بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

Sudan University of Sciences and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

كلية الدراسات العليا

Investigating the Difficulties Faced by Arab English Learners in Grasping English Idioms

تقصى الصعوبات التي يواجهها متحدثي اللغة الإنجليزية العرب في استيعاب التعابير

الإصطلاحية

(A Case Study o f Fourth Year Students at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science – College of Language)

دراسة حالة طلاب السنة الرابعة بجامعة القرآن الكريم والعلوم الإسلامية كلية اللغات

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Submitted by:

Sara Mohammed Hamid ALmasaad

Supervised by:

Dr. Mahomud ALid Ahmed Omer

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Quranic Verse

(ومن اياته خلق السماوات والارض واختلاف السنتكم والوانكم ان في ذلك لايات للعالمين).

صدق الله العظيم

سورة الروم الآيات (22)

And of his signs is the creation of the heaven and the earth and)
the diversity of your tongues and colours, in that, surely, are
signs for those who possess knowledge).

Soura: Alroom

Verse :(22)

Dedication

Great respect and thanks to Allah first and my beloved parents

And to my husband a man with a prominent character, who stands by me, and sustain me, by paving the thorny way, as to enlighten and surround my way with knowledge, and his wise directives.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This study aimed at investigating difficulties faced by Arab learners in grasping English idioms. The researcher has adopted descriptive analytical method. Two instruments has been used for collecting data relevant to the study, namely questionnaire to teachers of English at some Sudanese Universities and written diagnostic test to the fourth year students of English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages. The study sample of questionnaire comprises (30) teachers whereas the written diagnostic test composes (30) students. The researcher applied SPSS program to analyze and verify the results. The results have shown that interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms. Moreover, Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions. Teachers' ability in recognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency. The study has recommended that a systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers. On the other hand, English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as independent subject. Some suggestions are also proposed for further studies.

Abstract

(Arabic Version)

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى تقصي الصعوبات التي يواجهها متعلمي اللغة الانجليزية العـــرب فـــي استيعاب التعابير الاصطلاحية. وقد اتبع الباحث المنهج التحليلى الوصفي ، وتم استخدام اثنين من الادوات لجمع البيانات المتعلقة بالدراسة ، المتمثلة فياستبيان صمم خصيصاً لأساتذة اللغــة الإنجليزية في بعض الجامعات السودانية وايضاً اختبار تشخيصـــي مكتـــوب لطـــلاب الســـنة الرابعة بكلية اللغاتجامعة القران الكريم والعلوم الاسلامية. قد تم اختيـــار عينـــه بحجـــم (30) بالنسبة لأداء الدراسة الأولى وعينه بحجم (30) طالبالاختبار التشخيصي المكتـــوب. وطبـــق الباحث برامج الحزم الاحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية   (SPSS)لتحليل وتأكيـــد النتـــائج . واتضح جلياً من خلال نتائج الدراسة ان تداخل لغة الام لها تاثير سلبي في ترجمـــة التعـــابير الاصطلاحية . بالاضافة الي ان دارسياللغة الانجليزية لايتـــدربون علـــى اســـتخدام التعـــابير الاصطلاحية بصورة كافية. مقدرة الاساتذة في استخدامالتعابير الاصطلاحية يزيد من كفـــاءة الدارسين. وقدمت الدراسة عدد مـــن التوصـــيات اهمهـــا علـــى الاســـاتذة تطـــوير خطـــط منتظمةلتدريس التعابير الاصطلاحية. كما يجب تضمين التعابير الاصطلاحية فـــي المنـــاهج التربوية كمادة مستغلة. وايضا قدمت بعض المقترحات للدارسات المستقبلية.

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1.0 Overview

This introductory chapter is an overview of the research. It first specifies the researcher's motivation in conducting the research. It includes the background of the study, the statement of the study problem, objectives of study, the questions of the study, the hypotheses of the study, significance of the study, research methodology, and limits of the study and organization of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Idiomatic expressions are part of every language. According to Boers who (2008) states that alllanguages have idioms and are full of them. Nativespeakers tend to use idiomatic expressionsspontaneously without thinking of the figurative meaning.It is natural that non-native speakers find idioms difficultto understand because they do not know what the imageof the idiomatic expression is based on. For example, ifnon-native speakers of English Language come acrossthe expression that exams are part of a "carrot and stick"method, they will find it difficult to process. Non-nativespeakers will find it uneasy because they are unable toencourage moving forward by dangling a carrot in frontof it or by hitting it with a stick.Thus, it is almost impossible for a non-native speakerwho is unfamiliar with this idiom to imagine that such anidiom is used to describe any event which involvesrewards (a carrot) and threats (the stick). If a non-nativespeaker is unfamiliar with the idiom "show you the ropes"and comes across such an expression, he or she will findit difficult to immediately understand. As such, they willfind it difficult to

realize that this expression proposes toteach one how a certain job is done. If these non-nativespeakers were told that such an idiomatic expression isused in a sailing context in which experienced sailorsteach a novice how to handle the ropes on a boat, thismay help them to understand and realize its meaning.Consequently, realizing the image that the idiom is basedon and the origin of the idiom could help in resolving thefigurative meaning of that particular idiom. Using theidiom in a certain context rather than using it alone mayalso help non-natives who are unfamiliar with that idiomto realize and figure out the metaphorical meaning.

In reference, idioms are defined as fixed expressionsthat are typically used in a figurative sense and they havearbitrary meanings. That is, Idiomatic expressions maketheir meaning by coincidence and by chance. Studentsare taught that there is no link between an idiom and itsmeaning and that idioms have to be learned by heart.However, recent research has shown otherwise; it hasshown a link between idiomatic expressions and theirmeanings. The link between an idiom and its meaningcould be based on physical experiences, which areuniversally shared or based on specific domains, whichare culturally specific. Realizing the origin of the idiomand what it is based on help in realizing the idiom'smetaphorical meaning. These findings will be presentedand explained in this study.

In the English language, idiomatic expressions arespontaneously used by native speakers daily. It is anessential part of the English language lexicon andvocabulary. Idiomatic expressions are, therefore,considered inevitable for non-native speakers of English.As a result, Non-native speakers of English should get accustomed to using these expressions. Non-nativespeakers of English need to learn idiomatic expressionsand practice how to use them, parallel to native speakers. As such, it is a requirement to include idiomaticexpressions in English as a second

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language (ESL) andEnglish as foreign language (EFL) classrooms and intheir teaching materials.

1.2 Statement of the Study problem

The researcher has noticed that the acquisition of a second language required a lot of efforts as it encompasses different language use and idioms represent one of these uses. Necessity of acquiring English language idiom comes from the fact that these idioms reflect genuine ideas and experience attributed to L1 English language speakers.This proficiency in the English language involves proficiency in acquiring English idioms.A learner disability in acquiring idioms may be attributed to the fact that teaching lexis in general and idiom in particular has poor relegated to minor position in contrast to the teaching of syntax.While there has not been much in the way of current research reachingidiom acquisition by second language learners, what have been done have focused primarily on the issue of interference from the first language.Such studies are important as learner with poor competence of English cannot understand or use idioms unless they have reached an advanced level of proficiency in the English language.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

1. (It attempts)To investigate whether Arab learners of English face obstacles in comprehending idiomatic expressions in written forms.
2. (It attempts)To highlight mother tongue interference negatively affectArab learners of English in understanding idiomatic expressions in written forms.
3. (It attempts)To find out the best strategies whichcan be applied to Arab learners of English in understanding idiomatic expressions.

1.4 Questions of the Study

This study sets out to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do Arab learners of English face obstacles in comprehending idiomatic expressions in written forms?
2. To what extent does mother tongue interference affectArab learners of English in understanding idiomatic expressions in written forms?
3. What are the best strategies can be applied to Arab learners of English in understanding idiomatic expressions?

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

This study sets out to test the following hypotheses**:**

1. Arab learners of English face obstacles in comprehending idiomatic expressions in written forms.
2. Mother tongue interference affects Arab learners of English in understanding idiomatic expressions in written forms**.**
3. There are strategies that can be applied to Arab learners of English in understanding idiomatic expressions.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study will be of great significance to the teachers in terms of inferring meaning from written forms as well as students who will be exposed to different types of idioms, such as words that have indirect meanings, words that have shaded meanings and words that have cultural background. It will be of great significance to the curriculums and syllabus designers.

1.7 Limits of the Study

This study was limited to investigate the difficulties faced byArab English learners in grasping English idioms.It is hoped that the study will tentatively cover the academic (2018-2019). It was conducted at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages, and study sample was exclusively drawn from fourth year students of English.

