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College of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Investigating the Effectiveness of Using Figurative Language

in Improving Undergraduates' Written Communication

(A case study: Fourth Year English Language Students at Sudan University of Science and Technology)

تقصي فعالية إستخدام التعـــابـــيــر البـــــلاغية في تحسين التواصل الكتابي لدى طلاب الجامعات

(دراسة حالة: طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية المستوى الرابع في جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا)

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Submitted by:

Shaza Mohammed Zain Rahama Ali

Supervised by:

Dr. Mahmood Ali Ahmed

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إستهلال

آية قرآنية

قال تعالى:

﴿يَرْفَعِ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا مِنْكُمْ وَالَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْعِلْمَ دَرَجَاتٍ وَاللَّهُ بِمَا تَعْمَلُونَ خَبِيرٌ﴾

سورة المجادلة/ آية رقم 11

Preface

Quranic Verse
Allah the Almighty said:
(Allah will raise those who have believed among you and those who were given knowledge, by degrees. And Allah is acquainted with what you do)

Surah Al-Mujadilah/ Verse no 11

I

Dedication

To my dear parents, to my Husband, to my Son, to my Siblings and all family members.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of using figurative language in improving undergraduates' written communication. The population of this study is EFL university students. The study focuses on fourth year students as a sample. The researcher has adopted the descriptive and analytical method. The researcher uses the questionnaire and the diagnostic test as tools for collecting data. The data were analyzed statistically using SPSS program. The data analysis was presented in percentage forms. The findings of this study point out that ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication. It also finds out that lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers. Therefore, using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communication. The study provides some recommendations some of them are; university teachers should put in consideration the importance of figurative language for better written communication. Also, figurative expressions should be included in the syllabus being taught to EFL students. Also, it recommended that university teachers should be aware of the suitable ways of teaching figurative language in written communication. The study suggested similar titles for future studies.

Abstract (Arabic Version)

مستخلص الدراسة

هدفت هذه الدراسة لتقصي فعالية إستخدام التعابير البلاغية في تحسين التواصل الكتابي لدى طلاب الجامعات. مجتمع البحث هو طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بالجامعات. وإستخدمت الدراسة طلاب السنة الرابعة كعينة للبحث. إستخدمت الدراسة المنهج التحليلي الوصفي, كما إستخدمت الإستبانة والإختبار كأدوات لجمع المعلومات. تم تحليل البيانات إحصائياً بإستخدام برنامج التحليل الإحصائي للعلوم الإجتماعية. حيث وضعت البيانات في شكل نسب مئوية. خلصت الدراسة إلى أن تجاهل إستخدام التعابير البلاغية يؤثر على جودة التواصل الكتابي, كما أنها توصلت إلى أن الإفتقار إلى الفهم الجيد للتعابير البلاغية يؤثر على التواصل مع متحدثي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أم, كما أن إستخدام التعابير البلاغية في التواصل الكتابي يعكس مدى إتقان طلاب الجامعة للتواصل. زودت الدراسة العديد من التوصيات هذه بعضها: ينبقي على أساتذة الجامعات أن يضعوا في إعتبارهم أهمية التعابير البلاغية لتواصل كتابي أفضل, كما أنها وصت بتضمين التعابير البلاغية في المناهج التي يتم تدريسها لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية, أيضاً ينبقي على أساتذة الجامعات أن يكونوا على دراية بالأساليب المناسبة لتدريس التعابير البلاغية في التواصل الكتابي. كما إقترحت الدراسة عناوين مشابهة لدراسات مستقبلية.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0   Background about the Chapter

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, study hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.1 Context of the Study

Communication is an art and process of creating, sending and sharing ideas with others, and it is the most important tool ever invented for doing so. Effective communication heavily depends on the richness of those ideas and depends on the level of the language we use to send those rich ideas, we can achieve such level of communication just through the use of figurative language effectively in our speech and writing tasks, it completed the effectiveness of communication, especially the written communication and send ideas in a short way. Everyone can communicate but a few can communicate effectively, especially in the written communication because to communicate in an attractive way it's not an easy task. Gert rickheit & Hans Strohner, (2008), p1, stated that:*"it is very necessary to know when you must say something which is adequate in a certain situation or when it is better to say nothing"*

> *Gert & Hans, (2008); claimed that, communicative competence is fundamental for a successful life in our society as it's of great importance for all areas of life therefore, it is not surprising that communicative competence is the subject of many theoretical and empirical approaches and in consequence, research on this topic is diverse.*

Using figures of speech in written communication have started to gain more interest across the world on different language research areas, what makes written communication better even with native speakers. To achieve such level of written communication will not be an easy task for the

undergraduates, unless they find the support and encouragement from teachers and institutes, through using adequate methods to apply figurative language, and providing them with the materials containing such expressions. To have knowledge in grammatical structure and a huge vocabulary is not sufficient enough for speaking a language or communicating ideas, what makes the use of figurative language necessary in written communication.

According to Reyes (2012), figurative language is considered as the most complex task in comparison with natural language use, it uses the linguistic devices such as irony, humor, sarcasm, metaphor, analogy, idiom, personification, and so forth, in order to communicate indirect meanings which, usually not paraphrased semantically. Rather, figurative language reflects the way people think, and their use of these patterns of thought communicatively and socially, which is quite challenging.

In this study the focus will be on the use of figurative language effectively and appropriately in written communication among undergraduates.

> *Richard, (1999); stated that Understanding figurative language should be considered only one part of a larger attempt to teach reading (understanding written works) ; however figures of speech are quite common in most writing that asks to be taken seriously and that is something more than a compilation of facts.*

Fitria (2013) argues that, figurative language saying something in unnormal way by giving unliteral meaning of words. It's used in literary works for showing the creativity of the writer and the beauty of the language being used.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Communicative skills have a vital role that both teachers and students need in their life. In order to communicate effectively you need to be a communicatively competent. That why you need to have a good grasp and application of all communicative competence elements such as language background, language culture, grammatical knowledge and figurative language. When we miss any part of these elements lead to meaningless communication. In classroom settings, the researcher observes that undergraduates do not understand and use the figurative language in written communication and even when they choose to so, they do it inappropriately

and suddenly forget all about it. It is this which to investigate the issue in question with aim of finding out the factors involve in hindering students in using figurative language in written communication. In this study, the researcher is trying to investigate the effectiveness of figurative language in written communication among undergraduates.

1.3 Questions of the Study

1. To what extent can the ignorance of figurative language use affect the quality of written communication?
2. To what extent can lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers?
3. To what extent can the use of figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

1. Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.
2. Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.
3. Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

1. This study aims to identify the importance of using figurative language in written communication.
2. It's an investigation of whether undergraduates have a good grasp of figurative language for better communication with native speakers or not.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Undergraduates, teachers and educational institutes will gain a great benefit from the outcomes of this study. It will highlight the importance of figurative language use in written communication and the obstacles which hinder its use effectively and appropriately. In addition to that, it is trying to help undergraduates and lightening them to communicate effectively through the

use of figurative language in written context, as the use of such expressions gives a real flavor to the written communication.

The weight of this study comes from the fact that, this is a hardly tapped area, what makes it a real addition to researches field in language. And it's a good chance for undergraduates to develop their written communication with native speakers through the use of figurative language.

1.7 Methodology

The descriptive analytical method will be adopted in the present study, two instruments will be used, namely "questionnaire and test" The first one for the teachers whose population is English language teachers in Language and Education Colleges in Sudan Universities. The questionnaire will cover the different types and use of figurative language and the problems which hinder undergraduates in understanding figurative language in written context, and suggestions for the solution. The second instrument which is a test will be given to undergraduates of English language to investigate whether they understand the use of figurative language or not. The data will be analyzed manually and statistically through SPSS.

The sample of the study will be drawn from the population of English language teachers and undergraduates at colleges of language and education in Sudanese universities. The sample of this study will be taken randomly.

1.8 Limits of the Study

The study is limited to university students of English language colleges of education in Sudanese universities; however, it has good implications for tutors and students of other colleges and Universities.

1.9 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0   Introduction

This chapter consists of two parts the first one is the theoretical framework and the other one deal with the previous studies providing comparison between them and this study.

2.1 Part One: Theoretical Framework

2.2 Overview

This part will be describing some of what been said about figurative language. In particular we will concentrate on showing the differences regarding the use of figurative and literal language. Furthermore we will come across the use of figurative language in other discipline in linguistics. Some of the most relevant figurative devices will be defined. The research will provide some informations and examples about each one of them.

2.3 Definitions of Figurative Language

"*Figure of speech is any way of saying something other than the ordinary way* "Perrine (1991).While, Rozakis (1995) states that "Figurative language is saying one thing in terms of another". It's clear that figurative language is an expression used by someone indirectly by using the comparison. It cannot give the intended idea if translated literally because the comparison in figurative language expression has the meaning. Furthermore, Abrams (1981) explained that "Figurative language is a deviation from what speakers of a language apprehend as the ordinary or standard, significance or sequence of words, in order to achieve some special meaning or effect."

Generally, in figurative language, the intended meanings of the words, sentences and expressions used do not coincide with their literal meanings (Gluksberg, 2001). When speaking figuratively, speakers mean something other than what they literally say (Gibbs and Colston, 2012). Therefore, to understand figurative language, an individual must be able to grasp the speaker's intention in a given context (Rapp and Wild, 2011).

Traditionally, figurative language has been regarded as deviant of so-called literal language. By contrast, it is now well established that figurative language is a ubiquitous part of daily language and social communication. For instance, approximately 8% of adult utterances in conversations among friends contain some irony (Gibbs, 2000)

2.4 Figurative Competence

"Traditionally, the mastery of a language was practically synonymous with the knowledge of the grammar, lexis and phonetics of that language, in other words, with linguistic knowledge" (Richards& Schmidt 1993).

Based on (Hymes, 1964) studies, (Canale and Swain, 1980) developed and refined the notion of «communicative competence». In their 1980 canonical paper, communicative competence is understood as the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication.

The theoretical framework for communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain includes four areas of knowledge and skill:

1. Linguistic competence (knowledge of grammar, lexis and phonetics),

2. Pragmatic competence:

2.1. Sociolinguistic competence (socio-cultural norms, rules of appropriateness),

2.2. Discourse competence (mechanisms used to form a unified discourse; cohesion and coherence) and

2.3. Strategic competence (verbal and non-verbal strategies used to compensate for breakdowns in communication and to enhance the effectiveness of communication). Yet, no explicit mention is made to figurative competence (Low, 1988) as another fundamental sub-competence necessary for successful communication. A working awareness of figurative language, then, is a valuable tool for learners since it can facilitate comprehension, aid communicative interactions between native and non-native speakers extend vocabulary and help interpret and store new language items (Lazar 2003). In other words, as Littlemore´s (2001) points out, «metaphoric competence is important for foreign language learners, as it is likely to contribute to their overall language ability. »

2.5 Figurative Competence in Learners of EFL

> *It has been widely observed that, children acquire a second language with more ease than adults because their brains are more flexible and have a greater capacity to assimilate new data as well as to develop a more native-like accent (Bowerman &Levins on 2001).*

> *In addition to biological factors, the fact that children are usually more motivated and disinhibited as compared to adult learners may certainly account for successful language acquisition at the early stages of life (Gardner 1985, Lightbown& Spada 2003).*

Tolaas (1991), states that the innate ability children have to think metaphorically seems to stem from the embodied nature of figurative thought. In fact, children's experiences with their own bodies, the manipulation of objects and their relations with the world around them provide the basis for the construction of metaphorical thought. Basic concepts such as happiness or sadness, for example, are soon associated with upward and downward orientation respectively, for parents and caretakers who provide affection, food and comfort are spatially above the child, and when babies cry they tend to be lifted up and held in the adults´ arms. In like manner, the walking experience of children also reinforces the correlation up-happiness and down sadness, for children experience success when standing upright and failure and even pain when falling

2.6 Literal versus Figurative Language

Human communication often requires the construction of meaning that goes beyond the pure compositional computation of the literal meaning of the single sentence components. In contrast to popular believe, these non-literal utterances are not rare individual cases but an ever-present phenomenon in our daily communication (cf. Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

Speaks (2008), defines it as various umbrella terms including *non-literal language* have been used in the literature to capture the wide variety of attention and context-triggered adjustments in word meanings. He also mentioned that they *prefer* to use the term figurative language, however, because the term *non-literal* implies a two-stage interpretation Process, in which the hearer initially arrives at a patently false message and then infers the speaker's intended meaning not to be delivered.

According to Glucksberg (2001), figurative Language has been considered to be derived from and more complex than literal language. However the two terms are very differ, Figurative language makes use of the same kinds of linguistic and Pragmatic operations that are used for literal language. A new theory of metaphor comprehension for instance, integrates linguistic, philosophical, and Psychological perspectives to account for figurative language use. The Theory's central tenet is that everyday conversational

metaphors are used spontaneously to create new concepts and categories. Metaphor is special only in the sense that metaphorical categories are salient Examples of the things that they represent. These categories get their names from the best examples of those categories. Thus, the literal "shark" can be a metaphor for any vicious and predatory creature. Because the same term, "shark", is used for both its literal referent and for the metaphorical category, as in "my lawyer is a shark", such terms have dual-reference. In this way, metaphors simultaneously refer to the Abstract metaphorical category and to the most salient literal exemplar of that category, as in the expression "boys (literal) will be boys (Metaphorical)".

2.7 Figurative Language and Other Discipline

2.7.1 Neurophysiology

(Coulson & Severens 2007, Coulson & Van Petten 2007, Coulson & Wu 2005, Coulson & Williams 2005, Goel & Dolan 2001),claims that; The recruitment of the cerebral left hemisphere advantage by language tasks is one of the best established facts about the brain. However, much of the recent research seems to indicate that the right hemisphere plays a key role in figurative language processing, posing a significant challenge to the left-hemisphere model. Consequently, examining asymmetrical brain and cognitive functions may provide a unique opportunity for understanding the neural basis of complex cognition.

2.7.2 Cognitive Linguistics

(Talmy 1988, Langacker 1990, Lakoff & Johnson 1998, Fauconnier & Turner 2003), States that Cognitive linguistics recognizes that word meaning is not something "frozen" but is rather a function of perspective. In this view, the linguistic faculty is similar to general-purpose knowledge representation and perception, and compositionality can only be maintained if context is taken into consideration.

2.8 Types of Figures of Speech

Some linguists have different perceptions to divide the kinds of figurative language. According to Little (1984) divided them into three kinds, they are comparison, association, and other figure of speech. Meanwhile, Perrine (1983: 571) divided them into ten kinds; they are metaphor, simile, synecdoche, personification, metonymy, allegory, overstatement (hyperbole), irony, symbol, and paradox. While Rozakis (1995: 33) divided into allegory, ambiguity, apostrophe, conceit, connotation and denotation, contrast, metaphor, irony, hyperbole, irony, litotes, metonymy,

onomatopoeia, oxymoron, personification, sarcasm, simile, symbolism, synecdoche, synesthesia, transferred epithet, and understatement.

In this study, the researcher uses some of the kinds of figurative language have been mentioned by Rozakis (1995)-and some other types – to come across some types of figurative language been mentioned and provide much detail on two types, idioms and metaphor as follow:

2.8.1 Simile

Simile is to show the comparison between two things in certain features, or to say something is like another thing explicitly. As observed by Wren and Martin (in Siswantoro, 2005: 24), they said that "Simile is a comparison made between two objects of different kinds which have, however, at least one point in common. Furthermore, Rozakis (1995: 36) explained that "A simile is comparison between unlike objects introduced by a connective word such as *like,as*, or *than* or a verb as *seems*." The concept of simile is A *is like* B. Barnwell (1980: 34) divided three parts in simile as follows:

1. The **topic**, i.e., the actual thing which is being talked about.

2. The **illustration**, i.e., the thing to which the topic is compared.

3. The points of **similarity,** i.e., the components of meaning which the topic and the illustration have in common when compared. Henceforth, to make it simply, Barnwell (1980: 34) gives the example of simile; *the baby's skin is a smooth as silk.* This expression is simile because it considers *the baby's skin* is the same with *silk*. Yet we know the baby's skin and silk are different things in form and utility. The connective word used is *as.* In applying Barnwell's theory into simile expression, *the baby's skin is a smooth as silk,* it is necessary to analyze the topic, the illustration, and the point of similarity. *The baby's skin* is *the topic* and *silk* refer to *the illustration* while *a smooth* is *the point of similarity*. Baby has beautiful and smooth skin because the layer of baby's skin is relatively young and new. Then a silk is soft thread from the cocoons of certain insects. It feels soft when touching. *The baby's skin* has compared with *silk,* it means the baby's skin is described and considered as silk which is *smooth.* It can be concluded that *the baby's skin is a smooth as silk* means the baby's skin feels smooth and soft like the silk.

Veale and Hao (2007) explain that similes are not categorization statements; in terms of they do not share common properties to map the comparison through a well-defined link. Rather, such link must be inferred from our knowledge of the external world.

Thus, their example "a wedding is like a funeral", is interpretable (funnily) by mapping some salient properties of funeral that can be applicable to wedding, so that the sentence makes sense after figuring out the fact that weddings occur in a (solemn) church, and are sometimes forced (unfortunately) for non-romantic (sad) reasons.

Moreover, according to Veale and Hao (2007), simile is widely viewed as a less sophisticated conceptual device than metaphor, not least because similes are explicitly marked and are frequently more obvious about the meanings they carry. Nonetheless, this naiveté that underlies similes makes them suitable elements for acquiring the category-specific knowledge required to understand metaphor.

Example of simile:

Her eyes like a morning star

2.8.1.1 Simile and Metaphor

Hanks (2004) states that simile a freer and more creative form of expression in describing something than metaphor, since similes can serve as dynamic "triggers for the imagination" without having to appeal either to linguistic conventions or experiential gestalts, what makes it easier. Chiappe *et al*. (2003) demonstrate that metaphoric expressions which used to show a relationship are preferred when the relationship is an apt one, which suggests that it should follow more obviously from the corresponding categorization. They also find out that aptness correlates strongly with ease of comprehension, and indeed, similes expressions can enhance both their aptness and their comprehensibility by opting for explicit self-explanation: when one says "my left tire is as bald as a bowling ball", there is no ambiguity whatsoever as to the property that is shared by topic and vehicle, even if baldness is not a literally sensible property of artifacts.

Bowdle and Gentner (2005) claim, in one of their hypotheses which they call "the *career of metaphor*", that as metaphors become more conventionalized, they are more likely to be processed as categorizations than as comparisons.

2.8.2 Personification

According to Barnwell (1980: 42) "Personification is a figure of speech in which an abstract idea, or something which is not alive, is treated as though it were a person." It means personification is the style of language that gives the characteristics of human to inanimate objects. Furthermore, Rozakis (1995: 35) explained that "Personification is the attribution of human characteristics and/or feelings to nonhuman organisms, inanimate

objects, or abstract ideas." This statement is supported by Murfin and Ray (2003: 339), "Personification is a figure of speech (more specifically a trope) that bestows human characteristics upon anything nonhuman, from an abstract idea to a physical force to an inanimate object to a living organism." Briefly, personification is the expression of language to create non human life as if human. So, this kind of figurative language makes non human can act, speak, and has emotional feeling like human. Personification often appears in fairy tale written for children. The use of figurative language will create the story imaginatively because the readers will find nonhumans such as animal, plant, and other objects have dialogue each other and they also have the attribution like human.

According to Keraf (1986: 141), personification has special feature from metaphor and simile. It contains the comparison like metaphor and simile, but in personification the things to be compared is nonhuman and human attributes. The example of personification is the part of John Donne's sonnet, *Holy Sonets, death, be not proud* (Rozakis, 1995: 35). From this example, *death* is compared with *proud.* It explains the comparison between *deaths* as non human with *proud* as the characteristic of human. Donne indicates *death* as human who feels of proud. Literally, death is the end of life. This is the condition often feared by humans because death is certainly causing someone to lose his adventure life in the world. However, Donne had different understanding of death. In his sonnet, he mentions *death, be not proud* to portray his courage to die. He describes *death* as the human feared by other because it has the power to make one's end of his life. Here, death is personified by Donne.

Example of personification:

Book dancing on the table

2.8.3 Irony

Irony derived from the word *eironia,* it means deception. Galperin (1977: 146) stated "Irony is a stylistic device also based on the simultaneous realization of two logical meanings—dictionary and contextual, but the two meanings stand in opposition to each other." In short, irony is the style of language to express something captured by the reader that should be opposite from the literal meaning. The things that should be noted when interpreting irony expression is the context of its expression. Similar to Galperin, Rozakis also stated that "Irony states one thing in one of voice when, in fact, the opposite meaning is intended (1995: 33)." Clearly, it can be proposed that irony is not seen from what it is said but rather to interpret

the meaning from the context or situation. The use of irony creates the effect because the reader feels free to interpret the meaning as long as it appropriates to the context of utterance. The reader can interpret the meanings as humor, negative impression or critic. Perez (2012: 33) found the effect and the aim in irony. According to him, "The aim of irony is to communicate the opposite of what is literally said; whereas the effect may be a sarcastic, satiric, or even funny interpretation that undoubtedly profiles negative connotations." It proves that irony is used for certain purpose and it causes the effect as well. Irony can be used to convey sensitive thing but in humor tone. For better understanding about irony, the researcher explains irony by giving the example from one stanza of Byron's poem *Beppo, I like the taxes, when they're not too many.* This expression is irony because what it is said is different to what the real situation is. The keywords determine that expression as irony is *like* and *not too many.* It contains different meanings. In the first sentence, the speaker *I* says that he likes the taxes but in the second sentence he seems to weaken the previous sentence. In conclusion, it can be said that the speaker actually does not like the taxes. Murfin and Ray (2003: 223) explained another example, "For instance, imagine that you have come home after a day on which you failed a test, wrecked your car, and had a fight with your friend. If your roommate were to ask how your day went and you replied "Great day, Best ever." From the context of the utterance, it can be known that you (the speaker) are in bad situation and in bad mood, but the speaker says something different from what she wants to mean.

2.8.4 Humor

From a psychological point of view, Ruch (2001) has analyzed the link between personality and humor appreciation, providing interesting observations about this property and the kind of necessary stimuli to produce a response. Some linguistic studies, on the other hand, have explained humor by means of semantic and pragmatic patterns. Attardo (1994, 2001) attempts to explain verbal humor as a phenomenon which supposes the presence of some knowledge resources, such as language, narrative strategies, target, situation, logical mechanisms or opposition, to produce a funny effect. From a sociological point of view, cultural patterns are ones of the most studied features regarding humor appreciation.

