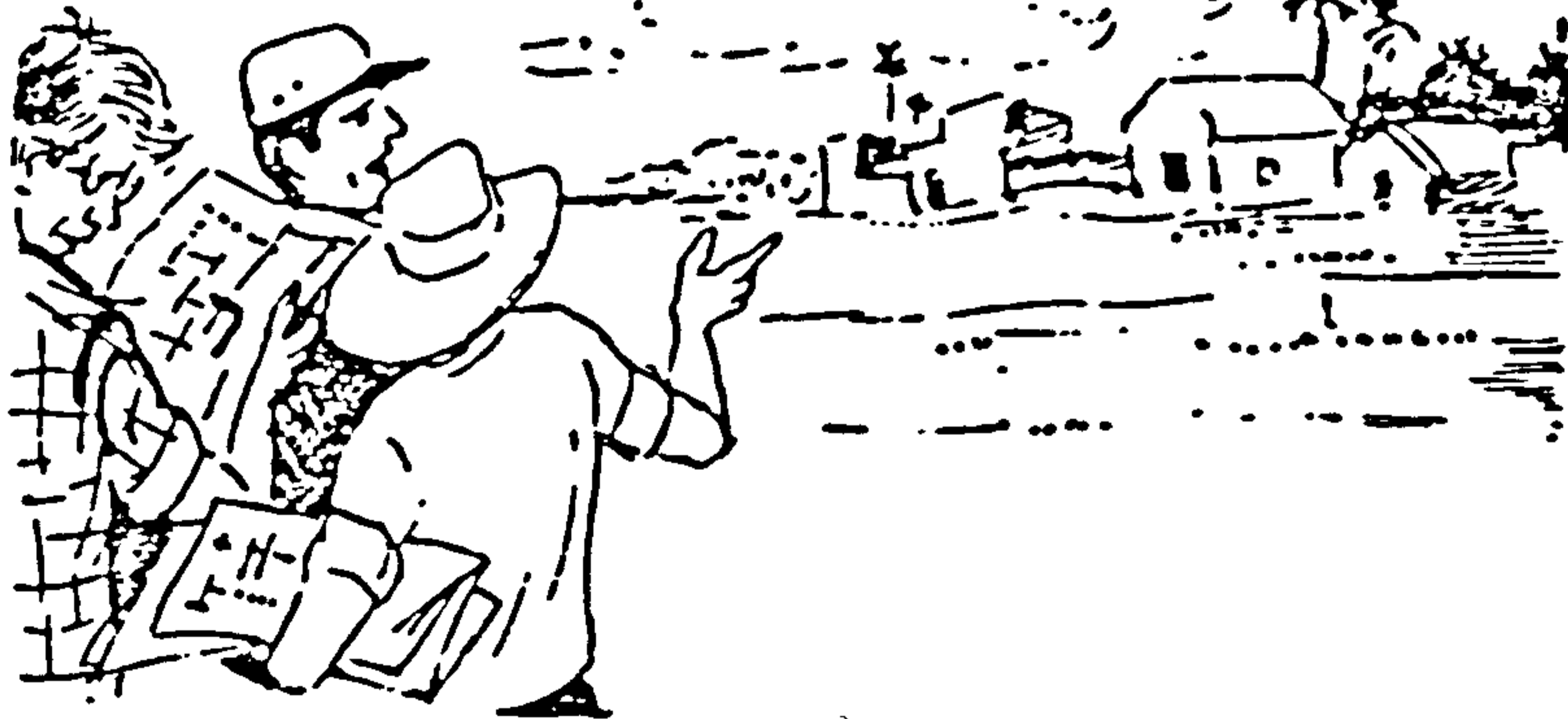
Examples:

Mr. Brown is going to be invited.

The walls are going to be painted.

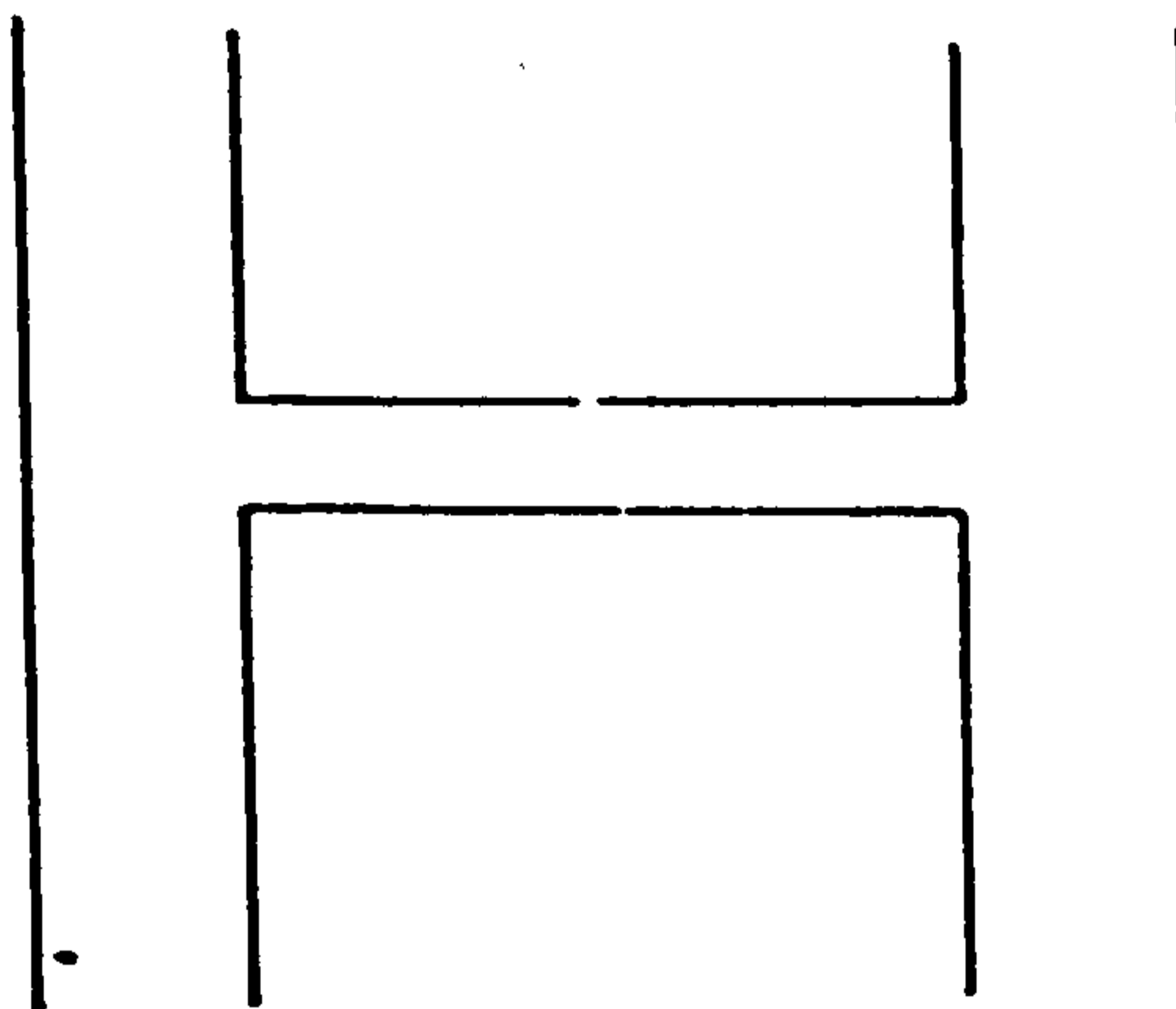
I'm going to be promoted.

#### b. Situations:



1. A hospital will be built in this village. All the designs have

been prepared. The site has been surveyed and bricks, cement and mortar have been brought. We have been told that the hospital will be opened during the celebration of the anniversary of the Arab Baath Socialist Party.



2. Samir's family have been told that a new road is going to be built in their area. It will connect two trunk roads. Some houses will be pulled down, but the owners will certainly be compensated. The road is badly needed in order to reduce traffic jams during the rush hours. Work will be started next September.

c. Drills

1. (a) – bill / paid

– The bill has been paid today.

– Who's paid it?

– Samir, I think.

(b) – postcards / posted

– The postcards have been posted today.

– Who's posted them?

– Firas, I believe.

(c) – mail / opened

- The mail has been opened.
- Who's opened it?
- The secretary, I expect.

Now practise with:

fence	/	repaired
lawn	/	mowed
picture	/	painted
shirts	/	ironed
windows	/	broken
dishes	/	washed
the Browns	/	invited to a party
the new project	/	discussed
the report	/	prepared
crime	/	investigated

2. (a) - Have the letters been typed?  
(posted)

- Yes. They've been typed, but they haven't been posted.

(b) - Have the cargoes been paid for?  
(delivered)

- Yes. They've been paid for, but they haven't been delivered.

(c) - Has the car been taken to the garage?  
(serviced)

- Yes. It's been taken to the garage, but it hasn't been serviced yet.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Have the machines been cleaned?  
(lubricated)

2. Have the robbers been caught? (tried)

3. Have the designs been made?  
(discussed)
  4. Has the report been prepared?  
(typed)
  5. Has the tractor been repaired?  
(returned)
  6. Have the flats been built?  
(furnished)
3. (a) 1. They will invite the Browns to the party.  
2. The Browns will be invited to the party.
- (b) 1. They're going to check the results.  
2. The results are going to be checked.
- Now make the following as in b above:
1. They'll repair the tractor.
  2. They're going to pay the bills.
  3. They'll need help.
  4. They'll promote the clerk.
  5. They'll award Firas a scholarship.
  6. They're going to sack the accountant.
  7. They're going to employ a new clerk.
  8. They're going to ask the bank for a loan.
  9. They'll follow the instructions closely.
  10. They're going to show me their album.
4. The manager of an office has been away on holiday. Now he is back. He is asking his assistant about a number of things. The assistant is lazy; he hasn't done any work during the manager's absence.
- (a) – Have you shipped the cargoes?  
– Well, not yet; but they'll be shipped tomorrow. I'm sorry about that.



(b) – And have you checked the new orders?

– Well, not yet; but they'll be checked tomorrow. I'm really sorry.

Now give the assistant's responses to:

1. And have you asked the bank for a loan?
2. I see. But have you studied our new projects?
3. What about the contracts. Have you studied them?
4. Hmm. The marketing problems. Have you discussed them with the agents?
5. Do I take it that you haven't held a meeting with the agents?
6. Now what about the goods we have received? Have you unpacked them?

I suppose you still haven't offered your resignation.

5. Firas's father hopes to rent Mr. Ali's house. He goes with him around the house. There are certain things that need doing.

(a) – Well, the rent seems reasonable enough, Mr. Ali. But I think there are a few things that will need doing.

– Oh?

– Well, yes. The sitting-room needs painting. Are you going to paint it?

– Oh, yes. It's going to be painted.

(b) – And the windows need repairing.

– Oh, yes. They're going to be repaired.

Now give similar responses to these remarks:

1. The doors are in bad shape. Any chance of repolishing them?
2. We need fans in the bedrooms. Are you going to provide them?
3. The fence is in terrible condition. Are you going to mend it?

4. The sink in the kitchen needs replacing.
5. Oh and another thing. The taps in the bathroom don't work. Any chance of fixing them.
6. There's a leak in the toilet. Are you going to repair that?
7. And don't forget what we said about the wiring. It needs changing.

### WRITTEN WORK

13. 11 Imagine that you are a reporter. You have seen a road accident. Write a short report to your newspaper. Your report should include:
- (a) the date and exact time of the accident;
  - (b) the place where it happened (draw a simple map and refer to it in your report);
  - (c) the vehicles (e. g. cars, trucks, motor-cycles, etc.) that were involved in the accident;
  - (d) exactly how it happened; the speed at which the vehicles were moving; what damage / injuries received;
  - (e) whose fault you think the accident was;
  - (f) how you think the accident could have been avoided.
13. 12 In your copybook do drills (3), (4) and (5) of 13. 9 (Oral Practice).
13. 13 In your copybook do drills (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5) of 13.10 (Oral Practice).

### LITERARY READER

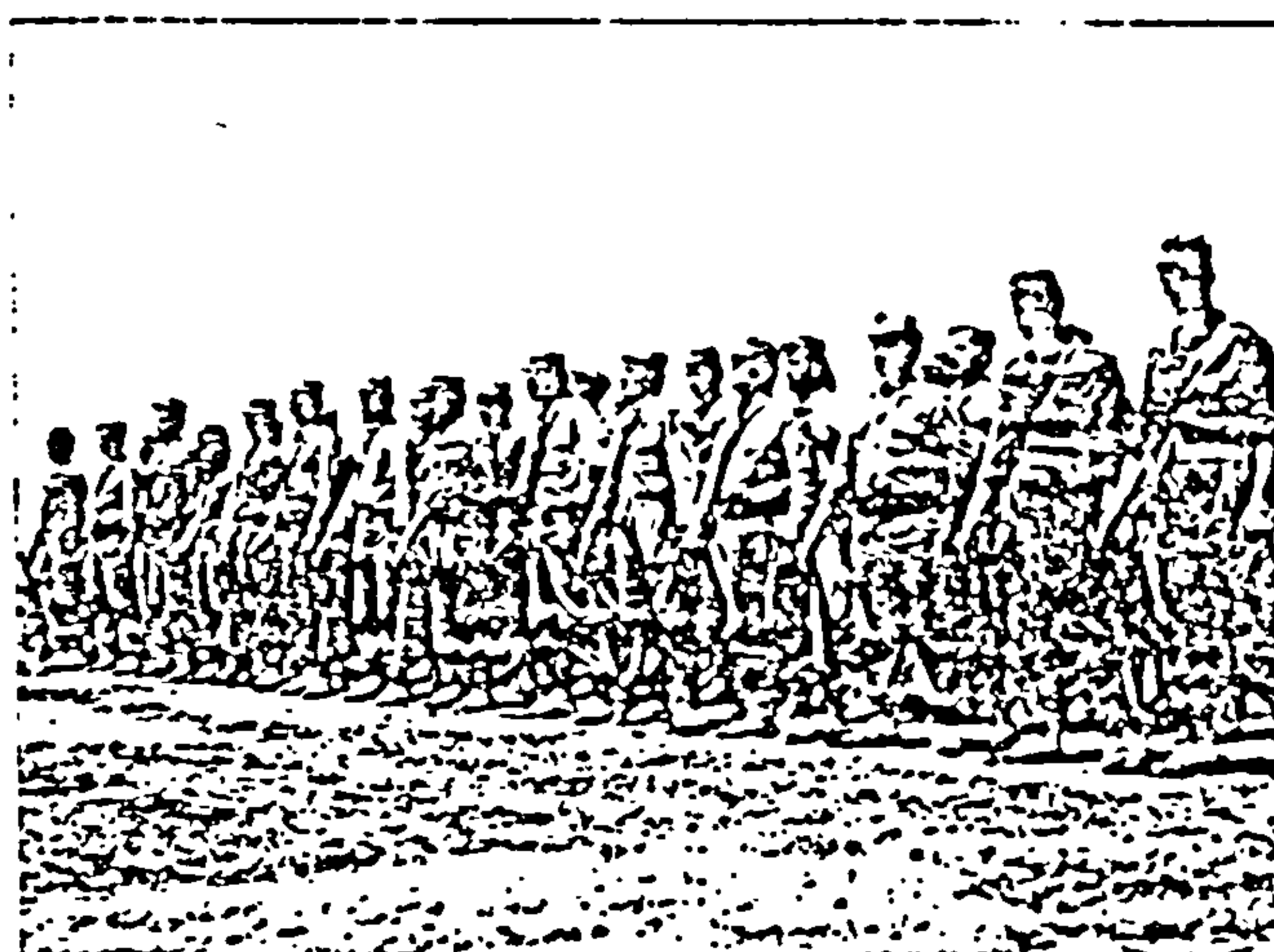
- 13.14 Re-arrange the following statements according to the order of events in the text:
- a. Mr. Rownlow introduced Monks to Oliver as his brother, Edward leeford.
  - b. Rose Fleming was left to the care of some neighbours.
  - c. Mr. Brownlow and Oliver visited Fagin in his prison.
  - d. Mr. Brownlow adopted Oliver as his son.

- e. Harry heard of the discovery of Rose's origin.
- f. Oliver's father died in Rome.
- g. The will that Oliver's father had left was burnt.
- h. Mr. Brownlow told those who were present about what had been written in the will.
- i. Agnes Fleming left her family.
- j. Harry joined the others at the hotel.
- k. Fagin was hanged.
- l. Agnes's young sister was taken by Mrs. Maylie.
- m. Mr. Fleming died.
- n. Fagin was tried in court.
- o. Rose and Harry got married.

## UNIT FOURTEEN\*

### READING COMPREHENSION

#### 14.1 THE POPULAR ARMY



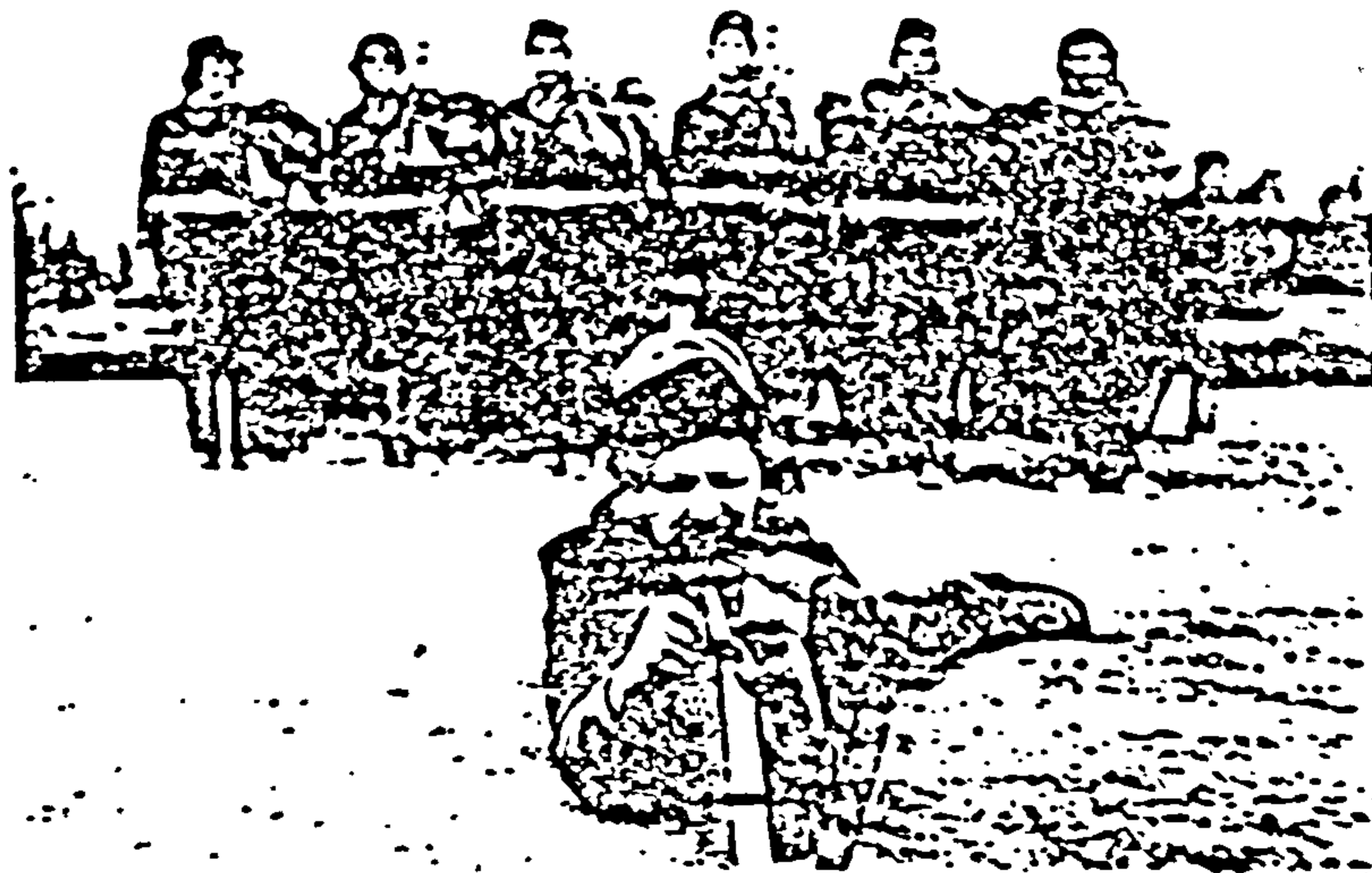
The Popular Army was formed on February 8, 1970. The aim was to train the masses in the use of arms in order to protect the achievements of the 17 July Revolution and to be able to face all perils and threats. The political leadership had carefully studied the subject of forming the Popular Army for over two years following the July 17 Revolution, 1968. First the experiences of organizing militias in different countries of the world were compared and systematized. Then the nature of the Iraqi situation was carefully studied. Ample preparations followed this and helped to organize the various formations of the Popular Army.

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\* The reading passage and the exercises about it were not used in the experiment as they contained no lexical item of interest to us.

One of the features that distinguish the organization of the Popular Army in Iraq from militias in other parts of the world is self-management: all formations are run by different organizations of the Arab Baath Socialist Party. This has rendered easy, and kept under close supervision, the administration of the various activities of these formations. It has also removed all obstacles that could have impeded the practice of these activities. In addition, it has solved the problem of employing a special administrative staff which would have been enormous in size. Accordingly, the Party has considered enrollment in the Popular Army an essential duty for each member of the Party organizations.

Before the 8 February 1963 Revolution, there used to be some formations of armed civilians within the organizations of the A B S P. These formations played an important role before and during the 8 February Revolution, and indeed the first martyr during the Revolution belonged to an armed civilian formation. On 17 July, 1968 the armed civilian formations played an active part, side by side with the regular military formations, in the Revolution. The experience of having armed civilian formations within the Party



Iraqi women have also been given the chance to enroll in the Popular Army. According to the Party's principles women are equal to men, and indeed the women's sector of the A B S P played an active role before and after the 17 July Revolution.

Although the Popular Army is still growing, it has reached a high standard of efficiency. In the future, the Popular Army will provide training opportunities for all citizens. Meanwhile, steps will be taken to improve the quality of training so as to help the fighters to play their historic role efficiently.

## VOCABULARY

### 14.2

train	/ trein /	يدرب
training	/'treiniŋ/	تدريب
achievements	/ə'tʃ i:vmənts/	إنجازات
perils	/'perilz/	أخطار
threats	/'θrets/	تهديدات
ample	/'ampl/	كثير
formations	/fo: 'mei ʃ nz/	تشكيلات
features	/'fi: t ʃ əz/	خصائص
self - management	/'self manidʒmənt/	الإدارة الذاتية
armed civilian	/'a: md si vilj ən	تشكيلات مدنية
formations	fo: 'mei ʃ nz/	مسلحة
rendered easy	/'rend ə d'i: zi/	جعل من السهل
close	/kləʊs/	دقيق
supervision	/sju: pə'viʒən/	إشراف
administration	/ə dminis'trei ʃ n/	إدارة
administrative	/ədminis'trətiv/	إداري
activities	/ak'tivɪtɪz/	فعاليات

obstacles	/'ɒbstəklz/	عقبات
impede	/im'pi:d/	يعرقل
staff	/sta:f/	موظفون
enormous	/i'no:məs/	كبير
accordingly	/ə 'kɔ:diŋli/	بناءً على ذلك
enrollment	/in'roulmənt/	تسجيل (التحاق)
enroll	/in'roul/	يسجل (يلتحق)
essential	/i'sen ʃəl/	ضروري. جوهري
martyr	/'mɑ:tə/	شهيد
principles	/'prinsəplz/	مبادئ
sector	/'sektə/	قطاع
efficiency	/i'fi:ʃənsi/	كفاءة
efficiently	/i'fi:ʃəntli/	بكفاءة
opportunities	/ɒpə'tʃunitiz/	فرص

14.3 Say whether the following statements are true or false. If the statement is false, give the correct version.

1. The organization of the Popular Army was studied for the two years before the 17 July Revolution.
2. Careful study and ample preparation preceded the organization of the Popular Army.
3. The Popular Army is run by a special administrative staff.
4. Members of the Party organizations need not join the Popular Army.
5. There were no armed civilian formations within the A B S P before the 17 July Revolution.
6. Some armed civilian formations played an active part in the 8 February Revolution.
7. Men, but not women, have joined the Popular Army.

14.4 A. From the reading passage choose words or expressions that are similar in meaning to the underlined words and phrases in the following sentences:

1. We saw a very large building across the river.
2. Ali went to bed early in order to get enough sleep.
3. He was too tired to work. Therefore we sent him home.
4. Nothing will stop our progress.
5. We shall take away any obstacle.
6. Women now have the chance to join the Popular Army.
7. Joining the Popular Army is a very important duty.
8. These plans need a lot of preparations.

B. Find in the reading passage words or phrases that fill in the blank spaces in the following sentences:

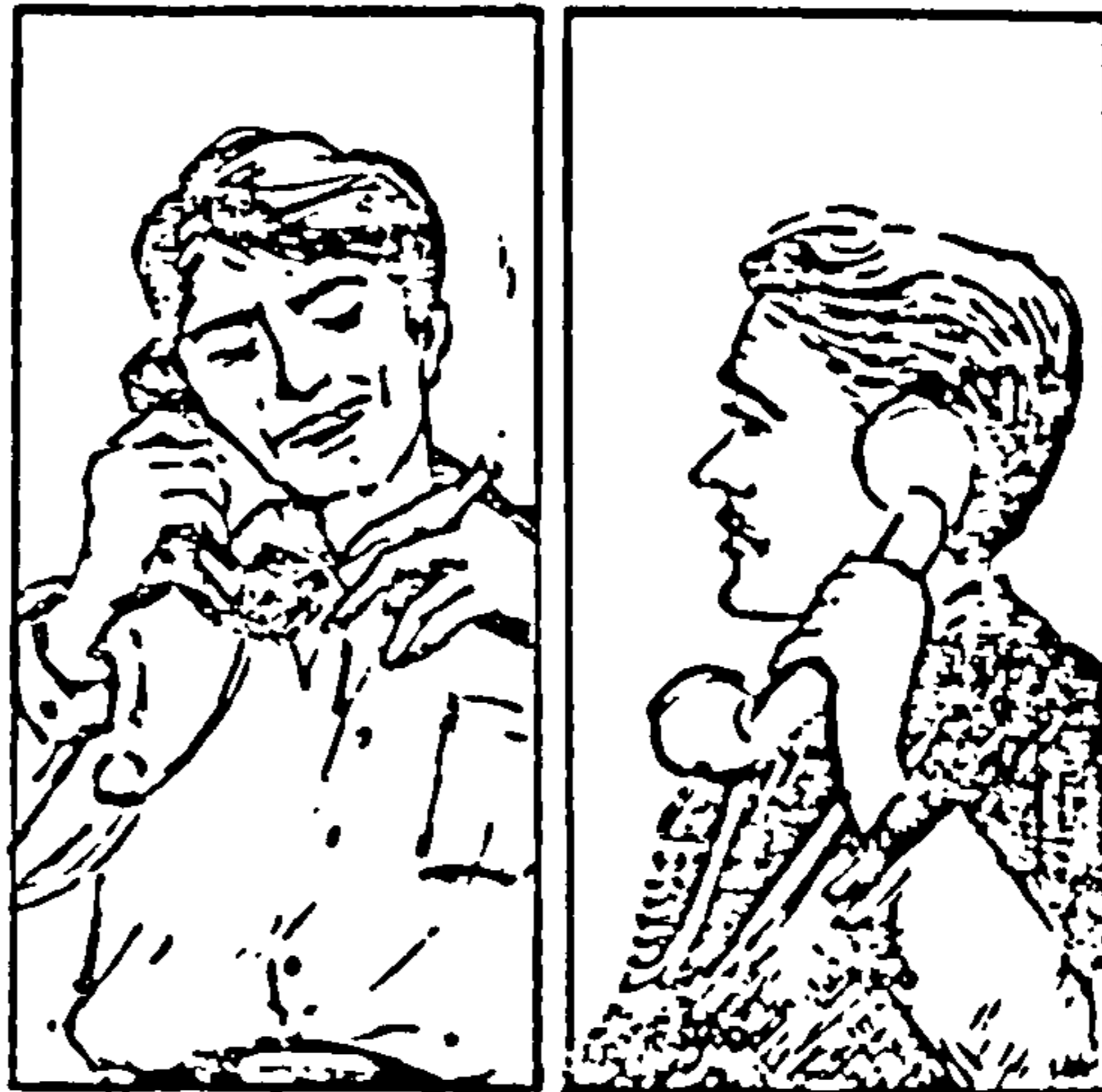
1. The prisoner was kept under \_\_\_\_\_
2. We are able to \_\_\_\_\_ any difficulty.
3. Several workers have been \_\_\_\_\_ in this factory only recently.
4. They \_\_\_\_\_ him an able man.
5. The mechanic did his work \_\_\_\_\_ .

## DIALOGUE

14.5

### INVITATION

- Can I speak to Mr. Smith, please?
- Speaking.
- Oh, hello, Rex. It's John. John Green here.
- Oh, hello, John.
- We're having a party at our house. I wonder if you and your wife would care to come.





- That sounds very interesting. What time would that be?
- About half past four, if that suits you.
- Well, I'll have to check with my wife, of course. Shall I call you back?
- That'll be fine. Good-bye.
- Good-bye.

care to	/'keə tu/	ترغبون
sounds	/saundz/	تبدو
check	/tʃek/	يتأكد من

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION

14.6

### ORAL PRACTICE

#### 14.7 Indirect Statements

##### A. Structure Notes

1. Statements that come after verbs such as say, tell, mention, know, hear, promise, remember, etc., are said to be indirect statements. When these verbs are in the present or future tenses, no change is made in the tense of the statement.

Examples:

(a) She's studying English.

I know she's studying English.

(b) Ali gets up early.

They tell me that Ali gets up early.

2. But when the verbs are in the past, a change is often (but not always) made in the tense of the statement.

Examples:

1. She's studying English.

I knew she was studying English.

2. Ali gets up early.

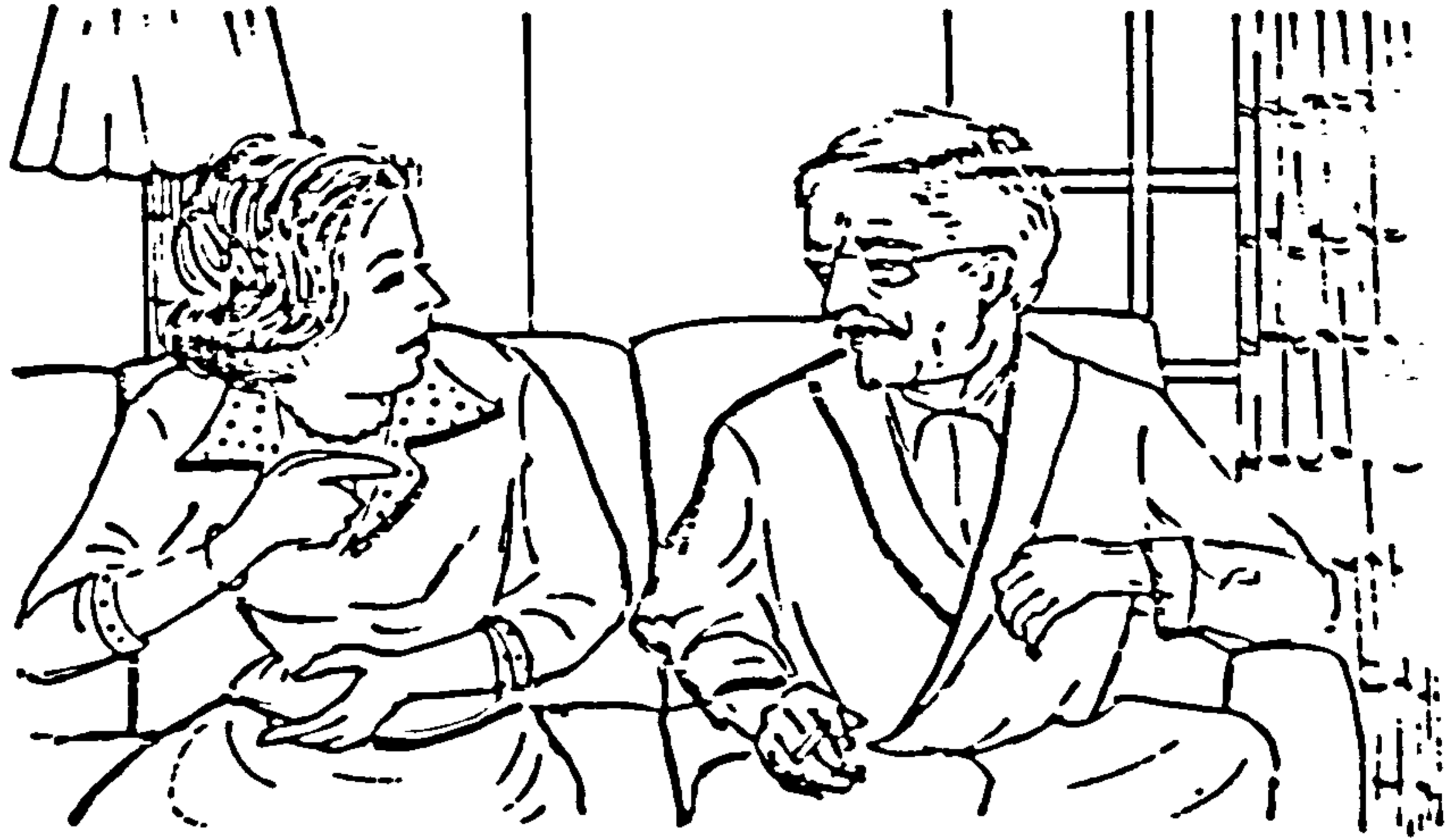
They told me that Ali got up early.

3. Notice that the word that can be used or omitted with most of the reporting verbs. But it is better not to omit that after mention, report, explain, warn and point out.

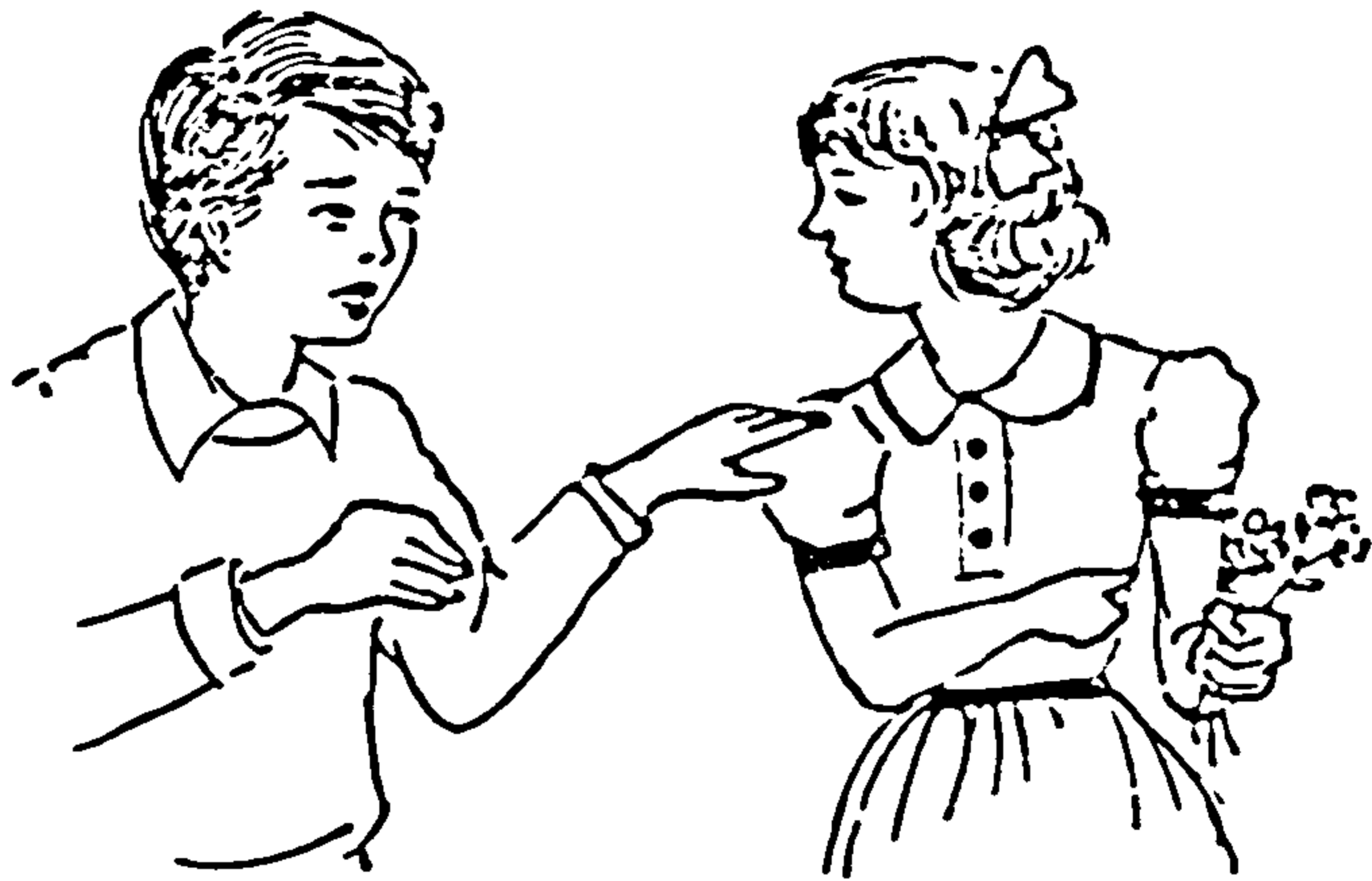
### B. Situations



1. This is a board meeting. The chairman has just discussed the sales situation. He has said that sales have fallen during the last two months. The sales manager is speaking now. He's saying that his department is not to blame. He suggests that he should hold a meeting with the agents and customers. He promises that everybody in his department will work hard to improve the sales.
2. Julia has applied for the job of a secretary in a big firm. She knows she's a good secretary and therefore she can handle this job perfectly well. But Julia does not know very much about this firm. Her father has told her that it is one of the best in the country. He thinks that she will like the job very



much. He also thinks that the pay is good. Julia hopes that she will pass the interview and get the job.



3.Martin: I rang up Peter last night.

Jenny: Really? Did he have anything interesting to say?

Martin: Well, he told me that he had just spent a fortnight at Scarborough.

Jenny: Oh! I thought he always took his holiday in the country.

Why did he choose the seaside, I wonder?

Martin: Well, he said he wanted to learn to water-ski.

Jenny:Hmm: That sounds interesting.



4. A responsible source in the Dover Police announced yesterday that two foreigners had tried illegally to enter Britain. The source said that the two foreigners were arrested and were kept in custody. In the investigation, the two foreigners declared that they were Italian, but they said that they were not carrying passports. Later they confessed that the Italian police wanted them for robbery. The Dover police pointed out that they would turn the two men over to the Italian authorities.

### C. Drills

1. (a) Jalal's flying to London today.

(I know)

I know that he's flying to London today.

- (b) Ali has cashed the cheque.

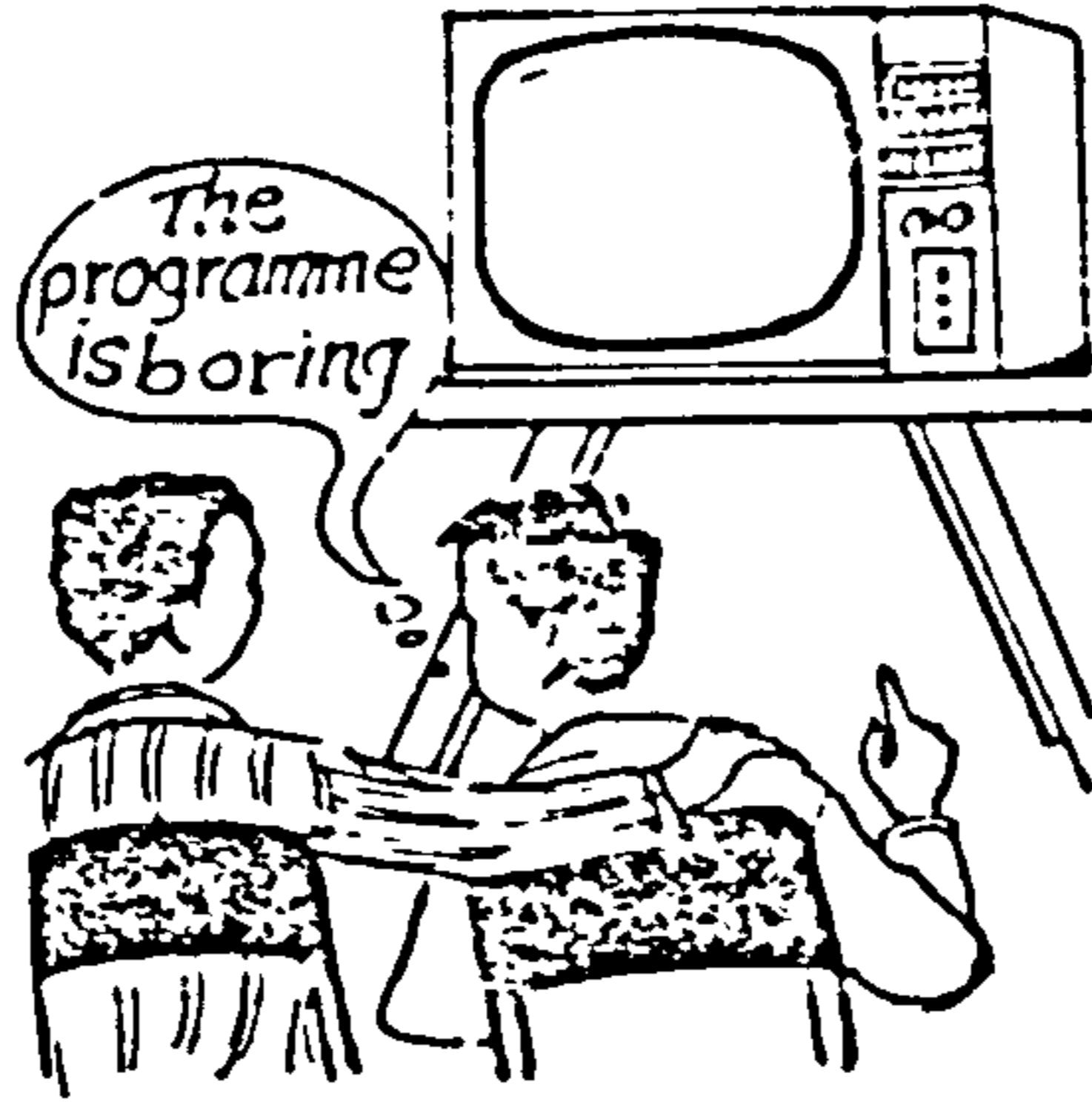
(Muna is saying)

Muna's saying that Ali has cashed the cheque.