1.8 Methodology of the Study

The researcher has adopted the descriptive analytical method. Moreover, the study was conducted the quantitative approach. The questionnaire and diagnostic test were used as primary tools for data collection. A questionnaire will be distributed to teachers of English at some Sudanese Universities whereas diagnostic test to fourthyear students at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages.

1.9 Organization of the Study

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter one is known as the introduction of the study. It includes background of the study, the problem of the study, the objectives of the study, the questions of the study, the hypotheses of the study, significance of the study, research methodology, and limits of the study and organization of study. Chapter two is about literature review and previous studies. Chapter three is the research methodology, which includes research design, population of the study, instruments of the study, validity and reliability, and data collection procedure. Chapter four is about data analysis and interpretation. Chapter five is the final chapter of the study which includes summary of the main findings, conclusion, recommendation and suggestion for further studies.

1.10 Summary of the Chapter

This introductory chapter was concerned with presentation of statement of the problem, objectives of the study, questions of the study, hypotheses of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, methodology of the study, definition of study terms and outline of the research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reveals the related literature review on investigating the difficulties faced byArab English learners in grasping English idioms. It is called chapter two which is divided into two parts; the first part is called theoretical background and the second part is called previous studies.

Part one: Theoretical Background

2.1 General idea about figurative language

No doubt, idiom are an important part of language and culture around the world. But to comprehend idioms have to understand figurative language to drive and understand meaning of English language .inception will show the definition of figurative language according to OXFORD WORD POWER DICTINARY. (Figurative) /□□□□r□tiv/Adj (used about a word or an expression) not use in exact meaning or a special effect but used for giving an imaginative description or especial effect "he exploded at the news" is a figurative use of the verb "to explode". Uses figurative of speech to be more effective, persuasive and impactful. Such as

- Personification. Giving something, non-human or an object, like nature or emotions. There are many reasons for using personification.it can be used as a method of describing something

so that other can more easily understand it. Also can use to emphasize a point or paint a picture in the mind.

- Hyperbole. An exaggeration so dramatic that no one would believe its true hyperbole from a Greek word meaning "excess". It be can find in the everyday speech.it is perfect for the creative writing and communication, or to add color to a character or humor to a story.

- Alliteration. The repetition of the some initial letter or sound, or group of sounds in a series of words Alliteration includes tongue twister. Example she sell seas hells by the seashore.

- Simile: a simile used the words "like" or "as" to compare one object or idea with another to suggest they are like. Example: busy as bee.

- Onomatopoeia. The use of word to describe or imitate a natural sound or the sound made by an object or an action. Example: snap crackle pop. And finally metaphor and idioms, the study will discuss two of them broadly.

Figurative language such as metaphor and idioms has been considered derivative from complex more than simple literal language. With respect to daily conversational utterance have developed a theoretical accent of how figurative expressions. This theories has been tested in "understanding figurative language from metaphor to idioms book" it developed a theoretical account of how figurative expression are understood and have lasted this theories with an extensive body of experimented research. Most of the work has been devoted to metaphor, and idioms are also treated comprehensively and in reasonable detail. The book began with consideration of metaphor and other kind of tropes. The book consider linguistic, philosophical, and psychological approaches to

the study of language and how each of these three disciplines sets the issues and problems. In particular the book examine and evaluate how each has dealt with the special problem of figurative language. The central issues of this book are. addresses the role of comparison processes in metaphor comprehension, the creation of new categories via metaphor and the strategies that people use to name anew .and it is argue that metaphor comprehension involves property attribution not comparison .

It also introduce the notion of dual reference where by metaphor such as (jail) in "my job is a jail". (jail)refer to literal jail and in the same time to more abstract category of things and situations.

Metaphor*:*

There are several definition of metaphor, OXFORD WORD POWER 2009, 2008. Define metaphor as following /□□□□□/ noun .away of describing sth by comparing it to sthels which has the same qualities. (But without using the word "like", or "as".

For example. If you say sb is "a parrot" you are using a metaphor to express the fact that the person just repeats things without thinking.

OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY,(1996) the wood metaphor derives from the Greek metapherein, transfer.as META+PHEREIN.Alice E.M UNDERWOOD defined metaphor as is a figure of speech that describes an object or action in way that isn't literally true, but helps explain an idea or make a comparison. Those two things not because they actually are the same, but for the sake of comparison or symbolism. Metaphor are used in poetry, literature, and any time someone wants to add color to their language. Dictionary entries for the term metaphor provide illustrative example of how metaphor can be variously defined. OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY (1996).the first it identifies metaphor as a type

of language. A figure of speech in which a name or descriptive word or phrase is transferred to an objective or action different from, but analogous to, that which is literally applicable. An instance of this is metaphorical expression.

Second it identifies metaphor as a form of conceptual representation. Like a thing considered as representative of some other abstract things. For metaphor is the spice of language. It also activates the reader's or listeners inner eye to produce images which are just as vivid as visual ones. Without its color, wit and concreteness would disappear.

Source of metaphors:

Metaphor from literatures. Metaphors abound in poetry and use in special way.

WILLAIM SHAKESPEARE used in most of his works like (all the world stage, Don Quixote).Also metaphors used in Han Christian's story (The ugly Duckling).

Metaphors from politics: While politicians no doubt used metaphor in the course of daily speech. Like Oliver Cromwell's famous direction to Sir Peterlely (warts and all) it become contemporary idiom. Sir Winstion Churchill invented the term (the iron curtain).British Prime Minister Harold Macmillan one said of an opponent (if Harold Wilson ever went to school without any boots, it was merely because he was too big for them).

Metaphor from religious sources: The ancient non-Christian European religion gave rise to a number of current expression such as, (to be in the lap of Gods).

Some of phrases which are used by old and new Bible also was used by both believers and non-believers example of this phrases (an eye for an eye and tooth for tooth), (to be in an ivory tower)

Holy Quran also is a rich of metaphor addition of figurative language, there are some example of metaphor.(قال من يحي العظام وهي رميم)(Who will give a life to bones while they are disintegrated) is the phrase 'give the life to bones'

In the above verse a metaphor where apart is mentioned to represent the whole, may Allah reward you goodness and may Allah preserve you support and treasure for the great Muslim Ummah. يجعلون اصابعهم في اذانهم) (من الصواعق حذر الموت)(They put their fingers in their ears against the thunderclaps in dread of death).'Their fingers' is metaphor for the ends of the finger because the finger in reality cannot be put in to the ears.

Metaphor from heraldry: Metaphor derived from heraldry are comparatively rare and those which exist are not without their controversy.

2.2Definition of Idioms

Idioms are classified one of non-literal or figurative language that also includes metaphors, as similes and proverbs. As mentioned earlier, there are many definitions available which suggests that researchers have not been able to settle for a single explanation. In the following section we provide examples of how idioms can be defined differently. However, this study (and the search for relevant material) required us to be very broad, and to not settle for a narrow definition. Furthermore, the broad description that was used led to the fact that we ended up with texts that all defined idioms differently.

An idiom is a phrase that is commonly used within a given culture and understood to have a meaning different from its literal meaning. Glucksberg (2001) states that "[w]hat sets idioms apart from most other fixed expressions is their 'non-logical' nature, that is, the absence of any discernable relation between their linguistic meanings and their idiomatic meanings" (p. 68). This point of view is supported by Cooper (1998) who compares idioms to metaphors; "[a]n idiom can have a literal meaning, but its alternate, figurative meaning must be understood metaphorically. For example, over the hill can mean on the other side of the hill, but the figurative meaning is to be very old" (p. 255). D'Angelo Bromley (1994) goes even further by saying that "its meaning cannot be inferred grammatically, neither can meaning be determined from its literal translation, nor can meaning always be determined from the surrounding material "(p. 274). Without a doubt, this presents language learners with a special vocabulary-learning problem.

Wiktorsson (2003) proposes a similar definition to the ones provided above but she chooses to use the term prefabs. Prefabs are said to be prefabricated expressions that are stored in the memory to be used as multi-word units. Simply put, because they need to be. Their meaning cannot be understood merely by knowing what the different constituents mean. However, the term multi-word units (MWUs) present another dilemma since it is sometimes used to describe idioms. Grant & Nation (2006) state that there are three types of MWUs: core idioms, literal sequences and figuratives. Figuratives are "what most people commonly call idioms. At first sight their part do not make up the meaning of the whole unit" (Ibid., p. 8).