In addition to these disciplines, humor has been explained through many Theories one of them by Valitutti (2009), according to him they can be classified into three main classes:

i. Superiority Theory. Based on the assumption that funniness is caused by the misfortunes of others. This fact reflects superiority. Some of the authors that support this theory are Plato, Aristotle, and Hobbes.

ii. Relief Theory. Base on psychological and physiological assumptions regarding the nature of humor, and how it impacts on our lives by releasing physic energy. Authors such as Freud, Mindess, and Fry, represent this approach.

iii. Incongruity Theory. The more linguistic theory. Based on the assumption that humor relies on incongruity, and of course, on its resolution. Schopenhauer, Attardo, and Raskin are some of its best exponents.

2.8.5 Hyperbole

Barnwell (1980: 49) proposed that "A hyperbole is a deliberate exaggeration, used for emphasis and dramatic effect." This statement is supported by Murfin and Ray (2003: 205), "A figure of speech that uses deliberate exaggeration to achieve an effect, whether serious, comic, or ironic." It means hyperbole is the style of language in expressing something exaggeratedly even beyond of human logic. Hyperbole or overstatement is used to cause the effect and reaction from the reader such as serious, ironic, and humorous. Hyperbole has the keywords that indicate them as an expression of hyperbole. Based on Carter (2003: 136) there are four types of hyperbole, as follows:

1. Vague quantifiers

a. Numerical quantifiers (e.g. *dozens of, scores of, thousands of, millions of*).

b. Measurement expression (e.g. *yards of, miles of, tons of*).

c. General size quantifiers (e.g. *heaps of, loads of, stacks of*).

d. Container quantifiers (e.g. *buckets of, truck of/lorry loads of, ocean of*).

e. Time quantifiers (e.g. *seconds, minutes, hours, centuries*).

2. Modifiers: e.g. *gigantic, enormous, to be dying, massive, vast, endless, wall-to-wall.*

3. Verb phrases: e.g. *to be covered in, to be dying of, to be up to one's eyes in.*

4. Counterfactual expressions: (often used in conjunction with *literally, nearly/almost* and related metalingual 'triggers'), e.g. *I ran when I was waiting to go on, I nearly died of thirst waiting for them.* The reader should be sensitive to this hyperbole because it contains excessive statement and it brings untrue meaning. Galperin (1997: 76) alerts the reader to be careful in

determining the expression of hyperbole by saying "If the reader (listener) is not carried away by the emotion of the writer (speaker), hyperbole becomes merelie." He gives the example *he was so tall that I was not sure he had a face* (O.Henry). This expression included to *modifiers form* because using *tall.* The meaning of this hyperbole expression that he is indeed so tall and then the speaker cannot see his face because if somebody is very tall, the speaker will talk and see his friend to look up to see his face. The use of hyperbole is to emphasize the strong expression that he has very tall body. The reader has to pay attention in interpreting an expression of hyperbole because if he believes with what is said by the author and then the use of hyperbole as exaggerative expression is fail.

Example of hyperbole:

This country will collapse

2.8.6 Metaphor

The word *metaphor* is a Greek one; it means *to carry over.* Rozakis (1995: 33) stated that "*A metaphor is a comparison without the words like or as.*"

It's supported by Perrine (1983: 571), he declared that "In metaphor the Comparison is implied–that is, the figurative term is *substituted for* or *identified with* the literal term." From those statements, we can get the point that metaphor is the process of comparing two unlike things as if they are one. This thing happened because metaphor does not have connective words such as *like, as, than, similar to* and *seems* determining them as figurative. Metaphor and simile have close relation because comparing the different things. Metaphor also often called an implied simile. In simile, the comparison is seen clearly. This is contrary to metaphor that compares the thing implicitly. If the concept of simile is A *is like* B, then the concept of metaphor is A *is* B. Actually, metaphor has the way to determine the process of carrying meaning in this expression. Bradford (1997: 22) explained two processes of Metaphor; they are tenor and vehicle based on Richards's theory (1936). He describes that the tenor of metaphor is idea or the principal object discussed, meanwhile the vehicle is the analogy or the image that describes the object. The main point of Bradford's explanation about the process of metaphor has described that the tenor is the main concept and the vehicle is the analogy of the concept itself. The vehicle carries the description or the qualities to main concept. The example of metaphor expression is taken from the poem *A Meditation for His Mistress* by Robert Herrick, *you are the queen all flowers among.* This becomes a metaphor because *you* is identified with *the queen all flowers among. You*

refer to the lover of Herrick. The tenor or principal object which is discussed in this expression is *you* and the vehicle as the image that carries the description to object is *the queen all flowers*. The flower is the part of plant. It looks beautiful with brightly colored. In this expression, Herrick compares *his lover* with *the queen all flowers among* means that his girl is very beautiful because *you* have got the qualities of the flower that is beautiful. Another example of metaphor is *man is a wolf* (Glucksberg, 2001: 7). *The man* is compared with *wolf*. The tenor is *man* and the vehicle is *a wolf*. The word *wolf* in this expression does not indicate that the man is real animal which has tail and canine tooth but it explains the characteristics of wolf used to describe the man. A wolf is known as a wild animal which is classified to dog family. It is also recognized as a greedy animal. This explanation illustrates that the man has characteristic owned by a wolf. It can be interpreted that the man has terrible behavior, greedy, and evil. Otherwise, the reader also can interpret *the man is a wolf* is wild or brave man.

(Barlow, Fine, & Pollio, 1977) states that; the study of metaphor has a long and rich history going back to the time of ancient Greece. In the traditional view, metaphor was viewed as decorative or fancy speech, a matter of language and linguistic phenomenon. Until the 19th century, metaphor was treated to be largely literary, divorced and isolated from the language of communication and the study of that was confined to rhetorical perspective, nice but not necessary. However, near the turn of the 20th century, the study of metaphor encountered a drastically intensive movement from a purely figurative device to a matter of thought and understanding and a fundamental aspect of discourse programming.

Example of metaphor:

Her eyes are jewels sparkling in the sun

Recently the cognitive approach to metaphor has grown into one of the most pompous fields of research in the social science and scholars begin to realize that the study of metaphor can be connected to many other subjects such as pragmatics, psychology, language teaching and linguistics (Hong-mei, 2010).

2.8.6.1 Metaphor in Language and Culture

Cameron (2008), states the ways that metaphor shapes, and is shaped by, ongoing talk ("Metaphor and Talk"). According to her analysis; metaphors are sporadic in discourse, sometimes appearing in thick clusters and sometimes absent altogether. Cameron discusses some of the ways that

metaphor is signaled in talk and allows conversational participants to manage their interactions and come to joint understandings of various ideas, while in other instances; people's talk suggests their entirely different metaphoric understandings of ideas and events. She also strongly argues that claims about conceptual metaphor are too often divorced from real language use, and that each individual may have different versions of conceptual metaphors given their respective culturally contextualized experiences and interactions.

Kovecses (2005) discussed the metaphor and its relation with culture to show how they are intimately connected in some ways:

First, if we think of culture as, in the main, a set of shared understandings of the world, the question of the role of figurative understanding in culture immediately arises. Because our understanding of the world includes both concrete and abstract objects and events, naturally figurative thought should play some role in the case of *abstract* objects and events. He continued; in several influential trends of contemporary cognitive science and linguistics, abstract thought is taken to be based on concrete domains of experience, of which the human body has a distinguished status. He argued that cultural models for abstract domains

(i.e., our shared understandings of abstract objects and events) are, and can only be, metaphorically constituted.

Second, conceptual metaphors are often expressed in language – a major component of culture. Thus, language may be a chief indicator of conceptual metaphors. But it can also be more: It can produce certain Whorfian effects, as work by Lera Boroditsky (2001) shows. Speaking a language and knowing its conceptual metaphors may influence the way we think about abstract concepts such as time

Third, conceptual metaphors may be realized in cultural practice, including institutions, behavior, symbols, and artifacts. Thus, conceptual metaphors often have a strong physical–material existence in a given culture. Cultures may vary in terms of which metaphors are realized in practice or in the degree to which particular metaphors are realized.

Fourth, when conceptual metaphors are expressed in the form of metaphorical linguistic expressions in discourse, they may serve culturally distinct social–cultural functions.

Fifth, the *conventional* metaphorical system of a culture preserves and lends stability to a particular culture. This is possible because cultures can be viewed, in part, as shared metaphorical understandings of the world and

because conventional metaphorical language and metaphorically constituted physical reality have relative time stability.

Sixth, given that cultures can be thought of as sets of shared understandings, *creativity* in figurative thought (including metaphor and conceptual integration) can provide cultures with the potential of change and new experience.

2.8.6.2 Metaphor in Nonverbal Expression

Kennedy (2008) discusses how metaphor, and other related tropes, can be realized in art objects, such as paintings ("Metaphor and Art"). He first notes that metaphors are abundant in art with metaphoric pictures often playing on the activity of picturing as a way of using a pictorial device to make a point about the topic. Also Kennedy argues that, metaphoric pictures are especially notable because, the mind does not use images that most directly illustrate the thought. He offers some contrasts between verbal and pictorial metaphors, describing, for example, how some successful verbal metaphors can make poor pictorial ones and vice versa.

Forceville (2008) on the other hand, discusses the meanings and functions of metaphor in pictures and other multimodal forums ("Metaphor in Pictures and Multimodal Representations"). He describes how metaphors in pictures, advertisements, and films share many of the same qualities observed in linguistic metaphor, including how conceptual metaphors appear to motivate many aspects of nonlinguistic metaphor. However, the study of pictorial and multimodal metaphor also raises important questions about the identification of source and target domains in all metaphorical mappings. Forceville apply some of the communicative purposes of multimodal metaphors and suggests they may have more emotional impact than linguistic metaphors, and aid both local and global narrative coherence, even in cases where the creator of a picture or film, for instance, did not consciously intend these metaphors to be understood as such.

2.8.6.3 The Power of Metaphor

Black (1979) states that, at a first glance they can seem ambiguous and paradoxical, but in practice they can explain complex concepts both quicker and more accurate than a more literal explanation. In many areas, especially where instant communication of complex messages must be achieved, metaphors have become more and more important.

2.8.6.4 Types of Metaphors

Your dictionary (n.d.) states that, just as there are many ways to paint metaphorical pictures, there are many different types of metaphors. Let's take a look at some of the most popular forms:

- **Absolute Metaphors** – These metaphors compare two things that have no obvious connection, in order to make a striking point. For example, "She is doing a tightrope walk with her grades this semester."
- **Dead Metaphors** – Like clichés, these metaphors have lost their punch through over-usage. For example, "You light up my life."
- **Extended Metaphors** – These are exactly as they sound. They're lengthy metaphors that are intended to create deep comparisons, as in this classic example from Romeo and Juliet: "But soft! What light through yonder window breaks? It is the East, and Juliet is the sun! Arise, fair sun, and kill the envious moon, who is already sick and pale with grief."
- **Implied Metaphors** – These metaphors compare two things without using specific terms. For example, "Spending too much time with him is worse than swimming in a sea of sharks."
- **Mixed Metaphors** – These metaphors jumble comparisons together, often without any logic. For example, "In the heat of the moment, she turned to ice and danced to the beat of her own drum."
- **Root Metaphors** – These metaphors are so rooted in everyday language and assumptions, we hardly even recognize them as metaphors. You could liken them to dead metaphors or clichés, due to their over usage. For example, "Life is a journey."

2.8.6.5 Metaphor and Second Language Learning and Teaching

In recent years, many researchers have explored metaphor as a significant part in foreign language teaching and learning and believed that the findings of their research may help in L2 teaching and learning. Beck (1982) saw that the conceptual system described by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) has application in education, in general and in language study and culture understanding, in particular. Littlemore and Low (2006) assert that "metaphor is involved in any area that language learners need to use, understand or learn..." Cameron (1996) confirms that metaphor can help

children's acquisition of languages and enrich their expressions. Xiaobo (2002) and Yumiao (2006) point out the significance and importance of raising language learners' metaphor awareness. Hoffman (1983) pointed out that the connotative meanings of words, however, are often more frequently used than denotative meanings. In its relation with language teaching, Shuwu (2002) points out that it is one of the trends of modern study of metaphor to employ the finding of metaphor in cognitive linguistics in language teaching. Ortony (1984), after many experiments, claims that the focus of metaphor study should be put on the exploration of the cognitive function of metaphor in language learning and teaching. Guerrero and Villamil (2002) suggest that metaphor might be used as a tool to increase self-reflection and critical awareness among working L2/FL teachers. They state that teachers need to become aware of the powerful way in which metaphors shape educational beliefs and to critically examine the extent to which these metaphors reflect their beliefs.

2.8.6.6 Metaphor and Literal Language

Some traditional theories (e.g., Grice 1975; Searle 1979) assume that literal and metaphorical interpretations vary in the following respects:

(a) Literal Interpretation has unconditional priority: The literal meaning of an utterance is always activated, and is always activated prior to any other meaning.

(b) Metaphor Interpretation requires a triggering condition (i.e., a rule violation).

I Metaphorical meanings must be more difficult to understand; they should involve a sequential process. As a result, they should require more and different contextual support for their derivation.

2.8.6.7 Metaphor and Gesture

Cienki (2008) states that; If we consider the study of metaphor in the tradition of works such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980, 1999) and Lakoff (1993), one of the basic principles is that metaphor stems from (at least potential) conceptual mappings between domains. If metaphor has as its basis cross-domain mappings in the conceptual system, then words should offer just one form in which they may appear. One should be able to find metaphoric expressions in various forms of human behavior, and not exclusively in language. And indeed, there has been some research on conceptual metaphor and its expression in visual media, music, and various forms of cultural practices and rituals (as examples see Fernandez, 1991; Forceville, 1996; Zbikowski, 2002). Since the 1980s, there has been an

increasing amount of research which shows that spontaneous gestures during language production, especially gestures of the hands and forearms, can also constitute metaphoric expressions.

2.8.6.8 What is a Metaphoric Gesture?

Cienki (2008) also claims that; the metaphoric gestures which received the most attention in this work were ones in which the hands were shaped in the air as if holding or loosely supporting an object (often palm up, with a loosely open hand), and were used in contexts to simply refer to an abstract notion, such as the narrative genre under discussion by participants in the experiments. McNeill argues that these gestures constitute expressions of the conduit metaphoric model, first discussed by Reddy (1979). This model characterizes the common practice of thinking and talking about ideas as if they were objects, and about communication as if it were a simple transfer of the ideas via a container (of words or texts) from one person to another. Furthermore, because McNeill's (1992) book was the first widely disseminated book in English which included a discussion of metaphoric gesture, many came to consider conduit gestures as the prime examples of metaphoric gestures. However, as the papers in this volume show, it is just one category among many. Another classification, which presents an account of metaphoric gestures from a different perspective, is that of Muller (1998). This classification focuses on the function of various types of gestures, namely on the following categories.

– Discourse gestures, which structure an utterance (such as making beats for emphasis, or counting out the logical points one is making on the fingers of one hand),

– Performative gestures, which enact speech acts (such as dismissing an offer or idea with a motion sweeping away, or requesting something with a hand held out open, palm up), and

– Referential gestures, which can refer to something concrete or to the abstract. In the case of concrete referential gestures, they can indicate their referent iconically in several ways. For example, one's hand(s) can draw, model, or represent entities. Thus two hands with thumb and forefingers extended at right angles, the other fingers folded, can represent two corners of a square picture frame. However, if we take abstract referential gestures, they cannot represent the abstract referent itself iconically, since what is being referred to usually lack a structure which can inherently be depicted with the hands. Muller (1998) shows that McNeill's (1992) iconic and metaphoric gestures are in fact both equally iconic signs, but what

distinguishes them is whether they are depicting the referent itself – concrete reference to an entity, action, or relation – or whether the referent is another entity, action, or relation in terms of which the topic is being characterized (in which case we have abstract reference). We can think of the hands making the same framing gesture, described above, but used when the speaker is talking about the organization of a theory. In this case, the speaker is making abstract, gestural reference to the theory's organization as a physical structure, namely, a framework. Note that "emblem" gestures are not excluded from this system. So the "thumbs up" gesture points upward for a reason: it invokes reference to the abstract idea of good things as being up, versus the bad as being down.

The distinction between concrete or abstract reference entails a description of gestures in terms of their function. However, as Fricke (2004) makes clear, there is not a necessary connection between abstract referential gestures and metaphoricity. Indeed, she points out that some abstract referential gestures are not metaphoric, while some concrete referential gestures are. One can be talking about a triangle in the context of a geometry lesson and represent it with the fingers of two hands. But this abstract referential gesture is not functioning as a metaphor in this context. It is a representation of a mathematical construct. (It may be seen as metonymic, however, by showing a particular form of triangle to stand for the general class of such shapes.) By contrast, we might find the expression of a metaphor in a concrete referential gesture. Fricke (2004, p. 180) notes that one could be talking about another person derogatorily and refer to him as "This ass!" (In the sense of "donkey," in German: *"Dieser Esel!"*) While holding one's hands up at the sides of one's head, imitating a donkey's ears. Here we have concrete reference with the gesture serving the metaphoric function of characterizing a person as an ass. The key point here is that the description of a gesture as metaphoric involves the interpretation of a mapping between two domains. (Of course ascertaining whether we are dealing with one or two domains is itself a matter of interpretation in context, as Croft [1993] makes clear.) Nevertheless, while it seems intuitively correct that most abstract referential gestures can be further classified as metaphoric, and concrete referential gesture as non-metaphoric, it remains to be seen through empirical study whether this is in fact the case, and to what degree this may differ across cultures and situations of use. We can question what it means to say that a verbal expression is metaphoric. First we can note that conceptual metaphors fall

along a scale of conventionality to creativity. For example, from existing research on the dominant languages in Europe and America, one can conclude that in these cultural spheres it is much more conventional to conceptualize life as a journey rather than to think of life as a banana. (I will follow the convention used in the literature of writing posited conceptual metaphors in the form "target is [or as] source domain" in small capital letters.) Innovative conceptual metaphors necessarily require novel means of expression (in this case, perhaps it could be: "Life is a banana: you should peel it carefully and enjoy every bite"). For more conventional conceptual mappings, there is a scale from more conventional to more novel forms of expression. "I feel like my life is going nowhere" strikes this native speaker of English as a more conventional way of expressing life is a journey than "He skateboarded his way through life." Some (like Kyratzis, 1997 and Muller, 2004/in press) argue that the potential for activation of metaphoricity is scalar, such that the underlying conceptual metaphors can be more or less frozen or defrosted, or more or less asleep or awake (depending on the metaphor one wants to use for metaphoricity itself). Contextual factors influence the degree of salience of an expression, and so the potential for realization of its metaphoricity. The salience of words being spoken can be increased by the use of marked prosody (Pierrehumbert & Hirschberg, 1990), the use of lexical tuning devices (such as "so to speak" before or after a metaphoric expression, which draws attention to it) (Cameron & Deignan, 2003; Goatly, 1997; Goddard, 2004), and also through co-verbal gesturing that is more expansive than normal for the speaker (Muller, 2003). Some combination of these behaviors would likely make the metaphoricity of the co-occurring verbal expression even more salient.

The same scale of conventionality for metaphoric expression applies to spontaneous gesture with speech. This ranges from the use of a conventional metaphor with a conventionalized form of expression (namely an emblem, like the "thumbs up" gesture) to novel expressions used once in a given context and maybe never again. And just as the use of a metaphoric expressions in words (conventional or novel) can be highlighted in context, making its metaphoricity more salient, the same process of highlighting can happen with a metaphoric expression in gesture.

While this salience might be expected with a creative use of gesture, it may also potentially occur with the use of a more conventional gestural form. As an example, think of the common conduit type mentioned above, perhaps

embodied in the form of a loosely cupped hand, held palm up, and used when the speaker is presenting a new idea to the listener. Even this kind of gesture can be highlighted not only by more expansive use of the gesture space (perhaps through an exaggerated movement leading to presentation the hand shape in its final form and position), but also by the speaker directing his/her gaze at the gesture, or by the use of marked prosody (emphatic stress, lengthening, or extreme pitch contour) in the speech accompanying the gesture. Finally, expression of the same source domain for a given target domain in both words and gesture at the same time can highlight the metaphoric mapping between target and source

2.8.6.9 Highlighting of Metaphoricity

Cienki (2008) argue that; Metaphoricity is better characterized as a property which can be in the background or the foreground to varying degrees, rather than being a black and white matter of whether certain words uttered were metaphoric or not. My impression is that this issue is even more readily apparent with the study of gesture because of the salience (or not) of gesture as used in a contextual scene. We are left with the question: How can we best handle this issue in our analyses of conceptual metaphors?

Muller (2004) suggests some points to be taken into consideration, including simultaneous reinforcement of the same metaphor in words and gesture, the size of the gesture in the speaker's gesture space, and the speaker's gaze at the gesture.

2.8.6.10 Metaphor is Grounded in Physical Experience

Gibbs and Wilson (2002) argue that many conceptual metaphors used to talk about emotions are motivated by bodily sensations that we experience when we have those emotions. Gibbs examined the linguistic metaphors used to talk about anger, and claims that many of these are motivated by the conceptual metaphor anger are heated fluid in a container (1994). This is realized by linguistic metaphors such as "She got all *steamed up*" and "I was *fuming*" (1994). He claims that we each perceive our own body as a container, and when we become angry we experience physical sensations of heat and internal pressure which threaten to build up to dangerous levels within the perceived container.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) show how a number of orientation metaphors seem to connect abstract domains to the concrete physical experiences associated with them. For example, they claim that the conceptual metaphor more is up, less is down, realized in expressions such as "My income *rose* last year" and "If you're too hot, turn the heat *down*" is grounded in

physical experience. They also claim that the conceptual metaphor happy is up, sad is down is grounded in our physical expression of these feelings; when happy we feel full of energy and tend to hold ourselves upright, but when we are sad we tend to slump. Some conceptual metaphors, such as good is up, bad is down, are not grounded directly in physical experience, but through other conceptual metaphors. For instance, happiness and health, which are up through direct physical experience, "characterize what is good for a person", and so by extension good also becomes up.

Lakoff (1993) argues that metaphors that are grounded directly in experience are likely to be deeply rooted in individual people's thought patterns, and will also be common across different languages.

According to Conceptual Metaphor Theory, "it will therefore occupy a less than central position in the thought patterns of even English speakers, as it is learnt rather than experienced directly. This also explains why it seems not to occur in many other languages" (Deignan 2003).