Now practise with:

1. The film is boring. (Layla is saying)

2. The applicants will be interviewed tomorrow.  
(The secretary has announced)
  3. I want to be an air hostess.  
(Zainab is telling everybody)
  4. The patient can leave today.  
(The doctor has assured me)
  5. A hospital and three schools will be built in the town.  
(The governor has stated)
  6. The Fedayeen attacked a Zionist patrol.  
(The newspaper reports)
  7. Smoking is bad for you.  
(The doctors warn Jabbar)
  8. The pump's not working.  
(The mechanic has explained to me)
  9. We should stay here and wait.  
(Huda has suggested)
  10. We must work three hours overtime.  
(The manager has pointed out)
  11. His car has oil and water.  
(A driver must be sure)
  12. I'm guilty.  
(The prisoner has confessed)
  13. The test is difficult.  
(Muna has remarked)
  14. We're flying over London.  
(The captain has announced)
2. (a) What's Ali saying?

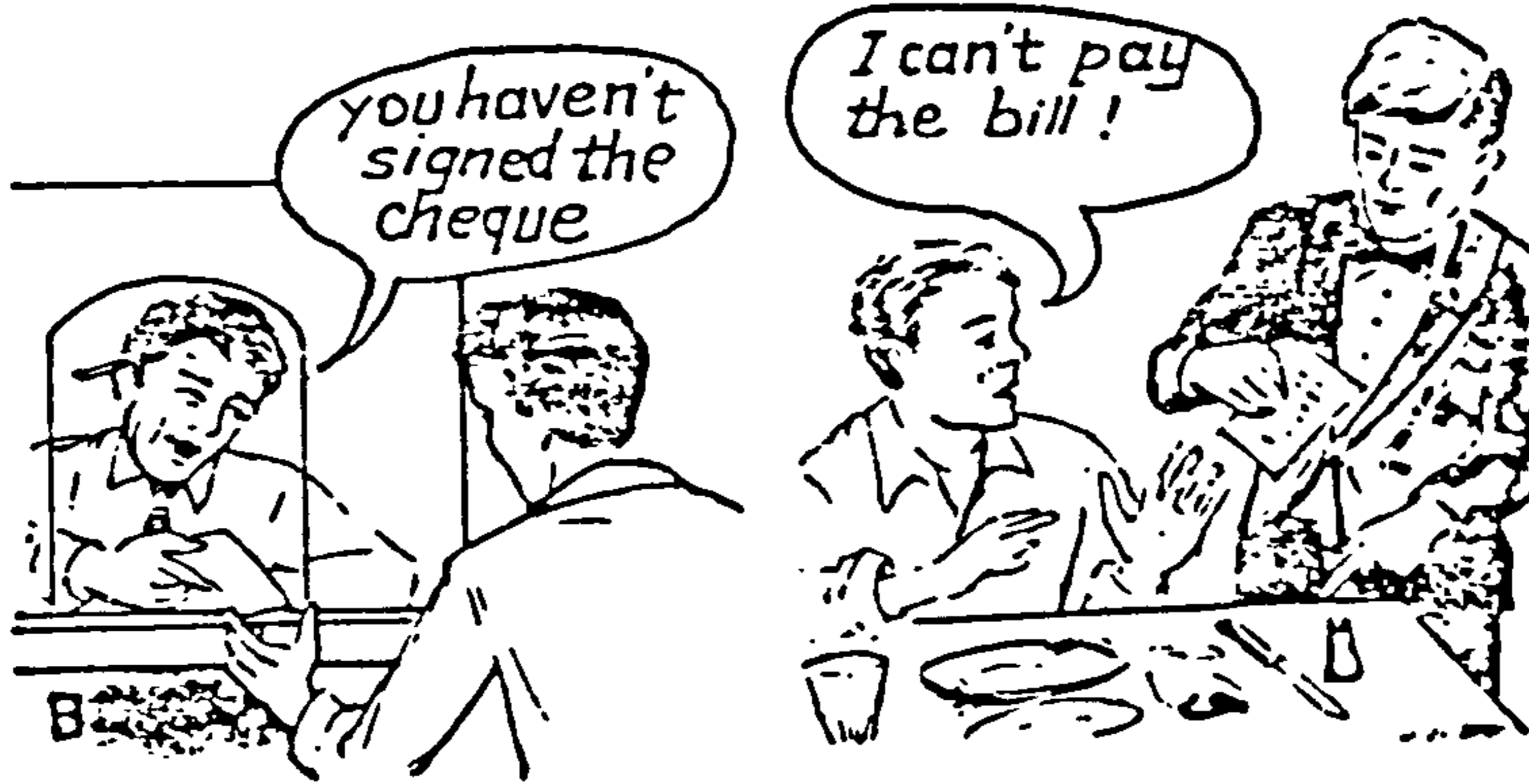


He's saying that the programme is boring.

(b) What has the doctor told the patient?

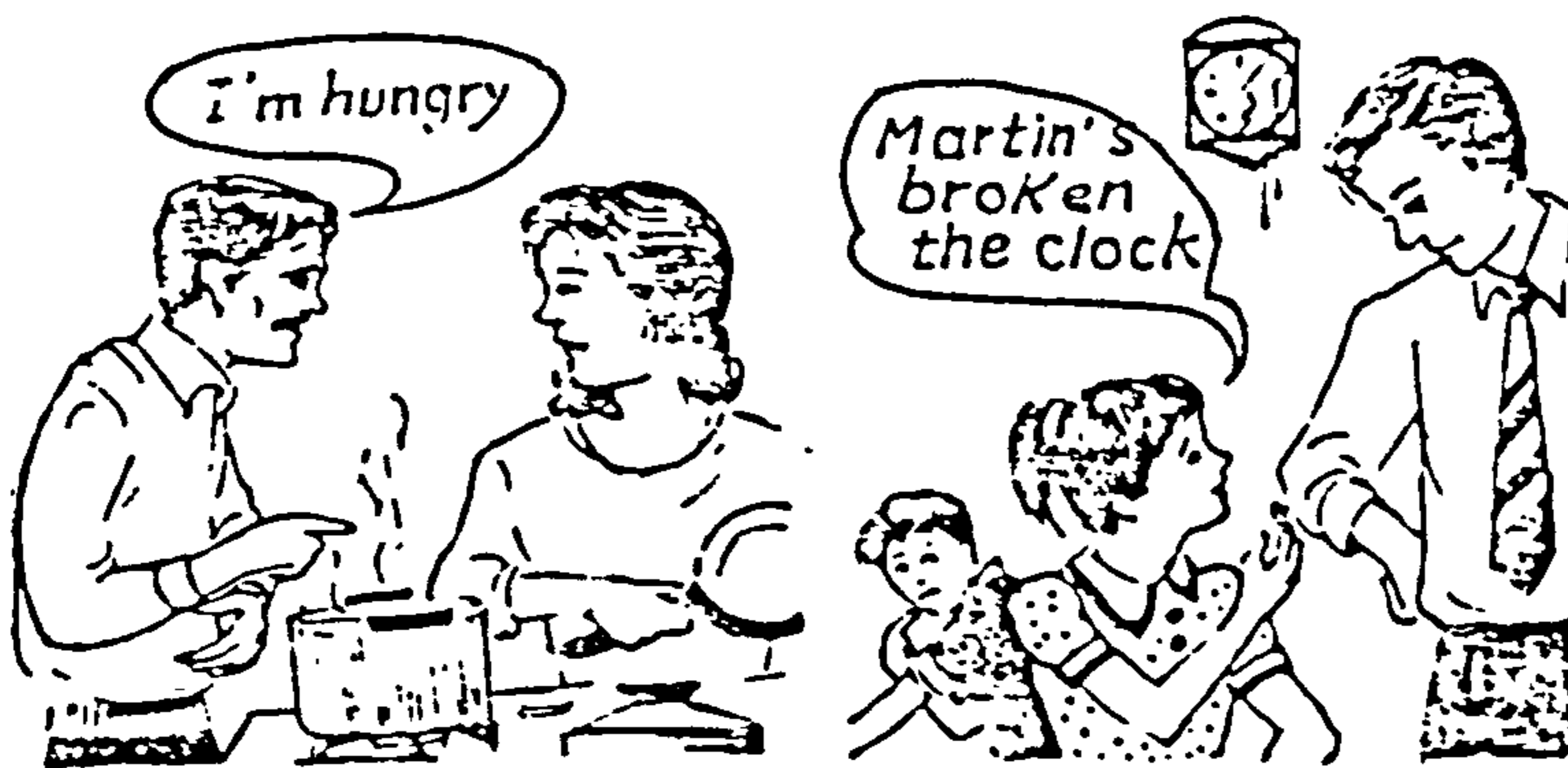
He has told him that he has flu .

Now give similar responses to:



1. What does the clerk say?

2. What has Sami told the waiter?



3. What's the man telling his wife?
4. What has Jenny told her father?



5. What has the clerk told his boss?
3. (a) – Does Ali speak Italian?  
– Well, he said he spoke Italian.
  - (b) – Has Zainab worked in a bank?  
– Well, she said she'd worked in a bank.
  - (c) – Did Suad arrive early?  
– Well, she said she'd arrived early.
  - (d) – Can Faris drive?  
– Well, he said he could drive.

Now give similar responses to:

1. Does Mary cook well?
2. Do they understand English?
3. Has Haitham joined the Popular Army?
4. Have they repaired the TV set?
5. Did the accountant prepare his report?
6. Did Firas pay the bills?
7. Can Muna swim?
8. Is Samir in trouble?
9. Are these girls studying medicine?

10. Will Muna have any driving lessons?

4. 1. (a) Firas and Samir work hard.  
(b) What did Haitham say?  
(c) He said that Firas and Samir worked hard.
2. (a) The judge has given his decision.  
(b) What did the lawyer say?  
(c) He said that the judge had given his decision.
3. (a) They'll pay back the money soon.  
(b) What did Ahmed tell you?  
(c) He told me that they would pay back the money soon.
4. (a) Layla handed the envelope to Sami.  
(b) What did Ali tell you?  
(c) He told me that Layla had handed the envelope to Sami.

Now give (c) responses to:

1. (a) Muna is hungry.  
(b) What did Amal say?
2. (a) Ali paid the rent.  
(b) What did your brother say?
3. (a) I shan't be late.  
(b) What did Fuad promise?
4. (a) The postman delivered the letters early.  
(b) What did the secretary point out?
5. (a) I can't pay the bill.  
(b) What did Jalal say?
6. (a) I have checked all the lists.  
(b) What did the clerk assure you?
7. (a) The police have arrested the murderer.  
(b) What did the paper report?
8. (a) You have flu.  
(b) What did the doctor tell you?



9. (a) I'm typing the report.  
(b) What did the typist tell you?
10. (a) I didn't see you at the party.  
(b) What did Salwa tell Fatima?

### WRITTEN WORK

14.8 Write three paragraphs about the Iraqi Army.

Your first paragraph should include the following bits of information:

1. 6 January 1921.
2. defend Iraq against enemies/never against Iraqi people.
3. took part in May Revolution, 1941.
4. led the 14th July Revolution, 1958.
5. under the leadership of the ABSP took part in Ramadhan and 17th July revolutions.

Your second paragraph should be about the wars against the enemy that the army took (and will take) part in.

1. 1948 (why, against whom)
2. 1967
3. 1973

Your third paragraph should be about the improvement of the army after the 17th July Revolution.

1. strong
2. modern arms
3. soldiers/well trained
4. ready/fight/enemies
5. defend/Arab Homeland

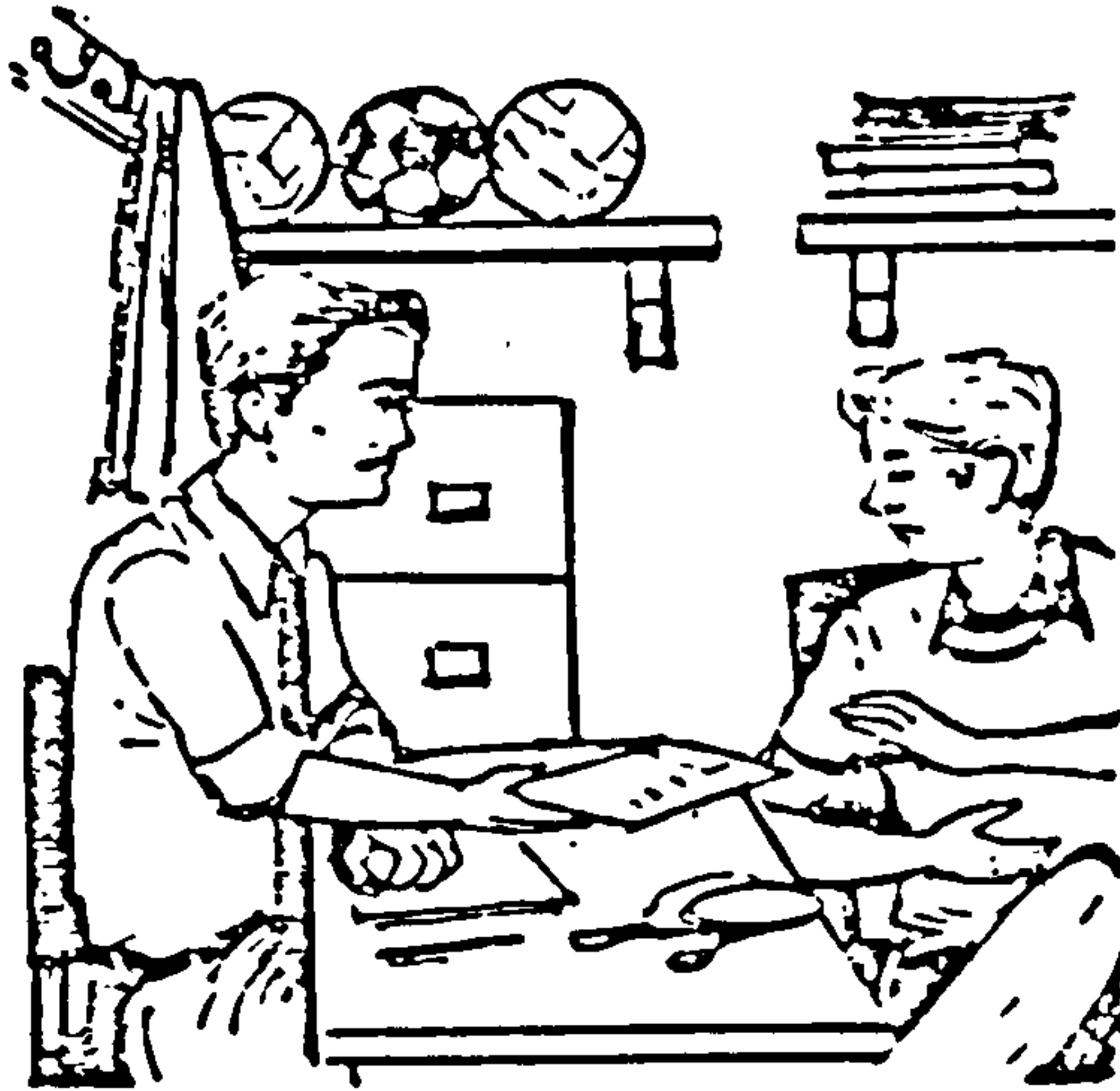
14.9 In your copybook do drills (1) (2), (3) and (4) of 14.7 (Oral Practice).

## UNIT FIFTEEN

### DIALOGUE

#### 15.1 AT THE YOUTH CLUB

- Excuse me, are you the secretary of the Club?
- Yes. What can I do to help you?
- I wanted to ask if I could join the Club.
- Any young person in this area can join. Here is a form. Fill it in and bring it tomorrow.
- Can I join the football team?
- Well, it depends how well you can play.
- I play for the school team.
- There is a practice match on Thursday. We need a player. Where do you play?
- Left wing.
- Good. Come on Thursday at four o'clock.




---

form (n.)

/fo:m/

استمارة

fill it in	/fil it in/	املأها
a practice match	/ə praktis matʃ/	مباراة تجريبية
where do you play	/weə də ju plei/	أي مركز تلمب
left wing	/left wiŋ/	الجناح الأيسر

## ORAL PRACTICE

### 15.2 Indirect Questions

#### A. Structure Notes

1. Questions introduced by reporting verbs such as **ask, inquire, wonder, want to know**, are called indirect questions.
2. Question words such as **who, why, what, where, etc.**, serve to link the question unit to the reporting verbs.

Examples:

- a. He asked where we went for the weekend.
- b. She's wondering what happened to the child.

3. **If or whether** can be used to link the question unit (that begins with an auxiliary) to the reporting verb.

Examples:

- a. Is she ill?  
I wonder if she is ill.
- b. Does it rain?  
I want to know if it rains.

4. Notice the change in the word order. The interrogative construction is replaced by a statement construction.

- a. What is he doing?  
She asked what he is doing.

- b. What did you write?  
I wonder what you wrote.

5. When the reporting verb is in the past, changes in the tenses

often (but not always) take place (as shown in the indirect statement).

a. Is she ill?

I wondered if she was ill.

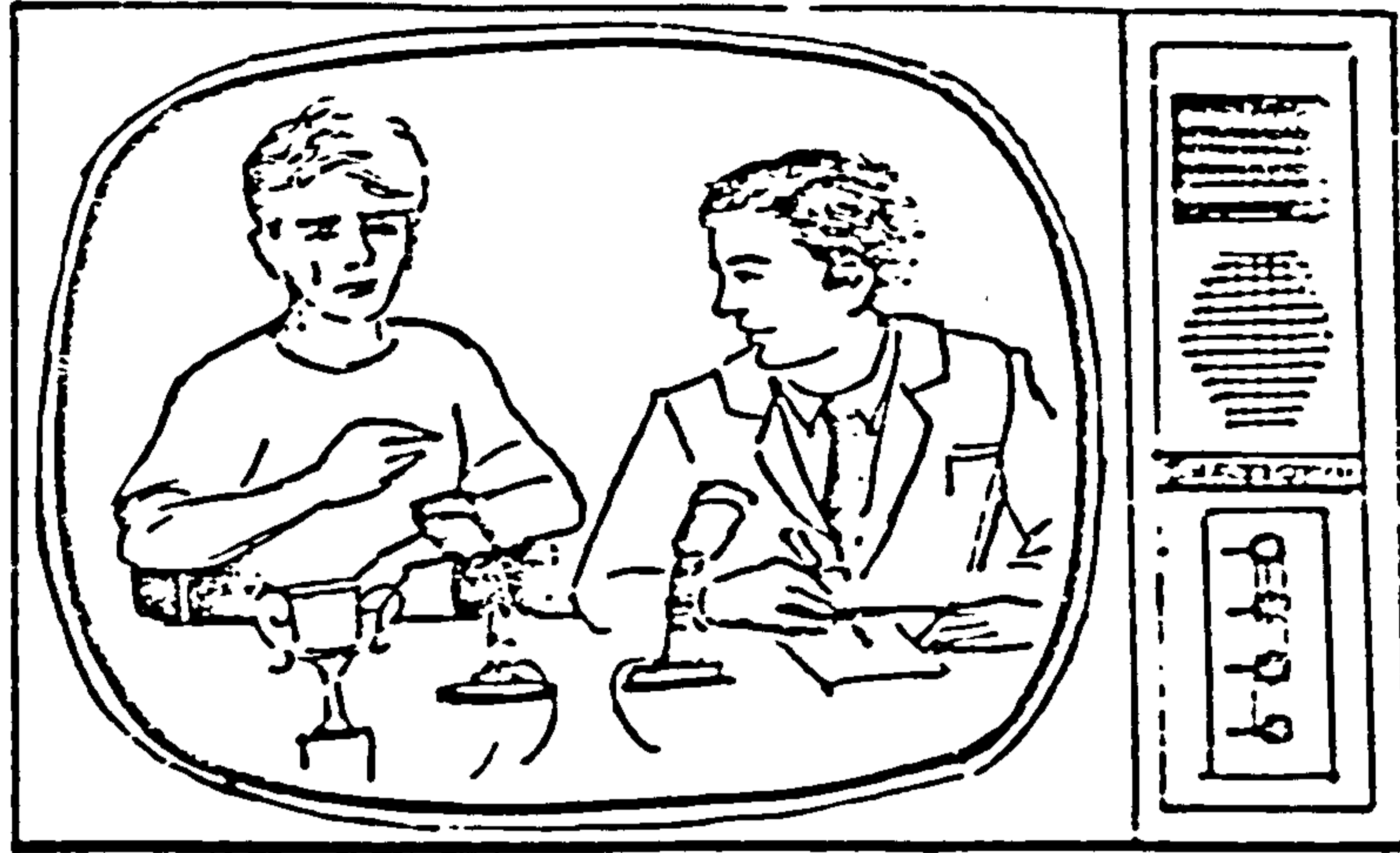
b. Does it rain?

I wanted to know if it rained.

## B. Situations



1. When I came back after my holiday, I learned that Muna had got engaged. Today I'm going to visit her. I want to know who the fortunate man is and what he does. I'd like also to know how Muna came to know him and how the engagement took place. I'll also ask her what her plans are, when the wedding will be and where they will go for the honeymoon.
2. Iraqi swimming champion, Abdulla Ali, was interviewed on TV last night. First the interviewer asked him if he would take part in the Shatt-el-Arab championship and Abdulla answered that he hadn't made up his mind yet. The interviewer then asked him if he was thinking of taking part in the Olympic Games next year. Abdulla didn't give a



definite answer, but he said that it was possible. The interviewer then asked him what other hobbies, besides swimming, he had. Abdulla mentioned tennis and painting.



3. Yesterday Muna went to a bookshop. She asked the bookshop assistant if there were any good books on cooking. The assistant showed her several books. Then he asked her whether she wanted an advanced cookery book. But Muna shook her head and said she wanted a book about plain basic cooking. Then she mentioned the title of a book she had

heard of and asked the assistant if he had it. The assistant picked up a small paperback book and gave it to Muna.

### C. Drills

1. (a) Why is Jalal late (I wonder)  
I wonder why Jalal is late.

- (b) What's the weather like in Mosul? (I know)  
I know what the weather is like in Mosul.

Now practise with:

1. What's Layla doing? (I wonder)
  2. Why has the accountant been sacked?  
(The manager has explained to me)
  3. Which is the cheapest hotel?  
(He wants to know)
  4. When will the mechanic repair the machine?  
(I've asked them)
  5. Why can't she go home by bus?  
(I wonder)
  6. Who has Martin visited?  
(I've discovered)
  7. What are the typists doing at the moment?  
(I'll ask the secretary)
  8. Why is Mustafa packing?  
(They won't tell me)
2. (a) Why is Jalal late?  
(I wondered)  
I wondered why Jalal was late.
  - (b) Where is the police station?  
(He wanted to know)  
He wanted to know where the police station was.

Now practise with:

1. How far away is the railway station?  
(The tourist asked me)
  2. When will you receive your driving licence?  
(They asked me)
  3. Where has the secretary kept the files?  
(I wanted to know)
  4. Where can I get a new set of painting brushes?  
(I discovered)
  5. What was she doing in the kitchen?  
(Everyone wondered)
  6. Why won't Jill help her mother?  
(He wondered)
3. (a) Where do you live?  
(He wants to know)  
He wants to know where I live.
- (b) When does the train leave?  
(He's asked me)  
He's asked me when the train leaves.
- (c) Why did you leave so early?  
(Muna asked Ali)  
Muna asked Ali why he had left so early.

Now practise with:

1. When do you start work? (She'll ask you)
2. What does Ali do in the afternoons?  
(I wonder)
3. Who invented the steam – engine?  
(Let's ask Firas)
4. When did you pay the bills?  
(I want to know)
5. Why did he choose that house?  
(I can't imagine)

6. What did Layla decide to do?  
(I don't know)
7. Where does Muna work?  
(I'll find out)
8. How do you like Paris?  
(They will first ask you)
4. (a) – Are you coming back?  
(wants to know)  
– He wants to know if you are coming back.
- (b) – Is Layla absent?  
(asks)  
– He asks whether Layla is absent.
- (c) – Do you often come here?  
(wants to know)  
– He wants to know if you often come here.
- (d) – Does Salman live with his parents?  
(will soon know)  
– He will soon know whether Salman lives with his parents.

Now practise with:

1. Are you tired?  
(wants to know)
2. Have you done your homework?  
(wants to know)
3. Do you need any help?  
(asks)
4. Can you do the exercises by yourself?  
(wonders)
5. Does Ali often help you?  
(wants to know)



6. Did Ali help you yesterday?  
(is asking)
7. Do you enjoy doing your homework?  
(is asking)
7. Do you enjoy doing your homework?  
(has asked)
5. Arthur and Jane Collins are ready to leave the house to go on holiday. Jane is asking her husband these questions.
- (a) Are you ready?  
(She asked him)  
She asked him if he was ready.
- (b) Have you locked the bedrooms?  
(She wanted to know)  
She wanted to know whether he had locked the bedrooms.

Now report what Jane asked her husband.

Use asked or wanted to know.

1. Is it time to go?
2. Does the train leave early?
3. Did you book the seats?
4. Shall we arrive in time?
5. Do you need any help with the suitcases?
6. Do you want me to close the suitcases?
7. Have you packed your pyjamas?
8. Are your new ties in?
9. Have you packed the guide book?
10. Did you remember your camera?

### 15.3 Indirect Requests

#### A. Structure Notes

1. In indirect requests, the imperative form (the request unit) is expressed in the infinitive form.

Example:

a. Shut the door.

I asked her to shut the door.

b. Read the lesson.

I told him to read the lesson.

2. The negative request form (don't) is changed into a negative form (not to).

Examples:

a. Don't shut the door.

I asked her not to shut the door.

b. Don't go out.

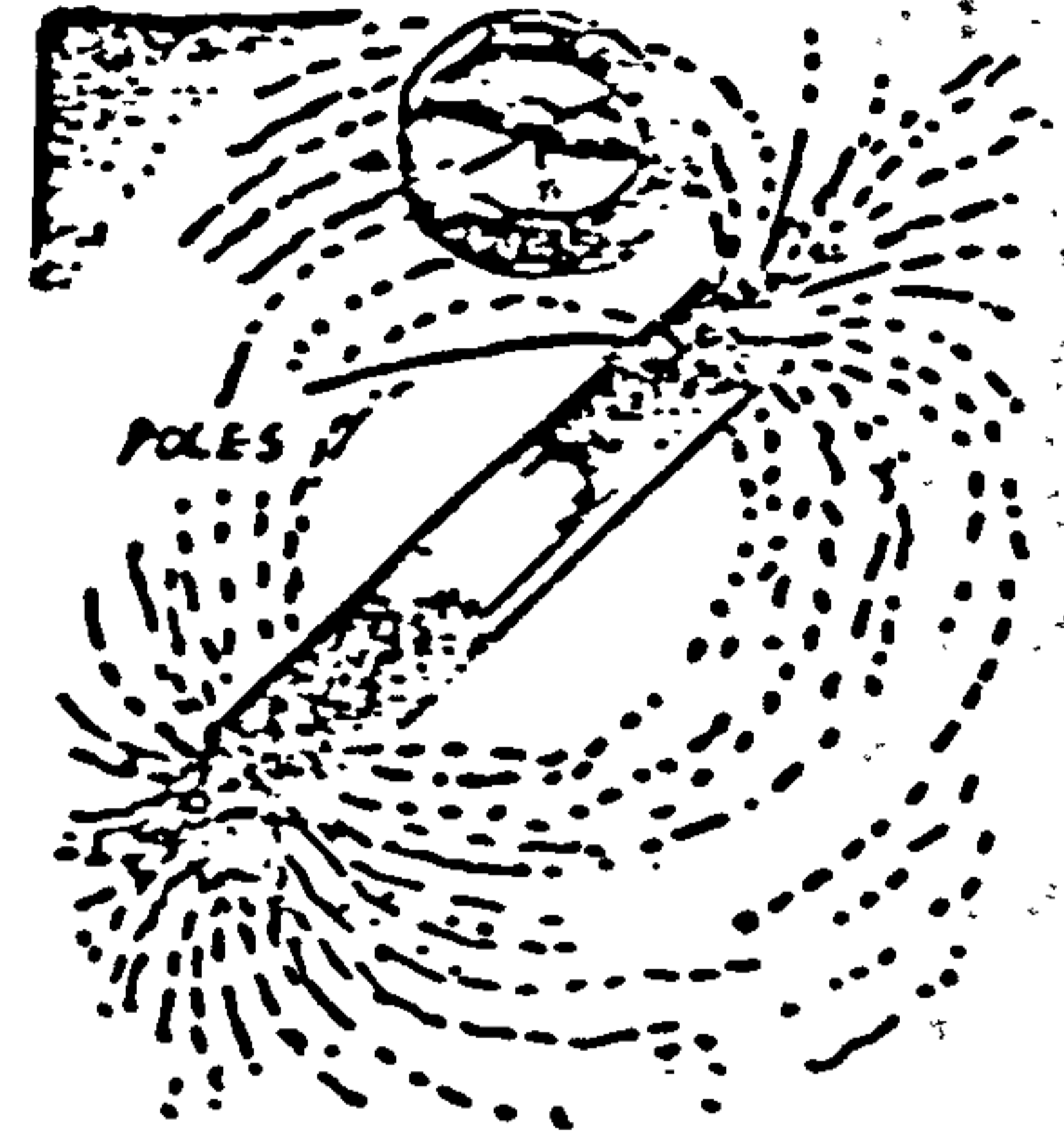
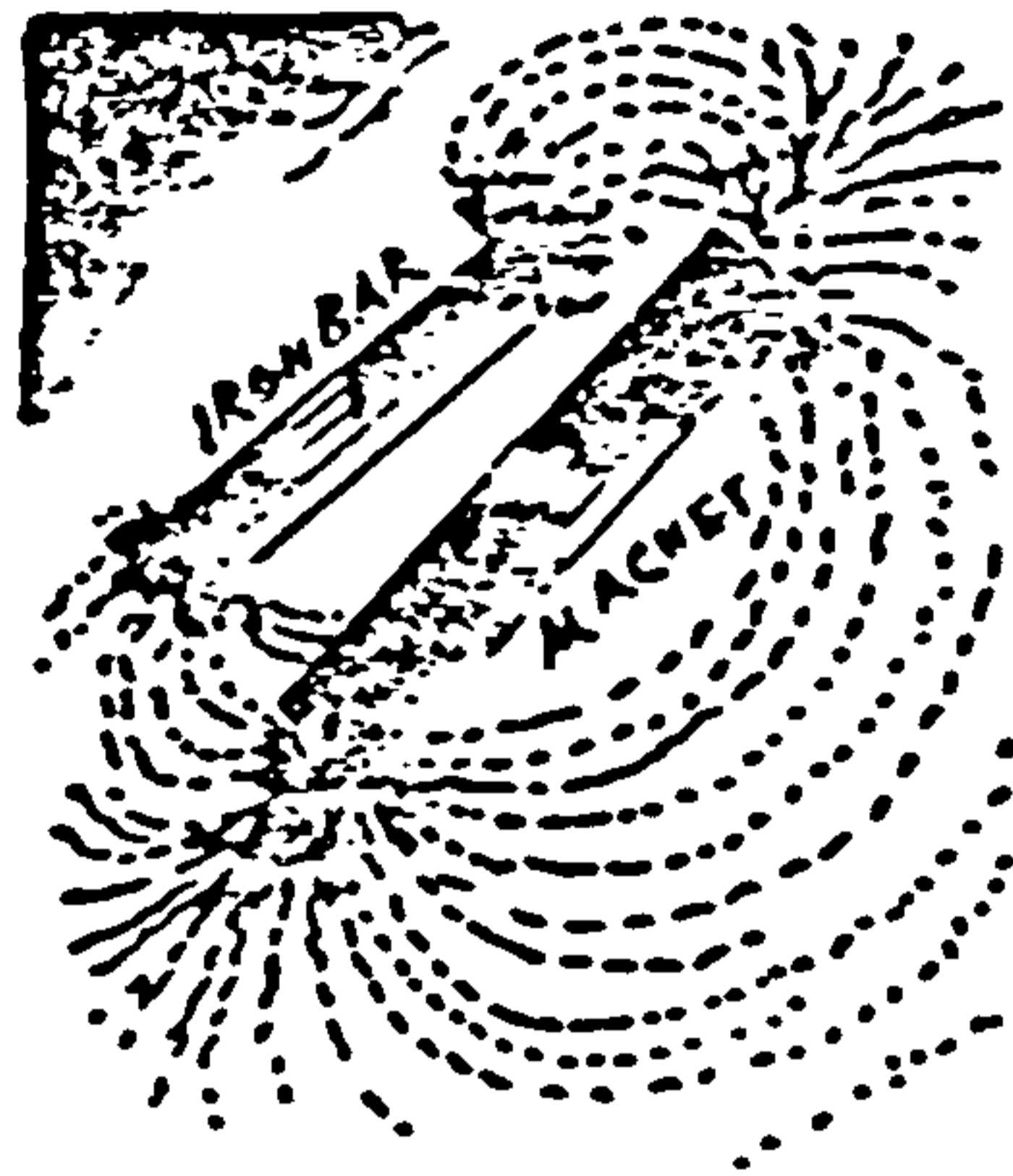
I told him not to go out.

## B. Situations



1. Muna was driving to the office when she suddenly saw a policeman on a motor-cycle pass her and order her to stop. He got off his motor-cycle, came to the window of the car and asked her why she had not stopped

at the red light. Muna apologized and said that she was in a hurry. The policeman answered angrily that that was no excuse. He warned her to be more careful in the future.



2. Yesterday we went to the lab. The teacher gave us a magnet, a sheet of thin cardboard and about a teaspoonful of iron filing. He asked us to put the magnet on the table. Then he asked us to place the cardboard so that it rests upon the magnet. Later we were told to sprinkle the iron particles slowly and evenly upon the paper. We did so and then the teacher asked us to tap the paper lightly several times with a pencil point. The iron particles began to arrange themselves in a pattern. The teacher explained that the particles are arranged along lines of magnetic force.

### C. Drills

1. a. What did the policeman tell the driver to do? Show me your licence.  
He told the driver to show him his licence.
- b. What did the manager ask the typist to do? Type this letter.

He asked her to type that letter.

Now give similar responses to:

1. What did the teacher ask the pupil to do? Read the paragraph.
  2. What did the man ask the waiter to do? Give me the bill.
  3. What did the teacher ask the pupils to do? Open your books.
  4. What did the old man tell the dog to do? Go away.
  5. What did the policeman tell the thief? Don't move.
  6. What did the teacher tell the two boys? Don't talk so much.
2. a. Shut the window.
- What did Ali ask Sami?
  - He asked him to shut the window.
- b. Please show your ticket.
- What did the conductor ask the passenger?
  - The conductor asked the passenger to show him his ticket.
- c. Don't cry.
- What did Martin tell Jenny?
  - He told her not to cry.

Now practice with:

1. Help me with my work.  
What did Ali ask Sami?
2. Speak English all the time.  
What does the teacher advise Firas?
3. Answer the telephone.  
What did Mr. Collins tell his son?
4. Bring me some more salad.  
What did Ali ask the waiter to do?
5. Don't be nervous.  
What did you ask the little girl to do?

6. Don't book at that hotel.  
What did the secretary advise the manager to do?
7. Don't work so hard.  
What did the doctor advise the old man to do?
8. Would you mind repeating that sentence?  
What did the teacher ask Haitham to do?
9. Can you tell me the way to Rafidain Bank?  
What did the tourist ask you to do?
10. Have another cake.  
What did Muna invite Nada to do?

15.4 Look at these pictures:



Now tell the story in your own words. Begin like this:  
Susan tried to tie a ribbon around a big box that she intended to  
give as a .....

- 15.5 In your copybook do the drills (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5) of  
15.2 and drills (1) and (2) of 15.3 (Oral Practice).

## APPENDIX 5

### Experimental Teaching Materials: Literary Reader

#### 5.1. Introduction

Literary Reader 2 is a simplified version of Charles Dickens's Oliver Twist. It has been divided into thirteen chapters. Although the Literary Reader is printed separately, it should be incorporated in the general plan of work. For example, Chapter Two of Oliver Twist should be treated as part of Unit Two of Book 7, Chapter Three as part of Unit Three, and so on.

The Literary Reader, however, is meant to be read by pupils at home, not in class. It is meant for extensive reading outside the school.

#### 5.2. Contents

The first six chapters of the Literary Reader were read before the experiment. The other chapters (i.e. 7 - 13) were read during the experiment. They are given below.\* The lexical items belonging to the experimental semantic fields are underlined.

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\* The numbers at the bottoms of the pages are those of the Literary Reader.

warned	/wo:nd/	حذر
instant	/instant/	لحظة
advanced	/ad'va:nst/	تقدم
terrified	/terifaɪd/	مرتب
flash	/flaʃ/	وميض
crash	/kraʃ/	صوت ارتطام عيب
fired	/faɪəd/	اطلق النار
retreat	/ri'tri:t/	يتقهقر
bleed	/bli:d/	يزف
it's all up	/its 'o:l 'ʌp/	انتهى كل شيء
shawl	/ʃo:l/	شال
unconscious	/ʌŋ'kɒnʃəs/	فاقد الوعي
hedge	/hedʒ/	سياج من شجيرات
pursuers	/pə'sju:əz/	المطاردون
consider	/kən'sɪdə/	بمكرون
encourage	/ɪŋ'kʌrɪdʒ/	يشجع
E. scarcely	/skeəslɪ/	بالكاد ، قلما
unsteadily	/ʌn'stedɪli/	بدون ثبات
staggered	/stægəd/	ترنح
reviving	/rɪ'vaɪvɪŋ/	بعثون
excitement	/ɪk'saɪtmənt/	افعال
wounded	/wu:ndɪd/	جريح
shot	/ʃɒt/	أطلقت النار عليه
(p.p. of shoot)		
robbery	/rɒbərɪ/	سرقة
female	/fi:meɪl/	انثى
injured	/ɪndʒəd/	مصاب
creature	/kri:tʃə/	مخلوق
poor	/puə/	سكين
fetch	/fetʃ/	يذهب ويحلب
take one look at him		نلقى نظرة واحدة عليه

## CHAPTER 7

A. Rose and her aunt, Mrs. Maylie, were having breakfast when Dr. Losberne arrived. Giles showed him the way upstairs. The doctor remained there for a long time. At last he returned to the ladies, looking very mysterious.

"This is a very extraordinary thing, Mrs. Maylie," said the doctor.

"He is not in danger, I hope?" said the old lady.

"I don't think he is," replied the doctor. Then after a short pause he said, "Have you seen the thief?"

"No," replied the old lady.

"Nor heard anything about him?"

"No," said Mrs. Maylie. "Rose wished to see the man, but I wouldn't hear of it."

"Would you mind seeing him now?"

"If it is necessary," replied the old lady, "certainly not."

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"I think it is necessary, Mrs. Maylie."

He led the way upstairs to Giles's room. The two ladies were very surprised to see, instead of an evil-faced criminal, a child, worn with pain and fatigue, and sunk into a deep sleep. His bandaged arm was crossed upon his breast, and his head leaned upon the other arm.

"Is this the thief?" exclaimed the old lady. "I can't believe it."

"Poor boy," said Rose, her voice was shaky and there were tears in her eyes. "He's so young!"

The doctor then led the way into another room and they started to discuss the matter.

"Even if he has been wicked," said Rose, "think how young he is, think that he may have never known a mother's love, or the comfort of a home. Aunt, dear aunt, for mercy's sake, think of this, before you let them drag this sick child to prison."

"My dear," said the old lady, "do you think I would harm a hair of his head? Surely not." Then, turning to the doctor, she said, "What can I do to save him, sir?"

Dr. Losberne thought for a long time but couldn't find a good answer.



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B. A few hours later Oliver woke up. He told the two ladies and the doctor all his simple history. He was often compelled to stop by pain or weakness. Rose stayed in the room to look after him, while Dr. Losberne went downstairs.

"I am afraid you have got yourself into trouble, Giles," said the doctor solemnly.

"Do you mean," said Giles trembling, "that he's going to die?"

"That's not the point," said the doctor. "The point is this: are you ready to swear, you and the others that the boy upstairs is the boy that was put through the little window last night?"

Giles looked doubtfully at the other servants. No one replied.

At that moment two police officers arrived. Dr. Losberne led them upstairs to Oliver's bedroom. Oliver was dozing; he was still very weak. With the doctor's help he managed to sit in bed for a minute and looked at the strangers without at all understanding what was going on.

"This," said Dr. Losberne, "is the boy who has been accidentally wounded by a spring-gun in some boyish trespass on somebody's grounds. He comes to the house for help this

to town, and Oliver was left to the loving care of Mrs. Maylie, Rose and the kind-hearted Dr. Losberne.

C. Fagin the Jew, Charley Bates and the Artful Dodger were playing cards when the Dodger cried, "Listen. The bell's ringing." He picked up the light and made for the door. After a short pause, he reappeared, admitting Toby Crackit.

"How are you, Fagin?" said Crackit and, drawing a chair to the fire, he sat down. "First of all, Fagin," he said after a long pause, "how's Bill?"

"What?" screamed the Jew, starting from his seat.

"Why, you don't mean to say" — began Toby Crackit, turning pale.

"Mean?" cried the Jew, stamping furiously on the ground. "Where are they? Sikes and the boy! Where are they hiding?"

"The attempt failed," said Crackit faintly.

"I know that," replied the Jew, taking a newspaper and pointing to it. "What more?"

"They fired and hit the boy. Bill had to leave him in a ditch when we ran away. I don't know if he's alive or dead."