So far, it has been shown that there are a lot of similar definitions and terms used to describe the same language phenomenon. Glucksberg

(2001) provides the most detailed description whilst identifying idioms on the basis of compositionality and transparency:

Firstly, idioms can be classified on the dimension of compositionality. They can be non-compositional, partially compositional or fully compositional – explaining the relationship between the idiom's constituents and the idiom's meaning. Glucksberg (2001) states that "[i]n noncompositional idioms, no relations between the idiom's constituents and the idiom's meaning can be discerned, as in the idiom cheesecake to refer to pinup art" (p. 73). Pinup photos are often called cheesecake photos.

The idiomatic meaning of partially compositional idioms can, to some degree, be discerned from its constituents. Glucksberg (2001) gives the expression kick the bucket as an example where one could not infer the meaning to die from the literal meaning but the idiom's literal meaning can does constrain its use and comprehension.

A fully compositional idiom maps directly onto the idiomatic referents, as in the idiom pop the questions. In this idiom, the verb pop and the noun phrase the question

Map directly onto the idiomatic meanings of suddenly utter and marriage proposal.

Secondly, the issue of transparency refers to "the extent to which an idiom's meaning can be inferred from the meaning of its constituents. A compositional idiom can be either opaque or transparent and the meaning of individual words can constrain both interpretation and use. In compositional-opaque idioms, the relations between an idiom's constituents and its meaning may be opaque, but the meanings of individual words can nevertheless constrain both interpretation and use"

The semantics of the verb "to kick can constrain interpretation. Kicking is a discrete act, and so one could not say he kicked the bucket all week,

even though one could say he lay dying all week. An idiom that is both compositional and transparent includes constituents that have one-to-one semantic relations to its idiomatic meaning. For example, in the idiom break the ice, "the word break corresponds to the idiomatic sense of abruptly changing an uncomfortable social situation, and the word ice corresponds to the idiomatic sense of social or interpersonal tension.

The quasi-metaphorical idiom refers to idioms that convey meaning via their allusion content. Glucksberg (2001) describes these as similar to metaphors. "They call to mind a prototypical or stereotypical instance of an entire category of people, events, situations or actions" and "they can simultaneously refer to an ideal exemplar of a concept and characterize some event or situation as an instance of that concept". An example of a fully compositional idiom that might be used when saying that something is done prematurely is crossing one's bridges before coming to them. Since it is compositional, it can be varied and still make sense when used in future situations: he burned his bridges behind him or he burned all of his bridges in front of him.

In conclusion, Glucksberg (2001) identifies four types of idioms: non-compositional (not transparent), compositional opaque, compositional transparent and quasi-metaphorical. However, this section has provided a few different suggestions for how to define idioms. But, as mentioned before, this thesis makes use of the broadest description of idioms in order to find suitable research.

2.3 The Importance of Idioms

Before determining what the best way to teach idioms to second language students is, the reason why idioms are important to know needs to be addressed. Why is practicing idioms a worthwhile activity in the classroom? Why is it important, or perhaps even absolutely necessary, for language learners to understand idioms in the target language?

Idioms are very common in both written and spoken language. Lundblom and Woods (2012) write that idioms "appear in conversation, print (magazines and newspapers), and media (movies, radio, and television)" Cooper (1998) claims that when idioms occur on TV-shows, for example, in order to even understand the plot, the viewer often needs to be able to comprehend the idiom in question. Furthermore, of the four kinds of nonliteral expressions, idioms are the most frequently encountered in discourse. Consequently, since idioms are such a big part of most languages, students should learn them in order to be fluent in the target language. Burke (1998) goes as far as claiming that there is "absolutely no way a nonnative speaker of English could fully understand an American movie, TV show, news broadcast, or even a typical conversation without help because our language is loaded with nonstandard English, i.e., slang and idioms". He explains that if nonnative speakers do not understand idioms, they will never be able to completely integrate and instead, they will always be outsiders. Cooper (1998) agrees, Sooner or later, imprecise idiomatic usage will cause difficulties even for a student with an excellent knowledge of grammar and a high level of vocabulary attainmentThus, the fact that students most definitely will encounter idiomatic expressions on a daily basis (whether in a country where the native language is English, or just through TV shows and movies), is definitely a main reason as to why their idiom awareness needs to be developed during their language learning.

Additionally, it seems idioms are difficult to learn and comprehend. The complexity of this area within language learning is another reason why teachers need to explain and teach idioms to students. D'Angelo Bromley (1984), for example, writes that idioms "add confusion and difficulty to the learning of language". Lundblom and Woods (2012) further explain that idioms "occur frequently in classroom language. Students with

literacy or language weaknesses are often challenged by idioms.Therefore, the failure to comprehend idioms can impact academic performance". Moreover, Burke (1998) mentions that teaching students about and explaining nonliteral language thoroughly in school is preferable to students hearing this type of language outside of the classroom. Outside of an educational environment the risk of the student misunderstanding an idiom, for example, is higher. The student might end up in a situation where he or she uses the idiom in the wrong context and gets into trouble or an awkward situation because of it.

To culminate, there are at least two main arguments in favor of teaching idioms in school. Since idioms are so common in everyday language use, and since they seem difficult for foreign language students to learn, as educators, we need not promote the actual use of slang, idioms, but we do have a responsibility to familiarize the nonnative speaker with this type of language.

2.4Teaching of Idioms

This study suggests that idioms need to be learned so students can develop fluency and fully understand the target language. The question remains, though, if idiomatic expressions should be taught explicitly or could be learned incidentally?

There is a great deal of research available concerning vocabulary learning. However, very little research focuses specifically on learning idiomatic expressions. Instead, idioms are seen as an important part of developing fluency in a language and are often integrated in the term vocabulary. Nation (2001) suggest that idioms need to be dealt with as if they were words; they should be given attention on the basis of their frequency and range of occurrence. The word used is MWUs (multi word units) – a term that it much broader and more inclusive than idioms. Although Nation and Meara (2002) focus on learning individual words,

they state that "learning MWUs can occur across the four learning strands as well.

Nation and Meara (2002) and Schmitt (2000) compare explicit and incidental learning as two approaches to vocabulary acquisition. Schmitt (2000) indicates that "explicit learning focuses attention directly on the information to be learned, which gives the greatest chance for its acquisition" .Nation and Meara (2002) support this point of view, adding that "deliberate learning is more focused and goal-directed than incidental learning" .The authors also suggest that explicit vocabulary teaching is one way of encouraging deliberate vocabulary learning. However, Nation and Meara (2002) as well as Schmitt (2000) acknowledge the fact that incidental learning is effective. But According to Schmitt (2000) "it is slower and more gradual, lacking the focused attention of explicit learning".

Grant and Nation (2006) argue that there are three types of MWUs which all require a different approach to learning. These are core idioms, literal sequences and figuratives. In addition, the authors argue that once the meaning of a MWU is known, it is possible to figure out how the words relate to create a whole. Grant and Nation (2006) suggest that the strategy for interpreting figuratives is a commonsense one, "[t]o deal with figuratives receptively, in listening and reading, learners need to have an interpreting strategy and will be greatly helped if they have actually met and learned the most useful figuratives". This suggests that figuratives deserve attention because learners need to recognize the different types of idioms and develop strategies for dealing with them.

Schmitt (2000) argues that much lexis consists of multiword units which act as chunks that facilitate fluent language since they do not require as much cognitive effort compared to creating new expressions. He also suggests that "once a chunk is known, it can be analyzed and segmented

into its constituent words. In this way, unanalyzed chunks can be analyzed to provide additional vocabulary".

In summary, it seems to be clear that explicit teaching of figurative idioms has a beneficial effect. Schmitt concludes, for second language learners at least, both explicit and incidental learning are necessary, and should be seen as complementary. Both types are necessary for an effective vocabulary program, but teachers need to have in mind that words are learned incrementally. In order for learners to acquire them, they need to be met several times and this highlights the importance of repetition in vocabulary learning.

2.5 Acquisition of Idioms

Swain (1993) summarizes the output hypothesis by stating that through producing language, either spoken or written, language acquisition/learning may occur and that the essence of the output hypothesis lies in learners taking responsibility for their own learning. The author claims that by using the target language as frequently as possible, the intuition regarding fluency can be developed. This is true not only when learning idioms but for all educational settings, meaningful practice of linguistic resources permits "the development of automaticity in their use. Swain (1993) states that when learners produce language they are forced to recognize what they do not know, making the gap in their knowledge base visible. There are at least three responses that learners might have to this gap, one of them being to identify it and pay attention to relevant input which often is provided by teachers. This gives the learners an opportunity to modify their output, making collaborative activities important.

Cooper (1999) writes that an area clearly worthy of investigation is how second language learners acquire idioms. However, most of the research on idioms has

Involved native speakers of English.