Fernando (1996), argues that theories linking feelings directly with physical sensations ignore "people's cultural interpretation of the world they inhabit" She claims that some idiomatic expressions for metaphors in fact draw on "resources of a language which still retains its meaning system concepts traceable back to the Middle Ages" and in some instances, earlier. As evidence, she cites idioms that can be linked to beliefs in the humors, a medieval theory of personality. This is not incompatible with the theory that metaphors are grounded in physical experience, but serves to remind us that physical experience is filtered culturally. It would suggest that some meanings of some linguistic metaphors can be explained more fully with reference to former belief systems than through an analysis of possible physical origins alone.

2.8.6.11 Metaphor is Ideological

Deignan (2005) argues that Conceptual Metaphor Theory holds that metaphor is potentially ideological. A number of researchers have analyzed texts in which it appears that metaphors have been used in order to present a particular interpretation of situations and events. For instance, Lakoff and Johnson claim that the use of a war metaphor affected public perceptions of the search for cheap energy resources in the United States in the 1970s (1980: 156). According to them, one inference that was suggested but not made explicit by the conceptual metaphor the search for energy is war was the existence of a hostile foreign enemy; cartoonists sometimes hinted that this enemy was Arab. Lakoff and Johnson claim that by creating such

inferences, the war metaphor influenced the thought and recognize of politicians and the public, and that a different metaphor might have created different inferences and therefore led to different courses of action. Lakoff continued to study the use of metaphors to describe events in the Persian Gulf and to argue that "metaphors can kill" (1991: 1).

2.8.6.12 Metaphor and Grammar

Deignan (2005) states that; The second of the three problems concerning different types of linguistic metaphors is how to deal with pairs of words that seem to be metaphorically related but that are different parts of speech. This is the case for *dog*, which has a literal sense meaning an animal, and a metaphorical sense meaning something like "trouble or disrupt over a long period", as in these corpus examples:

- Freddie's life had been *dogged* by love troubles.
- . . . The troubles that have *dogged* this country for nearly 30 years.

Corpus data suggest that the current literal sense of *dog/dogs* is always a noun.

Although intuition suggests that *dog/dogs/dogging/dogged* might be used as a verb to mean literally "pursue", this does not happen in the corpus; of 168 verbal citations, all have the same metaphorical meaning as in the above two citations. For some researchers, this might lead to excluding the verb *dog*, from their understanding of "metaphor", following the argument that metaphor only exists where the linguistic forms are identical in the source and target domains. However, there are two objections to this restriction on the understanding of "metaphor". The first is that it would lead to the exclusion of many uses that most speakers probably regard as metaphors. He describes corpus research into grammatical patterns of metaphors, and shows that for some mappings, change of word class is the norm. This is the case for the mapping of animals onto human characteristics: the most central source domain words tend to be nouns, the names of animals, while the related target domain words are often verbs, recognized, as in the example of *to dog*. Other examples are *hound*, *weasel*, *ferret*, and *horse*, all of which are established verbal metaphors but have few or no corpus citations for a nominal metaphorical sense. Animal metaphors are classic examples in the metaphor literature, and much attention is given to discussing noun-noun animal metaphors such as "He is a lion" (Cohen 1993) or "Richard is a gorilla" (Searle 1993). In fact, the corpus data suggest that such utterances are fairly rare in naturally-occurring language,

especially in comparison to animal metaphors whose target domain form is verbal.

The second objection to restricting the understanding of "metaphor" to target domain uses from the same word class as the source domain is that part of speech is not the only way in which the form of literal and metaphorical senses can differ. It is widely held among corpus linguists that a difference in meaning will always be reflected in a difference of form (Sinclair 1991; Hunston 2002). This implies that a metaphorical sense will always differ formally at some level from its literal counterpart. One example of a difference in form is given by Sinclair, who uses corpus data to argue that the verb *build* tends to be transitive, and is used without a particle when it has a literal meaning, in citations such as:

- For at least two years they had *built* homes for the elderly.

On the other hand, Sinclair claims that the metaphorical uses tend to take one of two patterns. Where the entity that is built is negatively regarded, the verb tends to be intransitive and used with the particle *up*, as in:

- It enables [him] to cover his costs in the short term; in the long term his problems *build up*.

When the entity that is built is positively regarded, the verb tends to be transitive and again followed by the particle *up*, as in:

- . . . You can begin to lead a normal life and, above all, *build up* a sense of personal worth.

There is no difference in part of speech between these literal and metaphorical uses, but there is a detectable grammatical difference at a more detailed level. It should be noted that such differences are sometimes strong tendencies rather than completely clear-cut, and counter-examples are possible, but the pattern noted by Sinclair is too strong to be seen as insignificant or the result of chance.

If identicalness of form between literal and metaphorical sense is to be taken as a requirement for metaphor, a decision needs to be made as to whether this should be applied only at the level of part of speech or at more detailed levels. If the most detailed levels of form are examined, it is possible that there are few or no metaphors that are completely identical in form to their literal counterparts. A further problem arises concerning derived forms, such as *kittenish* or *foxy*. Many people probably would not want to regard these as metaphors in the strictest sense, because their base form differs from any source domain counterpart. This tends to exclude most adjective and adverbial forms, but usually allows verbs, because

whether or not a derived word takes an affix largely depends on its part of speech: verbs derived from nouns tend not to take affixes while adjectives do. This is a quirk of English and has no semantic grounds: it can be argued that in terms of conceptual mapping, *kittenish* is much a mapping from literal *kitten* as verbal *dog* is from literal *dog*, and if *dog* is regarded as a metaphor so should *kittenish*. Again, a decision needs to be made on such cases.

2.8.6.13 Metaphors and Truth

Stern (2000) assumed that metaphors- or declarative sentences in which at least one expression is a metaphor- are truth-bearing entities; that they are true or false no deferent from literal sentences like `snow is white'; equivalently, that they express propositions. He claims that this assumption is far from uncontroversial. He adds that, the best defense is a good offense. It certainly looks like metaphorical (declarative) sentences are true or false. To the man on the street unversed in philosophical semantics, the assumption that utterances containing metaphors are true or false (as the case may be) would be beyond reproach. Stern argue that, When Romeo utters (Joliet is the Sun), he not only wants to ``call our attention" to a(particular) similarity between Juliet and the sun; he also intends to say something true about Juliet, to assert that she has a certain property (or set of properties) ``corresponding" to the predicate `is the sun'. Now, whatever it is that he is asserting, and thereby representing himself as believing to be true, it is not what is expressed by (Juliet is the Sun) interpreted literally. What, then, would be simpler than claiming that the property he believes to be true of Juliet is a property metaphorically expressed by the predicate` is the sun'? That he is asserting a proposition metaphorically expressed by (Juliet is the Sun) that he believes to be true?

Suppose that Count Paris disagrees with Romeo's utterance of (Juliet is the Sun). He is surely not denying the proposition expressed by (Juliet is the Sun) interpreted literally. Romeo and Paris agree about that proposition that it is false. So what is the common thing Romeo asserts and Paris denies? Isn't it the proposition asserted by (Juliet is the Sun) when it is interpreted metaphorically? Indeed why not?

He sum up his ideas about metaphor and truth saying that, the ordinary appearance is that utterances of sentences that contain metaphors are truth-valued, express propositions, and can be used to make assertions (or other speech acts that presuppose assertion).he assume that, burden of argument, therefore, falls on those who deny that this appearance is reality. To be sure,

there is no lack of arguments for the other side. These range from observations based on our ordinary use of metaphors (to ``call our attention to a certain likeness,'' or ``invite'' us to ``appreciate'' a resemblance, or ``inspire'' a certain vision, or ``propose'' that things be viewed a certain way) to theoretical considerations about compositionality and the formal structure of a semantic theory.

He provides one last methodological remark on this issue: Despite the ordinary presumption to which he has appealed, the thesis that metaphorical interpretation falls within the scope of semantics cannot be settled simply by appeal to ``facts'' like our practices to use metaphors in assertions. On the one hand, actual practice can always be interpreted and explained in a variety of ways consistent both with the assumption that metaphors are truth-valued and with the assumption that they aren't. On the other hand, even if ordinary practice were deferent, the decision to treat metaphors as truth-bearers could be justified on theoretical grounds. Truth-values are theoretical entities. They serve as the semantic values or roles of sentences in a complex, systematic, powerful theoretical framework that aims to account for our understanding of language. If this same framework provides an illuminating account of metaphor, the assumption that metaphors are truth-bearers will be warranted- like any theoretical posit that is justified by the evidence for its containing theory and by its explanatory success.

2.8.6.14 Examples of Metaphors

There are so many examples of metaphor in English language. Your dictionary (n.d.) states some of them:

- "I'm drowning in a sea of grief."
  Here grief is so overwhelming that the person feels helpless, like they're being pulled underwater.

- "She was fishing for compliments."
  The woman isn't literally casting a lure to hook compliments out of the ocean. Rather, it's a dead metaphor used to signify a desire for accolades.

- "Success is a sense of achievement; it is not an illegitimate child."
  This saying reinforces the belief that everyone wants to take credit for success, but no one wants to take responsibility for their failings.

- "He broke my heart."
  Your heart isn't literally broken; you're just feeling hurt and sad.

- "You light up my life."
  Of course, no one can provide physical light. This expression is simply saying that someone brings them joy.

- "It's raining men."
  Hallelujah! No, men don't literally pour from the sky. This simply indicates that a lucky lady has a lot of male suitors.

- "Time is a thief."
  Fortunately, time doesn't put on a ski mask and lurk around dark corners. This metaphor illustrates the point that time seems to pass quickly and our lives flash by.

- "He is the apple of my eye."
  There is, of course, no apple in someone's eye. The apple is someone held dear.

- "She has such a bubbly personality."
  No one's personality can bubble up like a glass of champagne. This metaphor is used to signify someone who's especially cheerful.

- "I'm feeling blue."
  Until we become like the little girl in Willy Wonka's Chocolate Factory, none of us are likely to turn as blue as a blueberry. This metaphor means someone is sad.

- "I think he's about to fade off to sleep."
  Fortunately, none of us fade into thin air when we fall asleep. This expression simply means that someone has drifted into a state of slumber.

- "He really flared up my temper."
  When someone flares up your temper, flames don't spew out of your body, you're just deeply angry.

- "He reeks of infidelity."
  When this is said about a cheating partner, it doesn't mean there's an

actual odor. This metaphor is saying it's obvious the person is a liar and a cheat.

- "She's going through a rollercoaster of emotions."
  Our emotions can't take a ride on a rollercoaster. This metaphor simply means the person's going through a lot of different moods.

- "I feel the stench of failure coming on."
  Failure isn't fun but it doesn't smell. So, when this metaphor is used, it means one of life's disappointments is on the way.

- "This is the icing on the cake."
  While cake is always welcome, cake with icing is even better. This means something wonderful has happened on the heels of a happy day.

- "Hope is on the horizon."
  Hope is an intangible thing that doesn't bob along the horizon. This metaphor indicates good things are in one's future.

- "Life contains nothing but clear skies up ahead."
  This metaphor refers to a life devoid of disaster and heartache.

- "His words cut deeper than a knife."
  Words don't materialize into sharp objects. In this metaphor, someone has said something hurtful to another.

- "The moonlight sparkled brighter than a gypsy."
  The moonlight didn't transform into a colorful gypsy. Rather, it lit up the night with sparkling radiance.

2.8.7 Idioms

One of the definitions given by Oxford English Dictionary (1993) as "a form of expression, grammatical construction, phrase, peculiar to language; a peculiarity of phraseology approved by the usage of a language, and often having a signification other than its grammatical or logical one" while Fromkin et al. (2011), clarify that idioms are expressions whose meanings are unrelated to the principle of compositionality, that is, may be not connected to the meaning of their parts. Cruse (2004) argued that idiomatic meanings are based on literal word meanings within a particular context.

Fotovatnia & khaki (2012) focused on viewing idioms as decomposable structures since their meanings, either literal or figurative, contribute independently to their overall figurative interpretation of idioms.

Among the various definitions of idioms are: (1) the language peculiar to a people, country, class, community or, more rarely, an individual; (2) a construction or expression having a meaning different from the literal one or not according to the usual patterns of the language (New Webster's Dictionary, 1993).

(McArthur 1992) defined idioms as: "an expression, word, or phrase that has a figurative meaning that is comprehended in regard to a common use of that expression that is separate from the literal meaning or definition of the words of which it is made."

Idioms, indeed, constitute a notoriously difficult area of foreign language learning and teaching because, by definition, idioms are conventionalized expressions whose overall meaning cannot be determined from the meaning of their constituent parts. Hence, an idiomatic expression like *let the cat out of the bag* is composed of several words (let/the/cat/out/ of/the/bag) whose individual meanings do not seem to contribute to the meaning of the idiom as a whole (*reveal a secret*). In addition to this apparent incongruity between form and meaning, the scarcity of teaching materials and the lack of a clear methodology make idioms a stumbling block for EFL students (Deignan et al. 1997, Cameron & Low 1999).

Deg and Bestgen (2003) mention three important properties of idioms:

i) a sequence with literal meaning has many neighbors, whereas a figurative one has few;

ii) Idiomatic expressions should demonstrate low semantic proximity between the words composing them; and

iii) Idiomatic expressions should demonstrate low semantic proximity between the expression and the preceding and subsequent segments.

Likewise, Moreno (2005) suggests that most idioms lie along that continuum of looseness and as a result they vary in the extent to which the overall idiomatic meaning can be inferred from the meanings of the parts and their degree of transparency. The consequence is that people understand idioms but are not capable to find the path to explain where their referent, or conventional motivation, is.

According to Glucksberg and McGlone (2001) idioms are set apart from most other fixed expressions here described due to the absence of any

discernable relation between their linguistic meanings and their idiomatic meanings.

Gibbs (1980) showed that in a conversational context, idioms take less time to be understood figuratively than literally. A similar tendency was found in Ortony et al. (1978). Needham (1992) too disconfirmed the hypothesis that literal meaning is activated during comprehension of idiomatic utterances. Accordingly, we can infer that idioms are special phrases, multiword expressions, which have different and deeper meaning rather than their parts denote. Thus, a meaning of an idiom is not a sum of its literal parts (Kainulainen, 2006). Familiarity with a wide range of idiomatic expressions and the ability to use them appropriately in context are among the distinguishing marks of a native like command of English (Cowie and Mackin 1975).

McCarthy and O'Dell (2003) stated that 'Idioms are expressions which have a meaning that is not obvious from the individual words'. In addition, Walker (2003) explained that, 'An idiom is an expression peculiar to a language, not readily analyzable from its grammatical construction or from the meaning of component parts, as to put up with'. That means there is no grammatical rule in idiom. It is such a kind of habit of native speakers. Therefore, it is clear that foreign learners have some problems in understanding the meaning of idiom.

According to Boers (2008a) in MED Magazine, all languages have idioms and are full of them. Native speakers tend to use idiomatic expressions spontaneously without thinking of the figurative meaning. Ambrose (2008) opines that understanding the lexicon of English demands more than knowing the denotative meaning of words. It requires its speakers to have connotative word comprehension and an understanding of figurative language, and idioms fall into this final category. Idiomatic Expressions are defined as an expression whose meanings cannot be inferred from the meanings of the words that make it up (Idiomatic Expression, 2015).

On the other hand, it is also defined as an expression, word, or phrase that has a figurative meaning conventionally understood by native speakers. This meaning is different from the literal meaning of the idiom's individual elements. In other words, idioms don't mean exactly what the words say. They have, however, hidden meanings (Idiomatic Expressions, 2015). For example, the idiomatic expression "to kick the bucket" has nothing to do with the physical action of kicking a bucket with your legs, which is part of your body. The idiom "to kick the bucket" means "to die". So, an idiomatic

expression carries a figurative meaning, not a literal one. That is, it carries a meaning that cannot be understood just by the literal meanings of the words that make it up. Another example is "to spill the beans", which also has nothing to do with the actual physical action of spilling or dropping a can or plate of beans. What it actually means "to spill the beans" is to "tell a secret". As can be seen, this previous idiomatic expression carries a meaning that is figurative, not literal (Cowie et al., 1983). As a result, idiomatic expressions in linguistics are said to be figures of speech (figurative language) (Lyons, 1997). Thus, in linguistics, idiomatic expressions oppose the principle of compositionality, which states that the meaning of a whole should be constructed from the meanings of the parts that make up the whole. In other words, one should be in a position to understand the whole if one understands the meanings of each of the parts that make up the whole. (Wikipedia, 2015). In Linguistics, it is known that idiomatic expressions carry arbitrary meanings. That is, idioms mean what they mean for no reason other than coincidence. Idiomatic expressions in linguistics are said to randomly carry the meanings that they do (Boers, 2008b). Furthermore, idiomatic expressions are found to be culture-based. That is, idiomatic expressions carry within them the history, heritage, culture and customs of its native users (Rizq, 2015). It can be said that idioms that are derived from physical human experiences are, in general, culturally equal. That is, idioms that are based on physical human experiences, such as anger being associated with heat are easier to recognize and understand by non-natives. Due to the strong similarities across different cultures in basic physical experiences such as, being sick or well, hot or cold, idioms that are derived from such images are often the same and fairly easy to understand (Boers, 2008c). Learning idiomatic expressions also teaches nonnative speakers of a language the culture of its people (Ovando and Collier, 1985).

2.8.7.1 Importance of Idiomatic Expressions to Language Users

Thawabteh (2011) emphasized that idioms are one of the universal aspects of all languages; they are considered to be an intrinsic part of human communication. Further, they baffle beginner learners to a great extent. They may cause not only linguistic but also cultural and technical problems for non-native speakers; hence, these problems might affect communication negatively. Dixon (1994) claimed that idioms are essential to successful communication, whether in listening, speaking, reading, or writing.

According to Cowie, Mackin, & McCaig (1983), the accurate and appropriate use of idioms is a distinctive mark of native-level command of the language, and it is a reliable measure of the proficiency of foreign learners. It is a fact that ignoring idioms would cause a learner various problems. The authors added that foreign language learners must learn not only the grammatical structures and vocabulary of the target language but also the idioms to integrate into the culture of the target language. Furthermore, Lundblom & Woods (2012) argued the importance of understanding idioms. They believe that idioms are clearly presented in academic settings; consequently, failure to comprehend idioms could affect academic performance, written composition, reading comprehension, and vocabulary, especially because the occurrence of idioms in classroom language increases as students advance in age and grade. Several language researchers have common believe that a sound knowledge of idioms is required or English language proficiency and fluency, and a lack of such knowledge can cause significant misunderstanding (Liu, 2008; Shirazi & Talebinezhad, 2013; Wray, 1999, 2002). Thus, it becomes clear that idioms are very important in EFL/ESL contexts where L2 learners' language proficiency might be assessed on the basis of their understanding of idiomatic expression. This means that the more idioms one knows, the more native-like one's English will sound. Additionally, by learning idioms, one accordingly learns about the culture of the community that speaks the language (Al kadi, 2015).

Villanvicencio et al. (2005) assumed that, "idioms are usually employed in everyday language precisely to express ideas and concepts that cannot be compressed into a single word." From this perspective, idiomatic expressions assume a very key role in communication, that is, a fertile disposition for the expression of ideas and concept which cannot be easily reflected through other ways. In other words, idioms make a certain aspect of impossibility in communication to be explicitly possible.

Vega-Moreno (2005:320) support this by saying that "idiom is used to communicate a concept which we use in our thought but for which we have no word in our language." From the same perspective, Ogbuehi (2004:47) claimed that "idioms, therefore, permit us to express and infer hidden motives and to enrich our expressions of ideas and events. They help to generate a variety of responses when used in speech and writing."

From every indication, it is very obvious that the pivotal role of idiom in language and communication cannot be in any way compromised.

Idioms are "the poetry of daily discourse" (Johnson-Laird, 1993: ix-x). Seidl and McMordie (1987) argue that it can be difficult to speak or write without using idioms. Namely, they are so usual in English language that many of the speakers might use another idiom while explaining one. According to Karunakaran & Maisa (2013c) Idioms cover a wide range of various life aspects and form an integral part of daily language use. Every year many idioms enter into the English language from the world of sports and entertainment, such as *have a good innings* or *dice with death.* Some idioms are formed from rural life and transportation as *eat like a horse* or *put the cart before the horse*. Additionally, idioms come to include money, business, food and body such as *armed to teeth* meaning *heavily armed with killing weapons*. Cowie et al. (1993b) argued that being familiar with a wide range of idioms and able to use them accurately and appropriately are among the distinguishing marks of a native command of the language and trust-worthy indicators of the proficiency of foreign learners. Jabboori & Jazza, (2013) states that, Learners who have uploaded their skills with such a competency are able to produce and use idioms in different contexts of communication easily and effectively, leading to a better proficiency and a higher fluency in the second or foreign language learning and acquisition. (Mola, 1993) states that, idioms are significantly effective in the process of teachability and learnability, That is , idioms to mind and memory is a mental aerobic in which the learners become mentally more active and fresher when memorizing and recalling idioms. According to Dong (2004), idioms with their metaphorical, poetic, and cultural insights help language learners understand other cultures and historical backgrounds get into their custom and lifestyle, and facilitate a deeper vision into history, resulting into broadening the learners' thinking and ability of drawing appropriate images about other cultures Boers et al., (2007) states that, It goes without saying that mastering idioms goes beyond comprehension. That is, using or not using a given idiom must be associated with usage restrictions especially when it comes to taboo idioms and their use according to Huang, (2001) The learners as well as the users of idioms need to be familiar with the fact that some idioms are restricted to cultural stereotypes. Some of them function as keys to cultural knowledge associated with the meaning of restricted usage. Hence, any lack of acquiring cultural competence might be responsible for the learners' failure to get such culturally marked idioms.