The Jew gave a loud scream of anger and

morning, and is immediately caught and badly treated by that gentleman," Dr. Losberne pointed to Giles.

Giles looked at the police officers, the doctor and Oliver with fear and amazement.

"You don't mean to deny that, I suppose?" said the doctor, laying Oliver gently down again.

"Well, I — I thought he was the boy," stammered Giles.

"What boy?" inquired one of the officers.

"The thief's boy, sir," replied Giles. "They — they certainly had a boy."

"Well? Do you think so now?" said the other officer.

"Think what now?" said Giles who was very confused by now.

"Think it's the same boy," said the officer.

"I don't know; I really don't know," said Giles. "I can't swear to him."

"What do you think?" asked the officer.

"I don't know what to think," replied Giles. "I don't think it's the boy. Indeed I'm almost certain that it isn't the same boy."

After some more examination, the police officers were convinced that Giles had made a stupid mistake and that Oliver had nothing to do with the thieves. Both policemen returned

rushed out of the house. As he reached the street corner he began to recover from the effect of Toby Crackit's information. Avoiding, as much as possible, all the main streets, he at last came to a public house called The Three Cripples, which was the favourite haunt of thieves and criminals.

"What can I do for you, Mr. Fagin?" said the landlord.

"Is he here?"

"Monks, you mean?" inquired the landlord, hesitatingly.

"Hush!" said the Jew. "Yes."

"No," said the man, "but I'm expecting him. If you'll wait ten minutes, he'll be —"

"No, no," interrupted Fagin, "tell him I came here to see him; and that he must come to me tonight."

D. Fagin left the place and went immediately to Sikes's house. He opened the door and entered the room. He found Nancy alone. She was lying with her head upon the table.

"She has been drinking," thought the Jew, "or perhaps she's only miserable."

As he closed the door, the girl woke up.

"Any news," she said sleepily.

The Jew told her Toby Crackit's story.



Nancy didn't say a word. The Jew looked restlessly about the room to make sure if Sikes had secretly returned.

"And where do you think Bill is now, my dear?"

"How should I know?" said Nancy. The Jew noticed that her eyes were red with tears.

"And the boy, too," said the Jew. "Left in a ditch, Nancy; only think!"

"The boy," said Nancy, "is better where he is than among us."

"What?" cried the Jew.

"I shall be glad," said Nancy, "to have him away from my eyes. I can't bear to have him about me. The sight of him turns me against myself, and all of you."

"Pooh!" said the Jew scornfully. "You're drunk."

"Am I?" cried the girl bitterly. "And whose fault is that?"

"Listen to me," shouted the Jew angrily. "If Sikes ever comes back and leaves the boy behind him, if he fails to bring the boy back to me, then consider him dead. He won't escape me. Tell him this the moment he comes here, or it will be too late."

"What is all this?" cried the girl.

"What is all this?" repeated Fagin, mad

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Fagin didn't answer. He was quiet until they reached the house and went inside together. They talked for a quarter of an hour in whispers.

"I tell you again," said Monks, "it was badly planned. You should have kept him here among the rest, and made a pickpocket of him at once."

"Just listen to him!" exclaimed the Jew, shrugging his shoulders.

"Do you mean to say that you couldn't have done it?" said Monks sternly. "Haven't you done it with other boys? If he had been caught as a thief, he would have been sent out of the country, perhaps for life."

"Well, whose turn would that have served?" inquired Fagin.

"Mine," replied Monks.

"But not mine," replied the Jew. "Besides, it was not easy to train him to the business; he was not like the other boys."

"Curse him, no," said Monks, "or he would have been a thief long ago."

"I had no hold upon him to make him worse," continued the Jew. "What could I do? Send him out with the Dodger and Charlie Bates? We had enough of that at first."

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with anger. "The boy's worth hundreds of pounds to me. I'm not going to lose him." He sat in a chair and then suddenly, changing his attitude, he said, "Nancy, dear, did you mind me?"

"Don't worry, Fagin," said the girl lazily. "If Bill hasn't done the job this time, he will some other time."

"Regarding the boy," said the Jew who was afraid he had disclosed something that the girl might make use of.

"The boy must take his chance with the rest of us," interrupted Nancy hastily. "And I say again, I hope he is dead and out of your way."

The Jew then left Sikes's house and turned his face homeward.

E. When Fagin reached the corner of his own street, a dark figure appeared from the darkness and came up to him.

"Fagin!"

"Ah, Monks," said the Jew. "Are you here?"

"Well; what's the news?"

"Nothing good," said Fagin.

"Nothing bad, I hope?" said Monks anxiously.

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"That was not my doing," observed Monks.

"No, no, my dear," replied the Jew. "But don't forget if I hadn't sent him out with the Dodger and Charlie, you wouldn't have seen him. You were looking for him and I got him back for you by means of the girl. Now she favours him."

"Kill the girl," said Monks impatiently.

"We can't afford to do that just now, my dear," said Fagin smiling. "I know what these girls are like, Monks. As soon as Oliver grows older, she will no longer care for him. You want him made a thief. If he is alive, I can make him one; but if he is dead —"

"It's no fault of mine if he is!" interrupted Monks with a look of terror, and grasping the Jew's arm with trembling hands. "Mind that, Fagin! I had no hand in it. Anything but his death, I told you from the first. I won't shed blood; it's always found out. If they shot him dead, I was not the cause; do you hear me?"

Monks stopped short suddenly.

"What's that?" said Monks with a trembling voice.

"What?" cried the Jew, grasping the coward with both hands. "Where?"

"There!" replied the man, glaring at the

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opposite wall. "The shadow! I saw the shadow of a woman pass quickly along the wall."

The Jew rushed out of the room, followed by Monks. There was nothing but the empty staircase. Everything was silent.

"It's your fancy," said the Jew, to his companion.

"I swear I saw it," replied Monks. "It was bending forward when I saw it first; and when I spoke, it darted away."

They looked into the rooms upstairs; then they went downstairs into the cellars. All was empty and still.

Glossary		
A. mysterious	/mi'stiəriəs/	غامض
extraordinary	/ik'stro:dnri/	استثنائي ، غير عادي
pause	/po:z/	وقف
I wouldn't hear of it		لما سمع لها مطلقا
criminal	/'kriminl/	مجرم
fatigue	/fə'ti:g/	إرهاق
bandaged	/'bændidʒd/	مضمدة
leaned	/li:nd/	انكأ
wicked	/'wikid/	شرير
mercy	/mə:si/	رحمة
B. compelled	/kəm'peld/	مضطر
solemnly	/sə'ləmlɪ/	ماهتما
swear	/swə/	يقسم ، يحلف
doubtfully	/daʊt'fʊli/	مأزنياب

bitterly	/bitəli/	سمرارة
consider	/kən'sidə/	اعتنري
escape	/i'skeip/	يهرب
attitude	/ə'titju:d/	موقف
regarding	/ri'gɑ:diŋ/	في ما يتعلق بـ
disclosed	/di'skləʊzd/	كشف
homeward	/həʊm'wɜ:d/	بحر المنزل
E. figure	/'fi:gə/	هيئة شخص
pickpocket	/'pikpəkit/	سارق
shrugging	/ʃrə'giŋ/	هائزا كعب (مظهرا عدم الاحترام)
sternly	/stə:nli/	بحر
whose turn	/hu:z 'tɜ:n/	مصححة من
besides	/bi'saidz/	إضافة لذلك
train	/trein/	يلرب
I had no hold upon him		لم تكن لي سيطرة عليه
observed	/əb'zə:vəd/	أدى ملاحظة
by means of	/baɪ mi:nz əv/	واسطة
favours	/fə'vɜ:z/	تؤيد ، تساعد
impatiently	/im'peɪʃntli/	مغاد صر
grasping	/grə'spiŋ/	مستكأ شدة
shed blood	/ʃed 'blʌd/	يسفك دما
coward	/kəʊəd/	حان
glaring	/gləəriŋ/	محملقا
shadow	/ʃədəʊ/	ظل
staircase	/steə'keɪs/	سلم
fancy	/fənsi/	تخيل
darted away	/dɑ:tɪd ə'wei/	اطلق مسرعا
cellar	/sela/	قو (سرداب)
still	/stil/	ساكن

dozing	/dɔ:ziŋ/	بالتعاس
accidentally	/ək'sidəntli/	صا ، بالصدفة
spring-gun	/sprɪŋgən/	نابور
trespass	/trɛspəs/	تعد
stammered	/stəməd/	تلع
confused	/kən'fju:zd/	سب
convinced	/kən'vɪnst/	تبع
kind-hearted	/kaɪnd 'hɑ:tɪd/	مبوف
C. made for the door	/meɪd fə ðə 'dɔ:/	تجه بحر الباب
reappeared	/ri:ə'piəd/	تراجا
stamp	/stæmp/	بف الأرض قدمه
furiously	/fjuəriəsli/	صغ ، بهياج
faintly	/feɪntli/	صوت واهن
ditch	/dɪtʃ/	بارة الخري
recover	/ri'kʌvə/	يسترد هدويه
effect	/ɪ'fekt/	تثير
information	/ɪnfə'meɪʃn/	معلومات
avoiding	/ə'vɔɪdɪŋ/	تجنبنا
public house	/pʌblɪk haʊs/	حانه مشرب
favourite	/fə'vɪrɪt/	مفضل
haunt	/həʊnt/	مأوى
landlord	/lændlə:d/	صاحب الحانه
hesitantly	/hezɪtəntli/	تردد
D. miserable	/mɪzərəbl/	تعبس ، مائس
sleepily	/sli:pɪli/	سعالس
restlessly	/restlɪsli/	فتن ، ستمل واضطراب
secretly	/si:kritli/	بصوبة سرية
sight	/saɪt/	مظر ، مرأى
scornfully	/skɔ:nfli/	محققار

## CHAPTER 8

A. Oliver's recovery took a long time. In addition to the pain of a wounded arm, he had a high fever for many weeks. But at last, he began gradually to get better. In a few tearful words, he thanked the two ladies for their kindness.

"I hope," he added, "I could do something to show my gratitude."

"Well," said Rose with a lovely smile, "you'll have many opportunities of serving us, if you will."

Oliver paused. Something seemed to trouble him.

"What is it, Oliver," asked Rose.

"I was thinking that I am ungrateful now."

"To whom?"

"To the kind gentleman, Mr. Brownlow, and his housekeeper, Mrs. Bedwin," said Oliver. "They took so much care of me before.

If they knew how happy I am now, they would be very pleased."

"I am sure they would," said Rose. "I think Dr. Losberne will be kind enough to take you to see them."

When Oliver grew strong and well again, Dr. Losberne took him to London to see Mr. Brownlow. But when they arrived, they found the house empty. The neighbours told them that Mr. Brownlow and his old houskeeper had gone to the West Indies six weeks before. Oliver was deeply disappointed. He went back with the doctor to Mrs. Maylie's house, feeling bitterly sad.

B. A few days later, Mrs. Maylie decided to leave Chertsey and move to the country.

"You are going to accompany us," said Rose to Oliver. "The quiet place, the pure air and all the pleasures and beauty of spring will do you good."

Leaving Giles and another servant behind, they departed to a cottage at some distance in the country, and took Oliver with them.

The cottage was in a lovely spot surrounded by trees. Oliver spent a happy time. The days were peaceful and the nights brought neither fear nor care. Every morning he went to an

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Maylie. "Take these two letters and go to the post office in the market-town. They must go today."

Oliver saw that the first letter was addressed to Dr. Losberne, the second to her son Mr. Harry Maylie. He took the two letters and hurried out. He ran across the fields and down the little lanes until he came to the post office of the market-town.

Oliver posted the two letters and then hurried back. As he was passing the inn of the market-town on his way home, he stumbled against a tall man who was at that moment coming out of the inn. It was Monks. He was drunk.

"Hah!" cried Monks, fixing his eyes on Oliver, and suddenly stepping back. "What the devil is this?"

"I beg your pardon, sir," said Oliver. "I didn't see you were coming."

"Curse you," said Monks, glaring at the boy. "You start up from a stone coffin, to come in my way!"

"I'm sorry," stammered Oliver, confused by the strange man's wild look. "I hope I have not hurt you."

"If I had only the courage," continued Monks violently, "I would have been free of

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old gentleman who lived nearby and who taught him to read and to write better. Then he would walk with Mrs. Maylie and Rose. Sometime he would sit in some shady place and listen while Rose read. Later he would do his homework for the next day. In the evening he would sit by one of the windows in the sitting room and listen to Rose as she played the piano and sang some old songs that pleased her aunt.

C. One evening, Rose was playing the piano when she suddenly stopped. There were tears in her eyes and she looked pale.

"Rose," cried Mrs. Maylie, rising hastily and bending over her. "What is it?"

"Nothing, aunt; nothing," replied Rose. "I don't know what it is. I can't describe it, but I feel —"

"Not ill, my love?" interrupted Mrs. Maylie.

"No, no," said Rose. "I shall be better. Oliver, close the window, please."

Rose looked very ill and Mrs. Maylie persuaded her to go to bed.

In the morning, Rose was in the first stage of a high and dangerous fever.

"We must act at once, Oliver," said Mrs.

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you long ago. Curse you! What are you doing here?"

Monks shook his fist, as he said these words. Then he advanced towards Oliver, but he stumbled and fell violently on the ground. Some men hurried to help him get up and then took him to his hotel. Oliver ran back home as fast as he could.

D. Two days later Dr. Losberne arrived. He stayed in Rose's room for a long time. Mrs. Maylie and Oliver were very worried. When the doctor at last came out, they both hurried to him.

"Yes, doctor?" said Mrs. Maylie anxiously.

"She's sleeping now," said the doctor quietly. "She'll be all right. The danger has passed but she needs a lot of rest."

Both the lady and Oliver were very happy to hear this news.

The next day, a small carriage arrived and Giles and a young gentleman came out.

"Master Oliver," cried Giles when he saw Oliver near the cottage door. "How's she?"

"In a word!" cried the young gentleman. "Better or worse?"

"Better — much better," replied Oliver as he hurried to welcome the two men.

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The young gentleman was Harry Maylie. He was Mrs. Maylie's only son: a handsome young man of an average height. He was a lawyer, but he was working hard to become a famous politician.

Mrs. Maylie was anxiously waiting to receive him. When he entered, he took his mother in his arms. Their meeting was full of emotion.

"Mother!" he whispered. "You should have written earlier. You know if anything wrong happens to her, I will not know happiness again."

"I know you love her," said Mrs. Maylie thoughtfully. "I also know that she deserves it. But I fear that your feelings would change later. If that happens, it will break her heart. That's why I didn't write earlier."

"This is not fair, mother," said Harry. "Do you think I'm an ignorant young boy?"

"I think, my dear son," returned Mrs. Maylie, laying her hand upon his shoulder, "that youth has many impulses which do not last." She paused for a while and then continued solemnly, "You know very well that Rose is not my niece. I found her when she was very young and brought her up. If an ambitious man like you marries a wife on

the window of his room. He opened his eyes and looked at the window. To his amazement, he saw the faces of Fagin and another man peering at him through the window. He recognized the other man at once. It was the drunk man he had met near the inn in the market-town when he went to post the letters.

"Yes, my dear," said Fagin to Monks. "It is he, sure enough. Come away."

"He!" answered Monks. "Do you think I could ever mistake him?"

Oliver started up; he was so afraid that he could not find his voice. It was but an instant and the two figures disappeared. Oliver stood trembling; at last he leapt out of the room and shouted for help.

Everyone hurried to Oliver. They found him pale and trembling. He was pointing in the direction of the meadows behind the house.

"The Jew! The Jew!" he shouted.

"What direction did he take?" asked Harry, catching up a heavy stick.

"That," replied Oliver, pointing to the direction that the two men had taken.

"Follow me," said Harry to Giles and darted off as quickly as he could. Giles and Dr. Losberne followed.

whose name there is a stain, he will soon regret the marriage. The wife will then suffer the pain of knowing that he does so."

"Mother," said Harry impatiently, "he will be a selfish brute if he acts like that."

"You think so now, Harry," replied his mother.

"I will always think so, mother," said Harry. "You don't know how much I have suffered during the last two days when I heard she was ill. Rose is a fine girl, mother, and I love her. This is what matters."

"Well", said the mother, trying to end this conversation, "we have said enough on this matter, just now."

Harry decided that when Rose got better, he would talk to her of his love.

E. The next morning Rose felt much better. Oliver went out to the fields and gathered the sweetest wild flowers that he could find to please Rose with their beauty. Harry saw him and decided to accompany him in the following mornings to collect flowers for Rose.

A few days later, Oliver was sitting in his room. It was late afternoon and Oliver was reading a book. He felt very tired and dozed a little. Suddenly he heard movements behind

They searched for a long time, and looked everywhere: in the ditches, behind the hedges and bushes. The search was all in vain. There were not even the traces of recent footsteps to be seen. They stood now on the top of a little hill that overlooked the open fields in every direction for three or four miles. They could not see anybody.

"It must have been a dream, Oliver," said Harry.

"Oh, no, indeed, sir," replied Oliver, trembling with fear. "I saw him very clearly."

"This is strange!" said Harry.

The men gave up the search and decided to go back.

"Well, they might be in one of the pubs in the area," said Harry when they arrived at the cottage. "Oliver, give us a complete description of the two men. Giles, go down to the pubs and see if you can find them there."

Giles went off, supplied with the best description Oliver could give. But hours later, he returned saying that he could not find them.

The next morning, the search was continued, and inquiries were made, but with no better success. Harry and Oliver went to the inn in the market-town, in the hope of seeing or hearing something of the two men there; but

this effort was equally fruitless. After a few days, the affair began to be forgotten.

F. Rose began to recover. She was able to leave her room and mix once more with the family. This happy change had a clear effect on the little circle: cheerful voices and merry laughter were once more heard in the cottage. However, there was at times a look of sadness in Rose's face; a similar sad look was on Harry's face.

At last, one morning, when Rose was alone in the dining-room, Harry Maylie entered.

"Can I have a few words with you, Rose," he said after some hesitation.

Rose nodded.

"I — I came here as soon as I heard you're ill. I had dreadful and painful fears when I found you trembling between earth and heaven. I had deep apprehensions and selfish regrets lest you should die before you know how devotedly I love you."

Rose listened silently. There were tears gathering in her eyes.

"For years," Harry went on, "for years I have loved you. I have always hoped to succeed in life and win my way to fame, and then come proudly home and tell you that I have

won fame only for you to share. That hope has not arrived yet. But here, with no fame won, I offer you the heart so long your own."

"That's very kind and noble of you," said Rose, trying to control her voice as tears began to run down her face. "This should have been my happiest day; but my answer is that you must try to forget me."

Harry looked disappointed.

"Look into the world, Harry," continued Rose, her voice beginning to shake. "Think how many hearts you could later gain. As for me, I will always be the truest, warmest and most faithful friend you have."

She covered her face with her hands and began to weep.

"But why, Rose, why?" said Harry in a low voice.

"The prospect before you is a brilliant one, Harry," said Rose. "In public life, you make a lot of acquaintances and friends who are either powerful or rich. Their influence and talents will help you in your career. Those acquaintances and friends are proud; and I will not mix with people who look down on me or my mother."

She paused to wipe her tears.

"In a word, Harry," she continued, "I will

be an obstacle to your progress in the world. You are rich and from a well-known family, and I'm but a poor girl with a stain on my name. I will not pass it to you or your family. It's unfair."

Henry cast down his eyes. He was now confident that Rose returned his love; but he also knew that she would not change her mind.

"One word, Rose, Dearest Rose," said Harry with bitter disappointment. "Could I once and only once more, — say, within a year — speak to you again on this subject, for the last time?"

"Not to press me to change my right decision," replied Rose with a sad smile. "It will be useless."

"No," said Harry. "Just to hear your opinion again."

"All right, Harry," said Rose, "it is but one pain the more, and by that time I may be able to bear it better. I must leave you now, Harry."

She stretched her hand, but the young man held her tightly, gave her a quick kiss on her forehead and hurried from the room.

Two days after this conversation, Harry Maylie and Dr. Losberne left the cottage and went away, each to his place of work.

		Glossary	
A. recovery	/ri'kʌvəri/		شفاء
fever	/fi:və/		حمى
gradually	/'grɑ:dʒuəli/		تدريجاً
get better	/'get betə/		تحسن
tearful	/'ti:əfʊl/		مكتئب
gratitude	/'grætɪtʃu:d/		شكر
opportunities	/'ɒpətʃu:nə'tɪz/		فرص
will	/'wɪl/		شأن
ungrateful	/'ʌn'grɛɪtʃʊl/		شكر
grew	/'gru:/		نما
deeply	/'di:pli/		عميقاً
disappointed	/'dɪsə'pɔɪntɪd/		خيب
feeling bitterly sad	/'fi:lɪŋ 'bɪtəli 'sɑd/		حزين جداً
B. move	/'mu:v/		تحرك
accompany	/'ækəmpəni/		رافق
departed	/'dɪpɑ:tɪd/		غادر
at some distance	/'æt 'sʌm 'dɪstəns/		على مسافة محددة
spot	/'spɒt/		بقعة
care	/'keə/		مهم
shady	/'ʃeɪdi/		مظلل
C. rising	/'raɪzɪŋ/		تزايد
persuaded	/'pɜ:sweɪdɪd/		قنع
stage	/'steɪdʒ/		مدرسة
we must act at once	/'wi mʌst 'ækt ət 'wʌns/		يجب أن تصرف حالا
market-town	/'mɑ:kɪttəʊn/		سوق
curse	/'kɜ:s/		لعنة

wild  
 courage  
 D. worried  
 anxiously  
 politician  
 emotion  
 thoughtfully  
 deserves  
 break her heart  
  
 ignorant  
 lay  
 impulses  
 last  
 ambitious  
 stain  
 regret  
 selfish  
 brute  
 fine  
 E. dozed  
 inn  
 leapt  
 meadows  
 search  
 trace  
 recent  
 footstep  
 pub  
 supplied with

/waɪld/ متوحش  
 /'kʌrɪdʒ/ شجاعة  
 /'wʌrɪd/ قلق  
 /'æŋkʃəsli/ قلقن . تنويع  
 /pəlɪtɪʃn/ سياسي  
 /ɪ'moʊʃn/ افعال . عاطفة  
 /'θo:tfʊli/ تأمل  
 /dɪ'zɑ:vz/ يستحق  
 /'breɪk hə 'hɑ:t/ يفرح قلبها . يسحق قلبها  
  
 /ɪgnərənt/ جاهل  
 /lei/ يضع  
 /ɪm'pʌlsɪz/ دوافع . قوى دافعة  
 /la:st/ ينسى  
 /æm'bɪʃəs/ ضموح  
 /steɪn/ لائحة  
 /rɪ'gret/ يندم على  
 /'selfɪʃ/ أناني . محب لنفسه فقط  
 /bru:t/ وحش . حيوان  
 /faɪn/ عذبة . نديع  
 /'doʊzd/ غلبه العاص  
 /ɪn/ هدف صعب . حانة  
 /lept/ وثب  
 /'medoʊz/ مروج  
 /sɑ:tʃ/ بحث . تعين  
 /treɪs/ علامة . اثر  
 /rɪ:snt/ حديث . حديث  
 /'fʊtstɛp/ حصوة  
 /pʌb/ حرم  
 /sə'plaɪd wɪð/ مظهر ب

obstacle  
 progress  
 but  
 cast  
 press  
 useless  
 opinion  
 stretch  
 tightly

/'ɒbstəkl/ عقة . عائق  
 /'prəʊgrɛs/ تقدم  
 /bʌt/ ليس الا . فقط  
 /kɑ:st/ يرسل في اتجاه معين  
 /pres/ يضغط  
 /'ju:sɪs/ عديم الفائدة  
 /ə'pɪnjən/ رأي . وجهة نظر  
 /stretʃ/ يمد  
 /'taɪtli/ مشددة بقوة

effort  
 equally  
 fruitless  
 affair  
 F. mix  
 effect  
 cheerful  
 merry  
 at times  
 nod  
 dreadful  
 apprehension  
 devotedly  
 gathering  
 fame  
 proudly  
 offer  
  
 noble  
 control  
 gain  
 truest  
 warmest  
 weep  
 prospect  
 brilliant  
 acquaintances  
 influence  
 talent  
 career

/'efət/ .  
 /i:'kwəli/ .  
 /'fru:tɪs/ .  
 /ə'feə/ .  
 /mɪks/ .  
 /ɪ'fekt/ .  
 /tʃɪə'fʊl/ .  
 /'meri/ .  
 /ət 'taɪmz/ .  
 /nɒd/ .  
 /'dredfʊl/ .  
 /ə'prɪ'hensɪn/ .  
 /dɪ'vɒtɪdli/ .  
 /gə'ðərɪŋ/ .  
 /feɪm/ .  
 /'praʊdli/ .  
 /'ɒfə/ .  
  
 /'nəʊbl/ .  
 /kən'trəʊl/ .  
 /geɪn/ .  
 /'tru:ɪst/ .  
 /'wɔ:mɪst/ .  
 /wi:p/ .  
 /'prɒspekt/ .  
 /brɪ'ljʌnt/ .  
 /ə'kwɛɪntənsɪz/ .  
 /ɪn'fluəns/ .  
 /'tælənt/ .  
 /kə'riə/ .

CHAPTER 9

A. Mr. Bumble was now master of the workhouse. One day, feeling miserable after a little family quarrel with Mrs. Bumble, he left the workhouse and walked about the streets. He stopped before a public-house and looked through the window. The public-house was deserted, except for one customer. It began to rain heavily at that moment, so Bumble decided to go in,

The man who was seated there was tall and dark. He looked at Bumble as he entered, but scarcely answered his greeting. As Bumble sat down to drink, he felt a strong desire to steal a look at the stranger. Whenever he did so he found that the stranger was at the same moment stealing a look at him.

When their eyes had met several times in this way, the stranger said in a deep, harsh voice, "Were you looking for me when you looked in through the window?"

"Not that I am aware of, unless you're Mr.—". Here Bumble stopped short. He was curious to know the man's name and he hoped that he would supply the blank.

"I see you were not," said the stranger, "or you would have known my name. But I know you pretty well. What are you now?"

"Master of the workhouse," answered Mr. Bumble.

"You still work for your own interests, don't you?" said the stranger looking closely into Mr. Bumble's eyes.

"Well," replied Bumble. "Workhouse masters are not well paid, so I have no objection to earning some extra money."

The stranger smiled and nodded his head.

"Fill in this glass again," he said, handing Mr. Bumble's empty glass to the landlord. When the drink was brought, the stranger looked at Mr. Bumble carefully.

"Now listen to me," said the stranger in a low voice. "I came down to this place to find you out. I want some information from you. I'm not asking you to give it for nothing."

As he spoke he pushed a couple of gold coins to Mr. Bumble, who put them in his pocket.

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old nurse when she died last winter. She may know something that interests you."

"All right," said the stranger. "How can I find her?"

"Only through me," replied Bumble.

"When?" cried the stranger, hastily.

"Tomorrow," replied Bumble.

"At nine in the evening," said the stranger. He took out a piece of paper and wrote down an obscure address by the river. "At nine o'clock bring her to me there. I needn't tell you to keep this a secret."

With these words he got up, paid for the drinks and departed.

On looking at the address, Bumble noticed that it contained no name. He ran after the stranger and said, "What name shall I ask for?"

"Monks," replied the man and walked hastily away.

B. At nine o'clock in the next evening, Mr. and Mrs. Bumble arrived at Monk's house. It was a ruined house overlooking the river. Monks was alone.

"Now," said Monks, when they had all three seated themselves, "the sooner we come

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"Cast your memory back," said the stranger, "about eleven years."

"It's a long time," said Bumble. "Very good. I've done it."

"The scene: the workhouse."

"Good."

"And the time: one evening in winter."

"Yes."

"And the place: a room in the workhouse. A boy was born there."

"Many boys!" observed Bumble.

"I speak of one: a gentle-looking, pale-faced boy, who was later apprenticed here to a coffin-maker, and then ran away to London."

"Why, you mean Oliver Twist," said Bumble. "I remember him, of course."

"It's not of him I want to hear," said the stranger, "It's of a woman, the old woman who nursed his mother. Where's she?"

"She died last winter," answered Bumble.

The stranger looked fixedly at him.

"All right," said the stranger after a pause.

"It doesn't matter then."

The stranger rose to leave. But Bumble saw at once that an opportunity had opened for him to make some money.

"Wait," he said. "My wife was with the

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to our business the better for all. The woman knows what it is, does she?"

Mrs. Bumble nodded her head.

"Were you with the old nurse when she died?"

"I was," said Mrs. Bumble.

"Did she tell you anything about —"

"About Oliver's mother," replied Mrs. Bumble. "Yes."

"The first question is: what is the nature of her information?"

"Well," said Mrs. Bumble, "how much will you pay?"

"Twenty pounds?"

"Add five to the sum. Give me twenty-five pounds in gold," said Mrs. Bumble.

"But the information might be nothing," said Monks.

"You can easily take the money away again," replied the woman.

Monks gave her the money.

"Now," he said, "let's hear your story."

"The old nurse spoke about Oliver's mother," said Mrs. Bumble. "Oliver's mother was very ill when she gave birth to Oliver. Before she died, she gave the old nurse something and begged her to keep it for the boy's sake."

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"What was it?" cried Monks.

"It was a piece of jewelry. The old nurse kept it for herself. She gave it to me before her death last winter."

"Where is it now?" asked Monks quickly.

"Here it is," said Mrs. Bumble and took out a gold locket. It contained two locks of hair and a gold wedding ring.

"This is Oliver's mother's wedding ring. It has her name 'Agnes' engraved on the inside," said Mrs. Bumble. "It also has the date of the marriage."

Monks took the gold locket and examined the ring.

"Is that all?" said Monks.

"All," replied the woman. "Is this what you were looking for?"

"Yes," replied Monks.

"What are you planning to do with it?" asked Mrs. Bumble. "Can it be used against me?"

"Never," replied Monks; "nor against me either. See here!"

He stood up and went to a window that overlooked the river. He opened it and threw the ring into the water.

"There!" said Monks closing the window.

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The three, looking into each other's faces, seemed to breathe more freely.

"Now," said Monks with a threatening look, "get away from here as fast as you can."

Mr. and Mrs. Bumble hurried away.

C. "What's the time?" asked Bill Sikes angrily as he awakened from a short sleep in the evening.

"About seven o'clock," answered Nancy. "How do you feel tonight, Bill?"

"As weak as water," replied Sikes. "Here, lend me a hand and help me to get off this bed."

Bill Sikes had been very ill since the attempted robbery. Nancy stayed with him and took great care of him. Illness, however, had not improved his temper. As the girl raised him up and led him to a chair, he cursed her awkwardness and struck her.

"Don't be too hard on me, Bill," she said, putting her hand upon his shoulder. "I have been nursing and caring for you, as if you had been a child. This is the first night I've seen you better."

At that moment Fagin appeared at the door, followed by the Artful Dodger and Charles Bates.

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"Why, what evil wind has blown you here?" said Sikes to Fagin.

"Ah!" said Fagin, rubbing his hands with great satisfaction. "You're better, Bill, I can see."

"Better!" exclaimed Sikes. "Come, tell me. What do you mean by leaving me in this state for three weeks without even asking about me?"

"I was away from London, a week and more, my dear, on business," replied the Jew.

"And what about the other fortnight that you've left me lying here like a sick rat?" inquired Sikes.

"I couldn't help it, Bill, upon my honour," said Fagin.

"Upon your what?" shouted Sikes.

"Don't get in a temper, my dear," said Fagin. "I have never forgotten you, Bill, never once."

"If it hadn't been for the girl, I would have died," said Sikes.

"Ah! And who brought you such a sweet girl?"

"He says true enough, there!" said Nancy.

"Oh, well," said Sikes to the Jew, "but I must have some money from you tonight."

"I haven't a coin about me," replied the Jew.

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"You've got lots at home," said Sikes, "and I must have some from there."

"Very well," said Fagin with a sigh. "I'll send the Artful Dodger now."

"Oh, no," said Sikes. "Nancy will go and get it; and I'll lie down and have a short sleep while she's gone."

The Jew took leave of Sikes and returned home, accompanied by Nancy and the boys.

D. When they arrived at Fagin's house, the Jew sent the boys away.

"I'll go and get that money, Nancy," said the Jew as he took out a small key. Suddenly there was a noise.

"Listen," said Fagin, hiding the key in his pocket. "Who's that?"

The door opened and a tall man appeared. It was Monks. When she saw Nancy, he stepped back.

"She's one of my people," said Fagin. "Don't move, Nancy."

Nancy looked very closely at Monks.

"Any news?" inquired Fagin.

"Great," replied Monks. "I have been quick enough this time. Let me have a word with you."

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did not know what to do. Feeling very helpless, she burst into tears.

E. The next day, Sikes was busy eating and drinking with the money that Nancy had brought him from Fagin. He did not notice anything unusual in her behaviour. But towards the evening, Nancy's excitement increased. There was an unusual paleness in her cheek and a fire in her eye that even Sikes observed with astonishment.

"What's the matter?" he said, staring at her.

"Matter?" replied the girl. "Nothing."

"You've caught the fever," he said roughly.

He drank heavily. Nancy waited until he fell asleep. She rose at once, opened the door quietly and closed it behind her.

It was half past nine. Nancy hurried through the dark streets towards the West End of London. At last she stopped before a hotel in a quiet but handsome street near Hyde Park. After standing for a few seconds as though making up her mind, she entered the hall.

"Now, young woman!" said a smartly-dressed maid, "who do you want here?"

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Fagin, pointing upward, took Monks out of the room.

Nancy got suspicious as well as curious. She slipped off her shoes and followed the two men to overhear what they were talking about. It was very dark upstairs, and neither Fagin nor Monks saw her. She heard every word of their conversation.

The conversation continued for a quarter of an hour. Before they came down, Nancy glided back softly. Immediately afterwards the two men came down, and Monks left the house at once.

Fagin went upstairs again for the money. When he returned the girl was preparing to go.

"Nancy," said the Jew, "how pale you are!"

"Pale!" repeated Nancy.

"Quite horrible," said Fagin. "What have you been doing to yourself?"

"Nothing," said Nancy carelessly. "I've been sitting here long enough. Come, let me get back."

She took the money and left the house. When she was in the open street, she sat down upon a doorstep and seemed, for a few moments, bewildered and unable to walk. She

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"Miss Rose Maylie," said Nancy.

She was led to a room upstairs.

"Good evening," said Rose as Nancy entered her room. "What can I do for you?"

The kind tone, the sweet voice, the gentle manner took Nancy completely by surprise, and she burst into tears.

"Sit down," said Rose. "If you need money or if you're in trouble, I'll be glad to help you. Sit down."

"Is that door shut?" said Nancy, wiping away her tears.

"Yes," said Rose. "Why?"

"Because," said Nancy, "I am about to put my life, and the lives of others, in your hands."

She paused for a moment and then went on, "You see, I am the girl that dragged Oliver back to Fagin when he was staying with the old man."

"You?" exclaimed Rose.

"Yes, madam," replied Nancy. "No one knows I'm here, or they would murder me. Do you know a man called Monks?"

"No," said Rose. "I have never heard the name."

"He knows you," replied Nancy. "He knows you're here. I heard him speak about

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you and this place. This is how I found you."

Rose looked puzzled.

"Some time ago," Nancy went on, "soon after the night of the robbery at your house in Chertsey, Fagin came to visit me. I heard him say that Oliver was worth hundreds of pounds. He wanted him back and alive. I got suspicious, though I tried hard not to show it. When he left, he didn't know that I was following him. Near Fagin's house, this man, Monks, met him and they went inside. I followed them and overheard their conversation. I found out that Monks had seen by chance Oliver with two of our boys on the day we first lost him. Monks had immediately recognized Oliver as the same child that he was watching for, though I couldn't make out why. Monks promised Fagin a sum of money if Oliver was got back; and he was to have more for making him a thief."

"But why?" asked Rose.

"I couldn't find out," said Nancy. "I had to escape because Monks saw my shadow on the wall as I listened. I didn't see him again until last night."

"And what happened then?"

"Last night he came again. Fagin took him upstairs. I went after them. I was very careful



this time and no one caught sight of me or my shadow. The first words I heard Monks say were these: 'So the only proofs of the boy's identity lie at the bottom of the river, and the woman that received them from his mother is dead'."

"What's all this?" said Rose.

"This is the truth, madam," said Nancy. "Then he said that if he could kill the boy without putting himself in trouble, he would do it at once; but since he couldn't, he would be prepared to meet him at any time and harm him. 'In short,' he said to Fagin, 'I'll cause all sorts of troubles to my young brother, Oliver'."

"His brother!" exclaimed Rose.

"Those were Monks's words," said Nancy. "And now, madam, I've said what I wanted to say. It is growing late and I have to get back."

"But what can I do?" said Rose. "Wait. Why do you wish to return to wicked companions? If you repeat this information to a gentleman whom I know, you can be put in a safe place without delay."

"I wish to go back," said the girl. "I must go back, because among those wicked people

there is one man I love and can't leave. He's sick now and needs my help."

"Please listen to me," said Rose, "and let me help you."

"Madam," said Nancy, "It's too late now. If I had met you years ago, I might have changed. But it's too late, too late. I can't leave him now in spite of all my suffering and his cruelty."

"What shall I do?" said Rose. "How can we save Oliver?"

"You must know someone who will advise you what to do," answered Nancy.

"But where can I find you again if it is necessary?"

"Do you promise me that you will keep my secret and come to meet me alone or with the only other person who knows it?"

"I promise," replied Rose.

"Every Sunday night, from eleven till midnight," said Nancy, "I'll walk on London Bridge."

She immediately turned and left the room. Rose sank into a chair and tried to collect her wandering thoughts.

Glossary					
A. deserted	/di'zɑ:tɪd/	حائى ، مهجور	improved	/ɪm'pru:vɪd/	حسن
customer	/kʌstəmə/	زبون	temper	/tempə/	مراج
greeting	/'gri:tɪŋ/	تحية	cursed	/kɑ:st/	لعن ، شتم
desire	/di'zaɪə/	رغبة	awkwardness	/o:kwədnis/	إرتباك
steal a look	/sti:l ə'lʊk/	يحنس نظرة	struck	/strʌk/	ضرب
harsh	/hɑ:f/	حش ، عليل	satisfaction	/sə'tɪsfəkʃn/	رضى ، ارتياح
aware	/ə'weə/	مدرك ، عارف	state	/steɪt/	حالة
not that I am aware of		كلا على حد علمي	honour	/ɒnə/	شرف
curious	/'kjʊəriəs/	فضول ، محب للاستطلاع	if it hadn't been for the girl		ولا انما
interest (n)	/'ɪntrəst/	مصنحة ، مفعة	sigh	/saɪ/	تهدئة
objection	/'ɒbdʒekʃn/	اعتراض	suspicious	/sə'spiʃəs/	شكوك
extra	/'ekstrə/	اصنافي	slipped off	/'slipt ɒf/	حنفت
memory	/'meməri/	ذاكرة	overhear	/ouvə'hɪə/	تسرق السمع
scene	/si:n/	مشهد	glided back	/'glɑɪdɪd 'bæk/	اسلت عتدة
apprenticed	/'æprɛntɪst/	تدرت على حرفه ، تدرت	softly	/'sɒftli/	برقة ، بهدوء
nursed	/'nɜ:st/	عنت (بالرضع)	bewildered	/'bi:wɪldəd/	حائرة ،
fixedly	/'fɪksɪdli/	صورة ثابتة	helpless	/'helplɪs/	عاجر
interest (v.)	/'ɪntrəst/	تدري	behaviour	/'bi:heɪvjə/	سوك
obscure	/'ɒbskjʊə/	مهم ، غير واضح	paleness	/'peɪlnɪs/	شحوب
B. overlooking	/'ouvə'lʊkɪŋ/	مطل على	make up her mind	/'meɪk ʌp hɜ: 'maɪnd/	تصمم ، تقرر
sum	/'sʌm/	مجموع	observed	/'ɒbzə:vɪd/	لاحظ
locket	/'lɒkɪt/	عنة صغيرة (من الذهب)	handsome	/'hænsəm/	اجيد ، جميل
		تدلى من الرقة بحتفظ	smartly-dressed	/'smɑ:tli 'drest/	ابفة الحسن
		فيها تذكارات	manner	/'mænə/	سلوك ، تصرف
locks	/'lɒks/	حاصلات	puzzled	/'pʌzld/	حائر
wedding ring	/'wedɪŋ rɪŋ/	حاته الزواج	recognized	/'rekəgnaɪzd/	معر ، عرف
engraved	/'ɪŋ'greɪvd/	مغوش ، محفور	make out	/'meɪk 'aʊt/	مهم ، ادرك
threatening look	/'θretnɪŋ 'lʊk/	مطرة تهديد	proofs	/'pru:fs/	دلائل ، براهين
C. awakened	/'ə'weɪknd/	استيقظ	identity	/'aɪ'dentəti/	هوية شخصية

## CHAPTER 10

A. The Maylies intended to stay only three days in London before they left for a distant part of the coast for a few weeks.

It was now midnight of the first day. Rose Maylie was still awake. Her situation was indeed very difficult. What course of action should she take? How could she delay the journey without arousing suspicion? If she talked to Dr. Losberne, he would be very angry because she had received a woman like Nancy, and had let her go without calling the police. If she talked to Mrs. Maylie, the old woman would first tell the doctor.

Rose passed a sleepless and anxious night. On the next day, she decided to write to Harry and ask his advice.

"It'll be painful to him to come back here and see me," she thought, "but it'll be more painful to me to see him again. But perhaps he will not come. Perhaps he's learnt to forget me."

Tears rose to her eyes as she thought of him and their last parting. She was about to write the letter when Oliver, breathless and excited, entered the room.

"I've seen the gentleman," said Oliver. "Mr. Brownlow, the man who was so good to me."

"Where?" asked Rose eagerly.

"Getting out of a coach," replied Oliver, panting heavily, "and going into his house. You see, I was with Giles and we were taking a walk in that area. I want to go there now."

"All right, Oliver," said Rose. "I'll take you there now. Tell them to fetch a coach."

B. When they arrived at Mr. Brownlow's house, Rose left Oliver in the coach to prepare the old gentleman to receive him. Mr. Brownlow was in his study and Rose was led there.

Rose greeted Mr. Brownlow and introduced herself.