Models of L1 idiom acquisition therefore offer a starting point234).Cooper (1998) states that "idiom acquisition research has uncovered a number of findings that have pedagogical implication for idiom instructionThe author mentions three competing hypotheses regarding how idioms are processed and these are developed into a systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom.

The first one, the literal first hypothesis, consists of two modes: one that processes the literal meaning and one that processes the figurative meaning of an idiom. The former is normally the active one while the latter comes into play when the literal meaning does not fit into the speech context.

The second one, the simultaneous processing hypothesis, claims that idioms are stored and retrieved in the mental lexicon as chunks. Literal and figurative meaning interact and the interpretation that best fits the context is sorted out.

The direct access model is the third one and it only makes use of the figurative meaning of an idiom. This proposes that a literal analysis of an idiomatic expression is very rare.

According to Gronk and Schweigert (1992), "no clearly superior theory for idiom processing has emerged, although support has been mustered for each of the three models. Cooper (1998) claims that six variables important for idiom comprehension and learning have been revealed. These variables will now be presented and summarized.

The first variable concerns the age of the learner. It reconnects to Piaget's theory of cognitive development – a child moves through different stages of mental development and he or she has to reach a certain level of maturity before being able to acquire certain knowledge. Lundahl (2009)

summarizes by stating that "Think before you speak works as an exhortation within this approach". Cooper (1998) states that young children up to the age of about nine generally tend to interpret idioms (and other figurative expressions) literally.

The second variable concerns teachers and their use of figurative language in classrooms. Idioms occupied the second place when the frequency of figurative expressions was examined, "so that by eighth grade 11.5 percent of a teacher's utterances, or about one out of ten, contained idioms .Since teachers quite frequently use idioms, they can limit learners' comprehension if they are interpreted literally.

Thirdly, the characteristics of an idiom can determine whether the acquisition of it is easy or not. Frozen idioms are learned more quickly than flexible idioms because they are heard more frequently in only one syntactic form rather than in several and are, therefore, internalized as a single lexical item The closeness between the idiom's literal and figurative meanings (the metaphoric transparency) is also an aspect that has to be taken into account.

The fourth variable is connected to the context in which the idioms are presented. Idioms that appear in a context are easier for learners to understand since they can make use of previous information to interpret the figurative meaning.

The fifth variable is that it can be helpful to group idioms according to a theme. Cooper (1998) suggests that it can be "according to the main word they contain, such as verbs" or "according to their underlying metaphorical themes" such as "argument is war, e.g., I've never won an argument with him.

The final variable concerns second language learners. Previous research has shown that idioms that were identical in the first and the target

language were the easiest to comprehend and produce. Similar idioms were produced with some interference from the first language while idioms that were completely different in both languages were the hardest both to comprehend and produce. The idioms that were comprehended and produced correctly "were frequently used in everyday speech, were transparent, and [...] had simple vocabulary structure.

All of these research findings on idiom acquisition have been used to create teaching suggestions and procedures that will be presented in section 4.3.3 A Variety of Intelligences.

2.6 Idioms for ESL

While research on defining, classifying, and processing idioms is plentiful, there is

Comparatively very little research on idioms as they relate to second language learning. Some of the earliest research on idioms and second language acquisition simply concluded that idioms were important for non-native speakers of English in order for them to sound fluent. However, in recent years, more research has been done on their importance to L2 proficiency.   to "increase learners linguistic repertoire they should devote a great deal of attention to…idioms…and even their Appropriate pronunciation and intonation".

2. 7 Idioms and transfer

Irujo is one of the few researchers who directly addressed idioms as they pertain to second language acquisition found that interference between the L1 and L2 was prominent. She explained that if idioms are more identical in form and meaning in both the first and second languages they become easier for the ESL learners to comprehend and produce.

As they begin to differentiate, it becomes more difficult for speakers to understand and produce them correctly. Usage of idioms that have no

resemblance between the L1 and L2 is extremely difficult, and most speakers judge these kinds of idioms as ungrammatical in the second language and simply avoid using them. It is equally difficult for the speakers to comprehend these idioms as the speaker usually tries to impose the grammar and syntax of the L1 on the target language.

Starting in the 50's researchers assumed that interlingual transfer was the most important factor in second language. They also believed that negative transfer could be overcome by simple repetition and reinforcement; which included idiom understanding and usage. However, by the mid 60's the emergence of generative grammar shifted the paradigm and established a new field of psycholinguistics (Irujo, S., 1986). This change brought with it a reduced focus on repetition and positive/negative transfer in language acquisition; instead, there was a focus on language as a creative process that needed learning strategies and an understanding of the target language structure for reducing errors in ESL students.

Since then there has been some back and forth on the importance of interference being an important factor in second language acquisition, but researchers have found that interference is, in fact, a substantial influence on the language learning process. While contrastive analysis, reinforcement, and habit formation have been disproven as a "magic bullet"

To overcoming the obstacles when learning a second language, subsequent research does support a moderate version of this theory. Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) propose that there is more difficulty in language a learning when the difference between the L1 and the L2 is only modest, as opposed to when the languages are very dissimilar due to interference. Substantial research has been done that supports the idea that interference and positive and negative transfer between the L1 and L2 greatly affect

the difficulty in language learning. In an experiment by Gass (1979) participants were able to use their L2 to correctly produce idioms that had the same form and meaning as the target L1. However, when the idioms began to become more and more different the participants were unable to produce a correct idiom in the second language. This demonstrates how much of an affect interference from the L1 has on the L2 when producing idioms.

Jordens (1977) and Kellerman (1977) conducted two studies in the Netherlands on idioms as they relate to second language acquisition. They asked second language learners to decide if correct and incorrect sentences that contained idioms were grammatical. In both of the experiments the participants judged the sentences to be ungrammatical even when the idiom in the sentence had an equivalent in their first language. The results of these studies showed that these participants were unwilling to use idioms as the language specific items they are. This showed how difficult idioms are to use and how resistant speakers can be to employ them due to this difficulty. However, these studies did not deal with production or comprehension of idioms, only with recognition. Additionally, they only used idioms as they relate to grammaticality judgments.

As I begin discussing the next study, I must first define a few more items that are relevant here. This study will discuss positive transfer which is when a speaker is able to use experience and information from their first language in helping them process information in the second language. Negative transfer is the opposite effect when the first language interferes with processing information in the second language.

In her paper, conducted an experiment where participants were tested on recognition, comprehension, recall, and production of idioms. She gave a four part test to twelve Spanish L1 participants that were advanced

English speakers. These participants were tested on completing an idioms with a missing word, translate an idioms from Spanish to English, defining the idiom, and lastly, to select the correct meaning of the idiom in a multiple choice test.

The participants were able to produce identical idioms better than similar or different

Idioms in the target language. The participants were also able to comprehend identical and similar idioms equally well and both better than different idioms. In comprehension of similar and identical idioms they demonstrated positive transfer from the L1 while also showing negative transfer from the L1 on production of similar and different idioms. Positive transfer is using information from the L1 to help correctly process information in the L2, while negative transfer is using information from the L1 incorrectly process information in the L2.

Irujo's study demonstrated that second language learners use their L1 to process idioms in the L2 which let them correctly identify, comprehend, and produce idioms that are the same in the L1 and L2. Idioms that are similar between the L1 and L2, but not identical, are just as easy to comprehend as the identical idioms, but are more difficult for language learners to produce.

This shows that the interference of the L1 help the learner process these idioms in the second language, but also produces negative transfer when trying to produce the same idioms. Finally, the different idioms that have no related counterpart in the L1 are both difficult to comprehend and produce.

In Irujo's study, the subjects had measured the student's TOEFL scores before testing to ensure that all the participants met a minimum level of English proficiency, but not for the purposes of comparing the standardized test score to the results of the experiment. Therefore, while

the study was very enlightening regarding learning strategies and L1 – L2 for interference for idioms, it was not able to examine language proficiency by comparing TOEFL scores and idiomatic knowledge results.

The author acknowledges that a study of level of proficiency compared to idiomatic knowledge should be conducted with more diverse levels of English learners than were used. Irujo (1986) surmises that these results can be taken to mean that overtly teaching idioms to ESL students that have a similar meaning in their L1 would be possible and beneficial. The students can also be instructed to use their knowledge of idioms in their L1 to comprehend and produce idioms in the target language. However, Irujo points out that the effect is diminished as the cultures of the two languages diverge, as the common idioms are likely to be proportionally dissimilar. This effect is compounded in ESL settings as the student body is likely to be comprised of several different L1s with varying areas of overlap with English. However, the teacher can still instruct the students on the how to recognize and process idioms in the L2 to obtain their non-literal meanings in order to increase the students' proficiency level and to sound more fluent.