2.8.7.2 The Syntax of Idioms

From a syntactic point of view, Akmajian et al. (1987) states that idioms as "*syntactically complex words whose meaning cannot be predicted, since their syntactic structure is doing no semantic work*". Yusifova (2013a) argues that idioms have their own internal syntactic features, suggesting that the elements of idioms cannot be regarded as lexical units. That is, idioms cannot be broken into parts in a sentence, neither can be changed nor new combinations of idioms can be established. Therefore, the whole idiom expresses the intended meaning, not give in separately-taken words and idioms as a whole are "syntactic units", containing a "lexical wholeness" moreover, idioms are also defined as "a form of a language that is spoken in a particular area and that uses some of its own words, grammar, and pronunciations." (Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2008). Moreno (2011a) explained this feature by declaring that idiomatic expressions give any language a particular flavor, variation, and color. Similarly, they help language learners have a good understanding of the culture they are used in, get into its customs and lifestyle, and facilitate a deeper insight into its history. Strassler (1982) mentioned six different types of idiomatic expressions as follows: substitutes, proper names, abbreviations, English phrasal compounds, and figures of speech as homonymy, synonymy and polysemy, and slang expressions. Seidl & McMordie (cited in Leah, 2014) listed the following eight categories of idioms: informal, formal, verbal, idiomatic pairs, identical pairs, idioms used in special fields, idioms related to special themes, idioms containing special keywords, and idioms with comparisons. In terms of themes, Karunakaran & Maisa (2013a) clarified that idioms are connected with animals, the sea, sports, parts of the body, food and drinks, colors, names of people and places , sight, hearing, touching , smelling, and other topics. Despite the varied themes and types of idioms, there are certain features recommended in idioms. Cruse (1986) mentioned two certain features. The first one is that idioms should contain more than one lexical item. The second is that idioms should form a single minimal semantic constituent. Wright (1999) emphasized other two features. The first one is about fixation and recognizability in which native speakers can address idioms, yet they cannot come up with new ones. The second feature pinpoints the metaphorical language used in idioms as in *break your hearts* to mean *very sad*. Mastering the art of using idioms in a language is considered important as well as difficult. (Glucksberg 2008, pg.88). According to crystal is

defined as "a term used in grammar and lexicology to refer to a sequence of words which are semantically or syntactically restricted, so that they function as a single unit. From a semantic viewpoint, the meaning of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole. From a syntactic view point, the words do not often permit the usual variability they display in other contexts" (Crystal, 1991: 170). English is a language rich of idioms (Brenner, 2011; Zyzik, 2011). As stated by De Caro (2009), without the use of idioms, English would lose much of its diversity both in spoken and written texts. Glucksberg (2001) claims that learning idioms facilitates acquiring information about a language's culture as they are culture specific and it is difficult to find their equivalents in every language. Ellis (1997) and Yorio (1989) Celce-Murcia (2008) states that satisfactory awareness and suitable use of idioms in target languages are vital signs of communicative competence and the ability to successfully express feelings and thoughts in that language. Trosborg (1985) goes far by clarifying the correlation between learners' ability to understand the meaning of unknown metaphorical idioms and their proficiency in the target language. It is possible that the idiomatic expression might be intended literally up until when the key head word is recognized (Glucksberg, 2001: 70-71). Mäntylä (2004a)states that one of the strategies the participants used to understand idioms is through resorting to the native tongue and even when there is no clear equivalent in the native language, they select a figurative meaning in the native language even when only a single word is shared with the target language. Mäntylä adds that they rely on the literal meaning and pick the alternative that gives the literal meaning. In case none of these two strategies works, Mäntylä claims that they rely on pure guessing. This signifies that the transparency of selected idioms helps with the interpretation only when it is similar to the target language. An idiom is "a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly non-productive in form" (Wood 1986: 95). According to this definition, for instance, *shoot the bull* is a wholly non-compositional metaphor, but not an idiom as it tolerates variation in vocabulary (*shoot the breeze*), whereas *fly off the handle* does not allow changes and any change would alter the original idiomatic meaning. However, as Liu (2008: 9) highlights, Wood's definition is problematic since it is not always easy to determine whether an expression is an idiom or a collocation, because it is not easy to know if an expression is "wholly" or "partially" non-

compositional or non-productive. A very narrow definition given by Moon (1998) as she distinguishes idioms from fixed expressions and defines an idiom as a "semi-transparent and opaque metaphorical expression" that has both literal and figurative meanings such as *spill the beans* (Moon 1998:5). Gibbs (1993: 58), points out that, many scholars have mistakenly assumed that idioms are dead metaphors since the arbitrary conventions of usage might determine their meaning. For instance, *break a leg* (to wish a good luck before a performance) stems from the old superstition that wishing good luck to someone would be bad luck, hence in the course of time people started to use it and now it has become fixed as a convention. Contemporary speakers may now comprehend what *break a leg* means, but simply because it is a convention, not that they would know why this phrase means what it does. An expression may carry its literal meaning instead of the figurative one thus comprehending and recognizing idioms is very demanding (Cacciari 1993: 27). As Mäntylä (2004:29) claims, a bucket can be kicked literally, whereas it is difficult to find any literal meanings in *footing the bill.* This type of idiom is often characterized as a frozen or dead metaphor, but its meaning is not completely lexicalized since someone not familiar with the idiom can discover an appropriate meaning for it by processing it as a metaphor (Pulman 1993: 250) On the other hand, a language user may treat an idiom as a metaphor and arrive "at rational interpretations that are nevertheless not that of the idiom" (*ibid.*). For example, a language user might think that *cat among the pigeons* carries a connotation of cruelty, even though there is no such connotation. Moon (1998:179) states that the literal meaning is not likely, even though it is sometimes possible. For instance, idioms such as *upset the apple cart* can be understood literally, but it is not likely in today's world. Literal decoding of an idiom is possible but not probable; idioms have a potential of being disinformative and even misunderstood, but this does not apply to all of the idioms (Mäntylä 2004: 52). Also corpus studies (e.g. Moon 1998) highlighted that literal meanings occur relatively infrequently...

Makkai (1972) clarify that, idioms can mislead or disinform a listener or reader, which may lead to "erroneous decoding" (Makkai 1972: 122). This has been criticized, for instance, by Fernando (1996: 6) who states that situational and textual context often reduces the possibility for disinformation as well as "situational improbability"; like in *rain cats and dogs*. According to Moon (1998), idioms are ambiguous when separated from the context, but the context resolves any ambiguity. It is true that the

context often helps to comprehend an idiom, but not always. Moon (1998) adds that idioms are potentially ambiguous in isolation or if unknown. Nevertheless, in the case of an unfamiliar idiom, the context will usually help non-native speakers in working out the meaning of an idiom. It is also true that different people interpret idioms in different ways, as for instance, idioms referring to God may be interpreted differently by religious people than people with a different world view (Moon 1998:179). Furthermore, non-native speakers often interpret idioms in a different way than native speakers do.

Levorato (1993) has shed the light on the development of *figurative competence* (i.e. an ability to deal with figurative language) of L1 children and argues that the acquisition of figurative language, including idioms, is tied to the development of other linguistic skills. Idioms are acquired together with skills that provide children with the ability to understand language as a whole. According to Levorato (1993: 104), such skills include, for instance, coding, making inferences, activating world knowledge, using imagination and creativity and activating metalinguistic knowledge. Consequently, we could assume that L2 learners possess such linguistic skills in their L1, but comprehending idioms in a foreign language is far from simple. L2 learners should know what the logic behind figurative language is and understand that the meaning can be inferred in various ways (Mäntylä 2004: 78). As Cooper (1999) notes that, models of L1 idiom acquisition serve as a starting point for studying the L2 idiom acquisition. Levorato (1993) argues that figurative competence, and idioms too, are acquired gradually, in the course of the linguistic development, and can be acquired completely only by a truly competent speaker. Cooper (1999) states that it may be even impossible to master idioms completely, yet language learners must be ready to face the challenge since idioms are frequent in spoken and written language. Nevertheless, idioms contribute to fluency and native-like competence of L2 learners, and advanced learners can be assumed to be able to recognize, interpret and produce idioms in L2 at least to some degree.

Levorato (1993) states that, it is fascinating to use idioms because they involve the imagination, make abstract meanings more concrete, add a wealth of meaning to simple concepts and make the commonplace conversation more interesting. Like poetic language, idioms express in a few words what would require many more words to express in literal terms, but given their conventional nature they do not require complex creative

strategies, such as those needed for poetic language. Idioms allow language learners to communicate in more than an appropriate way; they may also make further language learning easier (Schmitt & Carter 2004: 12).

Idioms are a colourful and fascinating aspect of English; they are commonly used in all types of languages, informal and formal, spoken and written. Learners' language skills will increase rapidly if learner can understand and use them confidently and correctly. (Cambridge Idioms Dictionary, 2010: vi). Stathi (2006a) points out that, the term 'idiom' can refer to two types of fixed expressions. First, in a narrow sense, idioms are 'expressions whose idiomaticity is semantic; typical expressions are *kick the bucket, spill the beans* etc. Second, idiomaticity is a formal property of expressions and is more or less equated with the fixedness of form; for example, *by and large.* According to Mc Carthy & O'Dell (2008) idioms are connected with the themes of animals, the sea, sports, parts of the body, food and drink, colours, names of people and places, sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch. We use idioms to describe physical appearance, character and personality, work and success, health and illness.

2.8.7.3 Common Characteristics Shared among Idioms

1) **Compositionality /Non-compositionality**: idioms have meanings expressed. Hence, if the meaning of idioms is elicited or deducted from the meanings of their semantic constituents, then they are decomposable as *play with fire* which means *to do something dangerous*. If the meaning of idioms cannot be understood on the literal definitions of the individual words, then they are non-decomposable as *hit the sack* which means *to go to bed* (Moreno, 2011:20).

2) **Frozenness of Forms:** semantic constituents are fixed and cannot be changed, i.e., restricted to lexical and grammatical conditions (ibid: 20).

3) **Metaphority**: many idioms are not 'dead' metaphors, but they in actual fact "retain a good deal of their metaphoricity". In other words, the relationship between the literal and figurative meaning can still be detected and captured (Gibbs cited in Majuri, 2014: 13).

4) **Institutionalization**: idioms constitute a set of expressions belonging to a certain language or culture (Karunakaran & Maisa, 2013b:113).

5) **Multi-Word Expressions**: idioms consist of more than just one word (Moreno, 2011b: 20).

2.8.7.4 Types of Idioms

Makkai (1972a) divides idioms into two categories:

1. Idioms of Encoding (identifiable) Idioms of encoding are those idiosyncratic lexical combinations that have transparent meaning involving collocational preferences and restrictions, exemplified by *at* in '*he drove at 70 m.p.h'*.

2. Idioms of Decoding (non-identifiable) Idioms of decoding refer to those nonidentifiable and misleading lexical expressions whose interpretations could not be comprehended on the basis of only learned linguistic conventions. In other words, the meaning of decoding idioms is not predicable. Expressions such as '*beat about the bush'* and '*fly off the handle'* are examples of this type of idioms.

Makkai (1972b) also classifies idiom of decoding into two types. Those are lexemic and sememic idioms. The explanation is:

a) Lexemic Idioms: The lexemic idioms are idioms which collate with the familiar part of speech (verbs, nouns, adjective and preposition) and they are composed of more than one minimal free form and each lexon of which can occur in other environments as the realization of a monolexonic lexeme. The lexemic idioms are divided into six types. There are:

a) Phrasal Verb Idioms: A phrasal verb is a verb that contains of two kinds of words. The first word is a verb, and the second word is a particle. The particle can be an article (a, an, the), preposition/adverb (up, in, out), and or affix (un-, in-, -ness, -ly); for example '*take off'* means *leave the ground*.

b) Tournure Idioms: Tournures idioms are the largest lexemic idioms, usually containing at least three words and are mostly verbs. A tournures idiom mostly falls into sentences. Based on its structure, tournures idioms are divided into:

1) The form contains the compulsory definite article, for example '*to do a guy'* means *to disappear secretly*.

2) The form contains the compulsory indefinite article.

3) The form contains an irreversible binomial introduced by preposition, for example '*to be at seven and eight'* means *to be in condition of confusion, at odds*.

4) A direct object and further possible modifiers follow the primary verb, for example '*to build castles in the air'* means *to make impossible plans*.

5) The leading verb is not followed by the direct object but by the preposition plus a noun or nothing, for example '*to dance on the air'* means *to get hanged*.

6) The leading verb is BE, for example '*to be above board'* means *to be out in the open, honest*.

7) The form contains the compulsory it.

c) Irreversible Binomial idioms: Irreversible binomial idioms consist of two words, which are separated by the conjunction. The word orders in this structure are fixed, for example '*high and dry*' (without resources), and '*Romeo and Juliet*' (institutionalized symbols of ideal love or symbol of true love).

d) Phrasal Compound Idioms: Phrasal compound idiom contains primarily nominal made up of adjective plus noun, noun plus noun, or adverb plus preposition. For example '*black mail*' means *any payment forced by intimidation* and '*bookworm*' means *a person committed to reading or studying*.

e) Incorporating Verb Idioms: Incorporating verb idioms have four forms. Those are noun-verb, adjective-noun, noun-noun, and adjective-noun. Incorporating verb idioms are separated by (-).

1) Noun-verb, '*sight-see*' means '*visit the famous places in a city, country, etc*'.

2) Adjective-noun, '*blackmail*' means '*the crime of demanding money from a person by treating to tell somebody else a secret about them*'.

3) Noun-noun, '*bootleg*' means '*made and sold illegally*'.

4) Adjective – verb, '*whitewash*' means '*an attempt to hide unpleasant facts about somebody/something*'.

f. Pseudo-Idioms: Pseudo-idioms can mislead or misinform an unwary listener. For example *cranberry, cranberry* according to oxford dictionary is bright red acid berry produced by any plant of genus oxycoccus. In the phrase '*make a cranberry face*' means '*the face become red*'.

2) Sememic idioms: Makkai said, 'Sememic idioms usually convey pragmatic meanings related to a particular culture' (1972). They include:

a. Proverbs: e.g., '*a bird in hand is worth two in the bush*'.

b. Familiar quotations: e.g., '*not a mouse stirring*'.

c. First base idioms: associated with a national game like baseball, e.g., '*have two strikes against one*', '*never to get to first base*'.

d. Idioms of institutionalized politeness: such as '*may I ….…..?*'

e. Idioms of institutionalized greeting: e.g., '*How do you do?*,*So long*'.

f. Idioms of institutionalized understatement: e.g., '*I wasn't too crazy about him*'.

g. Idioms of institutionalized hyperbole: e.g., '*He won't even lift a finger*'.

Sememic idioms include proverb and similar structure of sentence length, and therefore of less interest in our context. The lexemic idioms are

composed of more than one minimal free form. They must also be able to give the wrong impression about an innocent listener. Mäntylä (2004b) also classifies idioms into three types according to their transparency though the level of transparency is sometimes arguable. They are either transparent idioms where the literal and figurative meanings are linked to each other, semi-transparent idioms where there is a relation between literal and figurative meanings but not transparent, or opaque idioms where the literal and figurative connotation are completely different.

Fernando (1996) classifies idioms into three categories: *pure*, *semi-literal* and *literal* idioms. Pure idioms are "conventionalized", non-literal expressions, such as *smell a rat*, while semi-literal idioms involve at least one word that carries its literal meaning, like *drop names*. According to Fernando (1996: 36), phrases or expressions, such as *dark and handsome* and *Merry Christmas and a happy New Year*, are literal idioms. Fernando's lexicogrammatical categorization divides pure, semi-literal and literal idioms into twelve classes according to their variability and figurativeness (Fernando 1996: 71). However, since there are multiple categories and they overlap with each other, it is neither necessary nor possible to follow this classification. In addition to this kind of categorization, Fernando classifies idioms by their structure or form. Idioms may be categorized as idioms of *invariance* and those of *restricted variance* according to their degree of fixedness in form.

According to Moon (1998: 19) idioms is divided into three classes: *anomalous collocations, formulae* and *metaphors,* each of which consist of various subcategories. Anomalous collocations are strings classified in lexicogrammatical terms, formulae are specialized pragmatically and metaphors relate to semantics (Moon 1998: 20-23).

2.8.7.5 Idioms Based on Metaphor

KÖVECSES (2002) explained this through the example "*spit fire"* he claims that, conceptual metaphors bring into correspondence two domains of knowledge. In the example above, the domain of fire is used to understand a varied set of abstract concepts. But how do conceptual metaphors provide semantic motivation for the occurrence of particular words in idioms? In the expression *spit fire*, the domain of fire is used to understand the domain of anger. That is, anger is comprehended via the anger is fire conceptual metaphor. In the case of the sentence let's take the example "The *fire* between them finally *went out*," the conceptual metaphor underlying the idiom is love is fire; in "The painting *set fire to* the composer's

imagination," it is imagination is fire; in "The killing *sparked off* riots," it is conflict is fire; in the case of *burning the candle at both ends*, it is energy is fuel for the fire; the case of *snuff out*, it is life is a flame; in the case of *fan the flames*, it is enthusiasm is fire. These idioms are not isolated linguistic expressions, as the examples below will show. It may be observed that some of the examples given below consist of only one word (e.g. *burn*, *ignite*, *kindle*), and given that idioms are multiword expressions by definition, they do not count as idioms at all. He listed these examples to be able to make the point that it is not claimed that *all* metaphorical linguistic expressions based on conceptual metaphors are idioms. The class of metaphorical expressions generated by conceptual metaphors is larger than that of metaphorical idioms. Nevertheless, the number of metaphorical idioms produced by conceptual metaphors is quite large. Although strictly speaking not idioms (since they violate the condition that idioms are multiword expressions), the writer included some one-word metaphorical expressions in the examples:

Anger is fire

After the row, he *was spitting fire*.

Smoke was coming out of his ears.

He is *smoldering* with anger.

She was *fuming*.

Boy, am I *burned up*!

Love is fire

The *fire* between them finally *went out*.

I am *burning* with love.

She *carries a torch for* him.

The *flames are gone* from our relationship.

Imagination is fire

The painting *set fire to* the composer's imagination.

His imagination *caught fire*.

Her imagination is *on fire*.

The story *kindled* the boy's imagination.

Conflict is fire

The killing *sparked off* the riot.

The *flames* of war *spread* quickly.

The country was *consumed* by the *inferno* of war.

They extinguished the *last sparks* of the revolution.

Energy is fuel for the fire

Don't *burn the candle at both ends*.

I am *burned out*.

I need someone *to stoke my fire*.

Enthusiasm is fire

The speaker *fanned the flames* of the crowd's enthusiasm.

The team played so well that the crowd *caught fire*.

He was *burning* with excitement.

Don't be a *wet blanket*.

Her enthusiasm was *ignited* by the new teacher.

2.8.7.6 Linguistic Features of Idioms

Structural, syntactical, morphological and semantical features of idiomatic expressions have been studied by many linguists. Regarding their structure, Fromkin et al. (2011a) argued that idioms to be structurally phrases yet their features of syntactic frozenness do not allow changes in word order. In other words, semantic constituents of idioms are not separable, and if that were to be true, there would be a lot of idiomatic meanings. For example, you can say *she pulled her brother's leg*, but you cannot do any modification of adding new words as in *she pulled her brother's left leg* or *she pulled her brother's leg with a sharp tug* (Cruse: 2004a:71). Syntactically, Palmer (1981) highlighted the frozenness of syntactic structure of idioms, illustrating that idioms containing a verb and a noun, for example, may allow a change in the tense, yet not in the number of nouns. Therefore, you can say *spilled the beans* but not *spilled the bean*. Idioms also do not allow adjectives combine with nouns to be changed into a comparative form. Thus, we find *red herring* but not *redder herring*. In contrast, Yusifova (2013b) explained that the changes to singular and plural forms are possible within most idioms as it can be said *smell a rat, kick the bucket,* and *chew the fat*. Furthermore, he commented that countable nouns can be uncountable in most idioms and vice-versa. For example, *wear the deck wear the decks*, and *go into detail-go into details*. He concluded that such changes are a clear proof of complexity and flexibility of language. On the other hand, Cowie et al. (1993a) claimed that idiomatic expressions are categorized into two major syntactic forms. The first category is phrasal idioms that correlate with various grammatical parts of speech as the following: they can be verbs as 'break down', nouns as 'a crashing bore', adjectives as 'free with one's money', adverbs as 'as often as not', and prepositional as 'in the nick of time'. The second category is clause idioms composed of a verb and a complement as 'go berserk', a verb and a direct

object as 'ease somebody's conscience/mind', a verb and a direct object and a complement as 'paint the town red', a verb and indirect object and a direct object as 'do somebody credit', and a verb and direct object and an adjunct as 'take something amiss'. Idioms also have some semantic features. According to Cruse (2004b), semantic constituents do not combine with other genuine semantic constituents. Hence, it is incorrect if it is said she *pulled and twisted her brother's leg.* Idioms are seemingly very systematic, yet they can break the rules of combining semantic properties as in *he ate his hat* where the object of the verb *eat* is an inedible thing. Therefore, this restriction is violated or disregarded (Fromkin et al, 2011b: 151).

Morphologically, Haspelmath (cited in Ali, 2001: 43) mentioned two kinds of idioms as it follows: weak ones in which a language user or a speaker can make some predictions of meaning of idioms based on lexemes, and strong ones in which meanings of idioms cannot be predicted or guessed from the meaning of components. In translating idioms, which do not have the equivalent or partly equivalent idiomatic expressions in the target language, the arising problem is not only about conveying their meaning using the lexemes of the target language, but it is also about the loss of the metaphoric or figurative meaning of the translation idiom in the target language (Suchanova, 2013: 157). If anyone has to translate idioms, he/she should be careful not to translate them word by word, taking into consideration the pragmatic side of them, i.e., message conveyed and communicated by people (Jabboori & Jazza, 2013: 12).

Many idioms have unusual grammar. In some cases a word that is usually a verb, adjective, conjunction or preposition appears as a noun:

a) Adjectives as nouns, for example, *all of a sudden, through thick and thin,*

b) Verbs as nouns, for example, *the do's and don'ts, on the make*

c) Conjunctions and prepositions as nouns, for example, *ifs and buts, on the up and up, the ins and outs,*

d) Uncountable nouns seeming to be countable, for example, *the living daylights and in all weathers.* (Stathi, 2006)

2.8.7.7 How Idioms are Taught?

According to Irujo (1986b: 240) "learning of idioms is essential for vocabulary learning of a second language". As English became lingua franca in most of the countries, English Language course is considered as obligatory in all levels of education, and idioms as an integral part of English Language are constantly present in communication on the streets, in the media, academic surroundings, etc., both, in formal and informal

context. Consequently, non-native speakers of English are encountered with a vast of linguistic expressions that do not have the same meaning as their parts, and it is expected that they are able to recognize, understand and respond accordingly, as it is very important that learner of language deals with communicative situations successfully (Sornig, 1988, pg. 286). An attention to teaching idioms is very important, as Irujo (1986a. 299) states that it prepares learners with skills to use the context in guessing the meaning and to handle figurative language in general. She also sets out five criteria for deciding which idioms to teach, namely, their frequency of use, their degree of transparency, their appropriateness, their simplicity of form and vocabulary and lastly, their similarity to first-language idioms. Moreover in order for learners to cope with this complex phenomenon, they need to have control of idioms' meaning, structure and textual function. As regards meaning control, an awareness of the cultural and historical origin of idioms as well as a contrastive analysis with the learners' mother-tongue idioms can reinforce an analytical meaning-deciphering approach. With regard to structure control, it should be made clear to learners that not all idioms are inflexible and that there are various degrees and types (e.g. lexical, grammatical) of idiomatic variability. Lastly, to gain functional control of idioms, learners should be able to "distinguish between formal and informal, polite and derogatory, general English or special English idiomatic expressions so that they can fully understand the text in which they appear" (Pinnavaia 2002:55-57). Regarding the metaphoric nature of idioms, Lennon (1998:7) states that learners can unearth the underlying metaphors found in idiomatic language and thus make sense of these semantically opaque expressions. Sornig (1988) claims that idioms are so distinctive, thus no simple rule concerning them can be given. According to him, teaching idioms should begin from the viewpoint of native speakers of the target language and how they themselves learn to understand idioms. Sornig argues that idioms are impressive if being taught in an effectively communicative and situational way. This way will help students remember them. In particular, sornig notes that teaching idioms should be carried out through categorizing them in relation to their communicative functions. This is mainly because idioms are used to make the communication very interesting in a very vivid way.