"Have a seat, Miss Maylie." Rose sat down.

"Now," continued Mr. Brownlow. "What can I do for you?"

"Mr. Brownlow," started Rose, "you once showed great kindness to a very dear young

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"Good gracious," cried the old nurse, embracing him, "it is my boy."

"My dear old nurse!" cried Oliver.

"He would come back — I knew he would," said the old woman, holding him in his arms. "He looks very well, and he's dressed very well. Where have you been all this time? Ah! The same sweet face, but not so pale; the same soft eyes, but not so sad."

Leaving her with Oliver, Mr. Brownlow led the way into another room and there heard from Rose everything of her meeting with Nancy. She also explained her reasons for not talking to Dr. Losberne on the subject. Mr. Brownlow thought that she had acted wisely and promised to talk to Dr. Losberne himself. It was arranged that he should call at the hotel at eight o'clock that evening, and that in the meantime Mrs. Maylie should be told of everything.

Shortly afterwards Rose and Oliver returned home.

C. In the evening, Mr. Brownlow visited Mrs. Maylie in her room in the hotel. Rose and Dr. Losberne were there. When the story of Nancy's visit was told, Dr. Losberne got very angry. His first decision was to tell the

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friend of mine, and I'm sure you'll take an interest in hearing of him again."

"Indeed!" said Mr. Brownlow.

"He's Oliver Twist."

Mr. Brownlow stared at her with surprise.

"Oh, yes," said Mr. Brownlow. "What do you know about him?"

Rose at once told him all that had happened to Oliver since he left Mr. Brownlow's house.

"Oliver's been very sad for the last few months," added Rose, "because he could not meet you."

"Thank God!" said the old gentleman. "This is great happiness to me. But you haven't told me where he is now, Miss Maylie."

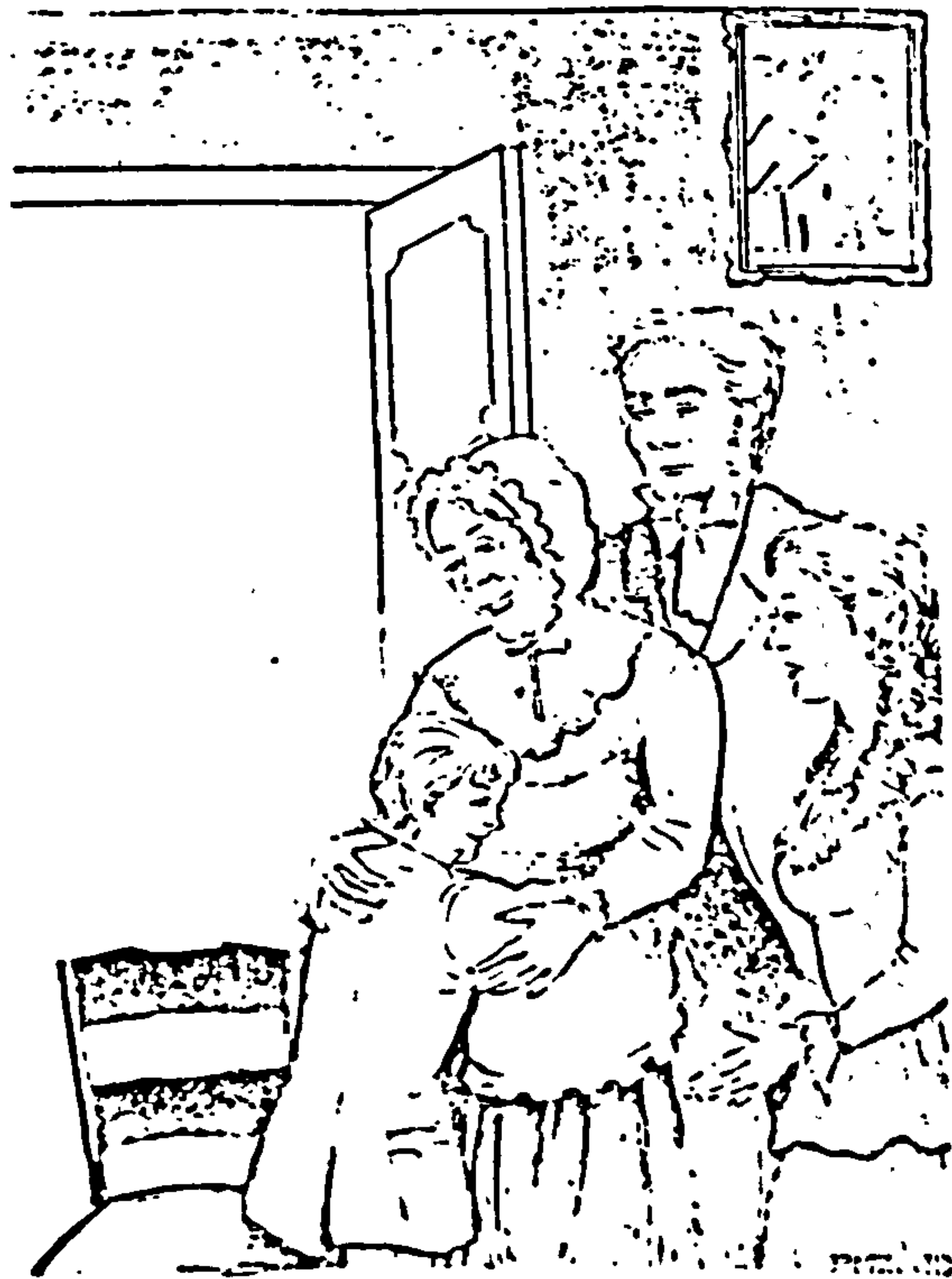
"He's waiting in a coach at the door," replied Rose.

"At the door!" cried the old gentleman, hurrying out of the room and down the stairs without another word. He returned, accompanied by Oliver.

"There is somebody else who should not be forgotten," said Mr. Brownlow and called Mrs. Bedwin.

The old housekeeper came quickly and stood at the door. Oliver sprang into her arms.

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police. But Mr. Brownlow persuaded him that that was not the correct thing to do at the moment. "We must proceed gently and with great care," added Mr. Brownlow.

"Gently!" exclaimed the doctor. "I'd send them all to —"

"Never mind where," interrupted Mr. Brownlow. "We have to realize that sending them anywhere is not likely to achieve our aim."

"What aim?" asked the doctor.

"Simply, the discovery of Oliver's parentage," replied Mr. Brownlow.

"I see," said the doctor. "Then what do you suggest?"

"Well," said Mr. Brownlow, "It is quite clear that we shall have extreme difficulty in getting to the bottom of this mystery, unless we bring this man, Monks, to his knees. This has to be thought out and planned very carefully. We must catch him when he is not surrounded by these people. You see, even if Monks is arrested, we have no proof against him. He is very clever: he is not even connected with any of the robberies that the gang have committed."

"What about Rose's promise to Nancy?" asked the doctor, "You're not suggesting we should keep it?"

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supper has been announced; and young Oliver, who is all alone in the next room, has probably begun to think we've forgotten him."

With these words, the old gentleman led the way to the dining-room of the hotel.

D. It was Sunday night, and the bell of the nearest church struck eleven. Sikes and the Jew were talking, but they paused to listen. Nancy looked up from the low seat on which she lay, and listened too.

Trying hard to hide her anxiety, Nancy stood up and put on her hat and was now leaving the room.

"Nancy," cried Sikes. "Where are you going at this hour?"

"Not far?"

"What kind of answer is that?" said Sikes roughly. "Where are you going?"

"I say, not far."

"And I say where?" returned Sikes. "Do you hear me?"

"I don't know where," replied the girl.

"Then I do," said Sikes. "Nowhere. Sit down."

"I'm not well," said Nancy. "I want a breath of air."

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"Yes I am," said Mr. Brownlow. "The promise shall be kept. I don't think it will interfere with our plans. But before we take any course of action, it will be necessary to see the girl. I'd like to know whether she's ready to point out Monks. If she cannot do that, we'll try to get from her a full description of the man and his haunts so that we can identify him. She cannot be seen until next Sunday night; today is Tuesday. I would suggest that in the meantime we remain perfectly quiet, and keep these matters secret even from Oliver himself."

Dr. Losberne, Rose and Mrs. Maylie agreed to these suggestions.

"I'd like," said Dr. Losberne, "to get the help of a friend of mine; he's a very good lawyer."

"Who's he?" asked Mr. Brownlow.

"That lady's son, and this young lady's — very old friend," said the doctor, pointing first to Mrs. Maylie and then to her niece.

Rose blushed deeply, but she did not make any objection. Mr. Brownlow nodded his head with agreement.

"We shall stay in town," said Mrs. Maylie, "until this case is settled."

"Good," said Mr. Brownlow. "And now,

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"Put your head out of the window," replied Sikes.

"There's not enough there," said the girl. "I want it in the street."

"Then you won't have it," shouted Sikes as he rose and locked the door. He then pulled her hat from her head and threw it on the top of an old cupboard. "There," he said. "Now stay quietly where you are, will you?"

"Do you think the hat will stop me?" said Nancy turning very pale. "What do you mean, Bill? Do you know what you're doing?"

"Know what I'm — oh!" cried Sikes turning to Fagin. "She's lost her senses, you know, or she wouldn't dare to talk to me in that way."

"Let me go," said Nancy, "this instant, this instant."

"No!" said Sikes.

"Tell him to let me go, Fagin," cried Nancy.

"Look," shouted Sikes. "If you don't stop, I'll have the dog tear your throat out."

"Let me go," said Nancy and sat down on the floor. "Bill, let me go. For only one hour."

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"The girl's mad," cried Sikes, seizing her violently by the arm. "Get up."

"Not till you let me go," screamed Nancy.

Sikes dragged her into a small room. He threw her into a chair and held her down by force. She struggled and begged until twelve o'clock, and then, feeling exhausted, she became quiet. Sikes left her in the room and joined Fagin.

"Whew!" said Sikes, wiping the sweat from his face. "What a strange girl she is!"

"You may well say that, Bill," replied Fagin thoughtfully. "You may well say that."

"What do you think is the matter with her?" said Sikes. "Come; you should know her better than me. What does it mean?"

"Obstinacy; woman's obstinacy, I suppose."

"Well, I suppose it is," growled Sikes. "I thought I had tamed her, but she's as wild as ever."

Later, Fagin rose, wished Sikes good night and left the house.

He walked towards his home, thinking deeply of Sikes and Nancy. Her strange behaviour that evening made him think that Nancy, tired of Sikes's cruelty, had found a new friend. The girl's altered manner, her

repeated absences from home alone, her recent indifference to the interests of the gang and her impatience that night to leave home at a certain hour, all seemed to confirm it.

Before he reached his home, he had made his plans. He would have Nancy watched and discover who her new friend was.

Glossary		
A. intended	/in'tendid/	توى ، قَصَدَ
coast	/koust/	ساحل
course of action	/ko:s əv 'lækʃn/	إجراء
delay	/di'lei/	تأخر
arousing	/ə'rauziŋ/	إثارة
suspicion	/sə'spiʃn/	شك
sleepless	/sli:plis/	مبدون نوم
advice	/əd'vais/	نصيحة
parting	/pa:tiŋ/	فراق
breathless	/b'reθlis/	منقطع النفس ، لاهت
excited	/ik'saitid/	محمول
panting	/pa:ntiŋ/	لاهت
heavily	/hevili/	صعبة
coach	/koutʃ/	عربة
B. introduced	/intrə'dju:st/	قدمت
accompanied by	/ə'kæmpənid baɪ/	مرافقه
Good gracious	/gud 'greɪʃəs/	سبحان الله ، يا نعم
embracing	/im breisiŋ/	معانقة
meantime	/mi:ntaim/	في أثناء
C. realize	/ri:əlaiz/	يتذكر
achieve	/ə'tʃi:v/	يحقق
aim	/eim/	هدف
parentage	/peərɪntidʒ/	أصل
extreme	/ik'stri:m/	شديد ، بالغ
mystery	/mɪstəri/	غم
thought out	/θo:t 'aut/	بمكر ، وبفهم جيد
committed	/kə'mɪtɪd/	اقترب ، ارتكبت
promise	/'promɪs/	وعد
interfere with	/ɪntə'fɪə wɪz/	يتعارض مع ، يعرقل

haunt	/ho:nt/	وى ، مكان يرتاده
identify	/aɪ'dentɪfaɪ/	عرف على هوية أو شخص
blush	/blʌʃ/	احمر وجهه ، حملا
settled	/'setld/	سكن
announce	/ə'naʊns/	أعلن
D. struck	/'strʌk/	ضرب
hide	/haɪd/	خفي
cupboard	/'kʌbəd/	دولاب ملابس
out of her senses	/'aʊt əv hɜː 'sensɪz/	تفت من وعيها
grip	/'grɪp/	قبض
exhausted	/'ɪgzɔ:stɪd/	فقد
sweat	/'swet/	عرق
obstinacy	/'ɒbstɪnəsi/	عناد
tame	/'teɪm/	تames
altered	/'ɒ:ltdəd/	أبدل ، غير
absence	/'æbsəns/	غياب
indifference	/'ɪndɪfrəns/	إكتراف
confirm	/'kən fə:m/	أكد
certain	/'sɜ:tɪn/	محدد

## CHAPTER 11

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Fagin received the news very sadly. He then decided to send one of the boys to attend the trial.

The Dodger came into the court-room and took his place in the dock.

"Why do you bring me here," shouted the Dodger.

"Hold your tongue, will you?" said a policeman.

"What do you mean?" insisted the Dodger. "Where are my rights?"

"You'll get your rights soon enough," said the policeman.

"I'll report you to the Minister of Home Affairs," shouted the Dodger. "What is this business all about? I hope the judge will not keep me here too long. I've got an appointment with a friend in the City, and since I'm very punctual, I should be there on time."

The audience laughed.

"Silence, there!" cried the policeman.

The judge appeared and sat down to hear the case.

"It's a pickpocketing case, your honour," said the policeman.

"Has the accused been here before?"

"Yes, your honour," said the policeman.

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A. Two days later, the Artful Dodger got into trouble. The police had accused him of attempting to pick a pocket, and finding some expensive articles on him, they arrested him.

Fagin was anxious about him.

"The police know what a clever fellow he is," said Fagin to his pupils. "He's been wanted for some time now, but there wasn't enough evidence against him. But it's different this time."

At this moment, Charlie Bates entered the room.

"It's all over, Fagin," said Charlie.

"What do you mean?" shouted Fagin.

"The police have got strong evidence against the Dodger," replied Charlie. "They've found the owners of the articles that were on the Dodger; some more people are coming to identify him. It's all over. The Dodger will certainly be banished from the country."

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"He's been everywhere. The police know him very well."

"Where are the witnesses," said the clerk.

"Ah! That's right," shouted the Dodger.

"Where are they?"

"Silence," said the judge solemnly. "Call the witnesses."

The first witness was called. He was the policeman who had arrested him. He told the court that he had seen the prisoner pick the pocket of a gentleman. Other witnesses were called and they all testified against the Dodger.

"This isn't a court of justice," shouted the Dodger when the last witness left the court. "Besides, my lawyer is not here. He's having breakfast with very important people in the government."

The audience laughed again.

The judge then gave this decision. The Artful Dodger was found guilty and was sentenced to many years' imprisonment. He was immediately taken to prison and was locked up in a little cell.

B. Days passed: it was Sunday night again. Sikes was away, so Nancy left the house and went towards London Bridge. It was a very

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dark night. Nancy did not notice that one of Fagin's gang was following her at some distance.

It was a quarter to twelve when she arrived at the bridge. At nearly the middle of the bridge she stopped and waited. Her pursuer stopped, too, hiding himself in the deepest shadow he could find.

Two minutes later, Rose, accompanied by Mr. Brownlow, appeared on the bridge. Nancy walked towards them.

"Not here," said Nancy in a low voice as she joined them. "I'm afraid to speak to you here. Come away — down those steps." She pointed to the steps that led to river bank under the bridge. The man who was following Nancy went there quickly and hid in a dark turning in the flight of steps. He drew himself against the wall and listened attentively as they came down.

"This is far enough," said Mr. Brownlow. "Why do you bring us to this strange, gloomy place?"

"I told you before," said Nancy. "I was afraid to speak to you there."

"You were not here last Sunday night," said Mr. Brownlow.

"I couldn't come," replied Nancy. "I was kept by force."

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not be brought to justice without your agreement."

"Monks should not know that I have told you," said Nancy.

"Never," replied Mr. Brownlow.

Then, in a very low voice, Nancy started to describe the public-house where Monks was to be found and the night and hour on which he went there. "He is tall," continued the girl, "and a strongly built man. He's probably not more than twenty eight but he looks older. His eyes are deeply sunk in his head, and his face is dark, like his hair and eyes. I think that's all I can give you to know him by. Wait, though," she added, "Upon his throat there is —"

"A broad red mark, like a burn?" cried Mr. Brownlow.

"How is this?" said the girl. "You know him!"

Rose uttered a cry of surprise.

"I think I do," said Mr. Brownlow. "I should by your description. We shall see. Many people look alike. He may not be the same man. And now, young woman, you've given us a lot of help. I wish to reward you. What can I do for you?"

"Nothing," replied Nancy.

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"By whom?"

"Him; the man I told the young lady about before," replied Nancy.

"Did he suspect anything?" asked Mr. Brownlow.

"No," replied Nancy, shaking her head.

"Good," said Mr. Brownlow. "Now listen to me. I believe I can trust you. We have decided to force the secret, whatever it is, from this man Monks. But if — if he cannot be secured, you have to deliver up the Jew."

"Fagin?" cried the girl, starting back.

"Yes," said Mr. Brownlow.

"I will not do it!" replied Nancy. "He's very wicked and I hate him; but I'll never do that."

"Then," said Mr. Brownlow, "put Monks into my hands and leave him to me to deal with."

"What if he turns against Fagin and the others?"

"I promise you that if the truth is forced from Monks, the case will rest there and the others shall go free."

"Suppose Monks will not speak," said Nancy. "What then?"

"Then," said Mr. Brownlow, "Fagin will

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"You must tell me," said Mr. Brownlow kindly.

"Nothing, sir, you can do nothing to help me. I am past all hope," she said and burst into tears.

"You can leave your companions," said Mr. Brownlow. "We can help you. We can send you to a quiet and safe place, either here in England, or, if you're afraid to remain here, in some foreign country. Come, leave them while you have the chance."

"I can't, sir," said Nancy. "I'm chained to my old life. I've gone too far to turn back. I must go home now."

"Home!" repeated Rose.

"Home, madam," answered Nancy. "Let's part. All I ask is for you to leave me and let me go my way alone."

"It's useless," said Mr. Brownlow with a sigh. Then he and Rose went up the steps to the bridge and were gone. Nancy sank down upon one of the stairs and cried with bitter tears.

After a time, she went up the steps to the road. The astonished spy remained quiet for some minutes. Then he crept slowly from his hiding-place and, reaching the top of the steps, ran towards the Jew's house.

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C. The spy told Fagin everything he had heard and seen. Fagin sat with a face so pale and eyes so red, that he looked like a ghost. He was deeply occupied with his wicked thoughts.

He remained silent for quite a long time. At last the door bell rang gently. He went to the door and returned with Bill Sikes.

Sikes had been trying to rob a house that night and had come to Fagin at this late hour to give him the stolen articles. Fagin looked at Sikes for a long time.

"What is it now?" growled Sikes.

"I've got something to tell you," said Fagin. "Something that won't please you."

"What is it?" shouted Sikes.

Fagin did not answer. He called the spy.

"Tell me that again, once again; just for him to hear," said the Jew, pointing to Sikes as he spoke.

The spy repeated his story.

"Hell!" cried Sikes and jumped up to leave the room. Fagin tried to stop him, but he shouted, "Let me go," as he went to the door.

"Bill, Bill," cried Fagin, following him. "A word. Only a word."

Sikes couldn't open the door.

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"Bill," she said, "please, Bill. You cannot have the heart to kill me. Think of all I have given up for you. I have been true to you. Bill, dear Bill."

Sikes freed one hand and grasped his pistol. He did not fire for he knew that it was dangerous. He beat it twice with all his strength on Nancy's face.

She fell down. Blood covered her face. Raising herself with great difficulty, she began to wipe the blood from her eyes and face.

It was a terrible sight to look at. Sikes stepped backward to the wall and, seizing a heavy stick, he struck her very hard again and again until she fell dead.

D. Morning came at last. Sikes threw a rug over the still body. He was very afraid: it was terrible to think of the eyes, and imagine them moving towards him.

He lit a fire and threw the stick into it. He washed himself and rubbed his clothes. There were spots that could not be removed, but he cut the pieces out, and burnt them. There were stains here and there. The very feet of the dog were stained with blood.

Having completed his preparations and cleaned the dog's feet, he moved towards the

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"Let me out," he shouted. "Don't speak to me; it's not safe. Let me out, I say!"

"Listen to me," said Fagin.

"Well?" replied the other.

"You won't be too violent with her, Bill?"

Sikes made no reply, but pulling the door open, he rushed into the silent street.

Without one pause or a moment's consideration, Sikes ran to his house. He opened the door softly and went straight to his room. He locked the door behind him and pushed a heavy table against it.

Nancy was in bed.

"Get up," shouted Sikes.

"It is you, Bill," said the girl with an expression of pleasure at his return.

"Get up," repeated Sikes fiercely.

"Bill," said the girl in the low voice of alarm, "why do you look at me like this?"

Sikes dragged her by the hand to the middle of the room, and put his heavy hand upon her mouth.

"Bill, Bill!" gasped the girl, struggling with fear. "I won't scream. Hear me... speak to me... tell me what I have done."

"You know", said Sikes. "You were watched tonight. Every word you said was heard."

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RMZ. J.D.

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door, dragging the dog with him. He shut the door softly, locked it, took the key, and left the house.

He walked towards the country and he spent the whole day running and hiding, with the dog following him. In the evening he had supper at a public-house in a small village.

After supper, he left the public-house, lest someone should recognize him. He took the road leading out of the village. As he left it behind him, he felt a great fear creeping upon him. It was very dark, and every object before him, still or moving, took the shape of some fearful thing. He was haunted by a dreadful vision: the girl's murdered body seemed to follow him.

At last he decided to rest in a field. But that was impossible. Nancy's widely staring eyes, lifeless and glassy, appeared in the darkness. There were but two, but they were everywhere. He remained in such terror, trembling and sweating until the morning.

Suddenly he decided to go back to London. "There's somebody to speak to there," he thought. "A good hiding-place, too. They'll never catch me there."

Then he thought of the dog: the animal might lead to his arrest. After a moment's

thought, he decided to kill the animal by drowning him in a pond.

"Come here!" cried Sikes.

The dog came up to him. But as Sikes stopped to tie a handkerchief to the dog's throat, the animal made a low growl and started back.

"Come back!" said Sikes.

The dog wagged his tail but did not move.

Sikes advanced towards him, but the dog turned and ran away at full speed and disappeared in the fields.

Glossary		
A. accused him	/ə'kju:zd him/	اتهموه
attempt	/ə'tempt/	يحاولون
pick a pocket	/pik ə'pokit/	يشال جيب شخص
articles	/ə'tɪklz/	أشياء
wanted	/wɒntɪd/	مضروب
evidence	/eɪdɪns/	دليل
it's all over	/ɪts ə'l o:ɪ 'ləʊvə/	انتهى كل شيء
banished	/bənɪʃt/	بقي ، بقى
attend	/ə'tend/	يحضر
trial	/traɪəl/	محاكمة
dock	/dɒk/	فصل الأنواء
tongue	/tʌŋ/	لسان
insisted	/ɪn'sɪstɪd/	صرخ ، تصرخ
rights	/raɪts/	حقوق
report	/rɪ'pɔ:t/	بمع الاستغاث عن ، بشكو
Minister of Home Affairs		وزير الشؤون الداخلية
appointment	/ə'pɔɪntmɛnt/	موعد
punctual	/pʌŋktʃʊəl/	معتاد في مواعيد
audience	/ɔ:diəns/	جمهور ، متفرجين
silence	/saɪləns/	صمت ، هدوء ، سكوت
your honour	/jo:ɪ 'ɒnə/	سددك
witness	/wɪtnɪs/	شاهد (في قضية)
testify against	/tɛstɪfaɪ ə'geɪnst/	يتهم ضد
justice	/dʒʌstɪs/	عدالة
decision	/dɪ'sɪʒn/	قرار حكم
guilty	/gɪltɪ/	مذنب
B. pursuer	pə'sju:ə/	مضاد
turning	/tɜ:nɪŋ/	تصرف
flight	/flaɪt/	مجموعة من درجات السن

by force	/baɪ'fɔ:s/	بخبرة
secure	/sɪ'kjʊə/	مطمئن
turn	/tɜ:n/	تصرف
force (v.)	/fɔ:s/	تستخدمه القوة
deliver up	/dɪ'lɪvə ʌp/	سليم
agreement	/ə'grɪ:mənt/	اتفاق
rest	/rest/	سفر
public house	/pʌblɪk haʊs/	بيت
sunk	/sʌŋk/	غرق
broad	/brɔ:d/	واسع
throat	/θrəʊt/	مخروط
uttered	/ʻʌtəd/	صفت (صحة)
chained	/tʃeɪnd/	تقييد
crept	/krep/	سار
(p.p. of creep)		
C. spy	/spaɪ/	تجسس
ghost	/gəʊst/	شبح
occupied	/ɒkjʊpaɪd/	تحتل
violent	/vaɪələnt/	عنيف
consideration	/kən'sɪdərəɪʃn/	كرامة
expression	/ɪk'spreʃn/	تعبير
gaspd	/gɑ:spt/	تأثرت
D. rug	/rʌg/	سجادة
still	/stɪl/	سكنى
lit	/lɪt/	شام
spots	/spɒts/	بقع
removed	/rɪ'mu:vɪd/	مزال
stains	/steɪnz/	نحاح
creep	/kri:p/	تسلل
was haunted	/wəz 'ho:ntɪd/	كأنه يترقب

lifeless	/laɪflɪs/	بدون حياة
object	/ˈɒbdʒɪkt/	شيء
glassy	/ˈglɑːsi/	الهاء
hiding-place	/ˈhaɪdɪŋ pleɪs/	مخاض
drowning	/ˈdraʊnɪŋ/	إغراق
pond	/pɒnd/	بركة ماء راكم
growl	/graʊl/	زئير ، همهمة
wagged	/wægd/	هر من جانب لجان

## CHAPTER 12

A. One evening, as Monks was going into the Three Cripples, his favourite public-house, he heard a voice whisper in his ear, "Do you want to know where Oliver is?" The speaker was Mr. Brownlow.

Monks stopped; he was completely taken by surprise. Mr. Brownlow walked to the corner of the street where a carriage was waiting, and Monks followed. As soon as they arrived there, Mr. Brownlow gave a sign to two strong men, who were standing near the carriage. They jumped forward, got hold of Monks and forced him to get into the carriage. Mr. Brownlow followed and the carriage hurried away at full speed.

They arrived at Mr. Brownlow's house. Mr. Brownlow descended from the carriage and knocked softly. As the door was opened, the two strong men got out of the carriage, helped

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out Monks and, taking him between them, hurried him into the house.

They took him upstairs without speaking, and Mr. Brownlow led the way into a back room. They stopped at the door.

"If he hesitates or refuses to obey you," said Mr. Brownlow to the two men, "drag him into the street, call the police and let them arrest him as a criminal."

"How dare you say this of me?" asked Monks.

"How dare you urge me to it, young man?" said Mr. Brownlow. "Are you mad enough to leave this house? Release him. There, you are free to go, and we to follow. But I warn you that the moment you leave, I'll have you arrested on a charge of fraud and robbery."

"By what authority am I kidnapped and brought here?" asked Monks.

"By mine," replied Mr. Brownlow firmly. "If you complain, you'll have the chance to seek the help of the law; but then, I will appeal to the law too. But do not ask me for mercy when it is too late."

Monks was alarmed. He hesitated.

"You will decide quickly," continued Mr. Brownlow. "If you want me to charge you in

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public, you know the way. If not, then go in and sit in that chair."

"Is there... no middle course?" asked Monks.

"None," replied Mr. Brownlow.

Monks looked at the old gentleman anxiously and, reading in his face nothing but firm determination, he walked into the room and sat down.

"Lock the door on the outside," said Mr. Brownlow to the two men, "and come when I ring."

B. When Monks and Mr. Brownlow were alone in the room, they sat down.

"This is pretty treatment, sir," said Monks, throwing down his hat, "from my father's best friend."

"It is because I was your father's best friend, young man," returned Mr. Brownlow, "that I'm moved to treat you gently now... yes, Edward Leeford, even now... and I blush for your wickedness, you who bear his name. I'm glad you have changed it."

"This is all very well," said Monks, "but what do you want with me?"

"You have a brother," started Mr. Brownlow.

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"I have no brother," interrupted Monks. "You know I was an only child."

"Yes, I do," replied Mr. Brownlow. "I know that when your father was very young, his family's pride and narrow ambition forced him into an unhappy marriage. You were the only child. But I also know that the marriage was a slow torture to both your father and mother until at last they were divorced."

"Well," said Monks, "and what of that?"

"Your father then met a new friend," said Mr. Brownlow. "He was a retired navy officer whose wife had died and left him two daughters: one a beautiful girl of nineteen, and the other a mere child of two or three years old."

"So what?" asked Monks.

"Your father," continued Mr. Brownlow, "fell madly in love with the first daughter. And again because of his family's pride and ambition, he couldn't marry her openly. So they got married secretly. The result of this secret marriage was Oliver, your brother."

"Your story is a long one," observed Monks, moving restlessly in his chair.

"But it's a true one," replied Mr. Brownlow and paused. Then he continued, "No one knew of that marriage. Shortly afterwards,

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"Yes," said Mr. Brownlow. "I saved him. When I first saw him, his face seemed familiar. Later, I was struck by his strong similarity to the picture of his mother. I kept him here until he was kidnapped. That you know very well, don't you?"

"Why should I?" asked Monks hastily.

"It's no use denying," replied Mr. Brownlow. "I shall show you that I know more than that."

"You... you... can't prove anything against me," said Monks.

"We shall see," said the old gentleman, with a searching glance. "I lost the boy. I tried my best to find him but I failed. Since your mother was dead, I knew that you alone could solve the mystery. I heard that you were on your farm in the West Indies. So I travelled there, but I found that you had left it months before, and were supposed to be in London. I returned. Your agents did not know where you were staying. I discovered that you were keeping company with the lowest of criminals. I looked for you everywhere, but I couldn't find you."

"And now you have found me," said Monks, rising boldly, "what then? Do you think you can prove your charges against me

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your father had to leave his young bride and go to Rome on urgent business. There he fell ill. Your mother heard the news. She took you with her and went to Rome. Your father died the day after her arrival, leaving no will — *no will!* So all your father's fortune fell to her and you."

Monks wiped his hot face and hands.

"But before your father went to Rome, and as he passed through London on his way," said Mr. Brownlow slowly, fixing his eyes upon the other's face, "he came to me and left with me, among other things, a picture of his young bride. He promised to write to me. Unfortunately I had no letters and I didn't see him again."

"When all was over," said Mr. Brownlow after a short pause, "I decided to find the young wife and give her protection. So I went to the village where she lived. But the family had left that part of the country a week before. No one knew where they had gone."

Monks looked around with a smile of victory.

"But years later, your brother was thrown in my way by a stronger hand than chance. I saved him from a life of vice and crime."

"What?" cried Monks.

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because of a similarity between a child and a picture? Brother! You don't even know that a child was born."

"I did not," replied Mr. Brownlow, rising too, "but during the last fortnight I have learnt it all. You have a brother, you know this; and you know him. There was a will, which your mother destroyed, leaving the secret and the gain to you at her own death. The will contained a reference to a child likely to be the result of the secret marriage. You looked for this child and at last you accidentally met him. Your suspicions were first aroused by his resemblance to your father. You went to the place of his birth. There existed proofs of his birth and parentage. Those proofs were destroyed by you. This was reported to the Jew and these were your own words: 'The only proofs of the boy's identity lie at the bottom of the river, and the old woman that received them from his mother is dead.' You, coward, liar; do you still challenge me?"

"No, no, no!" said Monks, trembling.

"Every word that passed between you and this wicked Jew is known to me," said Mr. Brownlow. "Murder has been done, and you are connected with it."

"No, no," interrupted Monks. "I... I..."

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know nothing of that. I was going to inquire the truth of the story when you caught me."

"It was the revealing of some of your secrets," said Mr. Brownlow, "that was the cause of the murder. And now, will you reveal all the secrets?"

"Yes, I will."

"And sign a statement of facts and repeat it before witnesses?"

"That I promise, too."

"You must do more than that. You must carry out your father's will as far as your brother is concerned, and then go where you please."

At this moment the door was suddenly opened and Dr. Losberne entered, looking very excited.

"The murderer will be found," he cried. "He will be arrested. His dog has been seen. The police think that his master is living nearby. They think he cannot escape."

Mr. Brownlow was pleased to hear this news. A statement was immediately made for Monks and after he signed it, he was released.

C. The police started investigating Nancy's murder as soon as her body was found. One clue led to another. Fagin's and Sikes's other

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crimes were found out and when the police had enough evidence against the band, they arrested Fagin and most of his boys.

When they heard of Fagin's arrest, three members of the band met in an upper room of a ruined house. It was getting dark and the men sat in gloomy silence. The first was Toby Crackit, the second was a young man and the third was a man of fifty.

"When was Fagin taken?" asked Crackit.

"Just at dinner time," answered the second man. "Two o'clock, this afternoon. They took the boys, too."

"Did they take Charlie Bates?" asked the third man.

"No," answered the second man. "He'll be here soon. There's nowhere else to go now, for the people at the Three Cripples are all arrested."

Suddenly, a rapid knocking was heard at the door below. Crackit went to the window. When he returned, he was shaking all over. There was no need to tell them who it was; his pale face was enough. The dog barked and moved towards the door.

"We must let him in," he said, taking up a candle.

Crackit went down to the door, and return-

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ed followed by Sikes. He had a pale face, sunken eyes, hollow cheeks and a beard of three days' growth. He looked like a ghost.

Sikes drew a chair and sat down. There was a long pause. Then Sikes's voice broke the silence.

"How did that dog come here?" he asked.

"Alone. Three hours ago," replied Crackit.

"The evening papers say that Fagin is taken. Is it true?"

"It is," replied Crackit.

They were silent again.

"Damn you all!" said Sikes, passing his hand across his forehead. "Haven't you got anything to say to me?"

There was an uneasy movement among them, but nobody spoke.

"You," said Sikes turning his face to Crackit. "Do you mean to sell me, or to let me stay here till this hunt is over?"

"You may stop here, if you think it safe," returned Crackit after some hesitation.

Suddenly there was a knocking at the door. Crackit left the room and immediately came back with Charlie Bates behind him.

"Toby," said the boy, stepping back as he saw Sikes. "why didn't you tell me this downstairs? Let me go into another room."

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"Charlie," said Sikes, rising and stepping forward. "Don't you... don't you know me?"

"Don't come near me," answered the boy, looking, with horror in his eyes, at the murderer's face. "You monster!"

Sikes stopped half-way, and they looked at each other.

"Look here, you three," said Charlie, becoming more and more excited as he spoke. "Look here, you three. I'm not afraid of him. If the police come here after him, I'll give him up. He may kill me for it if he likes, or if he dares; but if I'm here I'll give him up. Murder! Help!"

Pouring out these cries, Charlie threw himself upon the strong man and brought him heavily to the ground.

Crackit and his two friends did not interfere. Sikes and Charlie rolled on the ground together, but Sikes soon had him down and his knee was on Charlie's throat. Crackit pulled Sikes back with a look of alarm, and pointed to the window. There were lights gleaming below, voices in loud conversation and the noise of footsteps running along the street. Then there was a loud knocking at the door.

"It's the police," whispered Crackit.

"Help!" cried Charlie. "He's here! Break down the door!"

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ed the window Charlie began to shout at the top of his voice, "He's here. He's here. Help! Help!"

Sikes ignored these shouts. He quickly opened the window and climbed to the roof of the house. By this time the people began to move to the back street, their shouts getting louder and louder. They blocked every branch road in the area.

The front door was broken down and Sikes heard the police and other people get in. He was frightened by the fierceness of the crowd and the difficulty of escape. At last he decided to make one last effort for his life by using the rope to drop into the darkest corner of the street. He would then creep away in the darkness and confusion.

He started to act at once. He tied one end of the rope tightly round the chimney of the house. He held the rope with one hand and a knife with the other. As he began to lower himself, he looked behind him on the roof and gave a cry of terror, "The eyes again!"

He staggered as if struck by lightning, lost his balance and fell from the roof to the street below and was dead.

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"Open the door," shouted some voices outside as the beating on the door increased.

"Break down the door!" screamed Charlie. "I tell you they'll never open it. Break down the door."

Sikes dragged Charlie to a back room, threw him in and locked the door. He then turned to Crackit and said quickly, "Is the street door locked?"

"Locked and chained," replied Crackit, who, with the other men, remained quite helpless.

"And the windows?"

"Locked, too."

The cries in the street increased.

"Damn you," cried Sikes desperately, throwing the window open and facing the crowd. "Damn you!"

He then hurried inside.

"Give me a rope," he shouted furiously, "a long rope. They're all in front. I can use a back window and drop into the back street and clear off that way. Give me a rope, or I shall do three more murders and kill myself."

All the windows at the back of the house had been long ago bricked up, except one in the room where Charlie Bates was locked. Sikes went into that room and when he open-

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## Glossary

A. got hold of	/gɒt 'hould əv/	تمسك
descended	/dɪ'sendɪd/	نزل
urge	/ɜ:dʒ/	يحث
release him	/rɪ'li:s hɪm/	أطلق سراحه
charge	/tʃɑ:dʒ/	توهم
fraud	/frɔ:d/	احتيال
authority	/ɔ:'ɒrɪtɪ/	سلطة
kidnapped	/'kɪdnæpt/	أختطف
complain	/'kæm'pleɪn/	تشكو
seek	/si:k/	تطلب
appeal	/ə'pi:l/	يستأنف
determination	/'dɪtə'mɪ'neɪʃn/	تصميم
B. treatment	/'tri:tment/	معاملة
moved	/'mu:vɪd/	أدفع
treat	/'tri:t/	يعامل
pride	/'praɪd/	كبرياء
ambition	/'æmbɪʃn/	طمع
forced him	/'fɔ:st hɪm/	أجبره
divorced	/'dɪvɔ:st/	طلق
retired	/'rɪ'taɪəd/	متقاعد
navy	/'neɪvɪ/	مقاعد
madly	/'mædli/	مجنون
openly	/'əʊpənli/	علنا
bride	/'braɪd/	عروس
urgent	/'ɜ:dʒənt/	عوري ، اضطراري
will	/'wɪl/	وصية
fortune	/'fɔ:tʃən/	ثروة
unfortunately	/'ʌn fə:'tʌnətli/	أسوء الحظ
protection	/'prɒ'tekʃn/	حماية

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victory	/viktəri/	انتصار	sunken eyes	/sʌŋkn 'aiz/	عيان غائرتان
vice	/vais/	رذيلة	hollow cheeks	/həlou 'tʃi:ks/	وحنان غائرتان
crime	/kraim/	جريمة	beard	/biəd/	لحية
familiar	/fə'milia/	مألوف	damn you all	/dʌm ju'ɔ:l/	اللعة عليكم جميعا
I was struck	/ai wəz 'strʌk/	دُمِئتُ ، فوجئتُ	forehead	/fɔrɪd/	حبهة ، حنين
similarity	/simə'lærəti/	تشابه	uneasy	/ʌn'i:zi/	مصطربة
It's no use denying	/ɪts 'nəu lju:s di'naiɪŋ/	ليس هناك فائدة من الإنكار	hunt	/hʌnt/	مطاردة
<u>glance</u>	/glɑ:ns/	نظرة	monster	/mɒnstə/	وحش
searching	/sə:tʃɪŋ/	فاجصة	rolled	/rəuld/	ندحرحا
tried my best	/traɪd maɪ 'best/	حاولت جهدي	chained	/tʃeɪnd/	مقيدة بالسلاسل
solve	/sɒlv/	حل	desperately	/despə'reɪtli/	بأس ونهور
agents	/eɪdʒənts/	وكلاء	facing	/feɪsɪŋ/	مواجهتها
boldly	/bəʊldli/	بجرأة	drop	/drɒp/	أعط
destroyed	/di'strɔɪd/	أفنت	clear off	/kliə 'ɒf/	أهرب
gain	/geɪn/	مكسب	bricked up	/brɪkt 'ʌp/	مسيء بالطابوق
reference	/refərəns/	إشارة	ignored	/ɪg'nɔ:d/	تجاهل
resemblance	/rɪ'zembləns/	تشابه	fierceness	/fiə'snis/	حدة ، عف
existed	/ɪg'zɪstɪd/	وُجِدت	escape	/ɪ'skeɪp/	هروب
challenge	/tʃə'lɪndʒ/	تحدى	confusion	/kən'fju:ʒn/	اضطراب
connected	/kə'nektɪd/	مرتبط	chimney	/tʃɪmni/	مدحة
revealing	/rɪ'vi:lɪŋ/	كشفت	lower	/ləʊə/	يحمص ، يزل
reveal	/rɪ'vi:l/	يكشف	lightening	/laɪtnɪŋ/	يزق
sign	/saɪn/	بمضي ، بوقع	balance	/bələns/	توازن
carry out	/kəri 'aʊt/	يفذ			
C. investigate	/ɪn'vestɪgeɪt/	يحقق في			
clue	/klu:/	دليل			
band	/bænd/	عصابة			
barked	/bɑ:kt/	تنح			

## CHAPTER 13

A. Two days later, Oliver found himself in a carriage moving quickly towards his native town. Mrs. Maylie, Rose, Mrs. Bedwin and Dr. Losberne were with him. Mr. Brownlow followed in another carriage, accompanied by Monks, whose name had not been mentioned to the others.

They arrived at a hotel not far away from the workhouse where Oliver was staying. They had dinner at the hotel, but Mr. Brownlow and Monks stayed in a separate room. Later Dr. Losberne was called to Mr. Brownlow's room and he stayed there for a long time. Mrs. Maylie was also called, and after being absent for nearly an hour, returned with tears in her eyes. Rose and Oliver sat wondering in silence.