2.8 Idiomatic Expressions

It is a well-known fact that the English language is very idiomatic. The idiomaticity can be heard for example in the daily communication, in which a great variety of idiomatic expressions are used. What is meant by the term idiomatic expression is that the meaning of the whole is not transparent from its parts (Thornbury 2002). Even though Thornbury defines an idiomatic expression as a "whole", both multi-word items and single words can be idiomatic (Thornbury 2002). Furthermore, almost all types of expressions can be idiomatic and the context plays an important role in defining the idiomaticity. For example, the word grab is not

idiomatic in grab my hand but is in the idea didn't grab him. In this paper six different idiomatic expression types are presented: phrasal verbs, collocations, proverbs, metaphors, similes and, of course, idioms. Definitions of all the categories are provided below.

According to Larsen-Freeman (1991) phrasal verbs consist of two or three parts and they include a verb and a particle, which often is a preposition. They can be either transitive (cannot take an object) or intransitive (can take an object). Although there are plenty of idiomatic phrasal verbs, such as to bring up (to raise a child) or to hand on (to give to another person), most phrasal verbs are not idiomatic.

Collocations are "related word pairs, joint immediately or through prepositions" (Bolshakov and Gelbukh 2000). In other words, collocations are words that often go together, such as fire escape. It is often said that it is sometimes extremely difficult to make a distinction between an idiomatic collocation (for example, Achille's heel) and an idiom. For example in Falcão (n.d.) it is stated that idioms and collocations often overlap but, nevertheless, idioms are more fixed than collocations. However, Mäntylä (2004) argues that making that distinction is not so difficult because the literal meaning of the collocations is often salient.

Proverbs are expressions that teach a moral lesson or "some traditionally held truth" (The Phrase Finder 2010). They are usually separated from idioms because their idiomatic meaning can sometimes be understood from their literal meaning and also because moral lessons are not included in idioms. As examples of often heard proverbs a leopard cannot change it spots and a rolling stone gathers no moss could be mentioned.

Metaphors and similes are very alike and the single difference between the two is the use of like. In metaphors something is said to be like something, whereas in similes like is not used. For example, her eyes are

like plates is clearly a metaphor and men are pigs is a simile. Chiappe et al. (2003: 51) say that both "metaphors and similes are devices used by poets and lay people to express idiomatic comparisons" and that both of them can be used to express all kinds of idiomatic comparisons. In some studies (see for example Runosalo 2005) similes have been considered to be one category of idioms.

Finally, also idioms are, of course, idiomatic expressions. There have been many theories and much debate among researchers about the definition of an idiom. Referring to the disagreement on definitions, Mäntylä (2004: 36) states that it is impossible to define an idiom in "an undebatable way". It is very difficult to decide whether a multi-word item is actually an idiom or another type of expression, such as a proverb or a collocation. According to Mäntylä (2004), most theories share the idea of idioms being multi-word items and having an idiomatic meaning. Moreover, many theories see idioms as fixed phrases with no or little room for changes (Runosalo 2005). Furthermore, some researchers have categorized idioms further, for example, in semi-idioms, idiomatic idioms and pure idioms according to their fixedness or idiomaticity. Idioms like to kick the bucket and to move Heaven and Earth are widely known and used.

2.9 Idiomatic expressions to foreign language students

The ability to recognize and use idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency. For example, Chambers (1997) discusses the concept of fluency in her article. According to him the term fluency is difficult to define but often it is taken as an ability to speak either in a native-like way or naturally whether sounding native-like or not. Native speakers use idiomatic expressions frequently so by using idiomatic expressions language learners sound more native-like and therefore are more fluent in their speech. Furthermore, Kainulainen (2006) as well

states that it is necessary to use idiomatic expressions in order to be fluent and natural in speaking a language. Moreover, in contemporary language textbooks idioms and other type of idiomatic language are present (Runosalo 2005) which indicates that the knowledge on idiomatic language is in general considered as important.

Mäntylä (2004: 181) 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. However, it can be argued that as the idiomatic language (e.g. idioms) is a central part of English and its use affects the fluency of speech, students should be encouraged to use at least the most common idioms and other idiomatic expressions.

In the Framework Curriculum for Senior Secondary School 2003 (Lukionopetussuunnitelmanperusteet 2003) it is clearly stated that after studying foreign languages in the upper secondary school, the students should be able to communicate as is characteristic to the language and to the culture. Furthermore, the Framework Curriculum also states that after the foreign language studies, the proficiency level of the students who study English as an A1-language and have started their English studies at the age of 9 should be B2.1, adapted from the Common European Framework of References (2001). The students on the B2.1 level should be able to use wide vocabulary, including idioms, in their speech and they should be able to use wide vocabulary and complex sentence structures in

their writing. (The Framework Curriculum for Senior Secondary School 2003: 242-243).

2.10 Idiomatic expressions and foreign language teaching and learning

Idiomatic expressions in foreign language teaching and learning have become a topic of studies just recently. For a long time idiomatic expressions were not considered to be important and thus idioms and other idiomatic expressions did not get the attention they deserved. However, the view has changed and the importance of idiomaticity is now widely recognized.

Outside Finland, the topic has been studied by, for example, Nezhad and Hashemian (2006) who tested the metaphor comprehension and productive skills of Persian university students. The study was conducted so that the participants (juniors) did a pretest before joining a course where expressions such as idioms and metaphors were taught. After the course they took a posttest and the two results were compared. The results showed that after the course the participants were able to understand and produce more metaphorical texts, which indicates that the metaphorical competence can be improved in a classroom.

In addition, Elkiliç (2008) was interested in discovering how well Turkish students understand transparent (those whose meaning can be easily discovered e.g. to bury a hatchet) and opaque (those whose meaning cannot be easily seen e.g. to wet behind the ears) idioms. The data was gathered from intermediate and advanced students who were asked to write the English equivalents for 40 Turkish idioms and the Turkish equivalences for 40 English idioms. Elkiliç found that transparent idioms were understood better than the opaque ones. However, the easiest ones seemed to be the most common idioms, both transparent and opaque.

To summarize, the idiomaticity of language has started to gain more interest across the world on different language research areas. For example, there has been a growing amount of research on idioms and language learning and teaching. In Finland, studies have been conducted on the recognition and interpretation of idioms, on the ways in which idioms are presented in language textbooks and, in addition, on the teachers' views on teaching idioms. However, a study on the production of idioms and other idiomatic expressions is lacking and this is the gap the present study starts to fill.

2.11 Idioms and Phraseology in English

What represents an idiom, a proverb, a conventionalized expression, or a grammatically irregular unit of language is notoriously—famously—difficult to define and hence to identify. Significant and ongoing lexicographic efforts to do so have been undertaken at least since the 1940s. Not surprisingly, such phrases and expressions can be challenging to explain in teaching, systematize for making and using learners' dictionaries, or thematically develop in textbooks. With the emergence of computer technology and the proliferation of large and analyzable language corpora in a range of texts and genres, broad expectations arose that the conundrum of defining and identifying idiomatic and phrasal expressions could potentially be accorded a measure of systematicity. However, perhaps counter-intuitively, analyses of language corpora have further added to the typological and terminological stew: computerized examinations of both spoken and written language data have shed light on the enormity, variability, and complexity of idiomatic and recurrent expressions.

In the 1970s and 1980s, studies in phraseology and lexicology allowed for far-reaching insights into lexicon-grammar interconnectedness. Unlike traditional grammars, analyses of idiomatic constructions do not

assume that a clear-cut division between lexicon and grammar exists. All conventionalized expressions and phrases can be as small as single words or short phrases (e.g., forwards, backwards, silence!, bling, whatever, in the bag, not on your life, a piece of cake) or as long as complete sentences (e.g., a fool and his money are soon parted; you don't say; actions speak louder than words; or every cloud has silver lining). Depending on their meanings and syntactic length, idiomatic phrases can form lexicon-grammatical continua that can be treated as whole-unit structures.

Language research and analyses have long established that a great number of linguistic combinations simply sound "right" to proficient users of English and that collocations are very common in both speaking and writing . More importantly, however, combinations that are infrequent or hardly ever found may sound unnatural and wrong, even when they are grammatically correct (e.g., ?collect all your chickens in one basket, ?speed down, ?quick food, or ?be upset over spilled milk).

A formal and relatively early definition of idioms was advanced by Adam Makkai (1972, p. 23), and was later adopted in several editions of the Oxford English Dictionary in the 1970s and 1980s:

A form of expression, grammatical construction, phrase, etc., peculiar to a language; a peculiarity of phraseology approved by the usage of language, often having a significance other than its grammatical or logical one.