According to Richards (1996) there are two-way route to idiom instruction, namely, the *proactive* and the *retroactive* way. As the word suggests, the proactive way assumes a conscious effort from the part of the teachers to

teach students and help them use as many idioms as possible. On the other hand, the retroactive approach implies a more unconscious approach to idiom instruction and rests itself in helping students figure out the meaning of an idiom in case they encounter one. He is careful to note that the first approach may result into 'idiomatosis', which means excessive and often inappropriate use of idioms, while Liu (2008:136-137) highlighted the overuse or inappropriate use of specific linguistic constructions is part of the language learning process. Hence, it is not a good enough reason to exclude active idiom teaching altogether. In his monograph *Idioms: Description, Comprehension, Acquisition and Pedagogy* Liu (2008) *states* for the use of both macro- and micro-strategies for effective idiom teaching. In his idiom pedagogy plan there are three stages, namely, *noticing and identifying* idioms, *understanding* them and *using* them. He suggested some activities for identifying idioms such as looking an idiom in a dictionary, highlighting idiomatic expressions in a text and conducting corpus searches for idioms. Liu (2000) has stated that the three most dominant strategies for explaining idioms are: *definition*, *elaboration* and *paraphrasing* (cited in Liu, 2008:162).Mäntylä (2004: 181c) believes that the idiomatic expressions are such a big part of the English language that they simply cannot be neglected in foreign language teaching no matter how difficult they might be for foreign language learners. Nevertheless, she also believes that although it is important for foreign language learners to use some types of idiomatic expressions, such as collocations and greetings, the explicit teaching of idioms is unnecessary due to their complexity. She says that merely recognizing idioms and understanding their meaning in a context is difficult enough, not to mention the difficulties that producing them might bring.

2.8.7.8 Difficulties of Learning Idioms

Idiomatic phrases and constructions have almost always presented an area of difficulty for second language learners. For instance, L2 users may misinterpret non-literal meanings of words and phrases, as well as misuse them in various contexts—often due to limitations or shortfalls in their L2 vocabulary. In addition, research has demonstrated that most L2 learners employ constructions that are error-prone and are hardly ever encountered in English spoken or written discourse (Hinkel, 2002, 2003, 2005, and 2009). In any language, there are probably different ways to say something or convey a thought, but quite often even when the meanings of phrases can be clear, "the problem is that native speakers do not say it in that way"

(Shin & Nation, 2008, p. 340) In English speech and writing, phrases and expressions are typically culture-specific with implicit references to abstract or metaphorical constructs that may or may not exist in learners' natal cultures or first languages (L1s) (Hinkel, 2014). Kainulainen (2006) as well states that it is necessary to use idiomatic expressions in order to be fluent and natural in speaking a language.

According to Irujo (1986) there are many difficulties may face non-native students in learning idioms. According to them there are different types of difficulties in learning idioms appropriately in a language learning context. Students often face difficulty whether to consider the idiomatic or the literal meaning of idioms in certain contexts. This confusion is caused by the fact that idioms in general vary in their level of formality and most idioms have literal counterparts. They also face difficulty recognizing the unfamiliar idioms (Mäntylä, 2004d). Another problem is the lack of exposure to idioms which ranges from the omission of idioms in speech addressed particularly to nonnative speakers as not to cause confusion, and the entire ignorance of idiomatic expression in the target language materials and syllabi, besides the shortage of exercises designed to teach them. This indicates that students learn idioms out of context and in non-interactive situations (Mäntylä, 2004). Mäntylä (2004:174) also believes that the context influences the interpretation of unfamiliar idioms in that it may limit the interpretation options.

No doubt L2 learners come across some difficulties during the acquisition of the English language. Understanding idioms is one of these difficulties. According to cooper (2012), L2 learners would encounter idioms in all kinds of discourse; news, lectures, movies, books and daily conversations. Furthermore, chuang (2013) stated in her research study that mastering these multiword units or language chunks is not easy for language learners since the meanings of these texts cannot be determined through the analysis of their individual word meanings. Therefore, idioms represent a hindrance in the linguistic development of L2 learners, Because of the difficulty of understanding idioms.

With regard to idiom comprehension, Holsinger and Kaiser (2013), argue that it is less clear how comprehenders arrive at the idiomatic interpretation. They wondered whether literal processing is necessary to reach the idiomatic interpretation. They found that context clues have an essential role to play during reading processes. The results of their research study show that when readers expect a literal interpretation in a situation where

the sentence turns out to be idiomatic, real-time processing is disrupted more than if comprehenders are expecting an idiomatic interpretation and the sentence turns out to be literal. Their study also argue that, idiomatic texts consume more time be comprehended than literal ones.

2.8.7.9 Grammatical and Syntactic Restrictions of Idioms

Baker (1992) states the following grammatical and syntactic restrictions of idioms should be taken into account since they may affect the degree of idiomaticity and removes the figurativeness of idiomatic expressions, which it's the most important feature of idioms.

a) Addition: adding adverb *very* to the adjective *red* in *red herring* affects its figurative meaning (*very red herring)*

b) Deletion: deleting any word from an idiomatic expression would alter its meaning or idiomatic sense. For example, deleting the adjective *sweet* from the expression *have a sweet tooth* would change the meaning.

c) Substitution: we cannot replace any word in idioms even if those words are synonyms. For example, in *the long and short of it* the adjective long cannot be substituted by adjective tall despite the fact that they have nearly the same meaning.

d) Modification: any change in the grammatical structure of an idiom will alter its meaning. For example, the expression stock, barrel and lock is not idiomatic because the order of the items in the expression lock, stock and barrel has been altered.

e) Comparative: adding the comparative suffix 'er' to the adjectives in idiomatic expressions such as *be in hot water* changes the conventional sense of the idiom (be in trouble).

f) Passive: changing the passive form into active will damage the figurative meaning of many idioms. The expression *they spilled the beans* is idiomatic while its passive form *some beans were spilled* has a completely different meaning.

2.9 Part Two - Previous Studies

2.9.0 Introduction

In this section the researcher gives related studies had written in the same field of the present study mentioning similarities and differences in each case.

2.9.1 First Study

The first study conducted by Reyes (2012) entitled "linguistic-based patterns for figurative language processing: the case of Humor Recognition and Irony Detection " in his thesis he address the issue of developing a linguistic- based frame work for figurative language processing. In particular his efforts are focused on creating some models capable of automatically detecting instances of two independent figurative devices in social media texts: humor and irony. His main hypothesis relies on the fact that language reflects patterns of thought; he aims to provide arguments concerning how people mentally conceive humor and irony, and how they verbalize each device in social media platforms. In these contexts he focuses on showing how fine-grained knowledge, which relies on shallow and deep linguistic layers, can be translated into valuable patterns to automatically identify figurative uses of language. Also he stresses out the importance of considering user-generated tags in order to automatically build resources for figurative language processing, such as ad hoc corpora in which human annotation is not necessary. Each model in the thesis is evaluated in terms of its relevance to properly identify instances of humor and irony.

The findings of his research point out that figurative language processing (especially humor and irony) can provide fine-grained knowledge in tasks as diverse as sentiment analysis, opinion mining, information retrieval, or trend discovery.

There are similarities between Rey's study and the present study. Firstly, both of them deal with the importance of figurative language in communication and to what extent it's a very necessary issue. Secondly each one of them just took some samples of figures of speech not all of them, Reye's study dealt with humor and irony, while the present study focuses on metaphors and idiomatic expressions.

On the other hand they differ in dealing with different types of figures of speech (metaphors and idiomatic expressions in the present study and

humor and irony in Rey's study). Another difference is that the present study shedding the light on the role of figurative language in communication among undergraduates and how the misuse of figures of speech can affect communication with native speakers, while Rey's study focused on the use of figurative language – in particular humor and irony- in social media texts and how people mentally conceive them

2.9.2 Second Study

The second study done by Nugraha (2013) her research aimed to describe the kinds of figurative language and the meaning of the slogan advertisement in the column advertisement of the Jakarta post starts from November to December 2013. The theories in her thesis are figurative language. From those theories, the thesis has eight categories of figure of speech; they are hyperbole, alliteration, personification, metonymy, ellipsis, metaphor, simile and paradox. The objectives of her research are: 1) to determine what kind of figure of speech are mostly used by the slogan advertisement 2) to describe the meaning of the figurative language contained in advertisement slogan of the Jakarta post on the edition in November 2013 to December 2013.

In her research the writer uses qualitative method to analyze data, explains some theories that related to figurative language, and collects the data from the Jakarta post newspaper. Based on the theories, the writer selects some slogan advertisements which are contained figures of speech and analyzes them one by one to know the kinds of figure of speech used.

The findings of her research show that: first; there are four kinds of figures of speech on the collected data namely: hyperbole, alliteration metaphor and metonymy. Second the writer concluded that the most used kind of figures of speech on the collected data is hyperbole.

The study above and the present study similar in describing most kinds of figures of speech provided with their use and some examples for each one. Also both of them shed the light on the importance of figurative language in communication.

They are differ in many aspects, firstly; the present study focuses on the role of figurative language in communication in general and how much can affect the quality of communication, while Nugraha's study limited in describing the figures of speech used in the slogan advertisements in the column advertisement of the Jakarta post and their meaning in such advertisement. Secondly; the present study follows the descriptive analytical method namely questionnaire for teachers and test for students to

collect data, while Nugraha follows the qualitative method to analyze data from the Jakarta post newspaper through selecting some slogan advertisements which are contained figures of speech and analyze them.

2.9.3 Third Study

The third study by Raisa (2017) which aims to find out the student's ability to show figurative language and to mention their functions. The research was conducted to the semester 3 students of English Education study program of Tanjungpura University in Academic year 2016/2017.

The research method used is descriptive method. The sample of the study consists of 70 students who are taking poetry subject in class A and class B in semester 3 of English Education study program. The technique of data collecting for her research Raisa applied a measurement test. From the calculation, the mean score of student's ability to show figurative language was 60.29. Therefore the student's ability to show the expressions of figurative language is categorized as "Average to good" from the computation, the student's mean score to mention the function of figurative language is 55.71. Thus this result is categorized as "Poor to Average". The result of her study shows that the students need more hours to learn about figurative language including the definitions, the functions and the identification practice.

Raisa's study and the present study similar in the point that; both of them focuses on the importance and functions of figurative language, also they share the same sample for the studies which is undergraduates.

They differ in many points; to begin with, Raisa's study aims to find out whether figurative language known and familiar to students or not and to shed light on their function. While the present study aims to shed light on the importance of figurative language and how can make communication better even with native speakers. Another difference is in the number of the tools used to collect data; the present study uses questionnaire and test, while Raisa just used test for students. They differ also in the idea of dealing with figurative language; the present study deal with the role of figurative language in communication in general and in real life, while Raisa's study focused on the figurative language in literature and in poetry in particular.

2.9.4 Fourth Study

Abdeen (2018) conducted a study entitled 'Investigating the Hurdles of Journalistic Figurative Language as Exemplified by Idiomatic and Metaphorical Expressions' which examined the difficulties facing MA

students of translation in translating newspaper Metaphorical language mainly political news. The population of her study was students taking their MA program at the Sudan University of Science and Technology. The type of research Methodology she adopted was the descriptive analytical method. To collect the data, a questionnaire was designed and given to 30 English Language Teachers as well as 10 copies were distributed to translators working at SUNA and Friendship hall. The test was administered and distributed to 50 MA students of translation at the college of Languages, at the Sudan University of Science and Technology. The data were analyzed by using the statistical Package of social science (spss).

The findings of her study revealed that; the students do actually face quiet number of difficulties due to the fact that newspaper language has a collocational nature the thing that our students were poorly exposed to during their undergraduate studies. The findings also showed that; the nature of phrasal verbs, cause difficulty for EFL University students particularly those phrasal verbs (language of newspaper) that require good knowledge of cultural background. The study recommended that; the teachers of English Language of Sudanese Universities should take care of this important linguistic area of phrasal verbs by providing more practice. The study also recommended that; to increase student's practical competence in rendering or translating the cultural gap must be reduced by means of including texts known to have that effect as literature which is fully packed with figurative language required for such kind of translation.

Abdeen's study similar to the present study in some aspects; one of them is that both of them deal with figures of speech namely idiomatic and metaphorical expressions, the other point they share is the methodology which is the descriptive analytical method (questionnaire for teachers and test for students) in both studies.

The two studies differ in so many points, the first one; Abdeen's study dealt with the difficulties of translating figurative language. While the present study deals with the role of figurative language in developing communicative competence. Secondly; the population of Abdeen's study is MA students, while the present study's population is undergraduates.

Thirdly; beside figures of speech Abdeen's study shed the light on phrasal verbs and the difficulties students may face toward their use especially those in newspaper, because of their cultural background, while the present study just focuses on figures of speech and how they can effect on the quality of communication.

2.9.5 Fifth Study

Arifah (2016) in her study 'Figurative Language Analysis in Five John Legend's song' introduces that figurative language is part of semantic. As we know that with semantic we can know the true meaning in a song. According to her, figurative language is language which employs various figures of speech. She analyzes the figurative language are used in John Legend's song lyrics. She expected that the result of her study will be useful for the students of linguistics since the study was done based on the theory of figurative language. The benefit of figurative language and category used in her thesis ; is that the readers will comprehend that such theory can be used to give clearer and better understanding about the meanings of figurative language. Kinds of figurative language was found in john Legend song selected songs lyric are; simile, metaphor, hyperbole, personification, oxymoron, paradox, symbolic, repetition, allusion and anumerasio. Figurative language in the song could make the readers understand that lyrics of the song can describe messages that must be known by learning them deeply in terms of categories. The study attempted to provide description about figurative language in human daily life. The type of data that was used in her study was a qualitative data. The data analyzed in the study were some written texts. The texts were songs taken from John Legend song lyric. She mentioned that, by these classifications we can recognize well which one includes each figurative speech. The result of her study will be able to give contribution to the readers who are interested in learning and understanding or interpreting those lyrics.

Arifah's study and the present study similar in discussing the same issue which is figurative language and its meaning and both of them attempt to provide a description about figurative language in daily life.

They differ in some points; one of them is that the present study deals with figurative language in general, while Arifah's study has discussed those figures of speech which uses in literature, in particular, in five John Legend's song. They also differ in the methodology they follow. The present study follow the descriptive analytical method namely; questionnaire and test. While Arifah's study used the qualitative data through analyzing some written texts.

2.9.6 Sixth Study

Sikos et al. (2008) Suggested in their comprehensive study' Figurative Language: "Meaning" is often more than just a sum of the parts' that,

although the field of natural language processing has made considerable strides in the automated processing of standard language, they assume that, figurative (i.e., non-literal) language still causes great difficulty. Normally, when we understand human language we combine the meaning of individual words into larger units in a compositional manner. However, understanding figurative language often involves an interpretive adjustment to individual words. A complete model of language processing needs to account for the way normal word meanings can be profoundly altered by their combination. Although figurative language is common in naturally occurring language, they claim that, they know of no previous quantitative analyses of this phenomenon. Furthermore, while certain types and tokens are used more frequently than others, it is unknown whether frequency of use interacts with processing load. Their paper outlines their current research program exploring the functional and neural bases of figurative language through a combination of theoretical work, corpus analysis, and experimental techniques. They mentioned that, previous research seems to indicate that the cerebral hemispheres may process language in parallel, each with somewhat different priorities, ultimately competing to reach an appropriate interpretation. If this is indeed the case, an optimal architecture for automated language processing may need to include similar parallel-processing circuits.

Sikos et al. study and the present one both share the same issue which is the difficulties may face foreign learners in dealing with figurative language. However they differ in many aspects one of them is that the present study deal with figurative language as a building blocks or as a single unit rather than interpreting each word on its own, while sikos et al. assume that understanding figurative language often involves an interpretive adjustment to individual words.

2.9.7 Seventh Study

Ferdiansyah (2014) in her study "A STYLISTIC ANALYSIS OF FIGURES OF SPEECH IN*LES MISERABLES* MOVIE" stated that, the way people speak is influenced by their own style. It is easier for the addressee to understand the addresser's idea if he or she is familiar with the addresser's language style. In stylistic approach, style can be seen in figurative language through figures of speech. Thus, the aims of the research are to describe the types of figures of speech and to find out the functions of figures of speech in *Les Miserables*. The research employed descriptive qualitative approach. The data were in the form of utterances

(words, phrases, clauses, and utterances) spoken by the characters in *Les Miserables* movie. The main instrument of the study was the researcher herself. The researcher employed some steps during the data collection: watching the movie, finding its script, making data sheet, and categorizing the data. In conducting the data analysis, the researcher passed some steps, identifying, classifying, and making interpretation. To gain the data trustworthiness, the researcher asked triangulators to check the data. Using Perrine's classification of types of figures of speech, this results show that there are eleven types of figures of speech in *Les Miserables* Movie. They are simile (12 times), metaphor (20 times), personification (22 times), apostrophe (10 times), metonymy (once), synecdoche (7 times), symbol (22 times), and paradox (8 times), hyperbole (13 times), irony (16 times), and litotes (10 times). The most often used types of figures of speech are personification and symbol. The character used personification often to depict a story as if this world can execute anything. Meanwhile, the use of symbol was used to represent idea in society. The functions of figures of speech found in the movie are to give imaginative pleasure (105 times), to give additional imagery (86 times), to add emotional intensity (77 times), and to concrete the meaning in a brief compass (60 times). Giving imaginative pleasure is the main function of the use of figures of speech in *Les Miserables* movie because most figurative language can create pleasure in readers' mind.

Ferdiansyah's study and the present thesis both similar in providing descriptions of types of figures of speech. Also both of them come across the functions of figurative language in our use of language.

Both studies differ in many aspects one of them; the present study takes the figurative language from a general communicative point of view, while Ferdiansyah's study took it from a literary point of view by analyzing styles being used in movies. They differ also in the instruments used to collect data, the present study's sample are undergraduates as an instrument, while Ferdiansyah watched movie, found its script, made data sheet, and categorized the data herself.

2.9.8 Conclusion

To sum up, the review above considered as a clear indication that figurative language plays an important role in communication and in language teaching and learning for EFL learners. It is very important for them to improve their fluency and enhance their communicative competence through the appropriate use of figurative language. As shown above For a

long time figurative language connected with literature that why many studies conducted in the field of the use of figurative language in literature, while many other researches written on its importance and its role in enhancing communicative competence.

2.9.9 Summary of the chapter

This chapter reviewed related literature on the issue of figurative language in general- mentioning its differences with literal language –focusing on two figures of speech; metaphor and idiomatic expressions, which have been discussed in detail in the first part of the chapter, while the other part has provided the previous studies mentioning the similarities and differences between them and the present study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER THREE

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3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study including: methods of the study, population of the study, sample of the study, description of the sample and the instruments, reliability, validity and data analysis procedure.

3.1 Methods and Tools of the Study

The researcher has used the descriptive analytical, quantitative method as well as the questionnaire and the test as tools to investigate the following hypotheses:

1. Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.

2. Lack of good grasp of figurative language affects communication with native speakers.

3. Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communication.

The researcher uses the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) namely; the researcher focuses on percentages and frequencies.

3.2 Tools of the Study

The researcher was used two tools to collect the information of this study. One of them is a questionnaire which was given to 70 Sudanese English university teachers whom were selected randomly. The other tool was a test which was given to university students, the academic year 2018-2019. The researcher chooses 50 university students as a sample.

3.2.1 Teachers' Questionnaire

The first tool is a questionnaire which is distributed to the teachers from both sexes. This questionnaire has included an introduction which introduces the topic of the research and identifies the researcher. It uses Likert 5-point scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree). The statements are about the figurative Language.

The questionnaire was designed as a tool for collecting information about the Importance of figurative Language in communication. The questionnaire included (15) statements given to Sudanese English teachers

from different universities. It was judged by experienced professors and doctors from Sudan University of Science and Technology and other universities. The responses for the questionnaire were given to an expert in statistics and the results are as in the tables of analysis.

3.2.2 Diagnostic test

The other material of data collection in this research is a diagnostic test designed by the researcher, to test subject's ability to express their ideas concerning figurative language, the university students were provided with a gap filling test and were allowed one hour to submit the test. The test items are contained incomplete figurative expressions they have to complete them from the given choices, after that the papers were collected, numbered and marked by the researcher.

3.3 Population and Sample of the Study

The subject of this study were university students whom they study English. These university students were selected because they already had background about figurative Language as well as they are coming across them during their study of English. Their age ranges between (19 - 22). They have the same educational background. Arabic language is the mother tongue for most of them. These university students included both (male and female).The population of this study is drawn exclusively from university students at Sudanese universities, the academic year 2018-2019. The researcher chooses two samples to represent this study as such:

Firstly: Sudanese university teachers of English from various universities who responded to a questionnaire.
Secondly: undergraduates at Sudan University of Science and Technology, the academic year 2018-2019 (from both sexes).

3.4   Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Before putting the questionnaire in the final draft, it was distributed to be judged by EFL experts. They are; Dr. Tajalsir Bashoum, Dr. Montasir Hassan, Dr. Keerya, Dr. Alsadig Osman, Dr. Abbas Mukhtar, which all of them are assistant teachers. In the light of their comments, the questionnaire was put in its final draft. Thus the study used the statistical package for social science to analyze the data collected.