At nine o'clock, Dr. Losberne entered the room followed by Mr. Brownlow and Monks.

"Oliver, this is your brother, Edward Lee-ford," said Mr. Brownlow.

Oliver looked at Monks with surprise while Monks looked at him with great hate. Mr. Brownlow, who had papers in his hands, walked to a table.

"This is a painful task," he said, "but these statements, which have been signed in London before many witnesses, must be repeated here. This child," he added, drawing Oliver to Monks, "is your half-brother, the son of your father by poor young Agnes Fleming, who died at his birth."

"Yes," said Monks looking angrily at the trembling boy.

"He was born in this town," said Mr. Brownlow.

"Yes," said Monks. "In the workhouse of this town. You have the story there." He pointed impatiently to the papers as he spoke.

"I must have it here, too," said Mr. Brownlow, looking upon the listeners.

"Listen then! You!" returned Monks. "When my father got ill in Rome, he was joined by my mother. At that time they were divorced. My father was too ill to see her, and he died on the following day. Among the papers in his desk, there were two addressed to you and dated on the night his illness first came on," he pointed to Mr. Brownlow.

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explained why he wrote the will in that way. He talked of your vice and meanness. Your mother, who hated your father, had taught you to hate him and so you always treated him with scorn."

"My mother," said Monks, trying to continue the story, "did what a woman should have done. She burnt the will. The letter never reached you," and he pointed to Mr. Brownlow, "but she kept it with other proofs. Agnes left her family. Her father looked for her but in vain. He got ill and died, leaving the other daughter, a child of two, to the care of some neighbours."

There was a short silence. Mr. Brownlow continued the story and pointed to Monks. "Years later, your mother came to me. You had robbed her of her jewels and money, gambled, forged and fled to London. There, you associated with the lowest criminals. Your mother was very ill and wanted to recover you before she died. My friends and I searched for you until we found you. You decided to take her to France."

"We went to Paris," said Monks. "My mother died, but on her death-bed, she told me all these secrets. I swore to her to find my brother and destroy him if he ever came in my

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"One of these papers was a letter to his second wife, Agnes, the other was a will."

"What was in the letter?" asked Brownlow.

"It was a love letter," said Monks. "It contained a confession of the secret marriage. It reminded her of the little gold locket and wedding ring. He begged her to keep them and to wear the locket next to her heart, she had done before."

"What about the will?" said Mr. Brownlow, as Oliver's tears fell fast. Monks was silent.

"The will," said Mr. Brownlow, "made another confession of the secret marriage. I left you and your mother eight hundred pounds a year each. The best part of the fortune was to be divided into two equal parts — one for Agnes Fleming, and the other for their child, if it should be born alive. If it were a girl, she would get the money unconditionally; but if the child were a boy, he would get the money on condition that he should never stain his name with any public act of dishonour, meanness or wrong. But if he were disappointed in this expectation, then the money would come to you. Your father

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way. He did. I began my plan but I couldn't finish it!"

Mr. Brownlow explained to the group that the Jew, who was Monks's old friend, had received a reward for keeping Oliver. Part of the reward was to be paid if he was brought back after the attempt of the robbery, and that led to their visit to the country house to identify him.

"The locket and ring?" asked Mr. Brownlow turning to Monks.

"I bought them from a man and a woman I told you of. The woman got it from the nurse who stole it from the boy's mother."

Mr. Brownlow nodded his head to Dr. Losberne who disappeared at once. He shortly returned, pushing in Mrs. Bumble and dragging her unwilling husband after him.

"Ah!" said Bumble with pretended pleasure. "Is that little Oliver? Oh, O-l-i-v-e-r, if only you knew how sad I was for you —"

"Hold your tongue, fool," said Mrs. Bumble.

"Do you know that person?" Mr. Brownlow said, pointing to Monks.

Mr. and Mrs. Bumble denied that they had seen Monks before. Mr. Brownlow then gave a sign to Dr. Losberne, who went away

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quickly. He came back with two women. They were workers at the workhouse.

"When you were alone with the old nurse," said one of the two women pointing to Mrs. Bumble, "we heard what she said, and saw her give you a locket and a gold ring."

"Yes, yes," said the other woman. "We did see you take the locket and the gold ring."

"Do you want more witnesses," said Dr. Losberne, turning to Mrs. Bumble.

"No," said Mrs. Bumble. "If he" — she pointed to Monks — "has been coward enough to confess, and you have got these two women to help you, I have nothing to say. I did sell them, and they're where you'll never get them. What then?"

"Nothing," replied Mr. Brownlow, "except that we shall take care that neither of you is employed in a situation of trust again. Now leave the room."

Mr. and Mrs. Bumble left the room.

"Young lady," said Mr. Brownlow, turning to Rose, "give me your hand. There is something you must hear." He then looked at Monks and said. "Do you know this young lady?"

"Yes," replied Monks.

"I never saw you before," said Rose faintly.

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"Now, my child," said Mrs. Maylie, "this is Oliver, your nephew."

Oliver threw his arms about Rose's neck.

B. Some hours later, while Oliver and his aunt Rose, were alone, they heard a soft tap at the door, and Harry Maylie entered.

"Harry!" said Rose with surprise.

"I know it all," said Harry, taking a seat beside her. "Dear Rose, I know it all."

There was a long silence.

"Rose," said Harry. "I'm not here by accident, nor have I heard all this tonight, for I knew it yesterday — only yesterday. I'd like to remind you of a promise that you once made."

"Yes?" said Rose softly.

"You gave me leave, at any time within a year, to renew the subject we last talked on."

"I did."

"I'm not going to press you to change your mind," said Harry. "I just want to hear your opinion."

"Well, Harry," said Rose sadly, "I still have the same reasons."

"The position," said Harry, "is different. You already know your family."

"No, Harry," said Rose. "This has not

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"I've seen you often," returned Monks.

"Agnes's father had two daughters," said Mr. Brownlow. "Agnes is one. What happened to the other?"

"The child was three years old when her father died. She was taken by some neighbours. My mother looked for her and found her. She wanted to make sure that no one knew anything about her sister's secret marriage. She told the neighbours that Agnes's family was very bad and that the child might become bad too. She made up a lot of untrue stories about the child's family. She wanted the neighbours to hate the child and get rid of her. But some months later a rich widow saw the child, pitied her and took her home. The child remained there and was very happy. I lost sight of her two or three years ago, and saw her no more until a few months ago."

"Can you tell us the name of the girl?"

"Yes. She's Rose Fleming, who is now called Rose Maylie. She's standing next to you."

"Yes," cried Mrs. Maylie, holding the fainting girl in her arm. "but I've always considered her as my dearest child. I would not lose her now."

Rose held tightly to her aunt's neck.

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changed my position."

"You harden your heart against me, Rose," said Harry.

"Oh, Harry, Harry," said the young lady, bursting into tears, "I wish I could, and spare myself this pain."

"But, Rose," said Harry, holding her hand as she rose. "My hopes, my wishes, feelings, every thought in life except my love for you, have changed."

"What do you mean?" said Rose.

"I mean this," said Harry. "When I left you last, I decided to make my world similar to yours: I decided that no fame, no ambition, no pride should separate me from you. I have given up my present job. I know I'll be happier with you. Now, Rose, will you marry me?"

C. The court was packed with people. All looks were fixed upon one man — Fagin. He stood in the dock listening to the judge as he spoke to the jury. At times, he turned his eyes upon them, and at other times he looked towards his lawyer.

The jury went out to consider their verdict. Fagin looked around him with anxiety. The people were whispering to each other and pointing to him. Fagin could see hate and

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scorn in everybody's looks.

At last the jury returned. Perfect silence followed; the jury gave their verdict: guilty. The judge then in a solemn and clear voice, gave his judgement: Fagin was sentenced to death. The building rang with shouts of joy. The crowds greeted the news that Fagin would die on Monday. Fagin shook with fear, and when the jailer put his hand on his arm, he looked stupidly about him for a moment, and obeyed.

They led him to his cell where he was left alone. He sat down on a stone bench, which was both a seat and a bed, and tried to collect his thoughts. After a while he began to remember a few words of what the judge had said: to be hanged by the neck till he was dead — that was the end.

As it grew dark, he began to think of all the men he had known who had been hanged, some of them through his wicked means. Their frightful figures rose up in the air before him. Some of them might have spent their last hours in that very cell and sat on that very seat. These thoughts filled him with fear and despair.

D. On Sunday morning, Mr. Brownlow and Oliver arrived at the prison. They presented an order of admission to the prisoner, signed

low advancing, "which were placed in your hands by a man called Monks."

"It's a lie," replied Fagin. "I haven't one — not one."

"Please," said Mr. Brownlow solemnly, "do not say that now, when you're so close to death. Tell me where they are. You know that Sikes is dead, that Monks has confessed, that there is no hope of any further gain. Where are those papers?"

"Oliver," cried Fagin, signing to him. "Here! Here! Let me whisper to you."

"I am not afraid," said Oliver in a low voice.

"The papers," said Fagin, drawing Oliver towards him, "are in a canvas bag, in a hole a little way up the chimney in the top front room."

"Have you anything else to ask him, sir?" said the policeman.

"No," replied Mr. Brownlow.

"Then you had better leave him," said the policeman.

The door of the cell opened. Fagin began to scream madly, but Mr. Brownlow pulled Oliver and they left the cell.

The next morning Fagin was hanged.

E. Three months later, Rose and Harry were

by a police officer. They were immediately admitted into the prison.

"Is the young gentleman to come too, sir?" said a policeman. "It is not a sight for children."

"It is not indeed, my friend," said Mr. Brownlow, "but my business with this man is connected with him."

The policeman opened a number of gates and accompanied them to Fagin's cell.

Fagin was seated on his bed, rocking himself from side to side, with a face more like that of a trapped beast than that of a man. His mind was wandering back to his old life.

"Good boy, Charlie — well done —" he mumbled. "Oliver, too, ha! ha! ha! Oliver too — quite the gentleman now."

"Fagin," said the policeman.

"That's me!" cried the Jew.

"Here's somebody who wants to see you, to ask you some questions."

"Strike them all dead! What right have they got to hang me!" said Fagin in a voice full of anger and terror.

"Now, sir," said the policeman, turning to Mr. Brownlow, "tell him what you want. Quickly, if you please, for he grows worse as the time gets on."

"You have some papers," said Mr. Brown-



married in the village church. Mrs. Maylie decided to live with them.

Mr. Brownlow adopted Oliver as his son, and moved with him and the old housekeeper to a house within a mile of the house of Mrs. Maylie and Rose.

Monks, still having that name, went with the share of the money that Mr. Brownlow allowed him to keep to a distant part in America. There he quickly wasted his wealth and once again fell into his old life of crime and ended in prison, where he died. In the same way died the remaining members of Fagin's band; But Charlie Bates, shocked by Sikes's crime, thought deeply of his future and decided to turn his back upon crime and to lead an honest life.

Mr. and Mrs. Bumble lost their positions at the workhouse. They gradually became very poor and finally became workers in the same workhouse.

Dr. Losberne became a close friend of Mr. Brownlow and he often visited him. Giles remained a head servant to Mrs. Maylie, but he divided his attention between the households of the Maylies and Mr. Brownlow. To this day, the villagers have never been able to discover to which household he belongs.

Glossary

A. native town	/ˈneɪtɪv ˈtaʊn/	عظ الأوس
had not been mentioned	/həd nɒt biːn ˈmenʃnd/	تذكر
separate	/ˈseprət/	فصل
hate (n.)	/ˈheɪt/	بغض
painful task	/ˈpeɪnfʊl ˈtɑːsk/	مهمة شاقة
dated	/ˈdeɪtɪd/	تاريخي
addressed	/əˈdrest/	توجه
confession	/kənˈfeʃn/	إقرار
unconditionally	/ʌŋkənˈdɪʃnəli/	دون شرط
on condition	/ɒn kənˈdɪʃn/	شرط
meanness	/ˈmiːnɪs/	كراهة
dishonour	/dɪˈɒnə/	فقد الشرف
disappointed	/dɪsəˈpɔɪntɪd/	خيب الأمل
expectation	/ɪkspekˈteɪʃn/	توقع
scorn	/skoːn/	تفخيز
burnt	/bɜːnt/	حرق
in vain	/ɪn ˈveɪn/	بلا جدوى
neighbours	/ˈneɪbəz/	جيران
gambled	/ˈgæmbld/	فاز
forged	/fɔːdʒd/	سرق
fled	/fled/	هرب
associated	/əˈsəʊʃɪeɪtɪd/	تعلق
recover	/rɪˈkʌvə/	استعاد
unwilling	/ʌnˈwɪlɪŋ/	مضطرب
confess	/kənˈfes/	اعترف
employed	/ɪmˈplɔɪd/	توظيف
trust	/trʌst/	ثقة

get rid of	/get rɪd əv/	يتخلص من
widow	/ˈwɪdɔʊ/	ارملة
I lost sight of her	/aɪ ˈlɔːst ˈsaɪt əv hɜː/	لم أعد أراها
faint	/feɪnt/	بهيمى عليها
nephew	/ˈnefjuː/	ابن اخت
B. tap	/tæp/	مخرفة
by accident	/baɪ ˈæksɪdnt/	بالصدفة
renew	/rɪˈnjuː/	يُجدد
position	/pəˈzɪʃn/	موقف
harden	/ˈhɑːdn/	يقسى
spare myself	/speə maɪˈself/	أوفر على نفسي
separate	/seˈpəreɪt/	يفصل
C. packed with people	/ˈpækt wɪð ˈpiːpl/	غاصة (ممتلئة) بالناس
jury	/ˈdʒʊəri/	هيئة المحلفين (في المحكمة)
verdict	/ˈvɜːdɪkt/	قرار الحكم
solemn	/ˈsɒləm/	وقور
judgement	/ˈdʒʌdʒmənt/	قرار الحكم
sentenced	/ˈsentənst/	حكّم
joy	/dʒɔɪ/	فرحة
jailer	/ˈdʒeɪlə/	سجان
bench	/bentʃ/	مضفة
to be hanged	/tə bi ˈhæŋd/	يُشنق
means	/miːnz/	وسائل
frightful	/ˈfraɪtful/	مخيف
very cell	/ˈveri ˈsel/	عس الربرة

APPENDIX 6

EXPERIMENTAL TEACHING MATERIALS: SUPPLEMENTARY

READING TEXTS

6.1. Sources

The sources from which reading passages were taken and used as 'supplementary teaching materials' in the Experiment were the following:

1. Living English Secondary Course for the Arab World

(henceforth LESCOAW) Books 2 and 4, by Stannard Allen, W. (1972 - London: Longman)

2. The New Intermediate English Course (NIEC) (Parts 1 and 2, by Ward, J.M., 1962 - London: Longman)

3. The Words You Need (TWYN) (by Rudska et al, 1981 - London: Macmillan)

4. Horizons (by McLean, A.C., 1978 - London: Longman)

5. Studying Strategies (SS)(Strategies 4, by Abbs, B., Freebairn, I., Clegg, J. and Whitney, N., 1982 - London: Longman)

6. Yorkshire Post (YP) (Leeds, 1983)

7. Sunday Times (ST) (1983)

8. Sheffield Weekly Gazette (SWG) (Sheffield, 1984)

9. Daily Express (DE) (1983)

6.2. Reading Passages (Texts)

The supplementary reading passages used in the Experiment are given here. The passages from TNECI were part of the 'core' teaching materials and they are mentioned here in order to make the reference to the supplementary materials easier and more coherent. The Experimental lexical items together with the other posttest distractors, some of which do not belong to any particular field (e.g. 'take part in'; 'participate'; 'bored'; 'tired out', etc.), are underlined in each reading passage.

<u>Number and Title</u> *	<u>Source</u>
1. The Prophet of God	TNECI, Book VII, pp. 93-4
2. The Extended Family	Horizon, pp. 1-3
3. Six Killed in a House Blast	YP, p.1.
4. Two Injured by Blast in Caravan	TNECI, pp. 155-7

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\* Numbers are given here in accordance with the order in which the texts were used in the Experiment e.g. Text 1 was used before the other texts: Text 2 before Text 3, and so on.

<u>Number and Title</u>	<u>Source</u>
5. The Silent Debate	LESCAW, Book 4, pp. 108-10
6. Full of Mischief	NIEC, Book 1, pp. 1-3
7. Summer Journey	LESCAW, Book 4, pp. 164-9
8. Library	TNECI, pp. 119-120
9. Getting Involved	TWYN, pp. 162-3
10. Looking for Accommodation	LESCAW, Book 4, pp. 51-2
11. The Stolen Car	NIEC, Book 2, pp. 164-5
12. Muriel	SS, p.16
13.(A) Fawkes	SS, p.102
(B) At Last!	SWG, p.1
(C) Exposed: Doctors Dealing in Death	DE, p. 1
14.(A) An Anecdote	LESCAW, Book 4, p. 4
(B) Massacre in Beirut	ST, p. 11
15. An Arab Welcome	Horizons, pp. 32-4
16. Ibin Sina	TNECI, pp. 143-4
17. Holes in the Road	NIEC, Book 2, pp. 161-2
18. Shooting an Elephant	LESCAW, Book 4, pp.160-3
19. Newspaper	TNECI, pp.167-9
20. The Homecoming	Horizons, pp.122-5
21. Sting	SS, p.26
22. The Night the Ghost Got In	LESCAW, Book 4, pp.123-8
23. The Necklace	LESCAW, Book 4, pp.149-55
24. Vain	LESCAW, Book 2, p.3

The supplementary reading passages are given below:

Text No. 2The Extended Family

In the village where I lived the family unit is the greatest influence on the way in which the people live their lives from birth to death. The family not only supports its members in childhood, but continues to play an active part in their adult lives. The first loyalty of every individual is to his family. His wealth, welfare and reputation depend on that of his family. In time, loyalty to the government may become stronger than loyalty to the family unit. But so far, many of the traditional patterns have only been slightly weakened. The position of the family in Egyptian village life remains essentially unchanged. There are two kinds of grouping among kinsmen in the village. These are the household, an extended family consisting of several generations, and the clan, composed of a number of extended families which are related.

Even if an extended family of two or more generations does not live in the same house, social and economic ties are strong. Men seldom leave their family group. Sometimes girls marry outside the village and leave, but this is rare. A typical extended family living in one house consists of husband and wife, unmarried children and often married sons and their wives and children. The husband's brothers, sisters, or other relatives may stay with the family. The most important factor here is that these people are blood relatives of the head of the household, i.e. the husband.

The head of the household takes decisions on such matters as finance, expenditure, education, and marriage. He is given special respect by other members of the family. The mother disciplines the children, and is largely responsible for their upbringing and welfare.

Older children usually care for younger children, often carrying them all day wherever they go. They bring the younger children back to the home only to eat and to sleep. Younger children are expected to show respect for older ones if the age difference is five years or more. The younger children learn language and proper behaviour from the older children in the family. From them they hear stories and learn games and songs.

(abridged from: Omar, M.K. (1973), The Acquisition of Egyptian Arabic as a Native Language, Edicon NV, used by McLean, A.C. (1978), Horizons, London: Longman)

Text No. 3Six Killed in a House Blast

Three women and three children were killed yesterday when an explosion ripped through a terrace house, reducing it to rubble. An Asian mother, daughter, daughter-in-law and three grandchildren were all asleep in the house in Arthur Street, Gravesend, Kent, at the time.

After the blast, early yesterday, the building burst into flames. The 43-year-old head of the family was treated in hospital for cuts and burns.

The victims, who moved to the house from the Midlands four months ago, were named as Jagir Kaur, 48, her daughter, Disho Kaur, 19, daughter-in-law, Maujit Kaur, 23, and two grandsons, Harvinder, three, and Tanjinder, one, and a granddaughter, Harvinderjit, five.

(abridged from: The Yorkshire Post, No. 42,384, Monday 7, 1983, p.1)

Text No. 5The Silent Debate

Part One: A few years ago a Persian came into this city and, introducing himself to the Prime Minister, announced himself as the best scholar of his nation and probably the wisest man in the world. The Prime Minister was much impressed by his style of conversation, and promised him a valuable appointment. At the same time he asked whether he was prepared to argue with our University men, and the Persian seemed delighted with the challenge. He asked that the Minister should personally attend the disputation, and promised to put a question which should test which side was the wiser.

The Prime Minister called the University before him, and when a large crowd had gathered he told them of the Persian's offer and asked whether the professors were prepared to submit themselves to a question chosen by their opponent. They agreed, and the Persian placed himself in front of them and put a question without making a sound. At this, they turned to the Prime Minister and complained that signs were only for the deaf and dumb, and that naturally they could not understand his meaning. But the Prime Minister insisted that the University should find an answer or confess themselves the losers. So they asked for three days' interval to discuss the matter, and this was allowed.

After much debate, one of them proposed the following plan: "Let us find a peasant from the country, a fellow with a thick stick, who doesn't know the difference between heaven and earth and broad and long. We will dress him in a scholar's gown, and offer him as our representative to the Persian."

A number of them went into the town to look for such a person. They found a farmer from a village, tall and thicknecked, with shoulders like a horse and with a long beard. He was sitting in a shop eating boiled eggs, and when they entered there was still one egg which he had not broken and he thought they must mean to steal it. So he put it under his coat.

But they persuaded him that they intended only good towards him, and they said, "We shall dress you as a professor and conduct you to a foreign gentleman who will ask you questions which you must answer, to show yourself his superior. But be very careful not to use words in your answers. Employ only gestures, please."

The farmer said "Take me to this silly fellow. Just say the word, and I'll give him a blow that will finish him. Trust me, I'll show myself his superior."

They wrapped him in a professor's gown, and he put his egg inside



it. They said, "Leave your egg until we come back," but he refused. "I won't leave it anywhere," he said. "This is my own hen's egg, the very first she laid. I'm keeping it to eat when I'm hungry."

So they let him have his own way, and they took him to the Prime Minister's house. The professor chosen to answer the Persian was presented, and the disputation began. The Persian seated himself with crossed legs, like a humble searcher after truth, but the peasant threw himself down and thrust out his legs as if he were in a cowshed. The Persian was much disturbed when he saw his rival seated so, for he thought that he must be too clever to worry about a disputation.

Part Two: First the Persian pointed a stretched finger. The farmer quickly pointed two fingers back at him. The Persian then lifted his hand to the sky, and the farmer furiously clapped a hand on the floor. Then the Persian put his hand in his gown and fetched out a box and opened it, and a chicken jumped out, which he threw at his opponent. But the farmer instantly brought out his egg from the inside of his gown and threw it at the Persian. The Persian waved his arms in amazement, and, turning to the Minister and the professors, said, "He has answered each question I put. Be witness, then, that he is my master and I am his follower."

The Minister announced that the University men had won, and they left in triumph. As soon as they were outside the house, they asked the farmer to explain the questions and answers, which they had not understood.

"You are scholars," said the man, "but any fool can puzzle you. There I was, seated in front of him, and I saw his eyes reddening and his anger rising, and he pointed his finger at me, as if to say, "Take care, or I shall pick out your eyes with this finger." So I pointed two fingers at him, to say, 'Be careful that I don't pick out both your eyes.' And he lifted his hand and held it upwards, meaning that if I didn't surrender he would pin me to the ceiling. So I put my hand on the ground, meaning that if that was his intention I was ready to flatten him down until all the devils were squeezed out of his body. And when he saw that I was winning, he pulled a little chicken out of his coat, boasting that he ate chicken every day and lived in great happiness of eating and drinking. So I took out my boiled egg to show that I was as good as he and lived in the happiness of boiled eggs. And like that I answered his questions and beat him."

They went next to the Persian, and he said, "Your professor is the first man in the world to answer these questions, which I have been putting to scholars all my life."

They asked what the questions and answers meant, and he said "I

lifted my finger, as if stating, 'God is one'. He lifted two fingers to say "And He has no second'. I lifted my hand to the sky, stating "Without pillars He raised up the heavens'. And he laid a hand to the ground to reply, 'On frozen water He spread the earth'. And I took my box and brought out my chicken, which means, 'And He creates the living out of the dead.' And he took an egg and replied, 'And the dead out of the living'. A greater scholar than this I have never met."

(Source: LESCOW, Book 4, pp.108-10)

Text No. 6Full of Mischief(from "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer")

By Mark Twain

Part One: "Tom!"

No answer.

"Tom!" cried Aunt Polly again.

No answer.

"I wonder where that boy's gone. Tom!"

The old lady pulled her spectacles down on her nose and looked over them about the room. Then she put them up and looked out under them. She seldom or never looked through them for so small a thing as a boy. She seemed puzzled for a moment and said:

"Well, if I catch you, I'll - "

She did not finish, for by this time she was bending down and pushing the sweeping-brush under the bed. She disturbed nothing but the cat. Then she went to the open door and looked out in the garden. Tom was not in sight.

"To-om!" she shouted.

There was a slight noise behind her, and she turned just in time to seize a small boy and prevent him from running away.

"What have you been doing in that cupboard?"

"Nothing."

"Nothing! Look at your hands, and look at your mouth. What is that stuff?"

"I don't know, aunt."

"Well, I know. It's jam, I've told you forty times that if you touched that jam I'd skin you. Hand me that stick."

The blow was about to fall.

"Hi! Look behind you, aunt!"

The old lady whirled round and snatched her skirts out of danger. The boy fled, and disappeared over the high fence of the garden. His aunt stood surprised for a moment, and then gave a gentle laugh.

"Hang the boy! Can't I ever learn anything? Hasn't he played that trick before? He's full of mischief, but he's my own dead sister's boy, poor thing, and I hate whipping him. Every time I hit him my old heart almost breaks, and every time I forgive him my conscience blames me. He'll stay away from school this afternoon, and I'll be obliged to punish him by making him work tomorrow. It's cruel to make him work on a Saturday, when all the boys are having a holiday, but he hates work more than anything else, and I must

do my duty towards the child, or I'll spoil his character."

Tom did stay away from school, and he had a very good time. He returned just in time to help Jim, the small servant boy, to saw and split the next day's firewood before supper. Tom's younger brother (or rather stepbrother), Sidney, had already finished his part of the work, for he was a quiet boy, and had no adventurous, troublesome ways.

While Tom was eating his supper and stealing sugar every time he had an opportunity, Aunt Polly was wondering whether Tom had disobeyed her and had been to the river. She had sewn up his shirt at the neck in order to prevent him from taking it off and swimming.

"Tom, it was quite warm in school, wasn't it? Didn't you want to go swimming?"

"No, auntie. Well, not much."

"Come here. Show me your collar."

Tom opened his coat. The neck-band of his shirt was securely sewn.

"Well, you may go out and play. I was sure that you had stayed away from school and had been swimming."

"I thought you sewed his collar with white thread," said Sidney. "Now, it's black."

"Why, I did sew it with white thread! Tom!"

But Tom did not wait for the rest. As he went out he said, "Sid, I'll give you a beating for that."

In a safe place Tom examined two needles which were stuck in his coat. One needle had white thread wound round it and the other had black.

"She wouldn't have noticed it, but for Sid. Hang it, sometimes she sews it with white and sometimes she sews it with black. I can't remember which she uses. I wish she'd stick to one colour. But I'll make Sid suffer for that."

Part Two: Within two minutes he had forgotten all his troubles. A stranger was standing before him, a boy a little bigger than himself. A stranger of any age, male or female, was an object of curiosity in the poor little village of St. Petersburg. The boy was well-dressed - too well-dressed on a week-day. Tom stared scornfully at the stranger's fine clothes, which seemed to make his own appear worn-out. Neither boy spoke.

Finally, Tom said:

"I can beat you!"

"I'd like to see you try it."

"Well, I can do it."

"No, you can't."

"Yes, I can."

"No, you can't."

"I can."

"You can't."

"Can."

"Can't."

An uncomfortable pause followed. Then Tom drew a line in the dust with his big toe, and said:

"You daren't step over that. If you do, I'll beat you till you can't stand up."

The new boy at once stepped over the line, and said:

"Now let me see you do it."

"You had better be careful."

"Well, you said you'd do it. Why don't you do it?"

"For two cents I will do it."

The new boy took two coins out of his pocket, and held them out scornfully.

Tom struck him to the ground.

In an instant both boys were rolling in the dirt, fighting like cats. For a few minutes they tore at each other's hair and clothes, hit and scratched each other's noses, and covered themselves with dirt and glory. At last through the dust of battle Tom appeared, sitting on the new boy and striking him with his fists.

"Say you've had enough!" said Tom.

The boy only struggled to free himself.

"Say 'Enough!'"

The hitting went on.

Finally the stranger gaped "Enough!" Tom let him get up, and said, "Now that will teach you."

The new boy went off brushing the dust from his clothes, occasionally looking back and threatening what he would do to Tom the next time he met him. Tom replied with insults. As soon as Tom's back was turned the new boy snatched up a stone, threw it, and hit Tom between the shoulders. Then he ran like a deer. Tom chased the traitor home, and thus found out where he lived. He then held a position at the gate for some time, daring the enemy to come outside; but the enemy only made faces at him through the window, and refused. At last the enemy's mother appeared, and called Tom a vicious, impolite child, and ordered him to go away.

Tom got home late that night, and when his aunt saw the state of his clothes, she became more determined than ever to make him work hard during the holiday on Saturday.

(Source: NIEC, Book 1, pp. 1-3)

Text No. 7Summer Journey

Mahmoud Teymour

Part One: Mahmoud Teymour is an Egyptian who was born in 1894. He has devoted his life to writing, and in particular to the short story. He is widely regarded as the pioneer of the Arabic short story, and he has also written plays, and books about travel.

As you will see, this story would be amusing in any language, because it tells of an incident that might happen anywhere.

Although there are some words which you will find difficult, we suggest that you do not refer to the glossary until you have finished reading the story. Try to imagine the incidents before you study the details.

## 1

Baligh Effendi was a government official who had worked hard and had not taken a holiday, either in summer or in winter, for many years. In the morning he would go off to his office, while his evenings were spent relaxing at a cafe.

One hot summer Baligh felt the need for a real rest; his hard work had exhausted him, and he no longer enjoyed his former perfect health. Hurrying off to his chief he diffidently asked if he might take a holiday. This request his chief gladly granted him.

Baligh was smiling happily as he left his chief's office. No sooner, however, was he in his own than he found himself wondering where he would spend his holiday.

There were but two choices before him; the first was to go to Hagg Rizk in Kafr Sufaita, the other to go and see Mr. Rashad in Alexandria. For a while he weighed up the advantages of being with his relative Hagg Rizk, and of being with his friend Mr. Rashad, of life in the country and life at a summer resort. At last he chose Alexandria.

It would be a great surprise for his friend Mr. Rashad, who would certainly never expect to have a visit from him. Why not give him a surprise? Hadn't Baligh Effendi more than once been the host of his friend Rashad during his visits to the capital? Often he had stayed with him without being invited or without announcing that he was coming, and he had often told Baligh Effendi that he was welcome any time at his home in Moharrem Bay.

Baligh Effendi had never been to Alexandria nor had the pleasure of seeing the sea. The pictures he had seen in newspapers, however, and the image he had formed in his mind from what he had heard, all came

to him as he made his way to his friend's home in the district of Moharrem Bay, his heart filled with happy expectations.

## 2

Part Two: After enquiring the way several times he arrived at the address just before noon. He found it to be one of those towering multi-storeyed buildings put up solely for the reason of profit, in which the inhabitants are packed together like bees in a hive. His friend Rashad was living in one of the top flats.

Baligh went up the stairs carrying his suitcase stuffed with all sorts of presents. He reached the door of the flat completely out of breath, perspiration dripping from his brow. He rang the bell and presently the door opened to reveal a fat, flabby woman, sullen and scowling.

"It's forbidden," she muttered, "to ring the bell, I'm telling you."

"I'm sorry - I didn't know," stammered Baligh in embarrassment. "I'm Baligh, Mr. Rashad's friend - please tell him I'm here."

"I would ask you, Baligh Effendi, not to raise your voice or make any noise. Madam hasn't had any sleep for several nights. Come along."

With tortoise-like steps she advanced into the hall with Baligh following her. He glanced at her extraordinary frame and it seemed to him that her joints sand one into another like lumps of dough, making ever new and delightful shapes.

No sooner had she brought him into the drawing-room than she left him. The heavy silence alarmed him as he sat down wearily. He recalled the words with which the woman had received him and tried to make out what it was all about. From time to time he was able to hear strained whispers, uneasy sighs, wary footsteps, and his discomfort increased yet further.

Suddenly a female cry, an anguished call for help, rang out. Baligh jumped up trembling. More cries followed, and Baligh began to pace about the room in utter consternation. Then quietness returned to the flat and Baligh sat back in his chair mopping his face and fanning himself with his handkerchief, his ears listening alertly for any noise.

He heard the sound of the flat door being opened and observed his friend Rashad entering warily, bare-headed, with ruffled hair and twitching features. He greeted Baligh in an offhand manner and then asked eagerly: "Isn't the delivery over?"

"What delivery?" Baligh answered in confusion.

Several words and phrases formed themselves on Rashad's lips and revealed

the unusual state of the household: Rashad was, for the first time, awaiting "a happy event". His wife had been having labour pains for two days and had been undergoing a most difficult delivery. Rashad's nerves had gone to pieces; unable to remain in the house for a second, he had spent the whole day wandering around, only calling at the house for the latest news.

At that moment the wife's voice was raised in a loud scream and Rashad began striking his head with his fists.

"I'll go mad!" he burst forth in a choked voice. "I shall go raving mad - I can't endure any more." He rushed out of the door of the flat and hurled himself down the stairs like a wild animal.

## 3

Part Three: Baligh remained standing in the centre of the room in a daze. He thought of leaving the house at once and saving himself from the torment that surrounded him. Immediately he heard the wife give a scream.

"I'm dying ... I'm dying."

Baligh found his hand taking hold of the handle of the suitcase and his feet propelling him towards the door. Suddenly he found himself face to face with the fat woman.

"Rashad Effendi has left the house, more mad than sane," she said. "There are only some ladies here and the midwife's asking for certain necessary things. What's to be done? What's to be done?"

The midwife came out. She approached Baligh, her head held high and her sleeves rolled up as though she were entering a wrestling-ring. In a commanding voice she began telling him her requirements.

"These things must be brought at once," she ended up. Baligh, staring at the vast bare arms with the bulging muscles, hastily answered:

"You'll have everything you want in just a few moments."

He ran out of the door, and returned after a short time with a large parcel containing bottles and other purchases from the chemist's. As he entered the hall that vast arm with the bulging muscles stretched out towards him and quickly took the parcel, disappearing with it into one of the rooms. No sooner had it vanished than the fat woman came out.

"There's a visitor in the living-room," she said, and began pushing him before her. The visitor was a neighbour who had heard the news and had come to make enquiries and to present his congratulations. Baligh welcomed him warmly, thinking that he could make use of him at this critical time. The visitor, however, no sooner made his greetings than he departed with the usual good wishes for health and strength.



A continual stream of visitors followed. No sooner had Baligh said goodbye to one than he was receiving another. People were coming and going, and voices were raised in exasperation, while the cries for help that came from the heroine's room were unceasing. Baligh felt great pride as people went to and fro at his bidding.

The midwife with the vast arm and bulging muscles came up to him.

"The situation's difficult," she said, her hands on her waist. "I must have someone to help me - Get a doctor."

Baligh was unable to say a word. Where would he get a doctor from?

"Here are the names of some good doctors. Get one of them for me at once. Don't forget that in your hands lies the fate of two human beings."

Baligh took the paper and rushed out of the house. He soon saw a taxi, which he stopped. In it he raced through the town, scarcely arriving at one address before he rushed off to another - on one occasion he was informed that the doctor was out on a visit, on another that the doctor was enjoying an afternoon sleep and wasn't to be disturbed. After some delay he returned to the house with a doctor whose name was not on the list but who had been found by the taxi-driver.

The doctor began his work with energy and diligence.

4

Part Four: Baligh was exhausted. He had been receiving neighbours who were asking for news, giving orders to the fat woman, obediently taking orders from the muscular midwife, listening to the doctor, and rushing up and down the stairs seeing to the household requirements.

Suddenly a loud cry rang out from the mother's room: the awaited newborn proclaiming its arrival, a piece of flesh weighing no more than a few pounds which could turn the world upside down for days and nights without end.

Baligh felt a tremor of excitement as the members of the family - both those he knew and those he didn't - came up to exchange their happy congratulations; even the fat woman embraced him and gave him two enormous kisses on his cheeks. After a while the doctor appeared, holding in his hands the newborn baby so well wrapped up that none of it was visible save two bright eyes and a screaming mouth.

The doctor thrust the howling creature at Baligh, who took it from him in some confusion and began walking round and round with it. Things eventually became quieter and the doctor left, Baligh accompanying him

to the door and pressing some money into his hand.

When Baligh had finished saying goodbye to the doctor he went up again to the flat to find the whole place in silence. He went into the drawing-room and looking at his watch found that it was now midnight. Feeling as though his limbs were giving way under him, he sank into a chair. It wasn't long before he was in a deep sleep of exhaustion.

After a while Baligh felt two hands shaking him. He raised his head in alarm, his eyes blinking. A man was twisting about and screaming in front of him like a juggler at a fair.

"Congratulate me, my friend," he was saying. "Your arrival has brought me luck — I'm the father of a baby boy!" Baligh made an effort to open his eyes.

"Congratulations, old chap — congratulations," he muttered. He had soon fallen back in the chair, snoring loudly.

(Source: LESCOAW, Book 4, pp.164-9)

#### Text No. 9

#### Getting Involved

My family and I have been living one full week now in a rented farmhouse from which the only permanent signs of human habitation we can see are the roofs of two barns just touching the horizon in the distance. Other than the cars on the road and the tractors in the unending fields, there is little else visible to remind us of the world of man. Yet we have had more visitors in a week than we had in two months in the suburbs of Philadelphia. Our farmhouse is a central command post for the farmers putting in the spring crops around us. They use the telephone to call in supplies and repairmen. Their families bring lunch and we all picnic in the grassy barnyard. Soon we are worrying farmer worries: Will it rain, but not too much? Why is oil leaking out of that tractor? Are we planting corn too deep? We become involved in the most basic, most important of human efforts — producing food.

Farming 'on-the-half' means that landowner and land operator share equally the expenses of planting and harvesting the crops, and then share in the profits, if any. This type of renting is more complicated than just leasing out the land for a payment.

At any rate, if you have only a few acres, you will probably want to farm them yourself. But if you are going to be very busy building or repairing your house or finding a job or business to give you a steady income, you might be wise to rent your land out even though you'd much rather farm it yourself.

(abridged and simplified from: TWYN, pp. 162-3)

Text No. 10Looking for Accommodation

After a hasty breakfast in the station restaurant, Peter began the task of finding a room where he could live for the next few months. He knew exactly what he wanted: a room which was not too small, nor so large that it would be difficult to heat in winter. It had to be clean and comfortable, too, but above all it had to be quiet, with a view that did not look directly on to the street. In the newspaper he had bought from the bookstall there were very few advertisements for rooms to let. But, as he glanced down the page, a notice in capital letters caught his eye.

## BOLTON'S ACCOMMODATION AGENCY

## Flats and Rooms to let

This seemed promising, so he made a note of the address and set off in search of the agency. He found it in a narrow street just off the main road. The woman at the desk gave him a bright smile as he entered and, after he had explained what sort of room he was looking for, gave him for the small fee of five shillings a list of about half a dozen landladies who had rooms to let.

At the first house Peter tried, the landlady, who looked about seventy years old, was so deaf that he had to shout to make her hear. When at last she understood, she shook her head and told him that she no longer let rooms. At the second house on the list all the rooms were taken. At the third the landlady was not at home. Peter was beginning to feel less hopeful, when he noticed that there was a telephone number after one of the addresses on the list. To save time, therefore, Peter rang up the landlady and asked if she had a room to let. He was pleasantly relieved to hear that she had one vacant. He hurried round to the house, which stood at some distance from the road in a pleasant avenue. The room he was shown lay at the back of the house, overlooking a garden full of flowers and bushes. He noted, too, with satisfaction, that there was a large table in the room, where he could spread out his books and work in comfort. Also the rent was moderate. It was just what he was looking for. Without hesitation he told the landlady that he would take the room, paid a week's rent in advance and went back to the station to get his luggage.

(Source: LESCOAW, Book 4, pp.51-2)

Text No. 11The Stolen Car

Although growing smaller every day, the number of citizens who have not yet had their car stolen must still be fairly large. The experience that awaits them has few compensations. Gaping at the spot from which his car has vanished its owner experiences a variety of emotions, none of them pleasant. Have, perhaps, the police towed it away? On this possibility, which in ordinary circumstances he would view with alarm and indignation, his dearest hopes are now pinned. It takes a certain amount of telephoning before they are finally dashed. Meanwhile the amount of rethinking he must do depends on the circumstances.

If the car has been stolen from outside his front door his sense of insult is very great, but the upsetting of his affairs is not necessarily complete; he has at least a base from which to reorganize them. If, on the other hand, he is on a journey and was relying on his car to get him back from London to Loamshire, his immediate difficulty is acute.

A fine but wetting rain is falling. This reminds him that, as well as his suitcase, the car contains - or contained - a mackintosh, almost brand new. Whatever he does about his difficulty, he will for the next twenty-four hours or so be sorely troubled by the irregular workings of his memory which will continually recall to his mind other possessions which, seldom for any good reason, were also in the car. He remembers the torch in the glove-pocket, a borrowed book on the back seat. He realizes that in his suitcase he has lost not only a pair of shoes but a pair of trees which he has used all his life.

(abridged from: NIEC, pp.164-5)

Text No. 12Muriel

Muriel's home was a pleasant three-bedroomed house in a suburb of Manchester. The family, consisting of two girls and a boy, had been raised there. One had already left home, and the day was not far off when the other two would leave for London at the start of their careers.

The house now lacked for nothing. The expensive days of schooling and providing for a growing family were over. The husband's salary as an engineer provided holidays in Spain, a year-old family car, and a colour television.

Life was good until Muriel, returning from a shopping trip, found she had been burgled. It was bad enough that the French windows in the rear dining-room had been forced open and £20 in cash in the kitchen drawer stolen; but the damage aged Muriel on the spot.

A booted foot had shattered the television screen, leaving smashed glass, dangling wires and a jumble of crushed miniature valves. The three-piece suite had been up-ended and the fabric slashed — possibly in the hope that money had been hidden inside. Houseplants had been torn from their pots and hurled against walls.