In English language textbooks and dictionaries, this classical definition is still widely adopted, although usually not stated. Numerous examples of idioms and phrasal expressions that are typically provided tend to present them as "peculiarities" and often include such items as to take the bull by the horns, a hot potato, bring up, get away with, a penny for your thoughts, at the drop of a hat, back to the drawing board, barking up the

wrong tree, beat around the bush, best of both worlds, burn the midnight oil, cost an arm and a leg, or can't judge a book by its cover. In many contexts, learners enjoy English proverbs and sayings due to their oddity and cultural flavor regardless of whether these examples are actually useful in language comprehension or production or whether they are frequent or rare.

In examinations of lexicalized phrases and sentences, it has now been established that conventionalized expressions (e.g., can I come in? need any help?, what's for dinner?, call me later, or not block intersection) are deployed to convey a possibly infinite array of meanings. Another complication is that these language stretches cannot be assembled in the process of communication (Nattinger&DeCarrico, 1994; Pawley &Syder, 1983). A defining characteristic of idioms and formulaic sentence stems is that their meanings and discourse functions cannot be predicted from the meanings of their components, such as words or parts of words (Hinkel, 2004, 2009, 2015).

More importantly, the methodological approach to analyzing language and discourse in terms of lexical sentence stems and idiomatic phrases cannot explain the structure and meanings of conventional and social formulas, idioms, and collocations (sequences of two or more words that are often used together in speech or writing), e.g., feel free, express bus/train, give an example, give a hand, do homework, break the rules/law, take action, take a chance, take an exam, make a difference/mess/mistake/noise, make an effort, hard left/right, hard rain, heavy coat/sweater/breakfast, or light suitcase/meal/ workload). According to some counts, idiomatic phrases, formulaic expressions, collocations, lexical sentence stems, and multiword units number in hundreds of thousands.

For second language (L2) learners, idiomatic phrases and constructions have almost always presented an area of difficulty. 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. To be sure, 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 transparent, "the problem is that native speakers do not say it in that way" (Shin & Nation, 2008, p. 340), for example, *fast wind or *fall into sleep/love, instead of strong wind or fall asleep/in love. 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 (L1).

By and large, phrases, expressions, and collocations are learned by hearing them being used frequently enough by other speakers or by reading them in various written texts. Idiomatic structures are usually encountered in everyday language and acquired in the process of communication, be it oral or written. Specifically, regular, frequent, and common word combinations that occur repeatedly can help learners identify and establish linguistic patterns that can be then stored and accessed in both language reception and production.

This paper takes a look at a few historical perspectives and classifications of idiomatic phrases and expressions in English, as well as their uses in conversations, speaking, writing, and teaching. To extend this discussion, a few teaching activities and ideas can be further designed for learning and using idiomatic phrases in the classroom and beyond it. Because practically all idiomatic and conventionalized phrases are language and

culture-specific, their instructional applications can contribute to learners' strategic fluency development. In general terms, teaching idiomatic language components can lead to improvements in learners' receptive and productive skills in various contexts.

2.12 Classifications of Idioms

As with practically all complex linguistic phenomena, various types of classifications and organizing schemes have been devised and debated to account for an extremely large body of idioms and conventionalized expressions. In the 1920s, Harold Palmer first addressed the utility of employing ubiquitous phrases and even whole sentences in learning English and developing conversational fluency (Palmer, 1925). According to Palmer's early findings, one of the fastest ways—if not the fastest way—to acquire facility in speaking was to memorize recurrent conversational expressions that could be useful recurrently. For a beginner, Palmer stated, learning to speak in another language required the essential guiding principle: "Memorize perfectly the largest number of common and useful word groups.

In his subsequent work, Palmer (1933) identified and classified an enormous number of commonly occurring lexical phases and phraseological units into content- and function-based groups that he called clusters. For the purposes of his pedagogical focus on practical language teaching and learning, Palmer also coined the term collocation, which, however, did not receive much notice until the 1950s. His definition of expressions and collocations for teaching was later adopted in many works on idiomatic phrases and has remained foundational to this day: "successions of words [that] must or should be learnt ... as an integral whole or independent entity, rather than by the process of piecing together their component parts" .

A seminal and groundbreaking work on idiom structure and meanings was further advanced by Adam Makkai (1972). Makkai divides idioms into two major classes: idioms of encoding (or phrasal/lexemic idioms) when their meanings are transparent and deducible, and idioms of decoding (i.e., semantic idioms, with unpredictable meanings). In this taxonomy, poly-morphemic words are categorized as idioms only when at least two free morphemes are present (e.g., free+way, sea+horse, or car+port), thus making the meanings opaque. On the other hand, the words that consist of free and bound morphemes together are not considered to be idiomatic because they require morphological knowledge and rules to decode their meanings, thus make their meaning more or less componential and deducible. For example, the meanings of such words as pre+view, im+possible, or bi+cycle that include one free and one bound morpheme can be decoded, even if approximately, based on the meanings of their components. Therefore, these cannot be classified as idiomatic.

One of Makkai's (1972, p. 120) primary classificatory concerns is whether the compound meanings of words and/or their constituents can "potentially mislead" or "misinform" the language user. For instance, in the case of free morpheme compounds, as in hot+dog, ball+ Park, or straw+berry, the meanings of the entire words are not deductible. Such frequent and commonly-used idioms and phrases are generally not subject to much variability and are considered to be stable expressions "peculiar to a language". In addition, in Makkai's classification, many semantic idioms can be partial or complete sentences with a great number of social and cultural functions such as requests (would you/do you mind), warnings (watch your step), invitations (drop by any time), promises (I swear!), and apologies (so sorry, never again). These are referred to as cultural idioms with pragmatic meanings.

The rigidity of form is a characteristic of only some, but certainly not all, idiomatic expressions. In fact, Cowie and Mackin's (1975) definition of idioms is probably one of the simplest and most comprehensive: "an idiom is a combination of two or more words which function as a unit of meaning". Unlike other definitions, Cowie and Mackin do not consider single-word entities idiomatic largely because individual words can be identified, taught, and learned as vocabulary items. When it comes to teaching and learning idiomatic expressions, however, the first order of priority is to figure out their meanings and then to determine whether they are rigid or flexible in their forms (e.g., take the bull by the horns or see you later/tomorrow/next week/next time). According to Cowie and Mackin, teaching and learning vocabulary extend beyond single words to longer units of language, from short phrases to complete sentences. To date, dozens of corpus analyses have largely established that, in fact, most idiomatic expressions and multiword units are variable in their forms and, to some extent, in their meanings.

In idiom classifications, phrasal verbs have a prominent place and have deservedly gained much attention. First of all, their numbers are so large that their exact or even proximate counts are unknown. The protracted debates of whether these units should be considered idioms, phrases, or merely extended vocabulary entities have not been resolved, and possibly, will never be An excellent case in point is that two highly-regarded and classical dictionaries published by Cambridge University Press and Oxford University Press, since the 1980s and to this day, have chosen to release dictionary compendia of phrasal verbs as separate volumes to supplement their main dictionaries of English. A key feature of phrasal verb examinations and categorizations is that they have traditionally presented a great deal of difficulty for language learners and, by extension, for teachers and material writers.

In their pioneering research in the uses of idiomatic phrases, Pawley and were among the first to draw on large computerized databases of real-life language uses. The goal of the Pawley and Syder study is to solve what they call the "puzzle of native-speaker fluency". The puzzle is that native-speakers can produce and understand language with remarkable fluency and speed in a vast number of contexts and settings without pausing or slowing down. According to these researchers, proficient language users thus demonstrate their "ability to produce fluent stretches of spontaneous connected discourse; there is a puzzle here in that human capacities for encoding novel speech in advance or while speaking appear to be severely limited, yet speakers commonly produce fluent multi-clause utterances which exceed these limits." Based on the findings of their studies, Pawley and Syder conclude that "fluent and idiomatic control of language rests to a considerable extent on knowledge of a body of 'sentence stems' which are 'institutionalized' or 'lexicalized.'" Sentence stems are idiomatic and phraseological units of language in which grammatical form and meaning are largely fixed. The fixed elements in fact represent culturally or pragmatically recognized idiomatic expressions, concepts, and phrases.

Investigative reports on the uses of recurrent and frequent idiomatic phrases and units emerged in force in the 1990s and 2000s. In this body of research, such units are variously called idioms, idiomatic expressions, collocations, fixed phrases/strings, lexicalized sentence stems, chunks, prefabricated (or prefab) constructions. The main reason for the increased attention to these phrases and expressions has to do primarily with the proliferations of electronic language corpora that have allowed for identifying and quantifying recurrent combinations of words and phrases that occur in real language production.