Reliability was calculated by using Cranach's alpha equation, on the other hand the validity in this study calculated by using the following equation:

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

Cranach alpha coefficient = 0.89 areliability coefficient is high and indicate the stability of the scale and shows that there is ahigh sincerity of the scaleand that what's needed.

3.5 Validity and reliability of the Test

The test was administrated to EFL experts who related their relevance. In the light of their comments, the test was put in its final draft. The statistical package for social science has been used to analyze the data collected. Thus, the results are obtained as follows:

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

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

	Reliability	*validity*	*N*
ALPH − CRONBACH	0.89	0.92	6

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

From the above table it's shown that the validity of the test is very high (0.92). This indicates that if we repeat the test we are sure with 93% that it's going to give us the same results.

3.6 Summary of the Chapter:

This chapter reviewed mainly the most relevant methodology which is used in this study. Research tools were defined and brief account is made about the population and the sample of the study. The next chapter will provide a detailed picture about the data classification, description, analysis, discussion and results.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected on the basis of research questions and hypotheses. In discussing these results, statistical figures in terms of frequencies and percentages were reported for each variable of the study.

Questionnaire was given to 70 respondents who represent the teacher's community in some Sudanese universities to measure their attitudes and opinions about the role of figurative expressions in improving undergraduates' written communicative competence. The results of data were analyzed, tabulated, presented and discussed. The test was given to 50 EFL university students to check whether they face problems concerning the issue under question, the data collected, analyzed and discussed statistically.

Finally, the hypotheses were tested according to these results. The final results were set for further comments and recommendations.

4.1 The Responses to the Questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire of the 70 teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each item in the questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables will support the discussion.

4.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire

The researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (70), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists of transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

4.3 Statistical Reliability

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

Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.

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

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

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

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

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed the questionnaires to 70 respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha- Cranach coefficient; the results have been showed in the following table

Table (4.1) Reliability Statistics

Cranach Alpha	N of Items
0.89	15

4.4 The Analysis of the Questionnaire

Statement no (1): The use of figurative expressions makes utterances stronger than literal ones.

Table (4.2) using figurative expressions

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	34	50.0
Agree	20	28.6
Uncertain	5	7.1
Disagree	7	10
Strongly disagree	3	4.3
Total	70	100

Figure (4.1) using figurative expressions

From the above table (2) and figure (1) It is clear that there are (35) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with "The use of figurative expressions makes utterances stronger than literal ones." There are (20) persons with percentage (28.6%) agreed with that and (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) were not sure and (7) persons with percentage (10.0%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 3.4% are strongly disagreeing. This indicates that people aware of how much the use of figurative expressions is important and to what extent its ignorance can affect on their communication.

Statement no (2): Figurative language is not included in the syllabus being taught to EFL students.

Table (4.3) Figurative language in the syllabus

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	27	38.6
agree	32	45.7
Uncertain	7	10
disagree	3	4.3
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	70	100
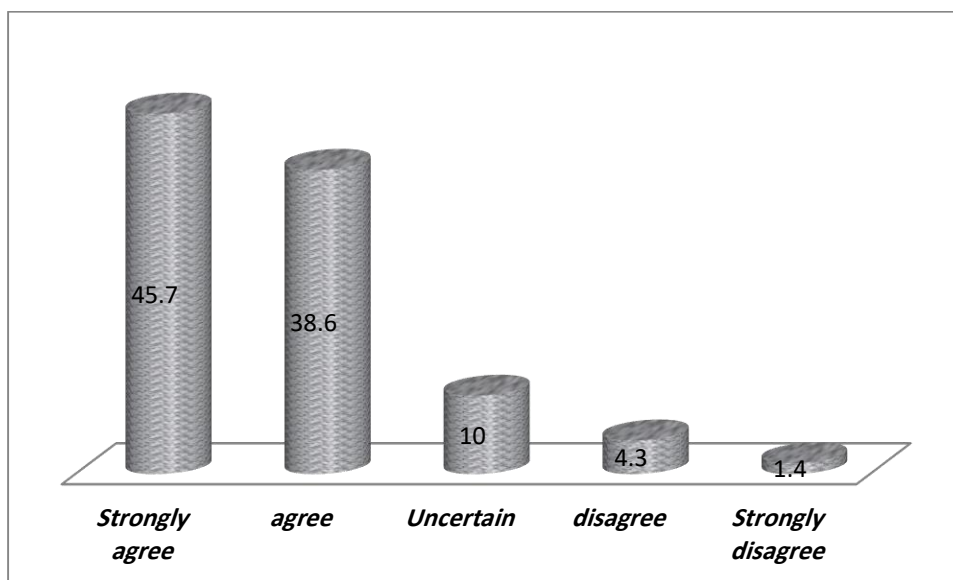
Figure (4.2) Figurative language in the syllabus

It is clear from the above table (3) and figure (2) that there are (32) persons in the study's sample with percentage (45.7%) strongly agreed with "Figurative language is included in the syllabuses being taught to EFL students." There are (27) persons with percentage (38.6%) agreed with that, and (7) persons with percentage (10.0%) were not sure, and (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (1) persons with 1.4% are strongly disagree which show that the main reason of ignorance of figurative language in communication is its ignorance in syllabus.

Statement no (3): EFL learners are not enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their speech.

Table (4.4) Enthusiasm in using figurative expressions

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	35	50
agree	30	42.9
Uncertain	0	0
disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	3	4.2
Total	70	100
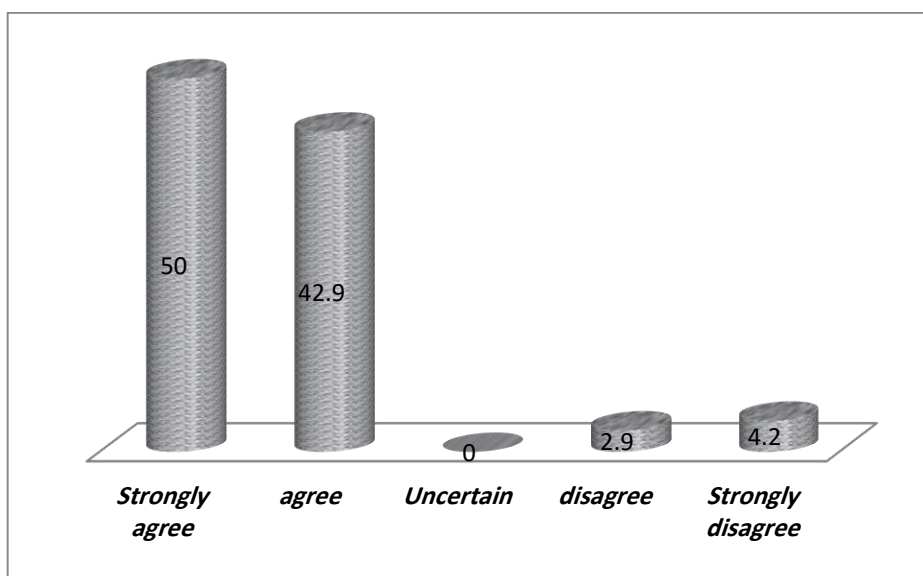
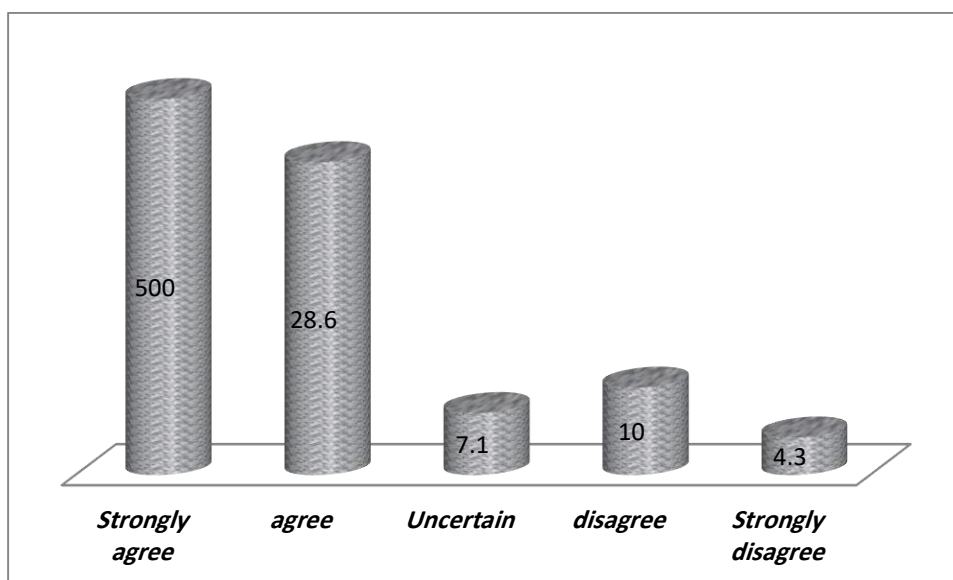**Figure (4.3) enthusiasm in using figurative expressions**

It is clear from the above table (4) and figure (3) that there are (35) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with "EFL students are very enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their speech. ". There are (30) persons with percentage (42.9%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 4.2% are strongly disagreed, this strong support for the statement indicate that students do not interest in using figurative language for many reasons which have been discussed in the research.

Statement no (4): Figures of speech are unfamiliar to most of the students.

Table (4.5) Familiarity of the figurative expressions

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	28	40
agree	27	38.6
Uncertain	5	7.1
disagree	3	2.3
Strongly disagree	7	10
Total	70	100
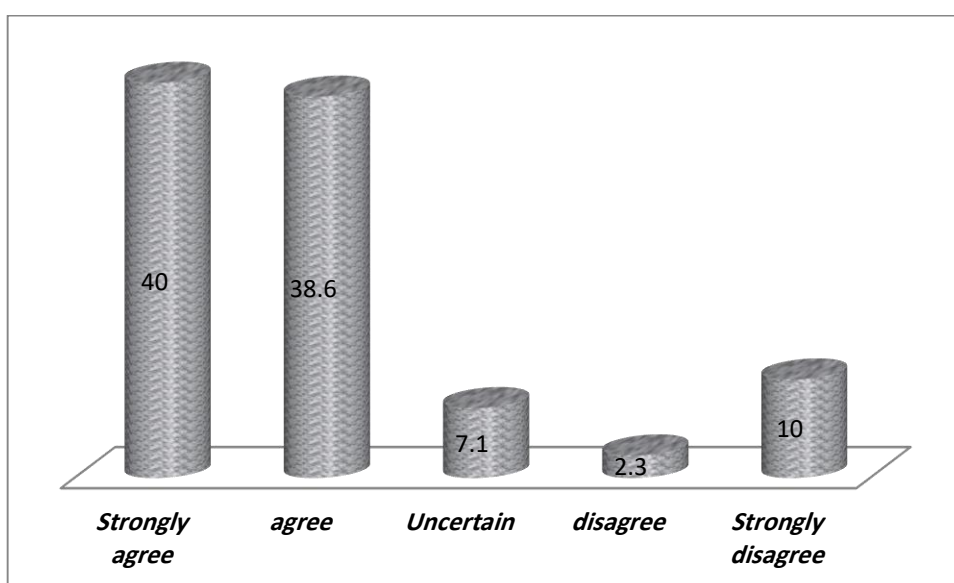
Figure (4.4) Familiarity of the figurative expressions

It is clear from the above table (5) and figure (4) that there are (28) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) strongly agreed with " Figures of speech are unfamiliar to most of the students..". There are (27) persons with percentage (38.6%) agreed with that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.2%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (2.3%) disagreed. and (7) persons with 10.0% are strongly disagreed, which claim that students even they do not know what are figures of speech so they do not know how to use them.

Statement no (5): There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students.

Table (4.6) understanding figurative expressions

| Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	4.3
Strongly disagree	2	2.9
Total	70	100

Figure (4.5) understanding figurative expressions

It is clear from the above table (6) and figure (5) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with "There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students." There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (2) persons with 2.9% are strongly disagreed, which clearly showed that communication between teachers and their students do not go smoothly due to the misunderstanding and misuse of figurative expressions.

Statement no (6): EFL students are unable to communicate using figures of speech, because they are not relevant to their culture.

Table (4.7) relevancy to the culture

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	20	28.6
agree	40	57.2
Uncertain	0	0
disagree	5	7.1
Strongly disagree	5	7.1
Total	**70**	**100**
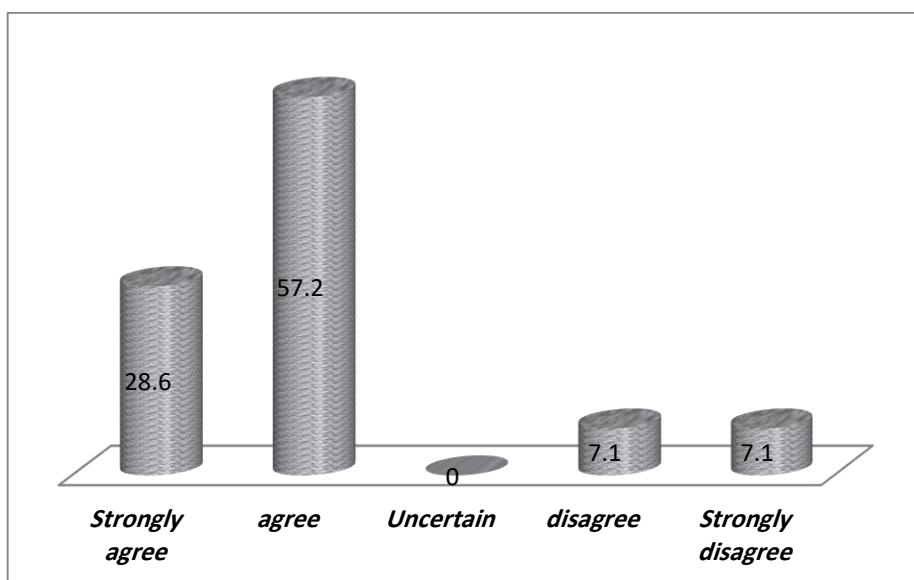
Figure (4.6) relevancy to the culture

It is clear from the above table No (7) and figure No (6) that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with "EFL students are unable to communicate using figures of speech, because they are not relevant to their culture. . . ". There are (40) persons with percentage (57.2%) agreed with that, (0) persons with percentage (0.00%) were not sure, (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) disagreed. and (5) persons with 7.1% are strongly disagree which emphasize that the main reason of the misuse of figurative expressions is their connection with the culture, so students unable to solve this problem unless if they increase their awareness in culture of the native speakers.

Statement no (7): Native speakers are accustomed to use figurative language in their communication even without realizing that they are doing so.

Table (4.8) native speaker's use of figurative expressions

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	18	25.7
agree	40	57.2
Uncertain	5	7.1
disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	5	7.1
Total	70	100
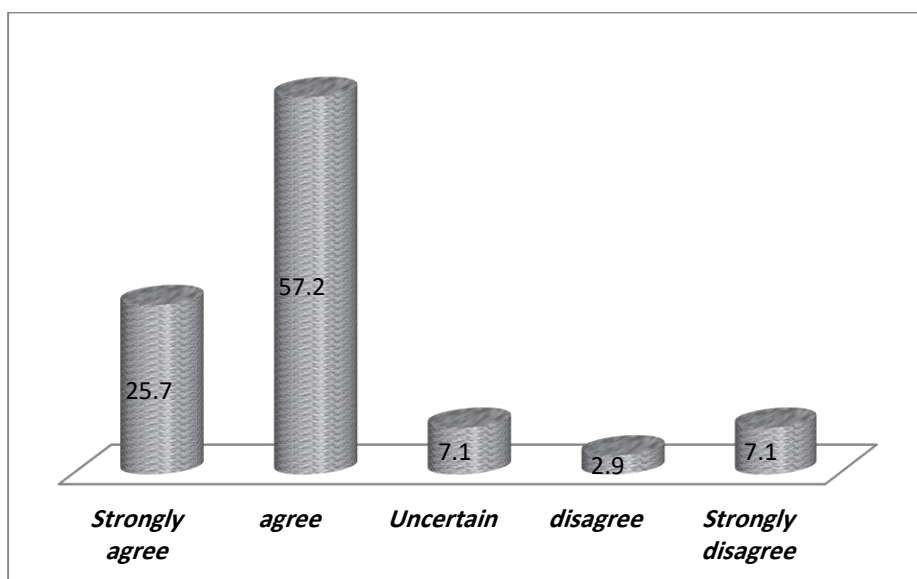
Figure (4.7) native speaker's use of figurative expressions
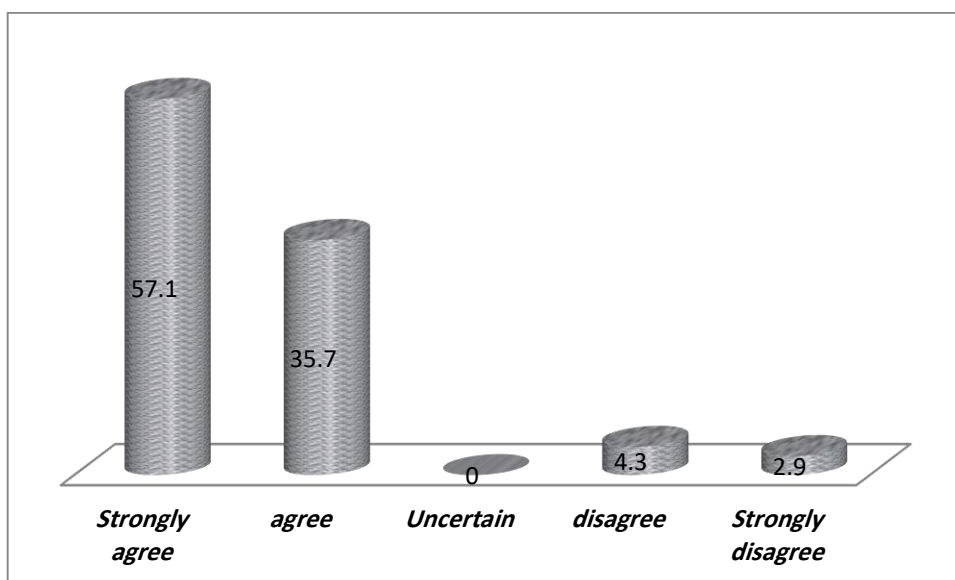
It is clear from the above table No.(8) and figure No (7) that there are (18) persons in the study's sample with percentage (25.7%) strongly agreed with " Native speakers are accustomed to use figurative language in their communication even without realizing that they are doing so. . ". There are (40) persons with percentage (57.2%) agreed with that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) were not sure, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (5) persons with 7.1% are strongly disagreed, which means communication with native speakers is not an easy task for EFL students and any other non native speaker.

Statement no (8): EFL students are not qualified enough to communicate with native speakers, because of their misunderstanding of figurative language.

Table (4.9) communication with native speakers

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	0	0
disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	3	4.3
Total	**70**	**100**
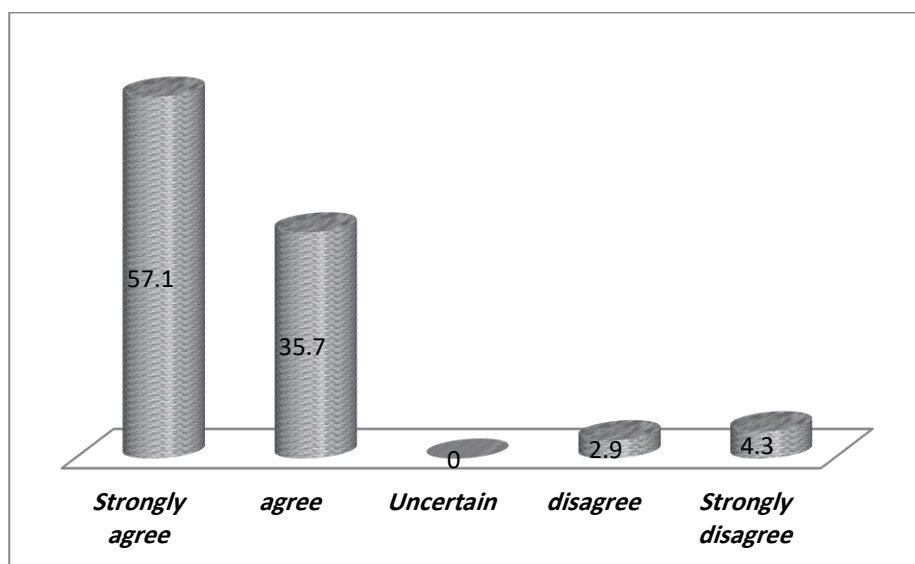
Figure (4.8) communication with native speakers

It is clear from the above table (9) and figure (8) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with " EFL students are not qualified enough to communicate with native speakers, because of their misunderstanding of figurative language." There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, (0) persons with percentage (0.00%) were not sure, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 3.4% are strongly disagree which clarify that EFL students face real problems in communicating with native speakers because they use figurative expressions all the time.

Statement no (9): Awareness of figurative language assists learners to have better knowledge about common beliefs, behaviors, values and culture of native speakers.

Table (4.10) Awareness of figurative language

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	2	2.9
disagree	3	4.3
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100
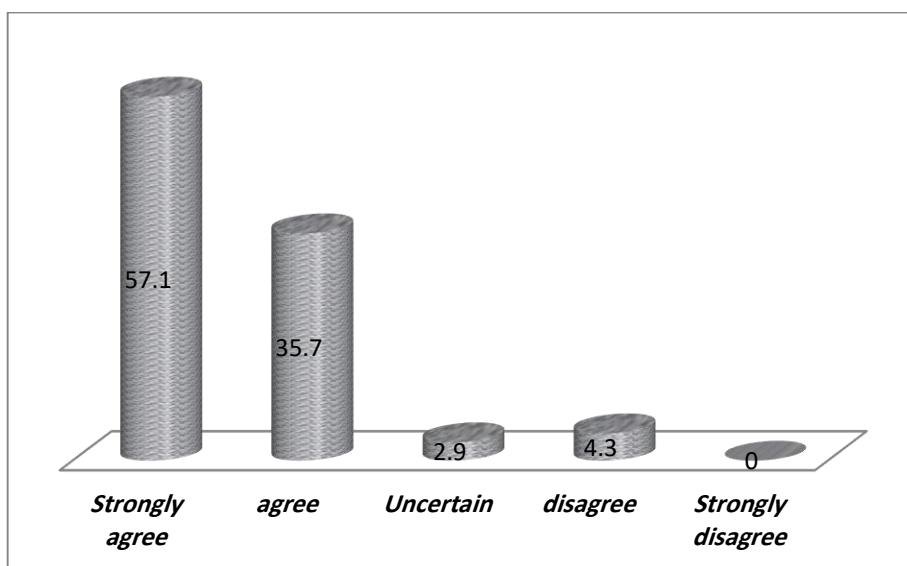
Figure (4.9) Awareness of figurative language

It is clear from the above table (10) and figure (9) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with (Awareness of figurative language assists students to have better knowledge about common beliefs, behaviors, values and culture of native speakers. ". There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with the statement, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagreed this show that figurative language has benefits not just in communicating with native speakers but also make EFL students have good knowledge in native speakers' culture.