It was the same story in each room: devastation. Muriel found that she could not sleep. The extra sherry at night did not work. The doctor later prescribed tranquillizers. Ultimately her husband made the only decision he could. They had to sell and move from the house where they had planned to spend the rest of their lives.

The tragedy is that each year there are many thousands of Muriels.

(abridged and simplified from: SS, p.16)

Text No. 13A. Fawkes, Guy (1570 - 1606)

Yorkshire Catholic, who with other conspirators planned to blow up the Houses of Parliament in London on November 5th 1605 with gunpowder placed in the cellars. This became known as the 'Gunpowder Plot'. Fawkes undertook to watch the cellar himself, unaware that the plot had been discovered. He was arrested on November 4th, tortured and executed by hanging, after revealing the names of the other conspirators. Since then, Guy Fawkes Day has been celebrated in England with fireworks and the burning of Fawkes in effigy - 'the Guy'.

(from: SS, p.102)

B. At Last!

Sheffield's most infamous slum is being remedied at last after years of careful consideration by the City Council. Work started this week on the city centre Hawley Street flats that will drag the property out of Victorian decay up to 20th century standards.

The damp slums are being converted into modern flats, at a cost of around one and a half million pounds.

It has taken housing chiefs years to make the decision, while councillors alternately considered demolition or modernization.

Housing shortages and the need to restore life to the city centre finally led to the refit programme.

(abridged and simplified from: The Sheffield Weekly Gazette,  
No. 83, February 2, 1984, p.1)

C. Exposed: Doctors Dealing in Death

Home Office in storm over drugs for £50 a time.

Anger is growing over the failure of the Home Office to crack down on doctors who are flooding the illicit drugs market by overprescribing.

Medical authorities and the police are concerned at the ease with which addicts are obtaining large quantities of drugs from some doctors and then selling them for a profit.

Some London doctors are believed to be making more than £100,000 a year by charging addicts as much as £50 for a prescription. And the practice is spreading to other cities.

(Daily Express, Oct. 21, 1983, p.1)

Text No. 14A. An Anecdote

A newly-married couple had just moved into an elegant new flat. Many of their friends and relatives were quite rich, so they had received a large number of valuable and expensive wedding-presents. They held a house-warming party one evening. Everyone was welcome. The fine collection of presents was on show in one of the rooms and was much admired.

The next morning they received an unexpected late present by post. In an envelope were two tickets for the best seats at a theatre and a little note saying "Heartiest Congratulations! Guess who has sent these!" The young couple tried to find out what generous friend had sent the tickets, but they were unsuccessful. So they went to see the play and spent a most enjoyable evening. They returned late at night and found that a thief had broken into their flat. All their valuable wedding-presents had been stolen. On the bare table in the room where they had displayed them was another little note. On it was written: NOW YOU KNOW!

(LESCAW, Book 4, p.9)

B.

Massacre in Beirut

*Massacre victims in Chatilla: up to 800 Palestinians died*

● Israeli soldiers and Phalange militiamen cluster together on a rooftop command post on the outskirts of Beirut (right). Brilliant flares light up the Chatilla and Sabra Palestinian refugee camps. An hour ago militiamen entered the camps to “mop up terrorists”. Now, the Phalange commander on the rooftop receives a radioed request for instructions from a militiaman holding women and children inside Chatilla. His reply is chilling - and it is overheard by an Israeli lieutenant standing beside him.

This moment marked the beginning of a horror story - and of Israeli knowledge of it. The horror would spread, leaving up to 800 massacred, and so would the knowledge among Israel's high command.

(The Sunday Times, 13 February, 1983)



Text No. 15An Arab Welcome

The great hall smelt acid with smoke and the light was dim after the bright sun outside. Shadowy figures stood along the walls. I called out 'Salam alaikum' and they answered together, 'Alaikum as salam'. We seated ourselves on some gaudy rugs spread on the matting and the others settled themselves along the walls. Men who had rifles placed them in front of them. I noticed two lovely old rugs of blue and gold farther down the room. In the place of honour were two modern ones on which we sat. Against the wall at the far end was a wooden chest and near the entrance a large pitcher of clay filled with water. There was no other furniture.

The hearth was a third of the way into the room and in the centre. Here beside a small fire a dozen coffee pots were ranged, the largest about two feet high. Into this the grounds of previous brews were emptied and the discoloured liquid was used to fill the other pots. Fresh coffee, brewed in the smallest pot, was always prepared on the arrival of any guest of importance. An old man, in a white shirt, the only person besides myself not wearing a cloak, busied himself making it in conformity with a time-honoured ritual. As soon as the beans were roasting he ground them in a small brass mortar, beating out a rhythm as he did so. This pleasant sound was an intimation that coffee was being served in the sheikh's guest house, and an invitation to any man within hearing to partake. Then holding the pot in his left hand, and two small china bowls, the size of egg cups, in his right, he poured a few drops into the top cup. He offered it to Falih, who told him to serve me first. I in turn refused. When Falih insisted, however, I drank while the old man poured a second cup for him. The coffee tasted strong and bitter. Knowing Arab custom, I accepted three cups before shaking the cup slightly to show I had had enough. The coffee-man moved slowly round the room serving the others in the order of their importance. Falih and I and the two canoemen who had brought me were also given tea, black and sweet, in small narrow-waisted glasses with a gold rim.

Falih's eldest son, a sixteen-year-old boy, came in. He had his father's heavy nose but a narrower, weaker face. Falih introduced him to me as "Your servant".

Falih told him to see about lunch, saying to me, 'I am ashamed not to give you a proper meal, but you came without warning. Forgive me, but I expect you would rather eat what is ready, than wait while we slaughter a sheep, for you must be hungry after your long journey.'

Text No. 17Holes in the Road

You can say what you like, but the fact remains that women loiter and idle with a great deal taste than men.

They waste their time, I agree. They go backwards and forwards between the dressmaker and the milliner. They loiter spellbound before each shop window. Their aimless spending of the morning or the afternoon often causes lunch or dinner to be late, and rows and scenes follow. "That's all very well, but what on earth were you doing all this morning?" "You can't possibly have spent all that time buying half a yard of ribbon!"

Now, let us look at the logical male animal. He hurries down the street without turning his head. With utter indifference he sweeps past the shops whose windows are filled with all the things he needs: ties, shirts, socks, jackets, shoes; he has not the least interest in them. Unless he has set out with the definite intention of buying something that has become indispensible to him, he will not squander a second or waste a glance at a shop-window.

He has work to do, you will tell me. He hurries along, so that his family's bread shall be earned. He has a hundred different problems in his mind. How can you expect him to loiter or get any pleasure out of gazing at shop-windows?

How can I? Just let him meet a fire-engine on his way, putting out a fire that is hardly big enough to roast a chicken. Any sort of roadwork also holds an unexplainable attraction for him. A hole has only to be dug in the road, and the male observers gather beside it in earnest concentration. What do they find to look at? A lorry arrives to remove the earth....It is difficult to think of a more boring spectacle, or one more empty of beauty and variety.

No little girl will ever be found looking at holes in the road. Instead, and with much greater common-sense, she will come to a stop, with wide-open eyes, in front of a shop-window in which there is a large, inaccessible, blue-eyed doll.

(abridged from: NIEC, pp. 161-2)

Text No. 18Shooting an Elephant

George Orwell

Part One: When Burma was part of the British Empire before 1939, many young Englishmen became officers in the Burmese police-force. George Orwell, who was born in 1903, in India, of Scottish parents, went to school in England, but he joined the Burmese police after he left school. He soon realized that the British were not popular, and he did not remain a policeman for very long. He wrote a number of books, of which the best known are *Animal Farm* and *1984*.

## 1

Early one morning the sub-inspector at a police station in the other end of the town rang me up on the phone and said that an elephant was ravaging the bazaar. Would I come and do something about it? I did not know what I could do, but I wanted to see what was happening and I got on a pony and started out.

The elephant was standing eight yards from the road, his left side towards us. He took not the slightest notice of the crowd's approach. He was tearing up bunches of grass, beating them against his knees to clean them and stuffing them into his mouth.

I had halted on the road. As soon as I saw the elephant I knew with perfect certainty that I ought not to shoot him. It is a serious matter to shoot a working elephant - it is comparable to destroying a huge and costly piece of machinery - and obviously one ought not to do it if it can possibly be avoided. And at that distance, peacefully eating, the elephant looked no more dangerous than a cow. I decided that I would watch him for a little while to make sure that he did not turn savage again, and then go home.

But at that moment I glanced round at the crowd that had followed me. It was an immense crowd, two thousand at the least and growing every minute. It blocked the road for a long distance on either side. I looked at the sea of faces - faces all happy and excited over this bit of fun, all certain that the elephant was going to be shot. They were watching me as they would watch a conjurer about to perform a trick. They did not like me, but with the magical rifle in my hands I was momentarily worth watching. And suddenly I realized that I should have to shoot the elephant after all. The people expected it of me and I had got to do it; I could feel their two thousand wills pressing me forward, irresistibly. And it was at this moment, as I stood there with the rifle in my hands, that I first grasped

the hollowness, the futility of the white man's rule in the East. Here was I, the white man with his gun, standing in front of the unarmed native crowd — seemingly the leading actor of the piece; but in reality I was only an absurd puppet pushed to and fro by the will of those faces behind me. I perceived that when the white man turns tyrant it is his own freedom that he destroys.

## 2

Part Two: But I did not want to shoot the elephant. I watched him beating his bunch of grass against his knees, with that preoccupied grandmotherly air that elephants have. It seemed to me that it would be murder to shoot him. Besides, there was the beast's owner to be considered. Alive, the elephant was worth at least a hundred pounds; dead, he would only be worth the value of his tusks, five pounds, possibly. But I had got to act quickly. I turned to some experienced-looking Burmans who had been there when we arrived, and asked them how the elephant had been behaving. They all said the same thing: he took no notice of you if you left him alone, but he might charge if you went too close to him.

It was perfectly clear to me what I ought to do. I ought to walk up to within, say, twenty-five yards of the elephant and test his behaviour. If he charged I could shoot, if he took no notice of me it would be safe to leave him. But also I knew that I was going to do no such thing. I was a poor shot with a rifle and the ground was soft mud into which one would sink at every step. If the elephant charged and I missed him, I should have about as much chance as a toad under a steam-roller. But even then I was not thinking particularly of my own life, only of the watchful faces behind. For at that moment, with the crowd watching me, I was not afraid in the ordinary sense, as I would have been if I had been alone. I shoved the cartridges into the magazine and lay down on the road to get a better aim.

## 3

Part Three: The crowd grew very still, and a deep, low, happy sigh, as of people who see the theatre curtain go up at last, breathed from innumerable throats. They were going to have their bit of fun after all.

When I pulled the trigger I did not hear the bang or feel the kick — one never does when a shot goes home — but I heard the devilish roar of glee that went up from the crowd. In that instant, in too short a time, one would have thought, for the bullet to get there, a mysterious, terrible change had come over the elephant. He neither stirred nor fell, but every line of his body altered. He looked suddenly stricken, shrunken, immensely old, as though the frightful impact of the bullet had paralysed him without

knocking him down. At last, after what seemed a long time — it might have been five seconds, I dare say — he sagged flabbily to his knees. His mouth slobbered. An enormous senility seemed to have settled upon him. One could have imagined him thousands of years old. I fired again into the same spot. At the second shot he did not collapse but climbed with desperate slowness to his feet and stood weakly upright, with legs sagging and head drooping. I fired a third time. That was the shot that did for him. You could see the agony of it jolt his whole body and knock the last remnant of strength from his legs. But in falling he seemed for a moment to rise, for as his hind legs collapsed beneath him he seemed to tower upwards like a huge rock toppling, his trunk reaching skywards like a tree. He trumpeted, for the first and only time. And then down he came, his belly towards me, with a crash that seemed to shake the ground even where I lay.

I got up. The Burmans were already racing past me across the mud, but he was not dead. He was breathing very rhythmically with long gasps, his great mound of a side painfully rising and falling.

In the end I could not stand it any longer, and went away. I heard later that it took him half an hour to die. Burmans were bringing baskets even before I left, and I was told they had stripped his body almost to the bones by the afternoon.

(Source: LESCOAW, Book 4, pp. 160-3)

Text No. 20The Homecoming

The boy's arrival was a complete surprise to the family. There had been no warning of his return so that no special supper had been prepared for him and there was not even any of the ordinary supper left for him. And no one had been sent to meet him at the station. So the boy was disappointed of his hope that he would be greeted in the same way as his elder brother with a jubilant, eager welcome. True, his mother got up to kiss him, and his sisters each gave him a hug. But then the boy sat down to a supper no different from his usual meal in Cairo.

His father came in, and after giving him his hand to kiss, asked him how his elder brother was in Cairo. Soon the whole family went to bed. The boy slept in his old bed, with a heavy heart, biting back as best he could his anger and disappointment.

After that life at home and in the village went on just as it had done before the boy went up to Cairo to study at the Azhar. It was as if he had never gone to Cairo or listened to the sheikhs or studied law and grammar and logic and tradition. He was obliged, just as before, to pay his humble respects to the schoolmaster, to kiss his hand whenever he met him and listen as ever to his unceasing flow of nonsense. He even had to pay a visit now and again to the village school in order to kill time. The students treated him as they had always done before and seemed scarcely aware that he had been away, much less interested in what he had seen or heard in Cairo. And yet he had so much to tell them if only they had asked.

The hardest thing of all was that not a single friend from the village called to ask after the young student, though he had been away for a whole academic year. All that happened was that one or two people met him and greeted him coolly: 'Hallo! You here? Back from Cairo? How are you?' Then, raising their voices, they would add, in a tone of real concern, 'And how did you leave your elder brother?'

This was enough to convince the boy that he was still what he had been before he left for Cairo, a creature of no importance whatsoever, undeserving of attention or interest. This hurt his pride, which was considerable, and made him retire into himself more than ever, till he became stubbornly self-centred. He had barely been home for a few days, however, before people's opinion of him began to change. Their indifference turned not to sympathy or affection, but to the very opposite. So day after day he had to put up with the same treatment from his neighbours in the village as

he had had to endure before.

At last he could stand no more of it. He broke away from his old habits of submissiveness and rebelled against those to whom he had been obedient. He was quite reasonable at first. But when his remarks were met with disapproval and opposition this made him contradict people even more. One day he listened to a conversation between his mother and the schoolmaster. They were talking about traditions in religion and theology, and the sheikh was commending the memorisers of the Koran, who know the sacred book by heart. His remarks annoyed the boy, who could not restrain himself from breaking in and calling all this 'stuff and nonsense'. The schoolmaster was furious and insulted him. 'All you've picked up in Cairo,' he said, 'is a bad character. You've thrown away your chances of acquiring a decent education.'

His mother scolded him angrily and apologised for him to the schoolmaster. When his father returned for evening prayer and supper she told him what had happened. He merely shook his head and dismissed the whole affair with a sarcastic laugh. There was no love lost between him and the schoolmaster.

TAHA HUSSEIN

The Stream of Days

(Longman 1948)

(Source: Horizons, pp.122-5)

Text No. 21Sting

Some years ago, Gordon Sumner dropped out of teaching to risk all in the chancy world of pop music. Two years later he was struggling to pay the rent. Now he's known as Sting, lead singer of today's hottest band, The Police, and he's a superstar. How did this ex-schoolmaster manufacture the right sound, the right image, to make himself into a teenage idol? Lulu Appleton reports.

Gordon Sumner is an exceptionally good-looking man, idolised by millions and so rich he can afford all he could ever wish for. Better known as Sting, he's the lead singer of The Police.

Suddenly Sting has become a superstar. 'I can't walk down a street any more without feeling that people are watching me,' he says.

He and his wife Frances Tomelty, an actress, purchased the house in Ireland when Sting returned from The Police's highly successful world tour.

'I picked Ireland because, apart from being pleasant, you can stay in touch with England while enjoying life at a slower pace!'

He has succeeded in his original ambition to provide thoughtful, intelligent pop music, making The Police the most widely accepted band since the Beatles.

'But,' he concludes, 'money hasn't made me any happier than before. The money makes things easier and more convenient, but there are frustrations too. Always another hill to climb, and not just climb, but get to the top.'

(abridged from: SS, p.26)



Text No. 22The Night the Ghost Got In

James Thurber

Part One: James Thurber was born in Ohio, in the United States, in 1894: He died in 1961. He wrote a great many short stories, which he illustrated himself with very amusing drawings. Some of his stories, like the one here, are about his early life, with his parents and his brothers. His grandfather lived in the house, too; he was a fierce old gentleman, who had been a soldier in the American Civil War of 1861 to 1865. Sometimes, usually at night, he believed that he was still fighting.

## 1

The ghost that got into our house on the night of November 17, 1915, raised such a tangle of misunderstandings that I am sorry I didn't just let it keep on walking, and go to bed. Its arrival caused my mother to throw a shoe through the window of the house next door, and ended with my grandfather shooting a policeman. I am sorry, therefore, as I have said, that I ever paid any attention to the footsteps.

They began about a quarter past one in the morning, with a sound as if someone was walking round the dining-room table. My mother was asleep in one room upstairs, my brother Herman in another; grandfather was in the attic. I had just stepped out of the bath and was busily rubbing myself with a towel when I heard the steps. The light from the bathroom shone back down the stairs, which dropped directly into the dining-room; I could see the faint shine of plates on the platerail; I couldn't see the table. The steps kept going round and round the table; at regular intervals a board creaked, when it was trod upon. I supposed at first that it was my father or my brother Roy, who had gone away but was expected home at any time. I suspected next that it was a burglar. It did not enter my mind until later that it was a ghost.

After the walking had gone on for about three minutes, I went on tiptoe to Herman's door. I shook him. "There's something downstairs!" I said. He got up and followed me to the head of the back staircase. We listened together. There was no sound. The steps had ceased. Herman looked at me in some alarm; I had only the bath-towel around my waist. He wanted to go back to bed, but I gripped his arm. "There's something down there!" I said. Instantly the steps began again, circled the dining-room table like a man running, and started up the stairs towards us, heavily, two at a time. The light still shone palely down the stairs; we saw nothing coming; we only

heard the steps. Herman rushed to his room and slammed the door. I slammed shut the door at the top of the stairs and held my knee against it. After a long time I slowly opened it again. There was nothing there. There was no sound. None of us ever heard the ghost again.

The slamming of the doors had aroused Mother; she peered out of her room. "What on earth are you boys doing?" she demanded. Herman ventured out of his room. "Nothing," he said, but he was, in colour, a light green. "What was all that running about downstairs?" said Mother. So she had heard the steps too! We just looked at her. "Burglars!" she shouted. I tried to quiet her by starting lightly downstairs.

"Come on, Herman," I said.

"I'll stay with Mother," he said. "She's upset."

I stepped back onto the landing.

"Don't either of you go a step," said Mother. "We'll call the police."

Since the telephone was downstairs, I didn't see how we were going to call the police - nor did I want the police - but Mother made one of her quick decisions. She flung up a window of her bedroom which faced the bedroom windows of the house of a neighbour, picked up a shoe, and hurled it through a pane of glass across the narrow space that separated the two houses.

"Burglars!" she shouted to the neighbour. "Burglars in the house!"

Herman and I didn't dare to tell her that it was not burglars but ghosts, for she was even more afraid of ghosts than of burglars.

## 2

Part Two: The police arrived in a very short time. They began banging at our front door. "Open up!" cried a hoarse voice. "We're men from Headquarters!" I wanted to go down and let them in, since they were there, but Mother wouldn't allow it. "You haven't any clothes on," she said. "You'd catch your death." I wound the towel round me again. Finally the police put their shoulders to our big heavy front door and broke it in: I could hear a rendering of wood and a splash of glass on the floor of the hall. The light from the torches played all over the living-room and the dining-room, shot up the front stairs and finally up the back. They caught me standing in my towel at the top. A heavy policeman bounded up the stairs. "Who are you?" he demanded. "I live here," I said. "Well, what's the matter? Are you hot?" he asked. It was as a matter of fact, cold. I went to my room and pulled on some trousers. On my way out, a policeman stuck a gun into my ribs. "What are you doing here?" he demanded. "I live here,"

I said.

The officer in charge reported to Mother. "No sign of anybody, lady," he said. "He must have got away. What did he look like?" "There were two or three of them," Mother said. "They were shouting and running about and slamming doors." "That's odd," said the policeman. "All your windows and doors were locked on the inside."

Downstairs, we could hear the trampling of other police. Police were all over the place; doors were pulled open, drawers were pulled open, windows were opened and closed, furniture fell with dull thumps. A half dozen policemen came upstairs.

"No sign of anything," said the man who had first spoken to Mother. "This guy," he explained to the others, pointing at me, "was naked. The lady seems hysterical." They all nodded, but said nothing; they just looked at me. In the silence, we all heard a creaking in the attic. Grandfather was turning over in bed.

"What's that?" shouted one policeman. Five or six police sprang to the attic door before I could explain. I realized that it would be bad if they burst in on Grandfather. He believed, at that time, that the Civil War was still in progress, and that some of the soldiers were retreating and even deserting. When I reached the attic, things were very confused. Grandfather had evidently decided that the police were deserters from the army, trying to hide away in his attic. He leapt out of bed, wearing a long flannel nightgown over long woollen underwear, a nightcap, and a leather jacket about his chest. The police must have realized at once that the indignant white-haired old man belonged to the house, but they had no chance to say so. "Back, you cowardly dogs!" roared Grandfather. "Back to the lines, you cowardly cattle!" He hit one of the policemen a blow at the side of the head that knocked him onto the floor. The others retreated, but not fast enough. Grandfather grabbed one of their guns from its holster and fired it. The shot seemed to crack the roof: smoke filled the attic. A policeman cursed and put his hand to his shoulder. Somehow, we all got downstairs again and locked the door against the old gentleman. He fired once or twice more in the darkness and then went back to bed.

"That was Grandfather," I explained to one of the policemen. "He thinks you are deserters." "I'll say he does," said the policeman.

3

Part Three: The police were reluctant to leave without getting their hands on somebody besides Grandfather. The night had been a defeat for them.

And they were still very suspicious. They began to poke into things again. A reporter came up to me. I was wearing one of Mother's blouses, not being able to find anything else. "Just what really happened here?" he asked me, with a mixture of suspicion and interest. I decided to be frank with him. "We had ghosts," I said. He gazed at me for a long time and then walked away. The police followed him. The one that Grandfather had shot was holding his now-bandaged arm and cursing. "I'm going to get my gun back from that old man," said the policeman whose pistol had been taken. "Yes?" said another. "You, and who else?" I told them I would bring it to the station next day.

"What was the matter with that young policeman?" Mother asked, after they had gone. "Grandfather shot him," I said. "But he was such a nice-looking young man," said Mother.

Grandfather was as merry as he could be and full of jokes at breakfast next morning. We thought at first that he had forgotten all about what had happened, but he hadn't. After his third cup of coffee, he glared at Herman and me. "What was the idea of all those police running round the house last night?" he demanded. We had no answer to that.

(Source: LESCOAW, Book 4, pp.123-8)

Text No. 23The Necklace

Guy de Maupassant

Part One: Guy de Maupassant was born in 1850 and died in 1893. He was a Frenchman, and became famous as one of the best writers of short stories in all French literature. He was particularly interested in that class of people who work as clerks or officials, earning little more than a labourer, but who are expected to appear respectable and well-dressed in spite of their poverty. As a young man, he was himself a member of this class.

His stories have been translated into many languages.

She was one of those pretty, charming girls, born, as if by an error of destiny, into a family of clerks. She had no wealth, no hopes, no means of becoming known by a rich or distinguished man; and she allowed herself to marry a minor clerk in the Department of Education.

She was unhappy, believing herself born for luxuries and feeling that she had married beneath herself. She suffered from the poverty of her flat, the shabby walls, the worn chairs.

She had neither dresses nor jewels. And she loved only those things. She felt that she was made for them. She had such a desire to please, to be sought after, to be clever, and pretty.

One evening her husband came home very happy, carrying in his hand a large envelope. "Here," he said, "here is something for you."

She quickly tore it open and drew out a printed card on which were written the following words: "The Minister of Education and Mme Georges Rampouneau request the honour of Mr and Mme Loisel's company on Monday evening, January 18, at the Minister's residence."

Instead of being delighted, as her husband had hoped, she threw the invitation spitefully at the table, murmuring: "What do you suppose I want with that?"

"But, my dearest, I thought it would make you happy. You never go out, and this is an important occasion! I had great difficulty in getting the invitation. Everybody wants one, and it is very select; not many are given to employees. You will see the whole official world there."

She looked at him with irritation and declared impatiently: "What do you suppose I have to wear at such an occasion?"

He had not thought of that; he stammered, "Why, the dress you wear when you go to the theatre. It seems a very pretty to me..."

He was silent in dismay at the sight of his wife weeping.

"I have no dress," she said at last, "and consequently I cannot go

to this affair. Give your card to some colleague whose wife is better fitted out than I."

He was grieved but answered: "Let us see, Mathilde. How much would a suitable costume cost, something which you could use for other occasions, something very simple?"

She thought for some seconds, wondering what sum she could ask for without bringing an exclamation of horror from the economical clerk. Finally she said, in a hesitating voice: "I cannot tell exactly, but it seems to me that 400 francs ought to be enough."

He turned a little pale, for he had saved just this sum for a holiday the next summer. Nevertheless, he answered, "Very well, I'll give you 400 francs."

## 2

Part Two: The day of the ball approached and Mme Loisel seemed sad, disturbed, anxious. Nevertheless her dress was nearly ready. Her husband said to her one evening: "What is the matter? You have acted strangely for two or three days."

And she replied: "I have no jewels, not one stone. I shall have such a poverty-stricken look. I would prefer not to go to this party."

"You can wear natural flowers. At this season they look very elegant. For ten francs you can have two or three magnificent roses."

She was not convinced. "No, there is nothing more humiliating than to have a shabby air in the midst of rich women."

Then her husband cried: "How stupid we are! Go to your friend Mme Forestier, and ask her to lend you some jewels. You know her well enough to do that."

She uttered a cry of joy. "It is true," she said. "I had not thought of that."

The next day she went to her friend's house and related her story of distress. Mme Forestier went to her wardrobe, brought out a jewel-case and said, "Choose, my dear." She saw at first some bracelets, then a collar of pearls, then a Venetian cross of gold and jewels of admirable workmanship. She tried the jewels before the mirror, hesitated, but could decide neither to take them nor to leave them. Then she asked, "Have you nothing more?" "Why, yes. Look for yourself. I do not know what will please you."

Suddenly she discovered, in a black satin box, a beautiful necklace of diamonds, and her heart beat fast with desire. Her hands trembled as she took them up. She placed them around her throat against her dress,

and was in ecstasy. Then she asked in a hesitating voice, full of anxiety: "Could you lend me this? Only this?"

"Why, yes, certainly."

She embraced her friend with joy and went away with her treasure .

The night of the ball arrived. Mme Loisel was a great success. She was the prettiest of all, elegant, smiling and full of joy. All the men noticed her, asked her name, and wanted to be introduced to her. Everyone wished to dance with her. The Minister of Education paid her some attention. She danced with passion, and a cloud of happiness from all this respect and admiration.

She went home towards four o'clock in the morning. Since midnight, her husband had been half asleep in a small room, with three other gentlemen whose wives were enjoying themselves.

He threw around her shoulders the wrap they had brought with them, a plain garment whose poverty clashed with the elegance of her new dress. She felt this and wished to hurry away in order not to be noticed by other women who were wrapping themselves in rich furs. Loisel stopped her: "Wait," he said, "You will catch cold out here. I am going to call a cab."

But she wouldn't listen and descended the stairs rapidly. When they were in the street they found no carriage. They walked along towards the Seine, hopeless and shivering. Finally they found one of those old carriages that one sees in Paris by night, as if ashamed of their shabbiness by day. It took them to their door in the Rue de Martyrs, and they went wearily up to their flat. It was all over for her.

She removed her wrap before the mirror, for a final view of herself in her glory. Suddenly she uttered a cry. Her necklace was not round her neck.

### 3

Part Three: Her husband, already half undressed, asked, "What is the matter?"

She turned towards him, terror-stricken, "I have ... I have ... I no longer have Mme Forestier's necklace." He rose in dismay: "What! It is not possible."

They looked in the folds of the dress, and of the coat, in the pockets, everywhere. They could not find it.

He asked, "You are sure you still had it when we left the house?"

"Yes, I touched it in the hall as we came out."

"But if you had lost it in the street, we should have heard it fall, it must be in the cab."

"Yes, did you take the number?"

"No."

They looked at each other, utterly downcast. Finally Loisel dressed himself again. "I am going," he said, "to retrace our steps, to see if I can find it."

She remained in her evening clothes, not having the energy to go to bed.

At about seven o'clock her husband returned. He had found nothing. He went to the police and to the cab-office, and put an advertisement in the newspapers, offering a reward. She waited all day in a state of bewilderment at this terrible disaster. Loisel returned at evening with his face anxious and pale; he had discovered nothing.

"It will be necessary," said he, "to write to your friend to tell her that you have broken the clasp of the necklace and are having it repaired. That will give us time to continue the search."

At the end of the week, they had lost all hope. Loisel, older by five years, declared: "We must try to replace the diamonds."

The next day they took the case to the jeweller whose name was on the inside. He looked in his books: "It is not I, Madam," he said, "who sold this necklace; I only made the case." They went from jeweller to jeweller, ill from disappointment and anxiety. In a shop near the Palais Royale they found a diamond necklace which seemed exactly like the one they had lost. It was valued at 40,000 francs. They could get it for 36,000. They begged the jeweller not to sell it for three days. And they made an arrangement by which they could return it for 34,000 francs if the other necklace was found before March.

Loisel possessed 18,000 francs which his father had left him. He borrowed the rest, asking for a thousand francs from one, five hundred from another, five francs from this man and three from that. He made ruinous promises, took money from usurers and the whole race of lenders. At last, he went to get the necklace, depositing on the merchant's counter 36,000 francs. When Mme Loisel took it back to Mme Forestier, the latter said to her in a cold tone, "You should have returned them to me sooner, for I might have needed them."

If she should perceive the substitution, what would she think? Would she take her for a robber?

Mme Loisel now knew the horrible life of utter poverty. But she played her part heroically. It was necessary to pay this debt. She would pay it.



She learned the cares of a household, the work of a kitchen. She washed the dishes, using her rosy nails upon the greasy pots and the bottoms of pans. She washed the soiled linen. She took down the refuse to the street every morning, and brought up the water, stopping for breath at each landing. And, clothed like a woman of the people, she went to the grocer's, the butcher's and the fruiterer's with her basket on her arm, shopping, arguing over every penny. Every month it was necessary to renew some debts, thus obtaining time, and to pay others. Her husband worked in the evening, putting in order the books of some merchants, and at night he often did copying at twopence a page. This life lasted for ten years.

At the end of that time they had restored all, with usurer's interest. Mme Loisel seemed old now. She had become a strong hard woman, the crude woman of a poor household. Her hair was badly dressed, her skirts untidy, her hands red, her voice loud. But sometimes when her husband was at the office, she would sit before the window and think of the evening party, of that ball where she had been so beautiful and so flattered.

What would have happened if she had never lost the necklace? Who knows? How strange life is and how full of changes! How small a thing will ruin or save one's life!

## 4

Part Four: One Sunday, as she was walking in the Champs Elysees, she suddenly saw a woman walking with a child. It was Mme Forestier, still young, still attractive. Mme Loisel was moved with emotion. Should she speak to her? Yes, certainly. And now that she had paid, she would tell her everything. She approached her. "Good morning, Jeanne."

Her friend did not recognise her and was astonished to be greeted in this way by a poor woman. She stammered:

"But Madame - I do not know you - you must be mistaken..."

"No, I am Mathilde Loisel."

Her friend uttered a cry of astonishment: "Oh, my poor Mathilde! How you have changed...!"

"Yes, I have had some hard days since I last saw you, and some miserable ones. And all because of you..."

"Because of me! How is that?"

"You remember the diamond necklace you lent me to wear at the Minister's ball?"

"Yes, very well."

"Well, I lost it."

"How is that, since you returned it to me?"

"I returned another exactly like it, and it has taken us ten years to pay for it. You can understand that it was not easy for us who have nothing. But it is paid for now, and I am glad."

Mme Forestier had stopped.

"You say you bought a diamond necklace to replace mine?"

"Yes, you did not perceive it, then? They were just alike." And she smiled with proud simple joy.

Mme Forestier, deeply moved, took both her hands as she replied: "Oh! My poor Mathilde. Why, my necklace was paste. It was worth at the most five hundred francs!"

(Source: LESCOAW, Book 4, pp.149-55)

#### Text No. 24

##### Vain

Fuad was a clever boy from a village. He felt vain because he went to a big secondary school in the city. He thought he was much cleverer than his parents, neither of whom had studied at a secondary school. One day, when he came home from school, his mother put a big dish of rice on the table, with two fat roast chickens.\*

'Come and sit down!' she said to Fuad. 'Supper is ready.' His father was already sitting at the head of the table. Fuad was very fond of chicken, but he couldn't help showing his parents how clever he was.

'I can prove that these two chickens are really three chickens.' he said to his parents.

'How?' asked his father, who was a bit tired of his son's clever remarks.

'By arithmetic,' said Fuad, pointing at the birds on the dish.

'This is one, that is two; one and two make three.'

'That's quite right,' his father said. 'Your mother can have the first chicken, I'll have the second, and you can have the third as a reward for your great knowledge.'

(Source: LESCOAW, Book 2, p.3.)

\* The lexeme 'chicken' is used here instead of 'pigeon' in the original story for cultural reasons as it is very rare that people in Iraq eat pigeons.

APPENDIX 7EXPERIMENTAL SEMANTIC FIELDS AND LOCATIONS OF  
FIELD MEMBERS IN TEACHING MATERIALS1. Field of "Kinship"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u> <sup>1</sup>
grandfather	23 (i.e. Text No. 23); PT 7.78 (i.e. 'Previously Taught' in NECI, Book 7, p.78)
grandmother	18
father	2; Pt 1.174 (i.e. NECI Book 1, p.174)
mother	2; Pt 1.174
uncle	Pt 2.73; LR 189 (Literary Reader 2, i.e. Oliver Twist, p.189)
aunt	i.e. Oliver Twist, p.189
brother	2, PT 1.174
sister	2, PT 1.174
son	2, PT 1.174
daughter	2, PT 2.7
grandson	3
granddaughter	3
nephew	LR 190
niece	PT 4.172
cousin	PT 2.177
husband	2; PT 6.169
wife	2, PT 4.111
father-in-law	3 (introduced) <sup>2</sup>
mother-in-law	3 (introduced)
brother-in-law	3 (introduced)
sister-in-law	3 (introduced)
son-in-law	2
daughter-in-law	3
couple	14 (A)
parent	PT 5.72; 24
relative	14 (B)

1 The locations given here are only examples of the occurrence of lexical items in the teaching materials. There may be other locations of the items but these are not given here in full as frequency was not a variable in our experiment.

2. This means that the lexical item did not occur in the text in question (or elsewhere in the teaching materials) but was taught to the subjects in both groups with the help of the context of situation created by the text.

## 2. Field of "Destruction"

### 2.1. Total Animate Destruction (Human Beings)

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
kill	3; PT 7.23; LR 158
murder	18
assassinate	PT 6.106
massacre	14 (B)
slaughter	15
butcher	15 (introduced)
execute	13 (A)

### 2.2. Total Inanimate Destruction

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
smash	12; PT 6.59
shatter	12
crush	12
burst	7; 12

## 3. Field of "Damage"

### 3.1. Partial Animate Damage (Human Beings)

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
harm	4; LR 86
hurt	4
injure	4
wound	7.105; LR 88

### 3.2 Partial Inanimate Damage

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
damage	12; PT 5.83
spoil	6
crack	22
split	6
repair	9; PT 7.201
mend	PT 4.187

## 4. Field of "Discussing"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
discuss	5; 7.135; LR 86
debate	5
argue	5
converse	PT 6.172

5. Field of "Taking Hold of"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
seize	6; LR 144
grasp	18; LR 95 <sup>3</sup>
snatch	6
grab	18
grip	18

6. Field of "Stating Publicly"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
declare	23; 7.93; 7.191
announce	5; 7.99
proclaim	7 (i.e. Text No. 7)
mention	7.189 (Book 7, p.189)
assert	PT 6.172
report	7.189
expose	13 (C)
refer to	PT 7.53
disclose	LR 93
reveal	7

7. Field of "Transfer of Possession"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
lend	7.120
let	10
borrow	23
rent	9; PT 6.130
lease	9
hire	9 (introduced; PT LR 1, p.56 (i.e. Literary Reader 1, <u>Kipps</u> studied in the year before the experiment)
sell	PT 2.145
buy	PT 2.145
purchase	7; 9
steal	5
inherit	PT 6.159
get	23; 2.15; 5.72

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3. The lexeme 'grasp' occurred in Text No. 18 in the sense of "understood". This was explained to the subjects in both groups, i.e. Exp. G. and C.G.

8. Field of "Looking"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
look	22; PT 2.20
gaze	22
stare	7; LR 126
glance	7; 10
glimpse	7
peer	22; LR 106
glare	22; LR 95; LR 102
gape	11

9. Field of "Being Angry"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
angry	PT 4.97
annoyed	20
irritated	23
exasperated	7
furious	5; 20; LR 90
indignant	22
pleased	PT 5.72
satisfied	LT LR 1, p.16; 20 (introduced)
displeased	PT 5.72

10. Field of "Being Beautiful"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
beautiful	23; PT 7.34;
lovely	15; PT 7.34; LR 99
pretty	23
attractive	23
charming	23
handsome	LR 104

11. Field of "Having Opinion of Oneself"

<u>Lexeme</u>	<u>Location</u>
conceited	5 (introduced)
proud <sub>1</sub> (positive sense)	20; 7.173
proud <sub>2</sub> (negative sense)	LR 109
vain	24
arrogant	5 (introduced)
haughty	LR p.2
ashamed	14
humble	5; 20
modest	LR 74

APPENDIX 8SEMANTIC FIELDS AS TAUGHT TO EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

The following is a detailed account of the experimental semantic fields as taught to the Exp.G.

1. Field of "Kinship"

The field of "Kinship" used in the experiment consisted of English consanguineal and affinal terms some of which had been taught in previous years; these were referred to, in Appendix 7, as 'Previously Taught' (henceforth 'PT'). For simplicity of presentation, the field was divided into three parts, each part was taught in a teaching session. The consanguineal terms were divided into two parts: the third part consisted of the affinal terms. The whole field was built up by means of three 'partial' diagrams completing one another into one final diagram; these are diagrams A, B and C given below.

Part One: consisted of the following kin terms taught by using diagram A; of course, explanations of the diagram and how it works were provided. The kin terms are presented here in the order of being taught during the experiment starting with those referring to the immediate family and then the two affinal terms 'husband' and 'wife' added to the consanguineal terms because of their occurrence in Text No. 2 (see Appendix 6) used for the teaching of kinship terms.

20. Ego    10. father (PT.1.174)<sup>1</sup>    9. mother (PT.1.174)    4. grandfather  
(father's father)    3. grandmother (father's mother)    2. grandfather (mother's  
father)    1. grandmother (mother's mother)    32. son (PT.2.7)    29 daughter  
(PT. 2.7)    40 grandson (son's son)    39 granddaughter (son's daughter)  
38. grandson (daughter's son)    37. granddaughter (daughter's daughter)  
22. brother (PT. 1.174)    23 sister (PT.1..174)

Some of the above relations were summarized as follows:

4. father's father		grandfather
2. mother's father		
3. father's mother		grandmother
1. mother's mother		
40. son's son		grandson
38. daughter's son		

---

1. To be read Book One, Page 174. This refers to the occurrence of the lexical item concerned in TNECI for the first time; the subsequent occurrences are not referred to.

39. son's daughter		granddaughter
37. daughter's daughter		

Diagram A (given over) was used for the teaching of the above lexical items.

Part Two consisted of the following consanguineal terms taught by using

Diagram B.

11. father's brother		uncle (PT. 2.73)
8. mother's brother		uncle (PT. 2.73)
12. father's sister		aunt (PT. 2.73)
9. mother's sister		aunt (PT. 2.73)
28. aunt's son		cousin (PT. 2.177)
27. aunt's daughter		
26. uncle's son		
25. uncle's daughter		
18. uncle's son		
17. uncle's daughter		
16. aunt's son		
15. aunt's daughter		

Part Three included the following lexical items taught by Diagram C.