Although there is probably no single encompassing definition of idioms, idiomatic expressions, collocations, phrases and lexicalized stems typically include:

• Frequently recurring and culture-specific expressions with opaque meanings (e.g., cost an arm and a leg; call it a day; better late than never; or in this light…)

• Collocations, that is, words that often occur together but with flexible and variable components (e.g., take place/part/a test/a break; ready to go/start/close [verb]; easy to learn; give advice/suggestion(s); at a discount/receive a discount; hard-earned money/hard-won success/victory)

• fixed phrases with specific and well-defined meanings, as well as phrasal verbs (e.g., break in/out/down/up/into; in the lurch; out of place; back door; price increase/ decrease; high/low price; a full plate)

• figurative expressions (such as metaphors) (e.g., The world is my oyster; couch potato; heart of gold; heart of stone; melting pot; you are my sunshine; the more, the merrier; not on your life; stand out like a sore thumb)

• Conversational routines and pre-patterned speech (e.g., - Excuse me, could you tell me where xxx is?
- Up the stairs on your left.
- I am sorry I am late. - No problem/No worries.
- What a beautiful day! Finally, some sunshine. We've had a lot of rain lately.)

• set and rigidly ordered phrases (in which components are fixed in a certain order) (e.g., here we go; will that be all?; is there something else? by car/train/bus; by mail; washing machine, table cloth; silver spoon;

stay/be out of sight; be at one's wits' end; ahead of time; what in the world)

• Proverbs (e.g., two wrongs don't make a right; the squeaky wheel gets the grease; better late than never; no man is an island)

• Culturally-bound sayings (e.g., a fish out of water; right as rain; count chickens before they hatch; not my cup of tea; the pen is mightier than the sword; Rome wasn't built in a day)

Without question, the definitions of idioms, collocations, and phrasal expressions vary in different schools of thought. However, the accepted basic concept is that they are multiword units of language—words that are connected to other words—that are remembered and used as single lexical [vocabulary] items (Peters, 1983).

2.13 Idiomatic Expressions in Speaking and Conversations

Learning to understand and produce spoken language means being able to understand how language components combine and interact to produce meaning and discourse. L2 learners need to become skilled users of vocabulary, phrases, and syntactic constructions. They need to build their spoken discourse repertoire in order to participate in conversations, formal and casual alike.

Participating in conversations requires engaging in a range of complex cognitive and linguistic tasks. In social settings, uses of language convey personal views and attitudes, as well as social values and relationships, and communicative goals (Carbaugh, 1989, 2007; Hinkel, 2014; Nation 2008, 2009). Conversations are highly structured exchanges that progress along predictable and routine patterns, with participants adapting, adjusting and readjusting, and tailoring what they are saying—or going to say—depending on the social setting and flow of discourse. In the course of a conversation, participants' speech has to remain reasonably

grammatically and phonetically intelligible, culturally structured and organized (e.g., turn-taking), cohesive, well-paced (e.g., openings, pauses, and closings), socially and contextually pertinent, and appropriately worded (e.g., politeness).

In idiom classifications going as far back as back the 1920s, various sets of recurrent and conventionalized phrases are typically classified by their communicative functions, such as greetings, requests, apologies, or invitations. Most proficient and fluent language users know that conversational exchanges are conventionalized and routinized, and they are able to employ idiomatic expressions at particular junctures in the speech flow to achieve their communicative goals (Coulmas, 1981). Spoken routines and idiomatic sequences can be utilized in an extraordinary range of functional contexts and for a practically unlimited variety of communicative and social purposes (Swan, 2006; Ur, 2014). However, in addition to being able to deploy conversational expressions appropriately and in context, language users need to be able to grasp the speaker's purpose. If the conversational function is not identified correctly, then the communicative goal may not be achieved (Cowie, 1992; Fernando, 1996).

Based on extensive analyses of social interactions, many analysts have definitively concluded that it is not just conversational idioms, expressions, and responses to them that are highly conventionalized, but also, by their very nature, social interactions "employ a number of standardized and stereotyped procedures" that mark and characterize them (Nattinger&DeCarrico, 1992, p. 114).

A vast body of research on interactional language uses has demonstrated unambiguously that conversational language and discourse are highly routinized and formulaic. Some studies have found, for example, that in casual conversations most exchanges are prefabricated and extremely

stereotyped (Ajimer, 1996; Coulmas, 1981; Levinson, 1983). For example, in their investigation of spoken and conversational interactions, Carter and McCarthy (1995, 2006) identified an enormous array of conversational and pragmatic formulas and phrases that are continually adjusted to suite specific discourse and social contexts.

Numerous research reports have determined that much language acquisition, be it first or second, entails the acquisition of conventionalized expressions and repeated routines. In the short-term, repetition and rehearsal serve to promote the development of longer-term sequence retention and eventual language acquisition (Milton, 1998, 1989; Yorio, 1986). Teaching and learning spoken and conversational sequences and idiomatic formula requires frequent opportunities for repeated practice. This is especially true with regard to most phrases and combinations that tend to present areas of difficulty for learners (e.g., phrasal verbs, make-collocations and get-passives, as in get married/it done).

2.14 Idiomatic and Conventionalized Expressions in Writing

In English, what is appropriate and inappropriate in writing and written discourse is similarly highly conventionalized (Swales, 1990). In much language teaching, a great deal of attention, time, and resources are devoted to fostering learners' facility with various types of writing, and particularly so academic writing. Typically, academic writing instruction focuses on such fundamental features of written academic discourse as the idea organization and information flow (e.g., introduction, body, and conclusion), the presence and the placement of the thesis statement, and the structure of the paragraph (e.g., the topic sentence). In research on academic writing, many conventional and highly predictable phrases that mark discourse junctures are called "institutionalized" because they occur

more frequently in certain types of texts than in others (Horwath, 1998; Pawley &Syder, 1983; Swales, 1990).

In the production of written academic prose, using conventionalized expressions and portions of sentences is not a language skill that is innate in L1 users and writers. Nor is academic writing a universal ability that most (or even many) L1 writers come by in the course of their daily life. Learning to write academic texts comes about in the process of schooling and education. Both L1 and L2 academic writers have to acquire an extensive repertoire of language skills, such as idea structuring, grammar, and vocabulary. It is widely recognized in language research and pedagogy that developing academic writing abilities takes many years— and sometimes longer than a decade. A vast amount of evidence has shown that L2 academic writers have a great deal of difficulty becoming proficient users of idioms and institutionalized phrases, without which formal written prose probably cannot be produced.

At present, much is known about idiomatic constructions essential in L1 and L2 academic writing, such as noun phrases (e.g., recent discussions/debates/reports/publications…, an important fact/issue/consideration is…, a close/detailed examination/study…) or impersonal it-constructions (e.g., it is well-known/likely/possible/unclear). Additionally, considerable experience has been accumulated in how to teach various idiomatic sentence stems, conventionalized expressions, "long chunks" of text. These attributes of academic writing need to be explicitly and persistently taught because they represent requisite (and prescribed) characteristics of the Anglo-American academic genre. For example, even educated L2 learners who do not have many opportunities to produce formal English prose may not be aware of formulaic expressions that usually mark explicit thesis

statements, such as this paper addresses/examines/focuses on… or the main points/questions/issues are …).

In writing instruction, working with conventionalized written expressions can take the form of text and paragraph models and examples of paragraphs and essays to demonstrate their idiomatic elements. For instance, academic phrases can be useful in instruction on such discourse functions as to express a point of view, support a position, develop an argument, or present a research finding. The stereotypical language of academic and other types of writing represents a relatively well-covered set of discourse moves and their attendant phrasing.

When teaching linguistic patterns for L2 writing, teachers may draw on many examples from speaking and establish parallels to help learners increase their awareness of frequent phrasal occurrences. As learners expand their stock of essential expressions expected in L2 writing, writing instruction can co-occur with supplemental work on grammar and vocabulary. Using stock expressions and short sentences in academic writing is probably one of the most efficient ways of expanding L2 writers' repertoire of word combinations and formulas. Conventionalized expressions can be particularly profitable when they include variations of their discrete elements in flexible constructions. It is safe to say that even advanced L2 learners continue to make grammar and vocabulary errors in their writing. An important advantage of using formulaic expressions in academic writing is that these units are likely to be more grammatically and lexically accurate than those that have to be assembled based on a myriad of rules.