Statement no (10): Cultural norms can be enhanced by learning figurative language.

Table (4.11) cultural norms

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	50	71.4
agree	15	21.5
Uncertain	1	1.4
disagree	4	5.7
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100

Figure (4.10) cultural norms

It is clear from the above table (11) and figure (10) that there are (50) persons in the study's sample with percentage (71.4%) strongly agreed with the statement "Cultural norms can be enhanced by learning figurative language." There are (15) persons with percentage (21.5%) agreed with the statement, (1) persons with percentage (1.4%) were not sure, (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagreed which emphasize that figurative language is one of the ways of knowing culture of others.

Statement no (11): When figurative language in EFL has been studied, it has been approached from its application to intermediate and advanced students

Table (4.12) EFL student's levels

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	30	42.9
agree	29	41.4
Uncertain	3	4.3
disagree	4	5.7
Strongly disagree	4	5.7
Total	**70**	**100**
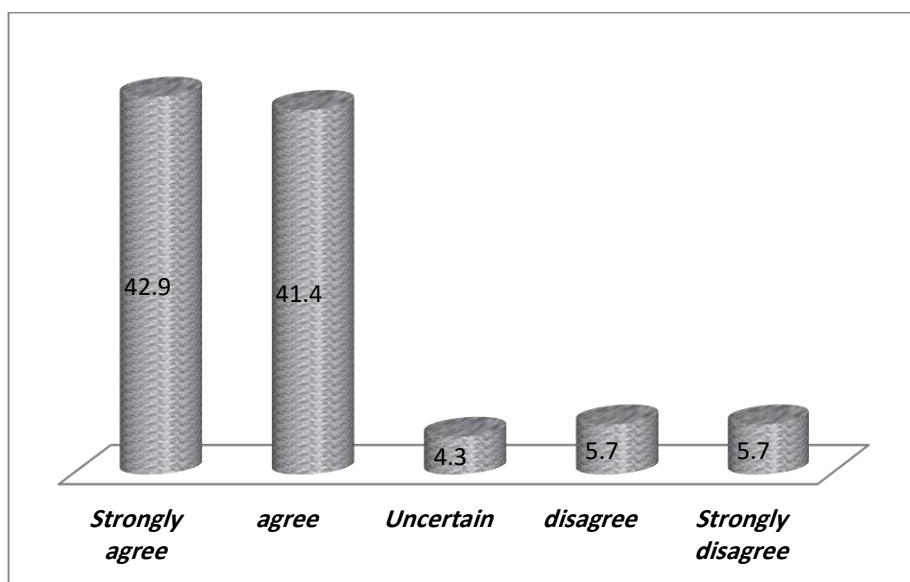
Figure (4.11) EFL student's levels

It is clear from the above table (12) and figure (11) that there are (30) persons in the study's sample with percentage (42.9%) strongly agreed with "When figurative language in EFL has been studied, it has been approached from its application to intermediate and advanced students." There are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed with that, (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) were not sure, (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) disagreed. and (4) persons with 5.7% are strongly disagreed which indicate that students do not study figurative language when they start learning language.

Statement no (12): Fully competent students use figurative language more than other students.

Table (4.13) students' competency

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	2	2.9
disagree	3	4.3
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	70	100

Figure (4.12) students' competency
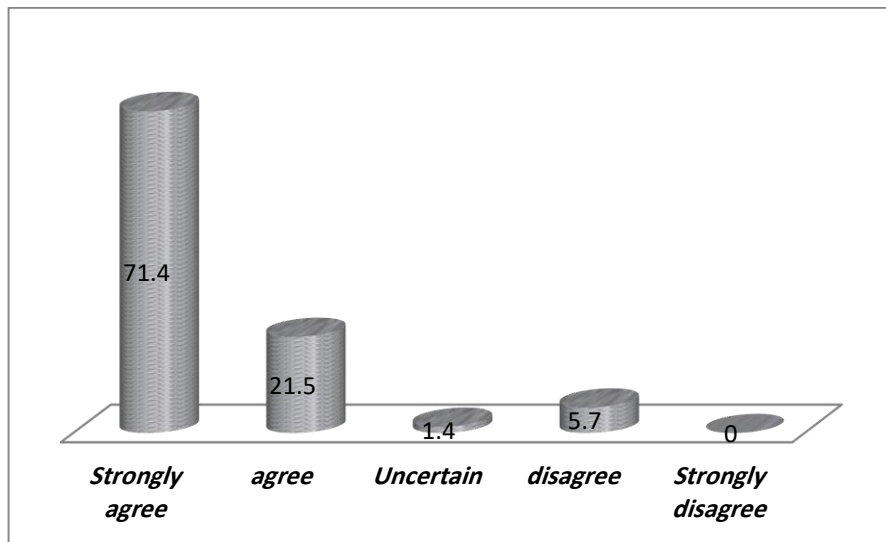
It is clear from the above table (13) and figure (12) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) were strongly agreed with the statement, there are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (4.3%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagree what make figurative language necessity in teaching and in all syllabus to reach competency in the language for all students or at least most of them.

Statement no (13): The use of figurative language can be considered as an indication of mastery of language.

Table (4.14) mastery of language

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	20	28.6
agree	29	41.4
Uncertain	10	14.3
disagree	10	14.3
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	70	100
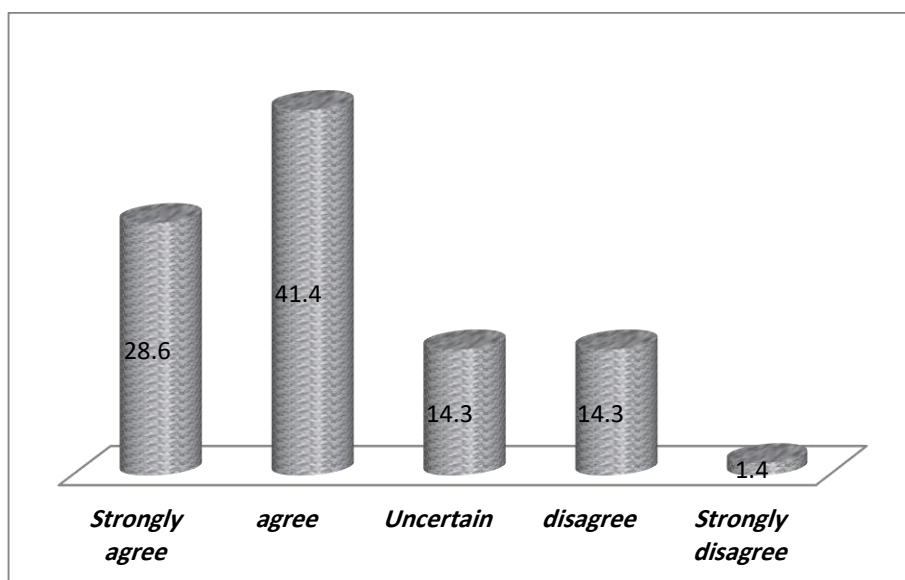
Figure (4.13) mastery of language

From the above table (14) and figure (13) It is clear that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with "The use of figurative language can be considered as an indication of mastery of language." There are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed with that, (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) were not sure, (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) disagreed. and (1) persons with 1.4% are strongly disagree this indicates that only qualified enough students use figurative language regularly.

Statement no (14): EFL learners know how to use the right figure of speech in the right situation.

Table (4.15) appropriateness in using figures of speech

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	21	30.0
agree	39	55.7
Uncertain	4	5.7
disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	4	5.7
Total	70	100
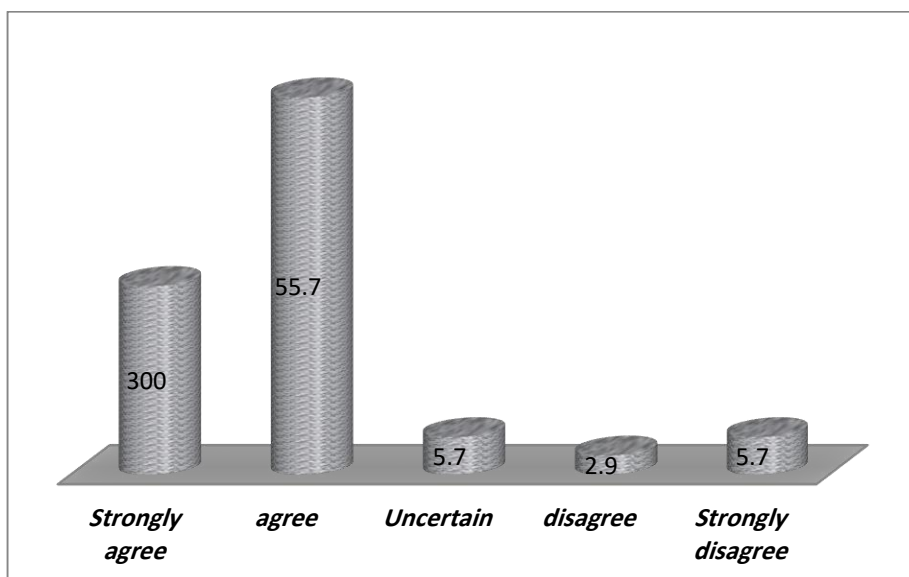
Figure (4.14) appropriateness in using figures of speech

From the above table (15) and figure (14) It is clear that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (30.0%) strongly agreed with "EFL students do not know how to use the right figure of speech in the right situation." There are (40) persons with percentage (55.7%) agreed with that, (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) were not sure, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (7) persons with 5.7% are strongly disagreed which clearly indicate that even if EFL students aware of figures of speech they do not know how to use them appropriately.

Statement no (15): EFL students do not have an ability to distinguish the figurative expressions whenever they are exposed to them.

Table (4.16) distinguishing figurative expressions

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	0	0
disagree	3	4.3
Strongly disagree	2	2.9
Total	70	100
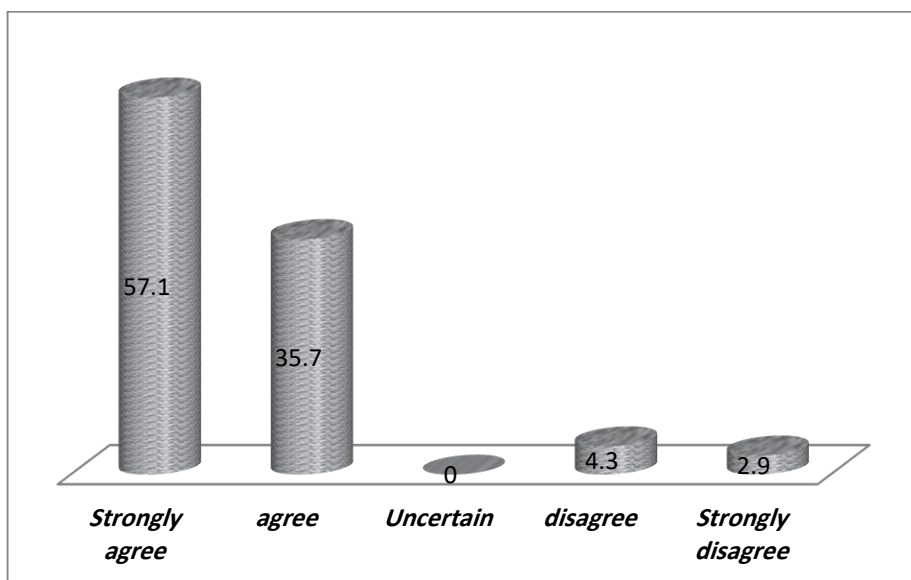
Figure (4.15) distinguishing figurative expressions
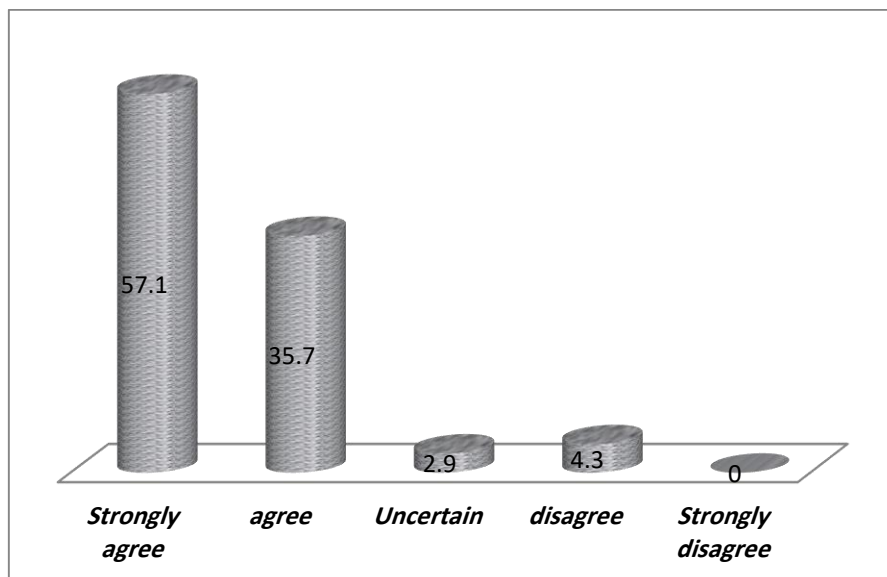
It is clear from the above table (16) and figure (15) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with the statement "EFL students do not have an ability to distinguish the figurative expressions whenever they are exposed to them." There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (2) persons with 2.9% are strongly disagreed which clearly indicate that EFL students do not qualified enough to communicate effectively because they do not just unable to use figurative expressions but also they do not have an ability even to distinguish them.

Table (4.17) Chi-Square Test Results for Respondents' Answers of the Questions of the Hypothesis:

No.	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1.	The use of figurative expressions makes utterances stronger than literal ones.	4.6	0.3	20	0.000
2	Figurative language is not included in the syllabus being taught to EFL students.	3.4	0.7	27	0.000
3	EFL students are not enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their speech.	4.5	0.2	23	0.000
4.	Figures of speech are unfamiliar to most of the students.	3.9	5.6	26	0.000
5	There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students.	3.5	1.5	32	0.000
6	EFL students are unable to communicate using figures of speech, because they are not relevant to their culture.	3.2	2	25	0.000
7	Native speakers are accustomed to use figurative language in their communication even without realizing that they are doing so.	2.5	0.6	28	0.00
8	EFL students are not qualified enough to communicate with native speakers, because of their misunderstanding of figurative language.	4.6	0.8	27.7	0.00
9	Awareness of figurative language assists learners to have better knowledge about common beliefs, behaviors, values and culture of native speakers.	2.4	0.9	25.7	0.001
10	Cultural norms can be enhanced by	4.5	1.4	17	0.00

	learning figurative language.				
11	When figurative language in EFL has been studied, it has been approached from its application to intermediate and advanced learners.	**2.7**	**2.6**	**15**	**0.00**
12	Fully competent students use figurative language more than other students.	**2.8**	**0.8**	**20**	**0.001**
13	The use of figurative language can be considered as an indication of mastery of language.	**2.5**	**0.7**	**21**	**0.008**
14	EFL students do not know how to use the right figure of speech in the right situation.	**3.5**	**2.7**	**21**	**0.00**
15	EFL students do not have an ability to distinguish the figurative expressions whenever they are exposed to them.	**2.4**	**4.2**	**33**	**0.00**

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (1) was (20) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "The use of figurative expressions makes utterances stronger than literal ones.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (2) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Figurative language is not included in the syllabuses being taught to EFL learners..

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (3) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "EFL students are not enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their speech..

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (4) was (26) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Figures of speech are unfamiliar to most of the students. .

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (5) was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement " There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (6) was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (6) was (28) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "EFL students are unable to communicate using figures of speech, because they are not relevant to their culture.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (7) was (27.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Native speakers are accustomed to use figurative language in their communication even without realizing that they are doing so..

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (8) was (25.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "EFL students are not qualified enough to communicate with native speakers, because of their misunderstanding of figurative language. .

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (9) was (35) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Awareness of figurative language improves teaching and assists learners to have better knowledge about common beliefs, behaviors, values and culture of native speakers. .

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (10) was (17) which is greater

than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (8.57). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Cultural norms can be enhanced by learning figurative language

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (11) was (15) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (8.57). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "When figurative language in EFL has been studied, it has been approached from its application to intermediate and advanced learners.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (12) was (20) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (8.57). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Fully competent students use figurative language more than other students.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (13) was (21) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (8.57). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "The use of figurative language can be considered as an indication of mastery of language..

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (14) was (21) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (5) and the significant value level (5%) which was (8.57). this indicates that, there are

statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "EFL students do not know how to use the right figure of speech in the right situation..

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question no (15) was (21) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (5) and the significant value level (5%) which was (8.57). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "EFL students do not have an ability to distinguish the figurative expressions whenever they are exposed to them.

According to the previous results it's clear that the hypothesis of our study is achieved

4.5 Verification of the Study Hypotheses:

This study will discuss the hypotheses to check whether they have been confirmed or not as following:

Hypothesis 1: Ignorance of figurative language in written context affects the quality of communication.

Question 1: To what extent the ignorance of figurative language in written context can affect the quality of communication?

Statement (1): The use of figurative expressions makes utterances stronger than literal ones.

Based on the responses of the teachers on the statement above which were as follow: (35) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with the statement above, (20) persons with percentage (28.6%) agreed with that, (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) were not sure, (7) persons with percentage (10.0%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 3.4% are strongly disagreeing. This support that Ignorance of figurative language in speech affects the quality of written communication.

Statement (2): Figurative language is not included in the syllabuses being taught to EFL learners.

The responses to the statement above were: (32) persons in the study's sample with percentage (45.7%) strongly agreed with the statement, there are (27) persons with percentage (38.6%) were agree, (7) persons with percentage (10.0%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (1) person with 1.4% is strongly disagree which indicate that Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.

Statement (3): EFL learners are not enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their speech.

When the teachers were asked to give their responses about the statement above most of them with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with "EFL students are not enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their speech. ". There are (30) persons with percentage (42.9%) agreed with the statement, (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 4.2% are strongly

disagreed. This clearly shows that Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.

Statement (4): Figures of speech are unfamiliar to most of the students.

The respondents' answers in connection with the statement above were as follow: (28) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (27) persons with percentage (38.6%) were agree, (5) persons with percentage (7.2%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (2.3%) disagreed. and (7) persons with 10.0% are strongly disagreed, which indicate that Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.

Statement (5): There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students.

The responses on this statement were: (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with the statement" There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students. ". There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (2) persons with 2.9% are strongly disagreed. This proves that Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.

Hypothesis 2: Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Question 2: To what extent can lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers?

Statement (1): EFL learners are unable to communicate using figures of speech, because they are not relevant to their culture.

The responses to the above statement were as follow: (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with the statement, there are (40) persons with percentage (57.2%) agreed with that, (0) persons with percentage (0.00%) were not sure, (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) disagreed. and (5) persons with 7.1% are strongly disagree, which clearly shows that Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Statement (2): Native speakers are accustomed to use figurative language in their communication even without realizing that they are doing so.

According to the responses given by the teachers, has been found that the frequencies of agreement got high responses as follow: (18) persons in the study's sample with percentage (25.7%) strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (40) persons with percentage (57.2%) agreed, and (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) were not sure, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (5) persons with 7.1% are strongly disagreed which support that Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Statement (3): EFL students are not qualified enough to communicate with native speakers, because of their misunderstanding of figurative language.

Based on the responses given by the teachers on the statement above which were as follow: (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, (0) persons with percentage (0.00%) were not sure, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 3.4% are strongly disagree this proves that Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Statement (4): Awareness of figurative language assists students to have better knowledge about common beliefs, behaviors, values and culture of native speakers.

According to the responses given by the teachers on the statement above which were as follow: (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagreed which strongly support that Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Statement (5): Cultural norms can be enhanced by learning figurative language.

When the teachers were asked to respond to the above statement their responses were as follow: (50) persons in the study's sample with percentage (71.4%) strongly agreed with the statement, there are (15) persons with

percentage (21.5%) agreed with that, (1) person with percentage (1.4%) was not sure, (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagreed which emphasize that Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Hypothesis 3: Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

Question 3: To what extent can the use of figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence?

Statement (1): When figurative language in EFL has been studied, it has been approached from its application to intermediate and advanced students.

According to the responses given by the teachers on the statement above which were as follow: (30) persons in the study's sample with percentage (42.9%) strongly agreed with the statement, there are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed with that, (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) were not sure, (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) disagreed. and (4) persons with 5.7% are strongly disagreed which indicate that Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

Statement (2): Fully competent students use figurative language more than other students.

The responses to the statement above were as follow: (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) were strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with the statement, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (4.3%) disagreed. and (0) persons with percentage 0.0% are strongly disagree which clearly shows that Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

Statement (3): The use of figurative language can be considered as an indication of mastery of language.

Based on the responses given by the teachers which were as follow: (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed,

(10) persons with percentage (14.3%) were not sure, (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) disagreed. and (1) person with 1.4% is strongly disagree which emphasize that Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

Statement (4): EFL learners know how to use the right figure of speech in the right situation.

According to the responses provided by the teachers which were as follow:(20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (30.0%) strongly agreed with the above statement, there are (40) persons with percentage (55.7%) agreed with it, (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) were not sure, (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (7) persons with 5.7% are strongly disagreed which clearly indicate that Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

Statement (5): EFL learners have an ability to distinguish the figurative expressions whenever they are exposed to them.

When the teachers were asked to respond to the above statement their responses were as follow:(40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with the statement above, there are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed, (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure, (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (2) persons with 2.9% are strongly disagreed which clearly shows that Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

4.6 Analysis of the Diagnostic Test

The responses to the written diagnostic test of the 50 students were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

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

4.7 Statistical Reliability and validity for student's test

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

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

Table (4.18) Statistical Reliability and validity for student's test

	Reliability	*validity*	*N*
ALPH – CRONBACH	0.89	0.92	6

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

 From the above table it's shown that the validity of the test is very high (0.92). This indicate that if we repeat the test we are sure with 93% that it's going to give us the same results

The frequency and percentage distribution for the respondents' answers for the question no (1)

Table (4.19): similes

Result	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	15	30%
Failure	35	70%
Total	50	100%

Figure (4.16) similes

From the above table (19) and figure (16) it's clear that the number of students who pass the question (1) was **(15)** with percentage (30%) And the number of students who failed to pass was **(35)** with percentage **(70%)** Which indicate that undergraduates encounter problems in using the appropriate figure of speech in the right situation.