19. wife (PT. 4.111)		Revised as they were presented in Part One
20. husband (PT. 6.169)		

6. wife's father : father-in-law (the relation of 6 to 20)  
10b. husband's father : father-in-law (the relation of 10b to 19)

5. wife's mother : mother-in-law (the relation of 5 to 20)  
9b. husband's mother : mother-in-law (the relation of 9b. to 19)

13. wife's sister : sister-in-law (the relation of 13 to 20)  
23b. husband's sister : sister-in-law (the relation of 23b to 19)  
21b. brother's wife : sister-in-law (the relation of 21b to 20)

14. wife's brother : brother-in-law (the relation of 14 to 10)  
22b. husband's brother : brother-in-law (the relation of 22b to 19)  
24b. sister's husband : brother-in-law (the relation of 24b to 20)

30. daughter's husband : son-in-law  
31. son's wife : daughter-in-law



Kinship : Part One

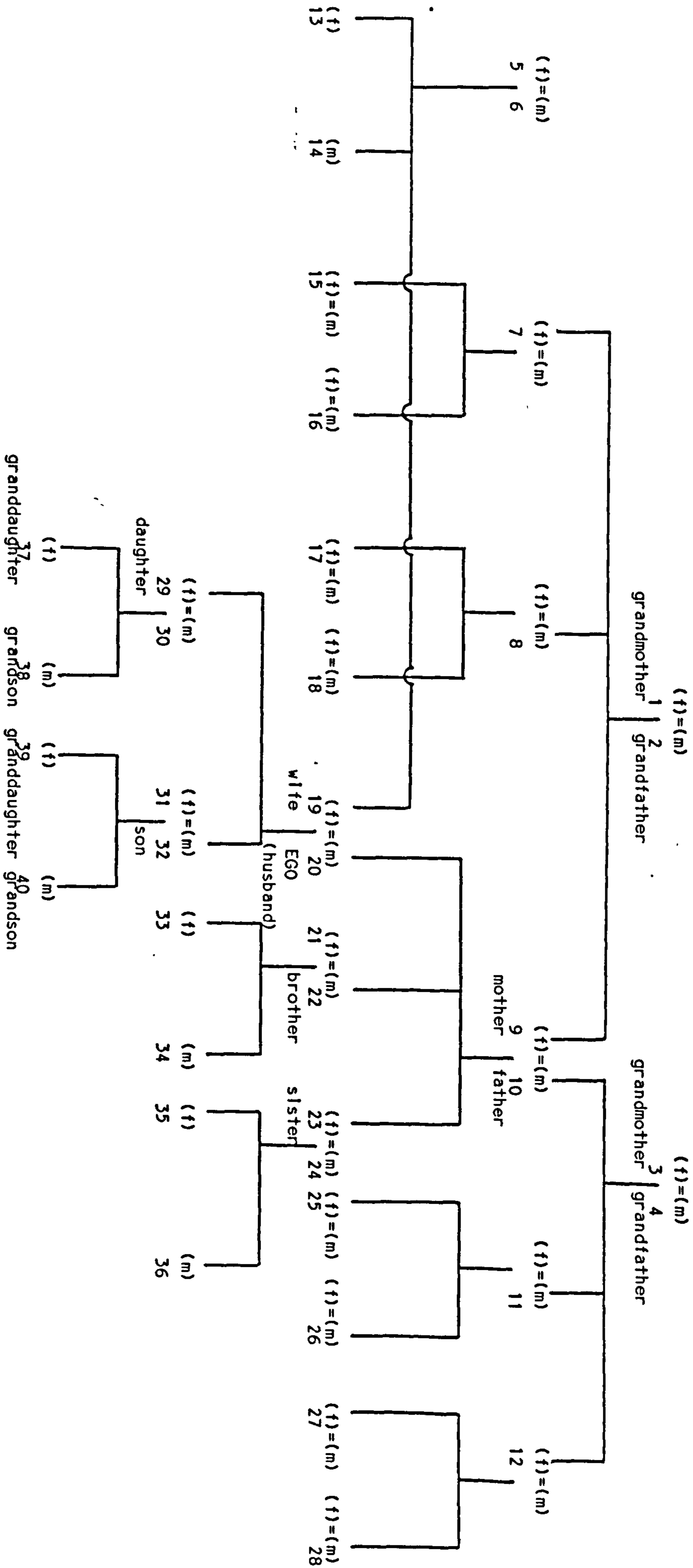


Diagram A : Kinship System in English : Blood Relations

Kinship : Part Two

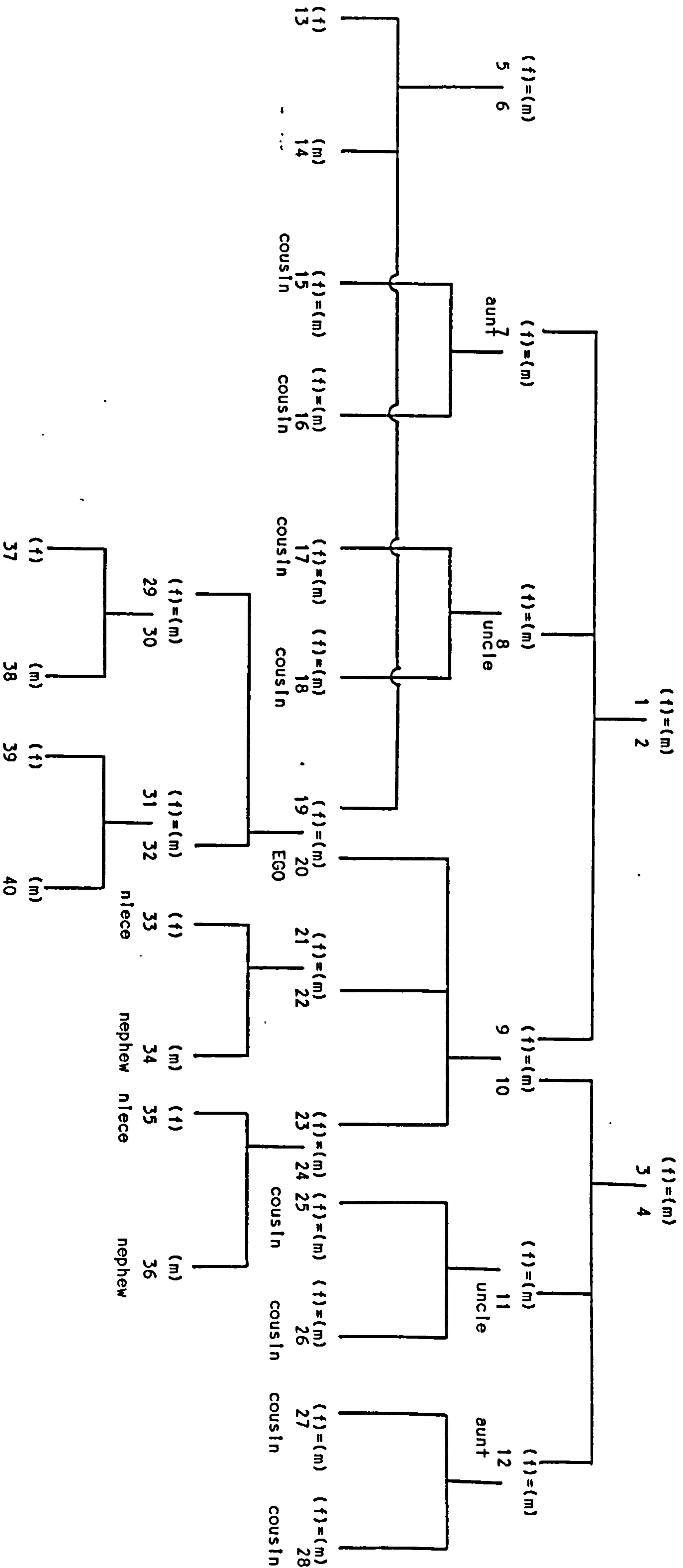


Diagram B

Kinship System In English : Blood Relations

Kinship : Part Three

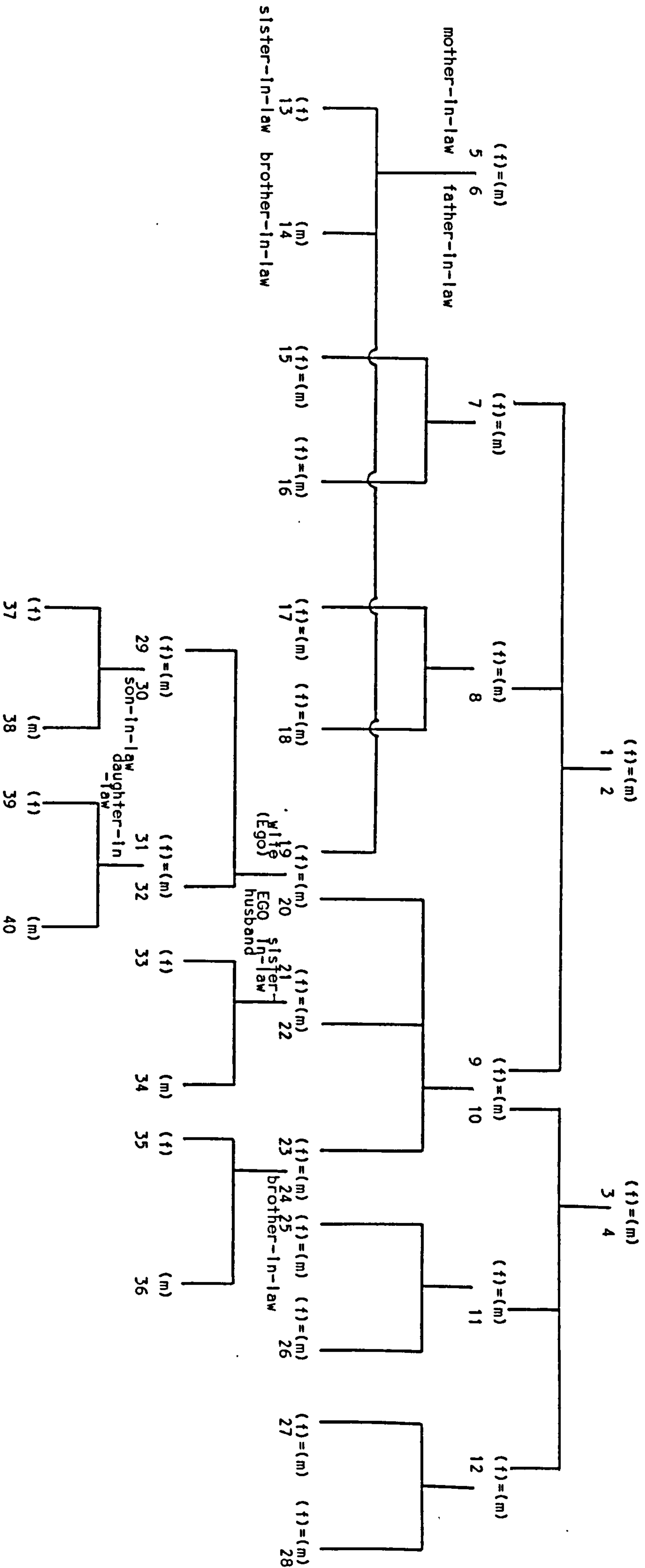


Diagram C : Kinship System In English : Relations by Marriage

## 2. Field of "Destruction"

This was a fairly broad field and was divided into two subfields.

### 2.1. "Total Animate Destruction (Human Beings)"

This subfield included the following lexical items:

'kill, murder, assassinate, massacre, slaughter, butcher, execute'

The nouns derived from the above verbs (that is 'killing, murder, assassination, massacre, slaughter, butchery, execution') were also given as both the verbs and the nouns occurred in the reading texts. The following CG (Componential Grid) was used to present the meanings of these items to the Exp.G.

The Componential Grid was explained to the Exp. G. in steps:

(i) The notion of semantic field was explained to the learners in a simplified way giving them a number of examples of fields.

(ii) How the Componential Grid works was explained with particular emphasis on the notion (+) and (blank). The similarities and differences between the meanings of the lexical items were explained through the semantic features on the grid.<sup>2</sup>

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2. For simplicity, the word 'table' was used instead of 'grid'; the term 'word' was used instead of 'lexical item'.

GRID No. 1

## 2. Field of Destruction

## 2.1. Total Animate Destruction (Human Beings)

	causing to die	done on purpose	suggests a criminal act	suggests cruelty	usually against defenceless people	suggests condemnation	large numbers of victims involved	usually for political reasons	as a lawful punishment
kill	+								
murder	+	+	+						
assassinate	+	+	+					+	
massacre	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		
slaughter	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		
butcher	+	+	+	+	+	+			
execute	+	+							+

N.B.1. Nouns

'killing, murder, assassination, massacre, slaughter'

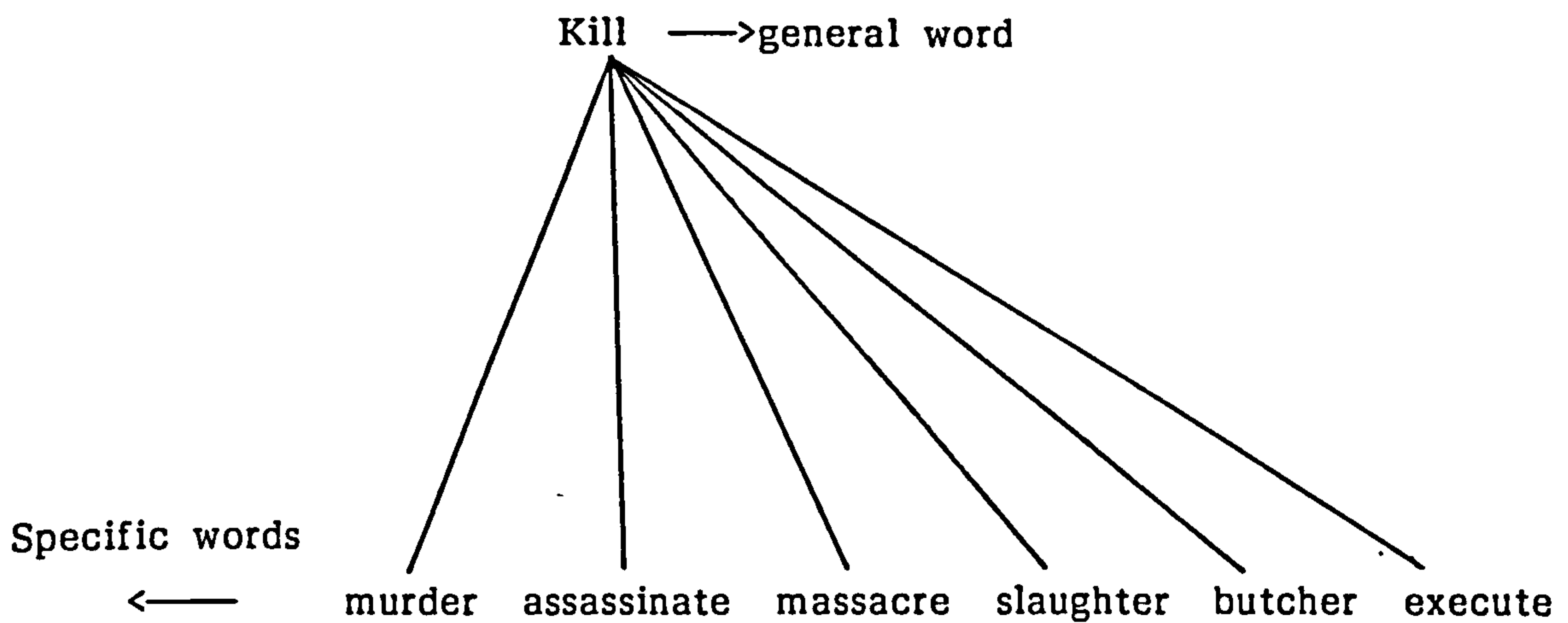
2. The words 'slaughter' and 'butcher' are basically butcher's terms used to refer to the killing of animals for food. When used to refer to the killing of human beings, they may be regarded as 'synonyms'. e.g. Hundreds of people were slaughtered (= butchered) in the refugee camps.

### Model Sentences (Examples)

1. He was killed in an accident.
2. He admitted that he had accidentally killed his wife, but denied that he had murdered her in cold blood.
3. At least two attempts were made to assassinate the Prime Minister.
4. They massacred all the prisoners after the battle.
5. Thousands of people were slaughtered in the war.
6. It was no longer a battle but a slaughter.
7. He often butchered his victims with a knife.
8. He was executed for murder.

### (Sense-Relations)

9. A horrible massacre was committed in Beirut in 1982; hundreds of men, women and children were slaughtered.



(iii) The learners were then guided through the model sentences and helped to understand the meanings of the field members.

(iv) They were asked to study the grid and the examples (model sentences) at home but they were not required to memorize the grid.

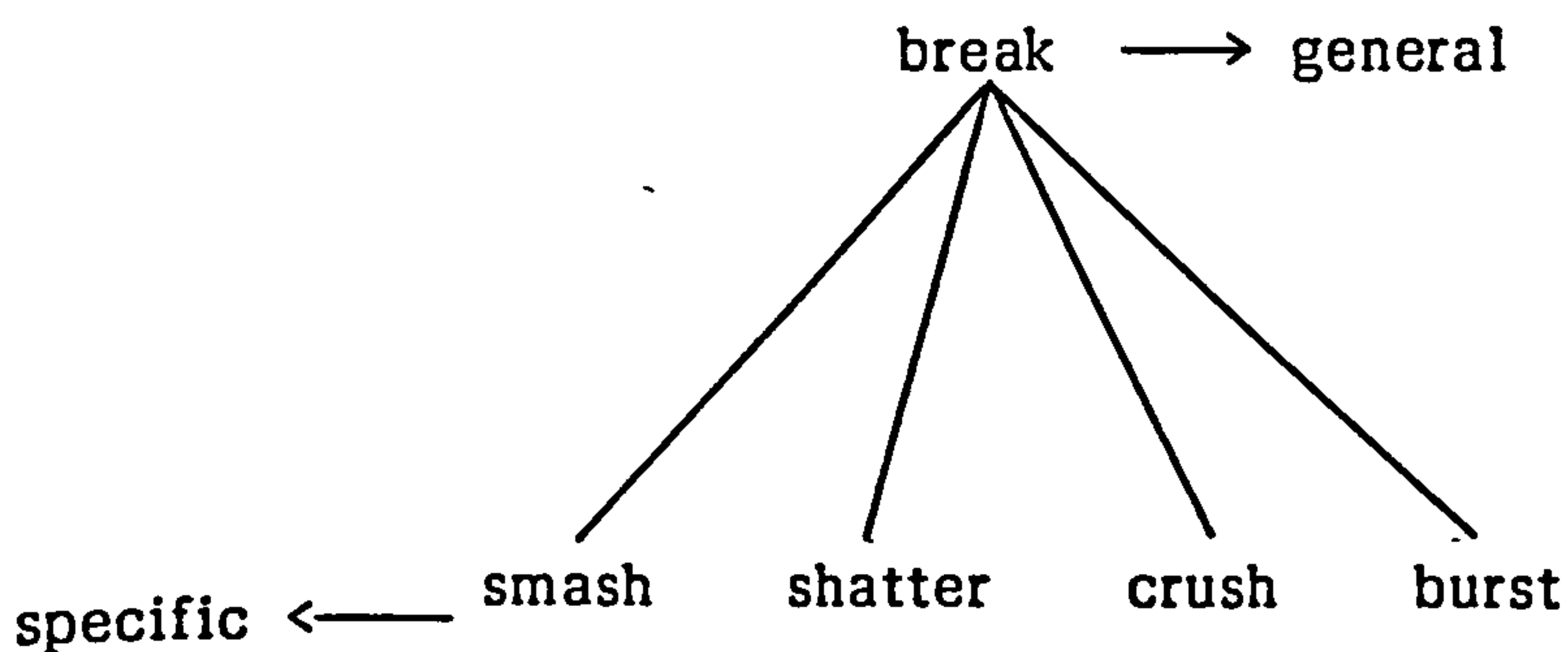
## 2.2. "Total Inanimate Destruction"

This subfield consisted of the following lexical items: 'smash, shatter, crush, burst'. These were presented in Grid 2. The Model Sentences used to exemplify this subfield were:

1. He smashed the vase by accident.
2. The explosion shattered every window in the building.
3. This machine crushes wheat grain to make flour.
4. The children burst all the balloons we bought for the party.
5. The tyre burst.

### Notes

(Sense-Relations)



The lexical item 'break' can be used instead of any of the other lexical items but its meaning will be general - sometimes too general. The other items, therefore, are used to specify the sort of breaking intended in a particular context. For example, we can say: 'The picture fell and broke the vase' but we can also say, for example, 'The picture fell and shattered the vase' emphasizing the fact that the vase was broken into very many small pieces.

GRID No. 2.

## 2. Field of Destruction

## 2.2. Total Inanimate Destruction

	forcible breaking	suddenly and quickly	with or resulting from violence	usually with noise	usually resulting in contents spreading over a wide area	into very many small pieces	out of pressure
smash	+	+	+	+		+	
shatter	+	+	+		+	+	
crush	+						+
burst	+	+					+



### 3. Field of "Damage"

This field was also divided into two subfields as to whether the items in it are used to refer to the partial damage concerning animate objects (human beings) or inanimate things.

#### 3.1. "Partial Animate Damage (Human Beings)"

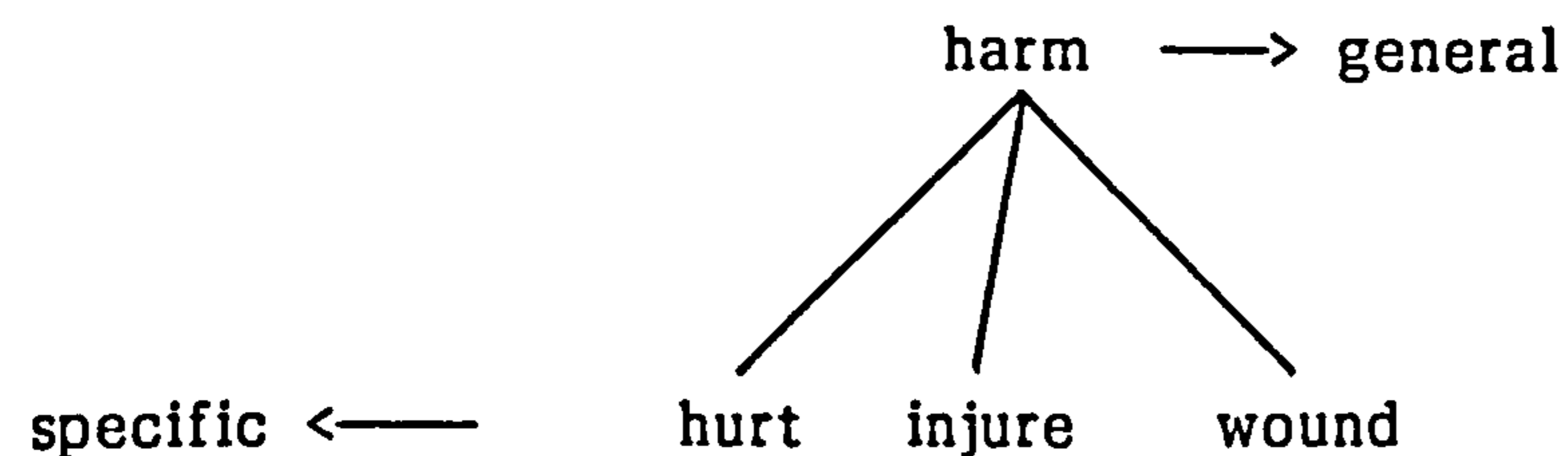
The lexical items in this subfield were:

'harm, hurt, injure, wound'. They were presented in Grid 3, and were exemplified in model sentences.

#### Model Sentences

1. They were afraid that in his anger he would harm the child.
2. Smoking a lot of cigarettes can harm and even kill over a long period of time.
3. He was injured in a train crash.
4. Ten soldiers were killed and thirty wounded in the latest fighting.
5. He wounded his opponent in the arm with a knife.

#### Notes



GRID No. 3

## 3. Field of Damage

## 3.1. Partial Animate Damage (Human Beings)

	partially damage	cause temporary loss of value or function	cause physical pain	cause mental suffering	have a bad effect on	cause wounds, bruises, broken bones	cause serious cuts	done on purpose	as a result of an accident	as a result of fighting, battle, war or other serious events	done with a weapon e.g. a gun, a sharp instrument (e.g. a sword).
harm	+	+		+	+						
hurt	+	+	+	+					+		
injure	+	+	+		+	+	+		+		
wound	+	+	+				+	+		+	+

Notes

The lexemes (wound, injure) are usually preceded by a qualifier (e.g. an adverb) in order to show the degree of their intensity.:

e.g. badly / seriously / severely / wounded, injured. Both lexemes are more serious than 'hurt'.

### 3.2. "Partial Inanimate Damage"

This subfield included four lexemes: 'damage, spoil, crack, split'. They were presented in Grid No. 4. and were exemplified in sentences. The sense-relation of antonymy holding between the lexeme 'damage' and two lexemes previously met by the learners was dealt with.

#### Model Sentences

1. Her heart was slightly damaged as a result of her long illness.
2. The storm damaged several houses.
3. He spoil his painting by putting too much red paint on it.
4. The fruit was spoil by insects.
5. You've cracked the window but luckily you've not broken it.
6. This soft wood splits easily.
7. He split the piece of wood with an axe.

#### Notes

##### Sense-Relations

damage      x    repair, mend

e.g.

1. The car was damaged in the accident but we soon had it repaired.
2. He repairs broken watches.  
    (mends)

GRID No. 4

## 3. Field of Damage

## 3.1. Partial Inanimate Damage

	partially destroy			
	partially break			
	break without dividing into separate parts			
	break along a line of weakness			
damage	+			
spoil	+			
crack		+	+	
split		+		+

#### 4. Field of "Discussing"

This included four lexemes 'discuss, argue, debate, converse' as verbs and as nouns (that is 'discussion, argument, debate, conversation'). A brief componential grid (No. 5) and model sentences were used.

#### Model Sentences

1. She refuses to discuss the matter with him.
2. They argued the case for hours.
3. You can argue either way, for or against.
4. He was arguing that poverty may be a blessing.
5. They were debating about the best way to solve the problem peacefully.
6. He likes to converse with her about anything.

#### GRID No. 5

#### 4. Field of Discussing

	talk about something	with details and from several points of view	by giving reasons for or against something	formally	usually under the control of a referee	informally
discuss	+	+				
argue	+		+			
debate	+	+		+	+	
converse	+					+

#### Nouns

(discussion, argument, debate, conversation)

### 5. Field of "Taking Hold of"

This included the following lexemes: 'seize, grasp, snatch, grab, grip'. The field was also presented by a componential grid and was exemplified in sentences.

#### GRID No. 6

#### 5. Field of "Taking Hold of"

	suddenly and forcibly	eagerly	firmly	quickly	in order to take away	often selfishly	tightly
seize	+	+					
grasp	+		+				
snatch	+			+	+		
grab	+					+	
grip	+						+

#### Model Sentences

1. He seized my hand, shook it, and said how glad he was to see me.
2. She grasped the knife and threatened to kill him.
3. The thief snatched the woman's bag and ran away.
4. He grabbed her and pulled her out of the path of the truck.
5. She gripped his hand in fear.



Model Sentences

1. The two countries declared war against one another.
2. John was declared the winner of the fight.
3. They announced the date of their wedding in the newspaper.
4. The ringing bells proclaimed the news of the birth of the prince.
5. He mentioned a useful book.
6. He asserted that he was innocent.
7. He was asked to report the murder trial for the newspaper.
8. She threatened to expose the plan to the police.
9. He disclosed that he had an affair with his secretary.
10. In his speech, the Minister referred to the incident involving his daughter.



## 7. Field of "Transfer of Possession"

This is an interesting field as it can be analysed in terms of many sense-relations in addition to a componential analysis. The field was taught in three ways:

### (i) by a Componential Grid

This was used in the teaching of the following lexemes:

'lend, let, borrow, rent, lease, hire'. Grid No. 8 was used for this purpose.

### (ii) by Sense-Relations

Most of the lexemes in this group had been met by the learners in previous years. But we assume, of course, that the learners had only a partial knowledge of their meanings as an important aspect of meaning, that is, sense-relations, had not been dealt with before. The lexemes in this group may therefore be regarded as being re-taught during the experiment by the use of the sense-relations holding between them. The lexemes in this group were:

'lend : borrow (converses); sell : buy (converses); purchase = buy (synonyms); and the relation between 'get' (superordinate) and the lexemes 'purchase, buy, steal, inherit, hire' (hyponyms)

lend : borrow (converses)

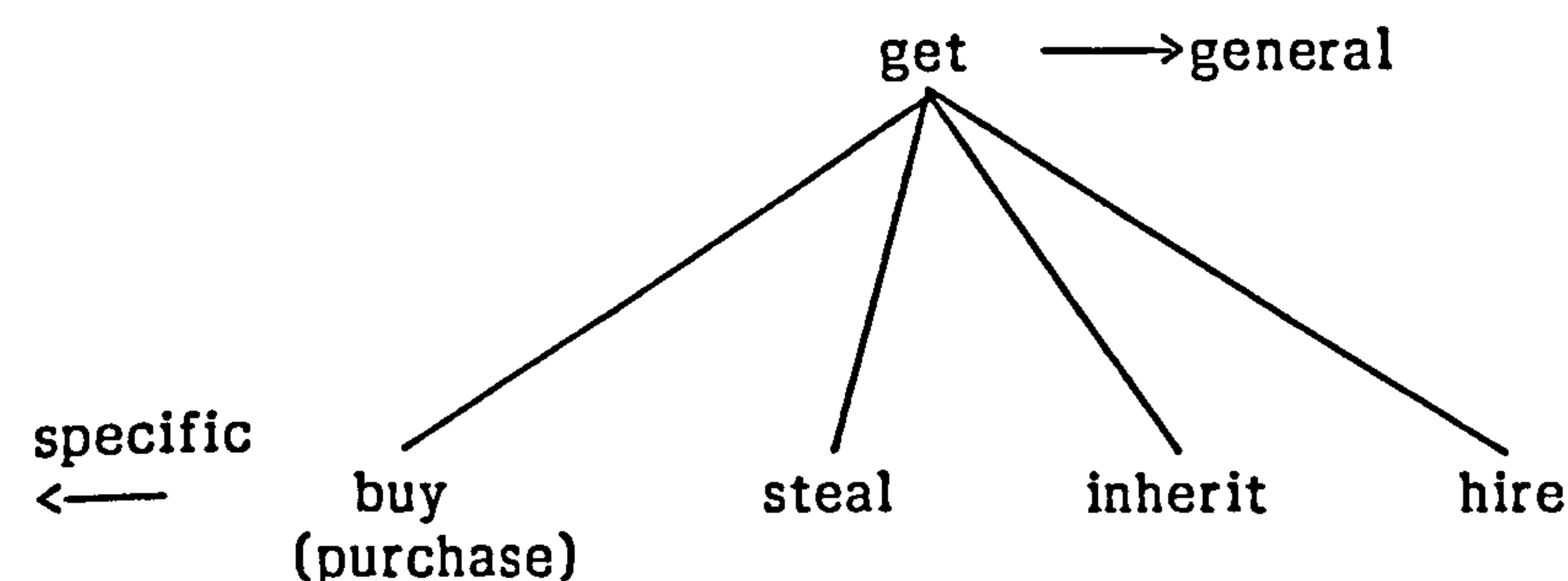
e.g. He borrowed £10 from a friend = A friend lent him £10.

sell : buy (converses)

e.g. Jim sold the house to Bill = Bill bought the house from Jim.

purchase = buy (synonyms)

e.g. They purchased a house in the country = They bought a house in the country.



### Examples

1. I'll go to the shop and get some bread. (= buy)
2. The thieves intended to break into the house and get the jewels. (= steal)
3. I got the house I wanted. (= rented or bought according to the context).
4. He got a big fortune from his uncle who died last month. (= inherited)
5. We're getting another worker who will help us in the garden. (= hiring)

GRID No. 8

## • 7. Field of "Transfer of Possession"

	give the temporary use of something	get the temporary use of something	in return for payment	always by written contract	usually for a long time	usually for a short time
lend	+					
let	+		+			
borrow		+				
rent		+	+			
lease	+	+	+	+	+	
hire	+	+	+			+

## (iii) Collocational Grid

The lexical items 'lend, let, borrow, rent, lease, hire' differ widely in their collocations. As mentioned before, the collocations of field members often help the learners understand the similarities and differences between the lexical items of the field. Some collocations of the above lexemes were thus presented to the learners in the following collocational grid:

Collocational Grid for Some of the Lexemes in the Field of  
"Transfer of Possession"

	rooms	flats	houses	shops	money	dresses	suit	typewriters	theatres	coaches	cars	boats
lend	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+
let	+	+	+	+								
borrow	+	+	+		+	+	+	+			+	+
rent	+	+	+	+							(+)*	
lease	+	+	+	+					+			
hire						+	+	+	+	+	+	+

\*This usage is mainly American, but it is becoming increasingly British.  
 lease : e.g. They leased their farm for several years.  
 rent : e.g. He rented a room from Mrs. Jones.  
 let : e.g. This room is let to a student.

\* The following note about the use of 'purchase' and 'buy' was also given to help differentiate between the two lexemes as they were given as synonyms and it was felt that it may be useful for the learners to know something about the difference between the two.

Usage Note (buy, purchase)

The word 'buy' is the more general and can freely be used to refer to any small or day-to-day exchange of money for goods. 'Purchase', on the other hand, implies that the things bought are of some importance. Thus, one buys (rather than purchases) a dozen eggs, a shirt, or a new tie but one purchases (or buys) a yacht or a country estate. Whereas 'purchase' may almost always be replaced by 'buy', the use of purchase instead of buy weakens the effect of the sentence and may be unacceptable.

### 8. Field of "Looking"

The field consisted of eight lexemes: 'look, gaze, stare, glance, glimpse, peer, glare, gape'. Componential Grid No. 9 was used to represent the field to the learners.

#### GRID No. 9

#### 8. Field of "Looking"

	to direct the eyes towards	intently as in wonder, interest, delight, admiration, etc.	for a long time	momentarily or briefly	so that the object is hardly seen	with the mouth wide-open, as in wonder	with wide-open eyes as in amazement	angrily or fiercely	searchingly	closely	with difficulty in seeing clearly
look	+										
gaze	+	+	+								
stare	+	+	+			+	+				
glance	+			+							
glimpse	+				+						
peer	+								+	+	+
glare	+							+			
gape	+		+			+					

### Model Sentences

1. We looked but saw nothing.
2. Look to see whether the road is clear before you cross.
3. He gazed at her beauty.
4. Children should be taught not to stare at handicapped people.
5. He glanced at the passing car.
6. I glimpsed her among the crowd, then she disappeared.
7. She peered through the mist, trying to find the right path.
8. She stared at him in surprise.
9. They did not fight, but stood there gazing at one another.
10. When I told him the news he didn't reply, but just gaped at me in amazement.

### Usage Notes

The verb 'glimpse' must take a direct object, while the other verbs require a preposition - often at, but also into, over and others.

Examples (in addition to the model sentences given above)

1. I just glimpsed the house through the trees as we drew near to it.
2. Look at that monkey stealing an apple!
3. As he gazed lovingly into her eyes, she felt she would always love him.
4. Could you just glance over this letter to make sure there are no mistakes in it?
5. We peered uncertainly into the darkness trying to distinguish the route through the forest.
6. Don't just sit there staring into space, get on with your work!
7. We stared in surprise at some strangely-dressed people in the street.
8. The boxer glared at his opponent.
9. Why are you glaring at me in that unpleasant way? Have I done something wrong?
10. Near-sighted people often peer at you when they are not wearing their glasses.

9. Field of "Being Angry"

This field was taught in two ways: (i) by a componential grid (Grid No. 10), and (ii) by sense-relations holding between the field members and two other lexemes already met by the learners ('pleased' and 'satisfied').

GRID No. 10

9. Field of "Being Angry"

	filled with displeasure							
	mild or severe		because of certain repeated acts	in an unpleasant way	in a violent or uncontrolled way	bitterly	with surprise	because of injustice or unfair blame
angry	+	+						
annoyed	+		+					
irritated	+			+				
furious		+			+			
exasperated		+			+	+		
indignant		+					+	+

Model Sentences

1. She'll be angry if you go there.
2. I was annoyed because he kept asking me silly questions.
3. We were irritated by the delay of the train.
4. I was exasperated by the noise.
5. She'll be furious with us if we're late.
6. He was indignant at the false accusation.
7. She was so exasperated by his snoring that she went out and slept on the sofa.
8. He expressed his indignation at being unfairly dismissed.

## (ii) by sense-relations

angry  
 annoyed  
 irritated  
 furious  
 exasperated  
 indignant

x pleased; satisfied  
 e.g. She was pleased at the way in which he addressed her.  
 (is the opposite of)  
 She was angry at the way in which he addressed her.  
 e.g. He was angry about his marks in the exam. (x) He was satisfied with his marks in the exam.



### 10. Field of "Being Beautiful"

This field was presented by two grids: (i) a Componential Grid (Grid No. 11), and (ii) a Collocational Grid. It included the following lexemes: 'beautiful, lovely, pretty, charming, attractive, good-looking, handsome'.

The sense-relation of antonymy holding between the lexemes of "Being Beautiful" and some of the lexemes of "Being Ugly" were given in order to reinforce the understanding of the meanings of the field, particularly that the other lexemes were already encountered by the learners or the prefixes attached to them were well-known before. Thus we had:

beautiful		x ugly
pretty		
handsome		
good-looking		
attractive	x	unattractive
charming	x	uncharming



Model Sentences

1. What a beautiful girl she is, with such beautiful long hair.
2. This is one of the most beautiful houses in the town.
3. It's a really lovely day for a picnic.
4. She looks much prettier with long hair than with short hair.
5. What a pretty little garden.
6. She is an attractive girl.
7. What a charming young man, I do like him.
8. The children of that family are all good-looking.
9. He's a handsome fellow.
10. She has two lovely girls.

It should be noted that in spite of the fact that the componential grid dealing with this field (Grid No. 11) was limited to humans, the examples above and the collocational grid over were extended to cover a wide range of things in addition to the physical characteristics of human beings.

(ii) Collocational Grid



11. Field of "Having Opinion of Oneself"

The field was presented by (i) a componential grid (Grid No. 12) and (ii) sense-relations holding between the lexical items in the field and between them and other items belonging to the field of "Being Ashamed" (e.g. 'ashamed, humble, modest').

GRID No. 12

11. Field of "Having Opinion of Oneself"

	having high opinion of oneself or what one has done		having excessive desire to win the notice, approval or praise of others	having excessive admiration of one's wealth, station, learning, achievement etc.	showing rudeness or disrespect or contempt for others	showing a desire to dominate others	feeling that one's superiority is self-evident	thinking too highly of one's appearance
	justified	unjustified						
conceited		+					+	
proud <sub>1</sub>	+							
proud <sub>2</sub>		+		+				
vain		+	+					+
arrogant		+			+	+		
haughty		+			+			

Model Sentences

1. They are conceited girls who walk home from school with their noses in the air.
2. He is very proud of his high marks in the exams. (positive sense)
3. She is too proud to admit that she was mistaken. (negative sense)
4. Our football team is very proud that it has won all its matches this season. (positive sense)
5. He is too proud to mix with the ordinary people in the village. (negative sense)
6. Vain people like to be told nice things about themselves.
7. He is an arrogant official with arrogant manners.
8. The nobles used to treat the common people with haughty contempt.

(ii) Sense-Relations

proud (positive sense) x ashamed (e.g. He was ashamed that he had lied.)

proud (negative sense) x humble (e.g. The minister is so humble that he mixes freely with ordinary people.)

vain	X	humble
conceited		modest

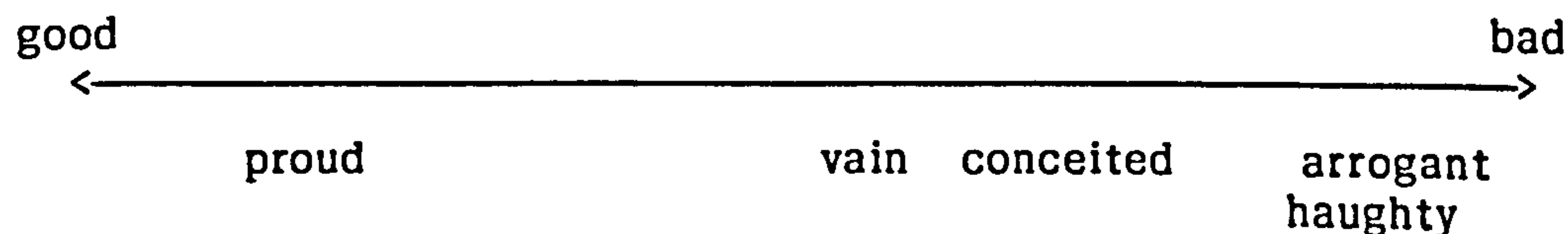
e.g. The young actress is very modest about her success; she says it's due as much to good luck as to her own abilities.

arrogant	X	modest
haughty	X	humble

N.B.

(The following note was given to the learners in the Exp.G.)

The following scale may help you understand how good or bad qualities expressed by these words are:



This is an approximate scale, of course, but it shows that vain usually describes a quality regarded as worse than that expressed by proud which can have both a good and a bad sense.

## APPENDIX 9

### Semantic Fields as Taught to Control Group

As mentioned in Chapter Eight, the experimental semantic fields were taught to the C.G. by using the translation-equivalents i.e. the meanings of the lexical items involved were 'translated' into Arabic using 'equivalents', if there are any, definitions or descriptions. The same model sentences used with the Exp.G. were also used with the C.G. in order to control the variable of model sentences and thus eliminate the effect it might have in differentiating the performance of the two groups.

The lexical items making up the experimental fields occurred in widely dispersed texts (see Appendix 7). The learners were given the 'translation equivalents' of the items in each text and the model sentences were written on the blackboard for the subjects in the C.G. to copy in their notebooks together with the 'translation equivalents'. As the lexical items were not taught in fields these items were thus presented in order of occurrence in teaching materials without any systematic effort being made to relate one item to another.

The experimental lexical items were presented with the model sentences as follows:

1. declare: /juʕlin/

e.g. The two countries declared war against one another.

(buffer items: settle, dispute, establish (peace), take place)<sup>1</sup>

2. announce: /juʕlin/

e.g. They announced the date of their wedding in the newspaper.

(buffer items: take part in, determined, happenings)<sup>2</sup>

1. The numbers before experimental lexical items in this appendix refer to the teaching sessions; thus No. 1 here refers to the first teaching session. The 'translation equivalents' were given in Arabic orthographical symbols e.g. ( يعلن ); the transcription given here is for illustration only. How the buffer items were taught to the Exp.G and C.G. is discussed in Appendix 11. The learners were not told that these lexemes were buffer items.

2. The lexemes 'declare' and 'announce' are regarded as synonyms by TNECI, p.96.

3. husband: /zawdz/ ; wife: /zawdzat/ 3  
 son: /ibn/ ; son's wife (= daughter-in-law) /zawdzat ibn/  
 son's children: /abna? ibn/ husband's brother (= brother-in-law) /hamu/;  
 husband's sister (= sister-in-law) /hamat/ ; relative: /qari:b/

(buffer items: kinsman (= relative); reputation; generation; clan; household; expenditure)

4. burst: /janfadzir/ (intransitive)

e.g. The tyre burst

burst: /jufadzir/ (transitive)

e.g. The children burst all the balloons we bought for the party.

mother: /?umm/ ; grandchildren/ahfad/

daughter /ibnat/ ; daughter-in-law /zawdzat ibn/

grandson /hafid/

(The following items were introduced even though they did not occur in

the text: son-in-law /zawdz ibnat/ ; father-in-law /?ab zawdzat/  
 mother-in-law /amma/

(buffer items: responsible for; upbringing, welfare, blast, explosion, ripped; terrace house; rubble).

5. injure: /jadzruh/

e.g. He was injured in a train crash.

(buffer items: startled, leap, bang, truck, convert, accommodation, enquiry (n), leak (v) - leakage (n).

6. damage: /judamir/

e.g. The storm damaged several houses.

(buffer items: chap, minor, spokesman, roll, in shreds, victim, blazing, superficial)

7. argue: /judzadil/

e.g. They argued the case for hours.

He was arguing that poverty may be a blessing.

discuss: /junaqif/

e.g. She refuses to discuss the matter with him.

steal: /jasruq/

e.g. She used to steal money from her father.

debate: /juhawir/

e.g. They were debating about the best way to solve the problem peacefully.

---

3. These lexemes were taught to the subjects in both the Exp.G and C.G. without 'model sentences' as such sentences, we thought, were not necessary and would not add anything to clarify meaning. The terms in brackets (e.g. 'brother-in-law') were given to the learners.



humble: /mutawaḏiʕ/

e.g. The minister is so humble that he mixes freely with ordinary people.

(introduced: conceited: /muxta:l/

e.g. They are conceited girls who walk home from school with their noses in the air).

announce (Revised)<sup>4</sup>

(buffer items: impress, submit, insist, propose, superior, rival).

8. furious: /ya:ḏub dʒidan/

e.g. She'll be furious with us if we're late again.

(buffer items: instantly, in triumph, squeeze out, boast, state (v), scholar)

9. seize: /jamsuk/

e.g. He seized my hand, shook it and said how glad he was to see me.

snatch: /jaxtuf/

e.g. The thief snatched the woman's handbag and ran away.

sister's boy (= nephew) /ibn ʔuxt/

spoil: /jatluf/

e.g. He spoilt his painting by putting too much red paint on it.

The fruit was spoilt by insects.

split: /jafluq/

e.g. He split the piece of wood with an axe.

wound: /jadʒruḥ/

e.g. He wounded his opponents in the arm with a knife.

e.g. Ten soldiers were killed and thirty wounded in the latest fighting.

(buffer items: skin (v), whirl (v), conscience, blame (v), wound stepbrother, adventurous, stick to)

10. stare: /juḥaduq/

e.g. Children should be taught not to stare at handicapped people.

e.g. She stared at him in surprise.

(buffer items: scornful, gasp, chase, traitor, vicious)

11. refer to: /juʕi:r ila/

e.g. In his speech, the minister referred to the incident involving his daughter.

glance: /julqi: naḏra sari:ʕa ʕla/

e.g. Could you just glance over this letter to make sure there are no mistakes in it?

glimpse: /jalmaḥ/ (introduced)

e.g. I glimpsed her among the crowd, then she disappeared.

announce (Revised)

(buffer items: diffidently, perspiration, flabby, sullen, scowling, dough)

4. When a lexical item was revised, the learners were asked to give its meaning and use it in a sentence.

## 12. burst (Revised)

(buffer items: recall, consternation, mopping, alertly, ruffled, twitching, offhand (manner), choked (voice), raving mad)

## 13. stare (Revised)

purchase (= buy): /jaʃtari/

e.g. They purchased a house in the country.

exasperated: /muyta:z/

e.g. She was exasperated by his snoring that she went out and slept on the sofa.

proud (positive sense): /faxu:r/

e.g. He is very proud of his high marks in the exams.

proud<sub>2</sub> (negative sense): /mutakabir/

e.g. He is too proud to mix with the ordinary people in the village.

pride (n): /faxr/

e.g. He takes much pride in his work.

(buffer items: daze, torment, bulging, unceasing, diligence)

14. proclaim: /jubafir/

e.g. The ringing bells proclaimed the news of the birth of the prince.

(buffer items: tremor, enormous, howling, blinking, mutter, snore (v))

15. lend: /juʃi:r/

e.g. He has asked me again to lend him £50.

refer to (Revised)

(buffer items: senses (= meanings), stock, librarian, reference)

16. None of the experimental lexical items were taught in this teaching session as they did not occur in the teaching materials used in the lesson period. However, some buffer items were taught; these were: full benefit, headings, classify (-ied), fiction, non-fiction, particular, catalogue).

17. lease: /juʔdzir ʔarɖan ʔaw haqlan/

e.g. They leased their farm for several years.

rent: /juʔdzir/

e.g. He rented a room from Mrs. Jones.

repair: /juʃliħ/

e.g. The car was damaged in the accident but we soon had it repaired.

(buffer items: permanent, habitation, barns, visible, involve, profit)

18. let: /juʔdzir/

e.g. This room is let to a student.

glance (Revised)

(buffer items: view, hesitate, moderate, in advance)

19. gape: /juħaduq/

e.g. When I told him the news he didn't reply; but just gaped at me in amazement.

indignant: /ša:xit/

e.g. He was indignant at the false accusation.

e.g. He expressed his indignation at being unfairly dismissed.

borrow: /jastaŋi:r/

e.g. She borrowed £10 from a friend.

(buffer items: compensation, tow away, circumstances, dash)

20. shatter: /juħaŋum/

e.g. The explosion shattered every window in the building.

smash: /jahŋum/

e.g. He smashed the vase by accident.

crush: /jaŋhaq/

e.g. This machine crushes wheat grain to make flour.

rent (Revised)

(buffer items: raise (= bring up), burgle, rear, aged (v), on the spot, dangling, miniature, valve, jumble, slash, devastation, ultimately)

21. execute: /jaŋdum/

e.g. He was executed for murder.

reveal (= to make known):

e.g. She refused to reveal the secret.

disclose (introduced): /jakŋuf/

e.g. He disclosed that he had an affair with his secretary.

(buffer items: torture, effigy, fireworks), (posttest disaster: blow up).

22. demolish: /juhdum/

e.g. They're going to demolish all the old buildings in the area.

demolition: /tahdi:m/

e.g. They have decided to carry out the demolition plan in spite of the many protests.

(buffer items: infamous, slum, restore, phase).

expose: /jafðaħ/

e.g. She threatened to expose the plan to the police.

(buffer items: crack down, illicit, drugs, addicts)

23. couple (= husband and wife): /zawdʒa:n/

relative (Revised)

(buffer items: house-warming (party), generous, bare)

massacre (v): /jartakib madzara/

e.g. They massacred all the prisoners after the battle.

massacre (n) /madzara/; /maðbaha/

e.g. A horrible massacre was committed in Beirut in 1982; hundreds of Palestinian men, women and children were killed in the refugee camps.

(buffer items: cluster, outskirts, flare, mop up, chilling)

24. ashamed: /xadzla:n/

e.g. He was ashamed that he had lied.

slaughter: /jaðbah/

e.g. Thousands of people were slaughtered in the war.

slaughter: /maðbaha/ , /madzara/

e.g. It was no longer a battle but a slaughter.

lovely: /fa:tin/ (to describe humans)

e.g. She has two lovely girls.

lovely : /ra?iʃ/ (to describe things)

e.g. It's really a lovely day for a picnic.

butcher (introduced): /jadzur/

e.g. He often butchered his victims with a knife.

(buffer items: acrid, dim, gaudy, pitcher, hearth, grounds (of coffee), brews, cloak, in conformity with, mortar, intimation, partake)

25. None of the experimental items was taught.

(buffer items: figure, contribute, corrupted, literature, philosophy, logic)

26. None of the experimental lexical items was taught in this teaching session.

(buffer items: appendix, uncompounded, compounding, systematize, theoretical, theory).

27. None of the experimental items was taught.

(buffer items: knowledge, metaphysics, observation, motion, gravity, vital (role)).

28. gaze: /juhaduq/

e.g. He gazed at her beauty.

e.g. As he gazed lovingly into her eyes, she felt she could always love him.

glance (Revised)

(buffer items: loiter, idle, milliner, spellbound, rows, scenes, indifference, indispensable, squander, concentration, common-sense, inaccessible).

attraction: /dzaðibiʃa/

e.g. The greatest attraction for me is her voice.

attractive: /dzaðaba/

e.g. She is an attractive girl.

beauty: /dzamal/

e.g. She is a girl of great beauty.

beautiful: /dzami:l/

e.g. What a beautiful girl she is, with

such beautiful long hair.

e.g. This is one of the most beautiful houses in the town.

## 29. glance (Revised)

grasp ( = understand) /jafham/

e.g. I grasped the main points of the speech.

grasp ( = to seize firmly) (Revised)

(buffer items: ravaging, pony, huge, immense, irresistibly, hollowness, futility, absurd, puppet, perceive).

## 30. grandmother (Revised)

murder (n): /dʒari:mat qat l/

e.g. He was jailed for murder.

(buffer items: charge (v), share, cartridges, magazine (of a gun), aim (v)).

## 31. discuss (Revised)

repair (Revised)

pull down (posttest distractor) ( = demolish) /juhdim/

e.g. Half the houses in the street were being pulled down to make room for the new post office.

(buffer items: innumerable, trigger, devilish, mysterious, paralyse, slob, senile, agony, droop, jolt, remnant, hind, collapse, topple, trumpet).

## 32. None of the experimental items was taught here.

(buffer items: circulate, comments (n), entertain, cater for, devote, edit, editor).

## 33. None of the experimental items was taught.

(buffer items: editorial, outline, contents, organization, alter, flow in, leader).

## 34. proud (Revised)

pride (Revised)

annoy: /jazʃudʒ/

e.g. I was annoyed because he kept asking me silly questions.

furious (Revised)

angry: /yaɖub/

e.g. She'll be angry if you go there.

humble (Revised)

(buffer items: jubilant, scarcely, stubborn, self-centred, barely, put up with, submissive, commend, restrain, sarcastic).

## 35. good-looking: /wasi:m/

e.g. The children of that family are all good-looking.

purchase ( = buy) (Revised); report (Revised)

exhausted ( = tired out) /murhaq/

(posttest distractor) e.g. We were too exhausted to go farther.

(buffer items: exceptionally, pace, ambition, conclude, convenient, frustrations)

36. grandfather (Revised); fierce (posttest distractor - Revised)

peer: /juḥmluq/

e.g. She peered through the mist, trying to find the right path.

grip: /jamsuk biʃida/

e.g. She gripped his hand in fear.

mention: /jaðkur/

e.g. He mentioned a useful book.

(buffer items: tangle, platerail, creak, venture)

37. burst (Revised)

crack (v) /jaşduʃ/

e.g. You've cracked the window but luckily you've not broken it.

crack (n)

e.g. There are many cracks in the window.

indignant (Revised)

grab: /jamsuk/

e.g. He grabbed her hand and pulled her out of the path of the truck;

gaze at (Revised); glare at (Revised); wound (v) (Revised).

(buffer items: hoarse, rendering, bounded up, tramping, holster, reluctant, poke).

38. pretty: /mali:ḥa/

e.g. She looks much prettier with long hair than with short hair.

e.g. What a pretty little girl.

charming: /dʒaðaba/

e.g. What a charming young man, I do like him.

irritate: /jazʃudʒ/

e.g. We were irritated by the delay of the train.

report: /jarwi/

e.g. He was asked to report the murder trial for the newspaper.

announce (Revised)

declare (Revised)

( buffer items: respectable, poverty, shabby, in dismay, consequently).

39. lend (Revised); ashamed (Revised); beautiful (Revised)

(buffer items: poverty-stricken, elegant, magnificent, humiliating, relate v = to tell), distress, ecstasy, shivering)

40. repair (Revised); declare (Revised); borrow (Revised); get (Revised)

(buffer items: downcast, usurer, soiled, flatter).

41. attractive (Revised)

proud (Revised)

lend (Revised)  
(buffer items: stammer, paste).

42. vain: /mʌxta:l/  
e.g. Vain people like to be told nice things about themselves.

parents (revised)

(buffer items: fond of, help ( = prevent), remarks)

APPENDIX 10  
REINFORCEMENT EXERCISES

The Reinforcement Exercises used in the experiment were of the following main types.

10. 1. Cloze Exercises

Generally, cloze exercises involve the presentation to the learners of a piece of written English of suitable length in which some items are deleted. One possible way of doing this is to delete every nth item e.g. every fifth item. The result of this procedure is that we may delete many 'function words' e.g. prepositions and articles. But since, in the experiment, we wished to give practice in the understanding of the meanings of lexical items belonging to semantic fields, what we did, therefore, was to delete some lexical items belonging to these fields. The deleted lexical items were given in a list at the beginning of each exercise.

e.g.

Instruction: Fill in the following text with appropriate words from the list given below. Not ALL the words in the list are relevant. You may use any word as many times as you think necessary.<sup>1</sup>

List: (damaged, spoiled, harmed, hurt, injured, wounded, burst, smashed)

Text:

More than 150 firemen fought a multi-million-pound blaze which threatened to spread to city-centre property in Bradford yesterday. No one was [hurt]\_\_ in the outbreak, but the warehousing and office complex, a quarter of a mile long, was badly [damaged].\_\_\_\_\_

Several main roads were closed and traffic was diverted. It was the second major incident in the city within 24 hours.

Two people died and a dozen others were [injured] when an explosion ripped through a garage in the city on Saturday.

Experts are trying to establish the cause of both incidents.

(The Yorkshire Post, No. 42,384, Nov. 7,  
p. 1, 1983)

10.2. Items-in-Texts Exercises

Texts with lexical items in brackets. The learner had to choose the correct lexical items needed to complete the texts.

---

<sup>1</sup>The correct options in these exercises are indicated here either by placing them in brackets or by underlining them. This helps to show the test status of the lexical items involved.



e.g.

Instruction; Read the following text carefully and then underline the most appropriate words for those given in brackets, which are needed to make meaningful texts.

Text: POLICE set up road blocks in Essex today after armed raiders (snatched, seized, grasped) more than £20,000 from a dairy near Chelmsford. Shots were fired and one person was (reported, discussed, debated) to have been slightly (cracked, injured).

(The Star, No. 30,101, p. 1, Nov. 24, 1983)

### 10.3. Items-in-Sentences Exercises

It was an extremely time-consuming task to find a sufficient number of texts for the reinforcement of ALL experimental lexical items. We had, therefore, to use a number of sentences unrelated by single texts together with multiple-choice lexical items aimed at reinforcing the learner's awareness of the similarities and differences between the meanings of experimental lexical items.

The exercises involved the choice of lexical items having the same meanings, or nearly the same meanings, as those occurring in a number of sentences (i.e. synonymy exercises).

e.g.

1. Our soldiers blew up two enemy bridges last night.

A. wrecked    B. demolished    C. pulled down    D. destroyed

They also involved the choice of the most appropriate lexical items needed to fill blanks in sentences. The ability to take the overall meaning of a sentence and the differences between the meanings of the items given as distractors were reinforced.

e.g.

1. Could you just ..... over this letter to make sure there are no mistakes in it?

A. glance    B. glimpse    C. peer    D. gaze

Reasons for lexical choices were discussed after each option was given.

### 10.4. Items-in-Grids Exercises

This was to use grids of lexical items and sentences to reinforce the understanding of such items. The choices of items were also discussed.<sup>2</sup>

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2. The correct answers (i.e. the pluses) on the grid were, of course, not given to the learners. The grid used here is adapted from Rudska et. al. (1981a) p.168.

	seize(d)	grasp(ed)	snatch(ed)	grab(bed)	
The ape	+		+	+	her baby and ran up the tree.
He		+			her hand and guided her across the road.
John		+			the rope firmly and swung himself over the river.
An eerie sound made her		+		+	my arm in fear.
The bank robbers			+	+	as much money as they could carry and ran off.

### 10.5. Lexical Replacement Exercises

This was to replace some lexical items or groups of items by others belonging to the experimental fields. e.g.:

Instruction: Replace the underlined words in each sentence of Column A by one word to fill the blanks in the sentences of Column B. Use the words given in the list. Not ALL words in the list are relevant.

List: (massacred, injured, reported, furious, shattered, exhausted, assassinated, declared, irritated)

#### Column A

1. She is very angry
2. The soldiers are very tired; they can't walk farther.
3. He was killed for political reasons

#### Column B

- That is to say, she is .....
- They are really .....
- He was .....

There are two points that need to be mentioned about the reinforcement exercises. The first is that the pupils in the Exp. G. were required to do these exercises as homework followed by discussion in class to draw out the reasons why various lexical alternatives offered by the pupils as responses were correct or incorrect. The subjects were asked to refer to the componential grids and 'Semantic Notes' involving the experimental semantic fields and the lexical items involved in each exercise.

The second point concerns the criticisms that may be directed against most types of reinforcement exercises used in the experiment.

It is a frequent criticism of such exercises that they 'test rather than teach', as if teaching and testing were two mutually exclusive activities, one occurring in the classroom, the other in the examination room. A brief examination of what actually happens in an English language class will suggest that testing, far from being reserved for a final activity as an assessment of pupils' achievement, is in fact widespread at all stages of a unit of work.

Whatever the approach used in the presentation of a new piece of language, the next thing the teacher normally does, which may not be in the same teaching session, is to test the pupils, to find out whether they have grasped the point, and to what extent they can generalize from it when creating their own utterances or meeting the item in a different context. Two types of testing may thus be distinguished here: 'examination testing' (which tests) and 'class testing' (which teaches) - the reinforcement exercises were concerned with the latter type.

APPENDIX 11  
BUFFER ITEMS

11.1. Location in Teaching Materials

<u>Text</u>	<u>Teaching Session</u>	<u>Buffer Items</u>
1	1	settle, dispute, establish (peace), take place, truce.
1	2	determined, happenings, surrender, idols, deputations, loyalty, forgiving spirit.
2	3	welfare, reputation, essentially, kinsmen, household, extended, generation, clan.
2	4	finance, expenditure, disciplines, responsible for, upbringing
3	4	blast, explosion, ripped, terrace, house, rubble, victim.
4	5	startled, bang, leapt (= jumped), convert, assistance (= help).
4	6	accommodation, enquiry, leak, leaks, chap (= man), spokesman, minor, roll, in shreds, blazing, superficial.
5	7	impress, appointment, challenge, gather, submit, opponent, interval, proposed (= suggested), peasant, fellow (= chap, man), representative, superior, employ (= use), rival.
5	8	instantly, in triumph, squeeze out, boast.
6	9	skin (v), whirl (v), saw (v), conscience, stepbrother, blame (v), wound /waund/ (v.)
6	10	curiosity, scornful, glory, gasp, chase, traitor, vicious.
7	11	pioneer, exhausted (him) (v), diffidently,
7	12	perspiration, flabby, sullen, scowling, mutter (v), stammer (v), dough, recall, consternation, mopping, alertly, offhand, delivery, choked (voice).
7	13	in a daze, torment, unceasing.
7	14	exhausted (= tired out), tremor, enormous, howling.
8	15	senses (= meanings), stock, resource, reference, in charge of.
8	16	full benefit, headings, fiction, non-fiction, particular, catalogue.
9	17	permanent, habitation, barns, visible, involve, profit.
10	18	view, hesitate, moderate, in advance.
11	19	compensation, tow away, circumstances, dash, acute.

<u>Text</u>	<u>Teaching Session</u>	<u>Buffer Items</u>
12	20	raise (= bring up), burgle, rear, aged (v), on the spot, dangling, miniature, valve, jumble, slash, devastation, ultimately.
13(A)	21	blow up, torture, effigy, fireworks.
13(B)	22	infamous, slum, restore.
13(C)	22	crack down, illicit, drugs, addicts.
14(A)	23	house-warming (party), generous, bare (table).
14(B)	23	cluster, outskirts, flare, mop up, chilling.
15	24	acrid, dim, gaudy, pitcher, hearth, ground (of coffee), brews, cloak, ritual, in conformity with, mortar, intimation, partake.
16	25	figure, contribute, corrupted, literature, philosophy, astronomy.
16	26	systematize, appendix, uncompounded, compounding, theoretical, theory.
16	27	knowledge, metaphysics, observation, motion, gravity, vital (role).
17	28	loiter, idle, milliner, spellbound, rows, indifference, indispensable, squander, common-sense, inaccessible.
18	29	ravaging, pony, huge, immense, irresistibly, hollowness, futility, absurd, puppet, perceive.
18	30	charge, shove, cartridges, magazine (of a gun), aim (v).
18	31	innumerable, trigger, devilish, mysterious, paralyse, desperate, slobbered, senile, (senility (n)), agony, droop, collapse, topple, trumpet.
19	32	circulate, comments, entertain, cater for, devote, edit, editor.
19	33	editorial, outline, contents, organization, alter, flow in, leader, despatch.
20	34	jubilant, obliged, convince, retire (into himself), self-centred, commend, restrain, sarcastic.
21	35	exceptionally, pace, ambition, conclude, convenient, frustration.
22	36	tangle, platerail, creak, venture, hoarse, trampling, attic, reluctant.
23	38	respectable, error of destiny, shabby, spitefully, in dismay.
23	39	poverty-stricken, elegant, magnificent, humiliating, relate, distress, ecstasy, shivering.
23	40	downcast, usurer, soiled, flatter.
23	41	stammer, paste.
24	42	fond of, help (= prevent), remarks.

## 11.2. Presentation of Buffer Items

The buffer items were presented to the learners in the same teaching sessions and a few of them were included in the posttest (see Appendix 12). They were taught to the Exp.G. by 'definition within English' and to the C.G. by the translation-equivalent technique. This was consistent with the two approaches used in the teaching of the experimental semantic fields (see Appendices 8 and 9).

The learners were not told that the lexical items involved were buffer items. On the contrary, enough attention was given to these items in order to make the learners give as much emphasis to these items as to the experimental lexemes. This was done to prevent the learners giving special emphasis to the experimental items, which will certainly affect their performance in the posttest and consequently affect the 'natural flow' of the experiment.

It seems necessary to deal here in detail with how each buffer item was taught to both groups. Instead, it is sufficient to give examples of how they were taught.

### 11.2.1. Buffer Items as Taught to Experimental Group

When occurring in the teaching materials, the buffer items were treated like experimental items (before the use of Componential Grids and Collocational Grids) in that the learners were asked to underline them in the text. The 'definitions within English' of the items were written on the board together with model sentences and the learners were requested to write them down on their notebooks.

e.g.

responsible for: having the duty of looking after someone or something

e.g. The pilot of an airliner is responsible for the safety of the passengers.

blazing: brightly burning

e.g. People were led out of the blazing building.

When two lexical items were treated as 'synonyms' by TNECI, these were given.

e.g.

put out: extinguish

e.g. They helped to put out (extinguish) the fire inside the vehicle.

It was felt, however, that some lexical items were better taught in Arabic rather than English to the Exp.G. These were the items we felt 'very rare' or 'less useful' to the learners e.g. 'trigger', 'cartridges', 'magazine' (of a gun), 'perspiration', 'dough', etc.

### 11.2.2. Buffer Items as Taught to Control Group

The learners in the C.G. were also requested to underline each buffer item occurring in the teaching materials. The translation-equivalents of the items were written on the board together with model sentences.

e.g.

responsible for: /masʔu:l ʃan/

e.g. The pilot of an airliner is responsible for the safety of the passengers.

blazing: /muʃtaʃila/

e.g. People were led out of the blazing building.

Items treated as synonyms by TNECI were also given to the C.G. exactly as they were to the Exp.G.

e.g. 'put out': 'extinguish'.

### 11.3. Buffer Items as Posttest Distractors

Some buffer items related by sense-relations, particularly that of synonymy, were included in the posttest (see Appendix 12) as 'distractors' e.g. 'demolish': 'pull down'; 'participate': 'take part in'; 'exhausted': 'tired out', etc.

### 11.4. inferencing

Some lexical items were not taught to the groups and were left for the learners to 'infer' their meanings from the contexts e.g. 'anguished' call for help (Text 7); 'bulging' muscles (Text 7); 'ventured' out of his room (Text 22).

APPENDIX 12POSTTEST

NAME:

AGE:

Time: One and a half hours

N.B. Answer ALL questions together with the questionnaire at the end of the test.(1)

Q.1. Fill in the following text with appropriate words (in the singular or plural forms) from the list given below. NOT ALL WORDS IN THE LIST ARE RELEVANT. You may use any word as many times as you think necessary. (aunt, brother, brother-in-law, couple, cousin, daughter, daughter-in-law, family, father, father-in-law, granddaughter, grandfather, grandmother, grandson, husband, mother, mother-in-law, nephew, niece, parent, relative, sister, sister-in-law, son, son-in-law, uncle).

Patrick is married to Violet. He is her ...[husband] ... and she is his ...[wife] .... They have two children, Penny and Billy. Patrick and Violet are the ...[parents] ... of these children. Patrick has one ...[uncle] ....., Peter (his mother's brother). Violet has one ...[uncle] ... Christopher (her father's brother), and one ...[aunt] ... Clare (her mother's sister). She is her ...[niece] .... Violet has two ...[grandfathers] ... Adam (her father's father) and Daniel (her mother's father). Violet has two ...[grandmothers] ... Eve (her father's mother) and Eileen (her mother's mother). Violet is Eve's and Eileen's ...[granddaughter] .... Patrick is the ...[grandson] .. of Charles and Rose (his mother's parents). Patrick has a ...[father-in-law] ....., John, (his wife's father). He also has a ...[mother-in-law] ... Mary (his wife's mother). He is John and Mary's ...[son-in-law] .... Violet is the ...[daughter-in-law] ... of Paul and Susan (her husband's parents). Patrick has a ...[sister-in-law] ....., Margaret (his wife's sister). He also has a ...[brother-in-law] ....., Sam (his sister's husband). Furthermore, he has one ...[aunt] ....., Doris (his father's sister) and two ...[cousins] ....., Lucy and Edgar (Doris's children).

---

1. The text is adapted from LDOCE, p. 1299.

The correct answers are given here for the convenience of the reader of the thesis.



Q.2. Read the following text carefully, then answer the questions that follow.<sup>1</sup>

In 1941 my mother took me back to Moscow. There I saw our enemies for the first time. If my memory is right, nearly 20,000 German prisoners of war were going to be marched through the streets of Moscow.

The pavements were full of onlookers; soldiers and a line of police kept them off the streets.

The crowds were mostly women — Russian women with hands roughened by hard work, lips untouched by lipstick and thin hunched shoulders which had borne half the burden of the war. Every one of them must have had a father or a husband, a brother or a son killed by the Germans.

They gazed with hatred in the direction from which the line of German soldiers was going to come.

At last we saw it.

The generals marched at the head, massive chins stuck out, lips folded proudly. They tried to show that they still felt superior to their peasant conquerors.

'They smell of perfume,' someone in the crowd said with hatred. The women were clenching their fists. The Russian soldiers and policemen had to work hard to hold them back. All at once something happened to them.

They saw ordinary German soldiers, thin, unshaven, wearing blood-stained bandages, walking with difficulty or leaning on the shoulders of their comrades: the soldiers walked with their heads down.

The street became dead and silent.

Then I saw an elderly woman in broken-down boots push herself forward and touch a policeman's shoulder saying: 'Let me through'. There must have been something about her that made him step aside. She went up to the line of German soldiers, took from inside her coat something wrapped in a coloured handkerchief and unfolded it. It was a crust of black bread. She pushed it awkwardly into the pocket of a soldier, so exhausted that he was walking very slowly. And now suddenly from every side women were running towards the soldiers, pushing into their hands bread, cigarettes, whatever they had. The soldiers were no longer enemies.

They were people.

### Question

Now put the letters, A, B, C or D preceding the most appropriate answers in the boxes given.

1. The attitude of the generals can be described in one word:

A. humble B. conceited C. modest D. noble

B

---

1. The text is adapted from McLean (1978), pp. 68-70.

2. The women were clenching their fists because they were:

A. displeased B. annoyed C. furious D. irritated

C

3. The soldiers walked with their heads down because they were:

A. proud B. vain C. ashamed D. arrogant

C

4. The soldier was walking very slowly because he was:

A. exasperated B. bored C. tired out D. indignant

C

Q.3. Read the following sentences carefully paying special attention to the underlined words and then put the letter A or B which gives the correct answer in the boxes provided.

1. A. Mr. Johnson announced his plans to retire in the autumn.

B. Mr. Johnson mentioned his plans to retire in the autumn.

In which sentence is Mr. Johnson likely addressing a large audience?

A

2. A. These and other facts have been reported in a special supplement.

B. These and other facts have been exposed in a special supplement.

Which sentence suggests that the facts were previously hidden from the public?

B

2. A. They will discuss a course for the talented students.

B. They will announce a course for the talented students.

Which sentence suggests that the details of the course will be dealt with?

A

4. A. In his conversation, he disclosed the incident.

B. In his conversation, he referred to the incident.

Which sentence suggests that the incident was previously unknown?

A

Q. 4. Read the following sentences carefully. If there is a contradiction in meaning, put the letter (A); if there is no contradiction, put the letter (B) in the boxes given at the end of the sentences.

1. They took part in the war but did not participate in it.

A

2. We rejected the offer but did not refuse to accept it.

A

3. The invading army met fierce but weak opposition.

A

4. She was seriously wounded in the accident but was not injured.

A

5. He cracked the vase but fortunately did not break it.

B

6. The stone broke the window but did not shatter it.

B

7. The stone shattered the window but did not break it.

A

Q.5. Put the letters A, B, C or D preceding the words that best fit the meanings in the following sentences, in the boxes given.

1. As we reached the top of the hill a very ..... view stretched before us.

A. good-looking B. handsome C. beautiful D. attractive

C

2. The ..... of the opposition leader had caused a serious political crisis.

A. massacre B. slaughter C. damage D. assassination

D

3. On the bus I always managed to ..... at the headlines in the newspaper.

A. glare B. glance C. gaze D. stare

B

4. The angry crowd ..... all the windows in the street as they passed.

A. smashed B. split C. crushed D. burst

A

5. They're going to ..... that old building and put up a new one.

A. destroy B. crack C. damage D. demolish

D

6. We have to ..... these pieces of wood with an axe.

A. demolish B. spoil C. split D. hurt

C

7. We ..... the house for three years.

A. hired B. bought C. sold D. leased

D

8. The proposal should be .... in Parliament before it is passed.

A. talked about B. conversed C. debated D. exposed

C

9. Being very hungry, he ..... the food out of my hand.

A. gripped B. snatched C. grabbed D. dragged

B

10. We ..... a driver to take us on a tour of the city.

A. rented B. leased C. hired D. purchased

C

11. If you saw how they ..... cattle, you would never eat meat again.

A. murder B. slaughter C. strangle D. assassinate

B

12. I only .... the parcel, so I can't guess what was inside it.

A. gazed at B. gaped at C. stared at D. glimpsed

D

13. He ... quickly over his shoulder to make sure he wasn't being followed.

A. glimpsed B. gazed C. peered D. glanced

D

14. Our soldiers ..... two enemy bridges.

A. blew up B. burst C. pulled down D. spoilt

A

15. Ten people were killed and thirty ..... in the accident.

A. harmed B. injured C. wounded D. massacred

B

Q.6. Put in each box the letter A, B, C or D preceding the word that has the same or nearly the same meaning as the underlined word or phrase in each of the following sentences.

1. They've just purchased a new house in the country.

A. rented B. hired C. bought D. inherited

C

2. They are going to demolish all the old houses in the city centre.

A. wreck B. blow up C. pull down D. destroy

C

3. We looked very carefully trying to find the right path in the dark.

A. glanced B. gazed C. gaped D. peered

D

4. He said he'd get a new pair of shoes.

A. rent B. lease C. buy D. let

C

APPENDIX 13Posttest QuestionnaireQUESTIONNAIRE

This page is NOT a test. You will give information which will be useful in a research project. This information will not be used for any other purpose.

Please answer the following questions:

1. What is your name? \_\_\_\_\_

(BLOCK CAPITALS, PLEASE)

2. How old are you? \_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

3. What is your native language? \_\_\_\_\_

4. What language or languages do you use to communicate with other people (e.g. at home, at school, etc.) \_\_\_\_\_

5. How many years have you been learning English as a foreign language?  
\_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

6. How do you find the test you have just done? (please tick the correct answer)

very difficult     difficult     average     easy     very easy

7. What is the amount of time you think necessary for doing the test?

(Please tick)

45 minutes     one hour     one and a half hours     2 hours

8. Do you have any suggestions or comments on the test? (Please write them down; use a separate sheet if necessary) — Write them in Arabic if you want.

APPENDIX 14PAIRED PRETEST - POSTTEST RAW SCORES(Linear Regression Model)

Experimental Group		Control Group	
Pretest(40 marks)	Posttest(53 marks)	Pretest	Posttest
11	22	18	13
13	28	19	19
11	27	10	12
9	37	19	18
10	35	5	10
25	42	29	23
18	34	19	15
14	27	16	18
27	45	8	12
23	35	30	24
19	48	10	12
10	31	17	22
9	42	13	16
8	48	20	20
12	44	19	16
12	48	13	19
6	24	29	31
11	21	15	18
11	43	17	17
24	44	11	20
13	37	10	9
19	43	16	11
9	34	10	9
10	37	8	15

Group 2		Group 3		Group 4	
Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
23	17	25	10	17	20
18	13	16	13	19	27
18	15	23	19	25	19
15	15	18	13	9	14
17	15	13	15	19	9
17	13	13	9	15	8
20	18	24	25	18	18
16	17	15	24	13	10
20	13	6	16	13	13
25	16	23	11	22	24
14	17	22	15	14	14
11	9	19	13	31	28
13	9	18	11	11	19
23	20	27	27		
21	15	21	21		
12	15	24	30		
14	14	17	17		
26	18	11	14		
24	21	11	12		
27	20	20	11		
8	6	29	14		
20	11	15	16		
8	15	8	17		
		30	20		
		21	21		
		23	19		
		32	26		

APPENDIX 15RAW SCORES(First-Term, Mid-Year and End-of-Year Examinations)

First-Term (Maximum Mark: 100)					Mid-Year (Maximum Mark: 100)				
Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G 3.	G.4.	Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G.3.	G.4.
35	56	45	78	52	36	48	63	73	45
40	37	62	35	37	45	32	47	40	46
35	56	85	35	55	52	72	67	42	57
85	41	77	85	51	88	56	70	65	53
55	65	80	60	64	56	55	79	52	72
70	52	71	53	48	71	67	60	52	46
40	61	71	56	48	47	57	65	64	60
50	33	70	83	34	55	57	71	79	27
35	40	45	55	71	23	47	63	61	71
87	89	93	33	59	88	89	69	43	60
55	38	53	50	57	61	61	45	38	63
35	59	80	80	57	39	55	63	83	79
35	39	93	93	59	45	48	84	89	61
93	76	50	90	50	89	77	57	84	49
35	31	35	53	63	30	46	59	43	53
85	65	42	80	53	77	82	37	69	59
35	41	91	90	93	46	32	88	85	90
63	55	52	75	62	66	68	39	72	69
50	43	45	71	81	66	55	32	59	84
76	37	55	50	45	69	50	51	45	45
32	57	72	75	67	52	70	75	57	77
36	66	90	35	91	60	81	83	37	89
60	69	77	41	56	62	52	75	52	41
35	59	51	90	70	52	60	53	87	70
88	68	60	50	37	81	73	54	54	46
45	73	30	50	40	35	69	35	52	29
40	68	57	95	46	46	47	34	89	46
40	63		78	39	43	68		69	48
50	33		33	39	47	50		54	49
38	56		52	65	55	63		70	68
75	39		42		70	54		60	



cont..

First-Term (Maximum Mark: 100)					Mid-Year (Maximum Mark: 100)				
Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G.3.	G.4.	Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G.3.	G.4.
84	66		93		80	73		92	
50	47				40	58			
80					85				
56					41				
45					45				

## End-of-Year Examination (Maximum Mark: 100)

Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2.	G.3.	G.4.	Exp.G.	C.G.	G.2	G.3.	G.4.
55	76	56	76	77	73	61	65	70	91
50	60	70	40	51	63	62	61	76	81
54	76	78	55	76	75	71	62	59	81
90	61	75	79	69	45	77	83	71	71
70	51	82	53	81	61	84	90	53	62
76	68	77	64	58	60	56	80	55	90
62	74	75	57	67	67	70	53	94	54
56	48	78	83	60	88	81	55	54	71
53	60	60	70	86	66	64	54	55	58
90	89	90	50	67	59	50	60	93	56
71	74	53	58	67	53	61		44	60
50	64	74	83	78	62	70		50	72
49	50	91	89	77	53	75		45	69
91	71	57	90	64	78	82		69	58
50	70	63	60	46	84	76		94	
84	83	62	77	66	63	64			
63	42	90	90	74	85				
					50				
					64				

Note

During the 2nd term, the performance of the Exp.G. and C.G. was evaluated according to their marks in the posttest whereas the performance of the other groups was evaluated according to a very 'traditional' type of test (i.e. similar to the End-of-Year Examinations; see Appendix 16) quite different from the posttest. For this reason, the marks of the groups for the 2nd term are not comparable and are not given here.

APPENDIX 16

## 16.1. A Monthly-Test: Specimen

AL-MAQIL SECONDARY SCHOOL FOR BOYS

Monthly-Examination, April, 1984.

Time: 45 minutes

Fifth Scientific Year, Section D.

1.a. Use FIVE of these expressions in meaningful sentences:

blame for; since (conj.); lest; though; so that; so ... that; such ....that;

b. Write the number of the sentences and the letter of the suitable choice:

Do FIVE only

1. The witness ..... the names of the criminals in the court.

(a. covered b. uncovered c. discovered d. recovered)

2. Our war with the enemy will ..... unless they confess our rights.

(a. last b. lest c. lost d. list)

3. The United Nations was ..... in 1945.

(a. find b. found c. founded d. finding)

4. I have ..... my friends to a tea-party and they have accepted my .....

(a. invented b. invited c. invention d. invitation)

5. I shall ..... that bag with books.

(a. fill b. fall c. fell d. full)

(5 marks)

11. a. Give the nouns of these words:

Do FIVE only.

discover; advise; depart; succeed; please; arrive; ignore; add

(5 marks)

b. Supply the correct tenses for the verbs between brackets:

1. When I (see) Ali last night, he (carry) a child in his arms.

2. Before they (do) their homework yesterday, they (have) their supper.

3. She (not do) her homework yet.

(10 marks)

111. a. Change the following nouns into plural and point out how the plural suffix (-s) is pronounced:

Do FIVE only.

creature, quality, glance, elephant, language, mark, phrase

(5 marks)

b. Answer these questions :

1. What are the main differences between the school libraries and the public libraries?

2. How should you behave in a library?

(10 marks)

IV. Write a paragraph on the meeting between Mr. Bumble and Monks. Answering these questions one after the other will help you make the suitable paragraph.

1. Where did Mr. Bumble meet Monks?
2. How did they meet?
3. What did Monks ask Mr. Bumble?
4. What did Monks tell Mr. Bumble?
5. What did Mr. Bumble tell Monks?
6. What did Monks and Mr. Bumble decide to do?

(15 marks)

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## 16.2. End-of-Year Examination

MAQIL SECONDARY SCHOOL FOR BOYS

Final-Examination, May, 1984.

Time: 2 hours

Fifth Literary and Scientific Classes

1. Complete each sentence in list "A" with any appropriate option from list "B".  
(Choose any five).

A

1. The words in a dictionary are arranged alphabetically .....
2. Languages change because .....
3. The magistrate was rude and violent because .....
4. The prophet advised a hundred Moslems to migrate to Abyssinia because.....
5. The robbers needed a small boy to .....
6. The battle of Badr .....
7. Soil water mixes with the cell sap because .....

B

- a. ....took place between the Moslems and the Meccan unbelievers.
- b. ....the unbelievers punished them.
- c. ....thinner liquids tend to mix with thicker ones.
- d. ....open the main door for them, threatening to shoot him if he hesitated.
- e. .... help them break through the house that they were planning to rob.
- f. .... he insulted Mr. Brownlow and passed judgement on Oliver without letting him defend himself.
- g. .... people have new ideas all the time.
- h. ....so that they may be easily found.
- i. ....because their meanings are arranged alphabetically.

(10 marks)

- II. a. Write the phonetic symbols for the underlined letters in 5 of these words:

walks, say, dark, judge, stopped, ended, breath,  
usually

(5 marks)

- b. Re-write this sentence using capital letters and punctuation marks where necessary:

i am going to invite my friends jack and george to iraq in june

(5 marks)

- c. Fill in the blanks with the missing words as shown in the examples

examples:

1. go, going; plan, .....; die, .....
2. tall, taller; big, .....; beautiful,.....; good, ..... ;

(5 marks)

---

III. a. Supply the correct tenses for the verbs between brackets:

(choose any three)

1. I (see) Ali last night.
2. Where the teacher (stand) now?
3. I (visit) my friend last week.
4. He (speak) English well.

b. Write the number of the sentence and the letter of the suitable choice:

1. He usually takes ....umbrella with him when he goes out.

(a. the b. an c. a d. x)

2. There are .....children in the garden.

(a. any b. little c. much d. some)

3. I don't have ....books.

(a. many b. a lot of c. much d. some)

4. There is .....sugar in the bowl.

(a. few b. little c. many d. any)

(4 marks)

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IV. Write the number of the sentence and the letter of the suitable word or expression that best fills the blank space. (Choose any five)

- a. participated b. determined c. emigrants d. draw attention to  
 e. excessive f. make notice g. watch carefully h. pays a lot of attention

1. ....speed causes accidents.
2. The teacher wanted to .....some important facts.
3. Drivers must .....for road signs.
4. The Government in Iraq .....to education.
5. Those Moslems who migrated to Yathrib were called the .....
6. The Iraqi Army .....actively in the October war in 1973.
7. The disputes between the Arabs and the Zionists can only be ..... by armed struggle.

(10 marks)

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V. Answer either "A" or "B":

- a. Write a paragraph on Mr. Brownlow's advertisement about Oliver.

Answering these questions one after the other will make a suitable paragraph.  
Make use of the prompts between brackets.

1. What was the advertisement about? (Oliver)
2. Who had sent the advertisement to the newspapers? (Mr. Brownlow)
3. Why did Mr. Bumble go to Mr. Brownlow's house?

(....to tell him Oliver's story and get the five pounds.)

4. Where was Oliver at that time? (in Fagin's house)
5. Why did Fagin want to turn Oliver into a thief?

(...to get hundreds of pounds from Monks)

Begin your paragraph as follows:

One day as Mr. Bumble was reading a newspaper, he read an advertisement about .....

(15 marks)

b. Write a letter to your friend Henry on 28th Feb. telling him about the 17th July Revolution 1968, when it took place, why, major achievements: nationalization of oil, progress in agriculture, industry, education, etc.

(15 marks)

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