The frequency and percentage distribution for the respondent's answers for the question no (2)

Table (4.20): idioms

Result	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	16	32%
Failure	34	78%
Total	50	100%

Figure (4.17) idioms

From the above table (20) and figure (17) it's clear that the number of students who pass the question (2) was **(16)** with percentage (32%) And the number of students who failed to pass was **(34)** with percentage **(78%)** this means the majority of students do not know how to use figurative expressions correctly.

The frequency and percentage distribution for the respondent's answers for the question no (3)

Table (4.21) metaphors

Result	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	18	36%
Failure	32	64%
Total	50	100%

Figure (4.18) metaphors

From the above table (21) and figure (18) it's clear that the number of students who pass the question (3) was **(18)** with percentage (36%) And the number of students who failed to pass was **(32)** with percentage **(64%)** which indicates that EFL students encounter real problems in using figures of speech in an appropriate way.

The frequency and percentage distribution for the respondent's answers for the question no (4)

Table (4.22) hyperboles

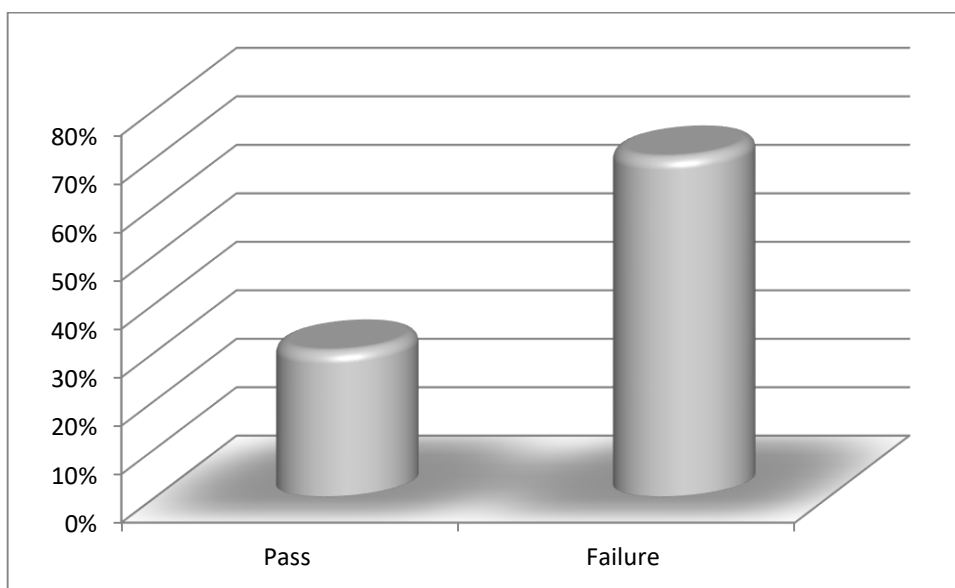| Result	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	17	34%
Failure	33	66%
Total	50	100%

Figure (4.19) hyperboles

From the above table (22) and figure (19) it's clear that the number of students who   pass the question (4) was **(17)** with percentage **(34%)** And the number of students who failed to pass was **(33)** with percentage **(66%)**. This means that most of the students do not know how to use figurative language correctly.

The frequency and percentage distribution for the respondent's answers for the question no (5)

Table (4.23) personifications

Result	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	14	28%
Failure	36	72%
Total	50	100%

Figure (4.20) personifications
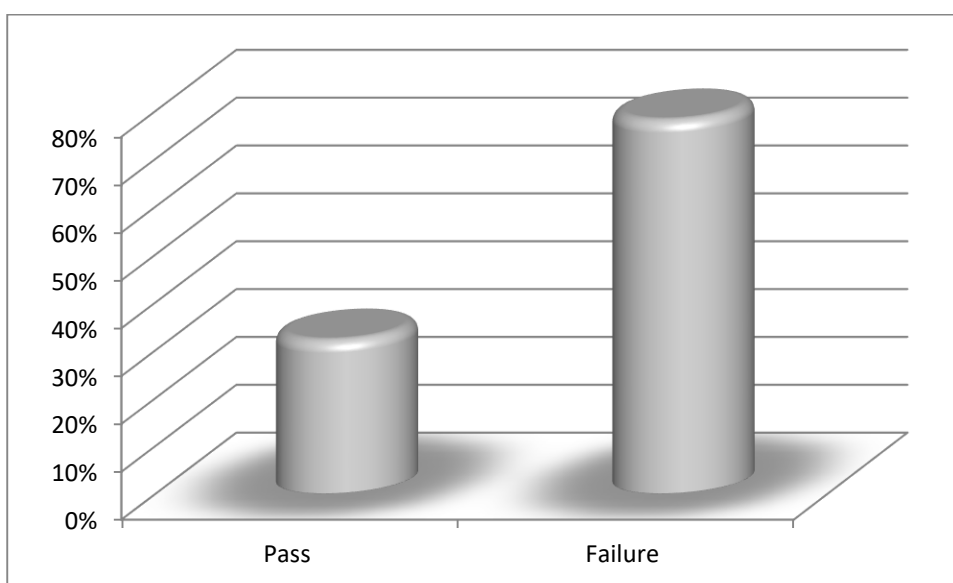
From the above table (23) and figure (20) it's clear that the number of students who   pass the question (5) was **(14)** with percentage **(**28%**)** And the number of students who failed to pass was **(36)** with percentage **(72%)**. Which clearly show that most of EFL students failed to use the appropriate figure of speech.

The frequency and percentage distribution for the respondent's answers for the question no (6)

Table (4.24) other types

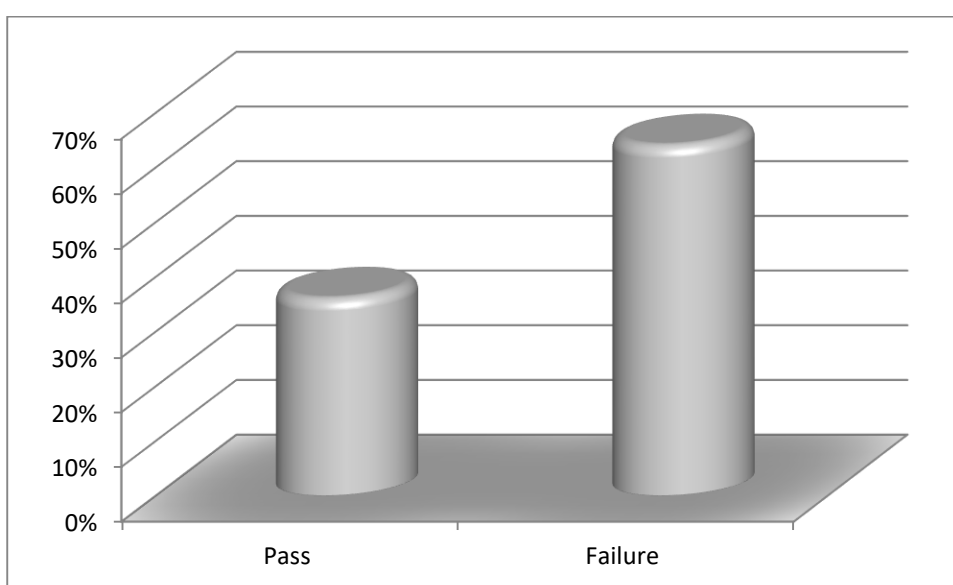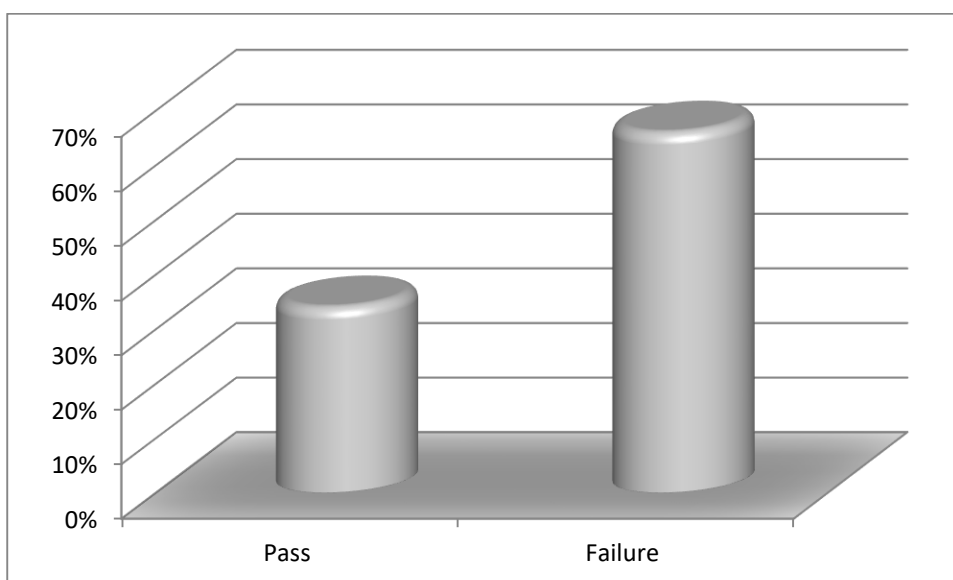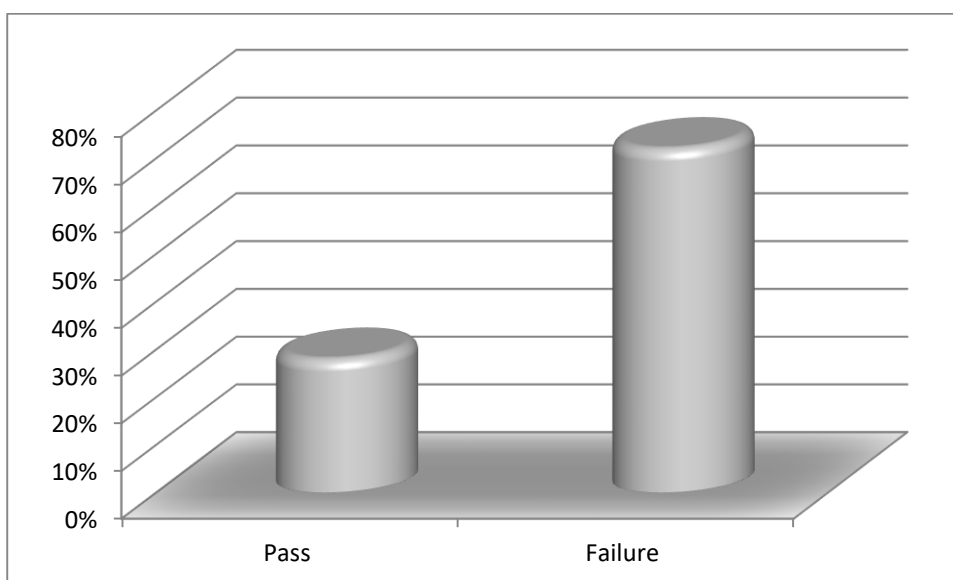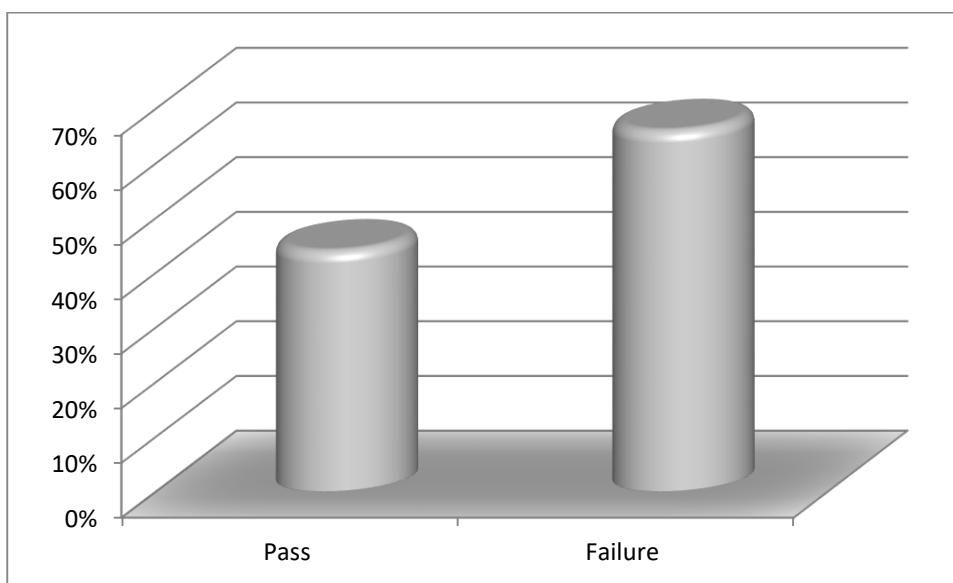| Result	Frequency	Percentage
Pass	22	44%
Failure	28	66%
Total	50	100%

Figure (4.21) other types

From the above table (24) and figure (21) it's clear that the number of students who pass the question (6) was **(22)** with percentage **(44%)** And the number of students who failed to pass was **(28)** with percentage **(66%)** which indicate that undergraduates encounter real problems in using figures of speech in their right place.

Table (4.25) The Frequency Distribution and decisions for the Respondent's Answers of all questions

Questions	Pass		Failure		Decision
	frequency	*Percentage*	*frequency*	*Percentage*	
Question 1	15	30	35	70	Accept
Question 2	16	32	34	78	Accept
Question 3	18	36	32	64	Accept
Question 4	17	34	33	66	Accept
Question 5	14	28	34	72	Accept
Question 6	22	44	28	66	Accept

This table (25) it's shown the summary of the results. For the **question one,** it's clear that the number of students who failed in the question one is greater than the number of students who pass the question (70%) so the hypothesis of the study related to question one is accepted.

4.8 Hypotheses testing using t- test

Table (4.26) one sample T-TEST for the questions of the study

Question s	N	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
1	50	7.5	19	49	0.00
2	50	5.4	15	49	0.00
3	50	2.2	14	49	0.00
4	50	1.3	16	49	0.00
5	50	3.2	11	49	0.00
6	50	2.2	10	49	0.00
For all	50	5.8	14	49	0.00

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the question No (1) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (49) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5.10). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %)

among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (2) was (14) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (49) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5.10). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (3) was (16) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (49) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5.10). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (4) was (11) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (49) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5.10). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (5) was (10) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (49) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5.10). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (6) was (15) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (49)

and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (5.10). This indicates that, there are no statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our first hypothesis is accepted.

4.9 Discussion in the Light of Results:

Hypothesis 1: Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.

Question 1: To what extent the ignorance of figurative language use can affect the quality of written communication?

Statements 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. And test items were phrased to explore whether the ignorance of figurative language in speech can affect the quality of communication or not. The majority of the respondents of the questionnaire chose the options (agree and strongly agree) and according to the tables and figures most of the students failed to pass the diagnostic test given to them. This indicates that EFL students ignore figurative expressions in communication.

Hypothesis 2: Lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers.

Question 2: To what extent can lack of good grasp of figurative language affect communication with native speakers?

According to the statements 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 and the items in the test which were designed to investigate whether lack of good grasp of figurative language in speech can affect communication with native speakers or not. The respondents provided positive responses to the statements (agree and strongly agree) and most students failed in giving the correct answers to the test items which clearly show that students face real problems in communicating with native speakers. The tables and figures support this.

Hypothesis 3: Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

Question 3: To what extent can the use of figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence?

Statements 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 and the test items given to the students which were designed to check whether the use of figurative language in communication can reflect undergraduates' mastery of written communicative competence. The respondents provided positive responses (agree and strongly agree) and the majority of the students do not provided

correct answers to the test items as its shown in the tables and figures. This emphasizes that the use of figurative expressions in communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of written communicative competence.

4.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the qualitative and quantitative data collected by the research instruments. The discussion of data aimed at providing answers to the research questions and testing the hypothesis of the study.

The diagnostic test and the responses provided by teachers clearly showed that EFL students experienced problems in using figurative expressions in their communication due to the ignorance and misuse of such expressions in communication.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.0 Introduction

This chapter concludes the study by answering the research questions being set at the beginning of the thesis. Research findings will be given as well. Also it will provide some recommendations and suggestions for further studies and conclusion will be drawn for this study.

5.1 Findings

This research is proposed to investigate the effectiveness of figurative Language in improving undergraduate's written communicative competence among EFL Students in Sudanese Universities. The results are analyzed and discussed in the light of the hypotheses. Based on these analysis and discussion, the study concluded with the following findings:

1. Ignorance of figurative language use affects the quality of written communication.
2. Lack of good grasp of figurative language affects communication with native speakers.
3. Using figurative language in written communication reflects undergraduates' mastery of communicative competence.

5.2 Recommendations

In the light of the results been mentioned the researcher recommends the following:

1. University teachers should put in consideration the importance of figurative language for better written communication.
2. Figurative expressions should be included in the syllabus being taught to EFL Students.
3. University teachers should be aware of the suitable ways of teaching figurative language.

4. University teachers should encourage their students to use figurative expressions in written context all the time.
5. University teachers should provide their students with some activities and exercises contains figurative language.
6. University teachers should start by themselves through using figurative expressions whenever they deal with their students.
7. University teachers should make each single task in the classroom a chance to practice figurative expressions.
8. EFL students should listen to the language from native speakers through T.V, tapes…etc.
9. EFL students should read some books, articles, newspapers….etc which has been written by native speakers.

5.3 Conclusions:

This chapter has presented the key findings of the study, it has also recommended some ideas, some suggestions for further studies have been provided as well.

5.4 Suggestions for further studies

The researcher suggests some points for future researches. These suggestions are based on the findings of the study:

1. Barriers of using figurative language in written communication.
2. Suitable approaches of teaching figurative language.
3. The impact of using figurative language in communication.
4. The use of the write figure of speech in the write context.
5. Using figures of speech in literary writing context.
6. Using figures of speech in academic writing context.

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APPENDICES

Appendices

Appendix (1): Teachers' questionnaire

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

This questionnaire is a part of a PhD thesis entitles "Exploring the Role of Figurative Language in Improving Undergraduates written Communicative Competence. You are kindly requested to respond honestly to each statement by ticking one of the choices.

Your responses will be just for research purposes and will be treated confidentially.

Thanks a lot for your cooperative efforts

Name :(optional) …………………………………………………

Qualifications: **BA**   ☐

                             MA   ☐

                             PhD   ☐

Years of Experience:

                             1-5   ☐

                             6-10   ☐

                             More than 10   ☐

No	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	The use of figurative language in written context makes expressions stronger than literal ones.					
2	Figurative language is not included in the syllabuses being taught to EFL students.					
3	EFL students are not enthusiastic to use figurative expressions in their writing.					
4	Figures of speech are unfamiliar to most of the students.					
5	There is no mutual understanding for the figurative expressions produced by teachers and their students.					
6	EFL students are unable to communicate using figures of speech, because they are not relevant to their culture.					
7	Native speakers are accustomed to use figurative language in their communication even without realizing that they are doing so.					
8	EFL students are not qualified enough to communicate with native speakers, because of their misunderstanding of figurative language.					

9	Awareness of figurative language assists students to have better knowledge about common beliefs, behaviors, values and culture of native speakers.					
10	Cultural norms can be enhanced by learning figurative language.					
11	When figurative language in EFL has been studied, it has been approached from its application to intermediate and advanced students.					
12	Fully competent students use figurative language in their writing more than other students.					
13	The use of figurative language in writing can be considered as an indication of mastery of language.					
14	EFL students do not know how to use the right figure of speech in the right situation.					
15	EFL students have an ability to distinguish the figurative expressions whenever they are exposed to them.					

Appendix: (2) Diagnostic Test
Sudan University of Science and Technology
College of Graduate Studies

This Test is a part of a PhD thesis entitles "Exploring the Role of Figurative Language in Improving Undergraduates written Communicative Competence. You are kindly requested to respond honestly to each item by filling in the appropriate figure of speech.

Your responses will be taken just for research purposes and will be treated confidentially.

Thanks a lot for your cooperative efforts

Name: (optional)…………………………………………………………...

Cat and dog	needle in a haystack	the hills	house
on fire			

Once there were two brothers, called John and Edward Smith, living in London. When they were children, they used to fight like……………………………………..when they grew up, Edward went to live in Australia. Sadly, after a few years, they stopped writing to each other. Fifty years later, Edward returned to London and decided to contact his brother. His didn't have an address for him, but he felt sure that he still lived in a big city, even if it wasn't London. But trying to find a J. smith in England is like looking for a ……………………………….. There are so many. Finally, after a whole week of phoning up all the J. smiths in telephone directories for cities in the UK, Edward found his brother- now living in Manchester! They met again last week. 'Now that we're both as old as ……………………………….' They said, we get on like a………………………………..

broken dreams	pipe dream	a dream
come true	wouldn't dream of	in your dreams

1. Meeting him in person was ………………., I couldn't believe it actually happened.
2. Her friend's life was full of…………………...
3. You want to marry Tom Cruise? …………………!

4. Shia's ………………… is to become the Prime Minister of Japan.

5. I ……………………… travelling without insurance, it's too risky!

roses	wooden face	disaster area	cancer	fashion show

1. The detective listened to her tales with a……………………..

2. She was fairly certain that life was a……………………

3. The typical teenage boy's room is a…………………..

4. The children were………….grown in concrete gardens, beautiful and forlorn.

5. That woman is the……………of my dreams and aspirations.

Working	mile away	self-control	question	sandwich

1. That women has no ………………………

2. That was the easiest……………….in the world.

3. I can smell pizza from a……………………..

4. I went home and made the biggest ……………..of all time.

5. My dad is always……………………

Posed	blind	care	saluted	friend

1. Justice is………………and, at times, deaf.

2. Money is the only…………..that I can count on.

3. The cactus………any visitor brave enough to travel the scorched land.

4. Jan ate the hot dog despite the arguments it ……………to her digestive system.

5. The world does not ………….to hear your sad stories.

Hands	secret photos	bottle	attract	read head	eat

1. Look at that …………………………!

2. All ………………on deck!

3. Opposites ……………..

4. You are what you ………………..

5. Palace shocked by ………………….

6. He drank the whole……………………