2.15 Idiomatic Expressions and Language Teaching

Despite the attention that idiomatic expressions and phrases have received in research, in teaching materials, these units of language are still relatively less commonplace than, say, vocabulary and grammar. Due

to their frequency in both spoken and written language, idiomatic formulas and repeated word-combinations can be of great value to learners at practically any level of proficiency. One essential feature of expressions and phrases is that they include more than one word or a meaningful unit, and for this reason alone, they require more work and practice. Over time, however, explicit teaching can help learners to address matters of lexical retention and to expand their language repertoire, it is our ability to use lexical phrases that helps us to speak with fluency. This prefabricated speech has both the advantages of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers (and learners) to direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse, rather than keeping it narrowly focused on individual words as they are produced.

Numerous idiomatic phrases can be accessible to beginning or intermediate learners. As has been mentioned, most idioms and conventionalized phrases have non-compositional meanings that cannot be derived from those of their constituent parts. However, frequent and common expressions can be somewhat transparent. When it comes to formulas and collocations, a reliable rule of thumb is that the shorter the phrase is, the more likely it is to be easy to remember and use. The best example of transparent and memorable units are those that consist of two words. This principle applies to formulaic phrases of practically any kind, including those that consist of a function word and a content word or two content words.

Another important consideration for teaching is that short collocations and phrases are encountered far more frequently than longer ones, and thus, can be easier to practice. Examples of frequent phrases and expressions can be located anywhere: go fishing/ shopping/hiking, take turns, have breakfast/lunch/dinner, pay attention, good day, make/ spend money, catch a bus/train/flight, once a week, once in a while, day and

night, all day long, every time, well said, right on the mark, hard work, (right) on time, make a mistake, find/take a seat, do a favor, help out, a little help, do you mind, good luck, bar of soap/chocolate, candy bar, and hit or miss.

An example of student practice or a quiz on common collocations and expressions is presented below. A pivot word is the main/focal word in the collocation and its accompanying word(s) (one or more), for example, give advice, give time, give a chance, give an impression, or give a hand. The pivot words can be as basic as make, take, come, call, carry, go, eat, or live for beginners, and more advanced, such as assume, achieve, conclude, define, denote, follow, increase, introduce, presume, provide, reach, refer, or support, for more proficient learners. A pivot word is presented in the left column, and learners have to come up with as many collocates (accompanying words) as they can during a particular amount of time, say, 5-10 minutes. This practice can also be enjoyable and useful when assigned to small groups of 2-5, and then see which group has come up with more phrases than the other.

Part Two: Related Previous Studies

A few studies have been conducted on idioms in foreign language teaching and learning. For instance, Runosalo (2005) compared three books of two upper secondary school English textbook series (Blue Planet and Culture Café) and the way idioms were presented in them. She found that the books of both series had various idioms in both texts and exercises (BP had 64 and CC 92). Culture Café is a newer series than Blue Planet and Runosalo suggests that it might explain the difference as well as the chapter on idiomsin the first book of the Culture Café series. Even though both series contained idioms, rarely were the idioms taught explicitly and little chance was given to the students to practice their use.

In her comprehensive Master's Thesis, Kainulainen (2006) studied several aspects of teaching and learning idioms. Her main aim was to test the idiom recognition of third graders in national Finnish upper secondary schools and in IB Diploma Programme by giving them a list of idioms to recognize. In addition to the idiom recognition test, Kainulainen also gave a brief look at two English textbook series (In Touch and English Update) to see how much attention was drawn to idioms in them. Furthermore, she interviewed foreign language teachers on their opinions on teaching idioms.

In the idiom recognition test, Kainulainen found that Finnish upper secondary school students know idioms quite well, with an average of 13.6 out of 20. The students in the IB Diploma Programrecognized more idioms (15.48/20), which is not surprising taking into account that all the teaching in the IB Diploma Program is done in English. Furthermore, in the textbooks idioms were dealt with differently. While in In Touch idioms were often a theme and the series had an exercise type called "idioms", in English Update no clear teaching of idioms was found. Kainulainen suggested that in both books the authentic texts probably included idioms but, unlike in In Touch, no attention was drawn to them in English Update.

In addition to Kainulainen, also Ylisirniö (2009) studied English teachers' attitudes towards teaching idioms to Finnish upper secondary school students. Both studies showed that most teachers think that at least implicit teaching of idioms is important. However, some of the teachers Ylisirniö interviewed did not encourage their students to use idioms in their writing because of a high risk of misusing them. On the contrary, the students were advised not to use idioms on the assumption that they would not know how to use them. Additionally, in Ylisirniö's study it became clear that some teachers think that teaching upper secondary

school students to use idioms in addition to recognizing them is neither useful nor necessary. Kainulainen also discovered that, according to the teachers, time constraints limit the possibilities to teach idioms, which was seen as a problem by some teachers but not all.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the following methods of the study, description of sample and the instruments, validity, reliability and data analysis procedures. The study adopted the descriptive analytical method. Two instrumentsis used as primary tools for data collecting methods in this study (questionnaire to teachers of English, diagnostic test to studentsof English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages).

3.1Tools of the Study

The researcher adopted two tools to collect the information of this study. The first tool includes the questionnaire which was given to 30 teachers of English language at some Sudanese Universities whom will be selected randomly. The second tool comprises the diagnostic testwhich wasdistributed to fourth year students of English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages.

3.1.1 The First Tool (Questionnaire)

The first tool is a questionnaire which was distributed to the teachers from both sexes. This questionnaire includes a covering page which introduces the topic of research identifies the researcher. It uses liker 5-point scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree). A questionnaire will design based on the questions of the study. The questions of the study were turn to statements that provide

suggested answers from the teachers at university level were supposed to select the options which correspond to theirresponses.

3.1.2 The Second Tool (Diagnostic Test)

The second tool is a diagnostic test which containsquestions. The items correspond directly to the hypotheses of the study. The diagnostic testis distributed to fourth year students of English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages. The answers of the test are treated statistically for the purpose of findings. The aim of diagnostic test is to diagnose the area of difficulties that encounter fourth year students in understanding English idioms.

3.2. Population of the First Tool (Questionnaire)

The populations for this study were university staff members at some Sudanese universities. The researcher is used the simple random sampling to select the population of the study.

3.3The Sample of the First Tool (Questionnaire)

The study sample respondents will differ according to the following characteristics:

- The respondents according to their age:
  (Less than 25 - {26 – 35} –   {36- 45} – {46- 60} above 60)
- The respondents according to gender:
  (Male, Female).
- The respondents according to Academic qualifications:
  (PhD, M.A, B.A, Dip)
- The respondents according to their experience years:
  ({1-5 years} -   {6-10 years} {11-15 years} - {above 15 years}).

3.4 Population of Second Tool (Diagnostic Test)

The subject for this study was fourth year students of English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages; the researcher will use the simple random sampling to the select the population of the study.

3.5 The Sample of the Second Tool (Diagnostic Test)

The sample of the second instruments was students of English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science, College of Languages. Who were given the test; they were two sections which it was measure students' ability.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Research Tools

.6.1Validity of the Questionnaire3

The questionnaire was judged by three Ph.D. referees who were specialists in the study field of English. Some of the referees made some amendments, and others recommended that the questionnaire is reasonable in terms of items . In this case , the researcher will revise all amendments, and some of typing mistakes on his questionnaire were corrected.

3.6.2 Statistical Reliability and Validity of Questionnaire

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement will use 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.

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
	82	12

3.6.3 Validity of Diagnostic Test

In order to check the apparent validity for the study test and validation of its statements according to the formulation and explanation, the questionnaire will be checked by three Ph.D. holding referees who are specialists in the study field. Some of the referees will make some suggestions. In any way, the researcher will be studied all suggestions.

3.6.4 Reliability of Diagnostic Test

The observation heck list is reliable when it gives consistent result if it is reapplied in the same conditions Brown and Rogers (2002: 241). The researcher piloted the tools to calculate the reliability of thediagnostic test.

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Questions
	75	4

3.7 Summary

This chapter has discussed the research methodology and the research tools adopted for data collection. The chapter has provided a detailed description of all the stepts and procedures followed in each tools, including population, sample, validitiy and reliability of each instruments.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire which was given to 30 respondents who represent the teachers' community in Sudanese Universities and diagnostic test was distributed to 30 students of English at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science– College of Languages

4.1 The Responses to the Questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire of the 30 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 (30), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists 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.

Statement No. (1): Arab learners are confused in dealing with English idioms due to its difficulty.

Table No (4.1)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	13	43.4	43.3	43.3
Agree	14	46.7	46.7	90.0
Neutral	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.1)
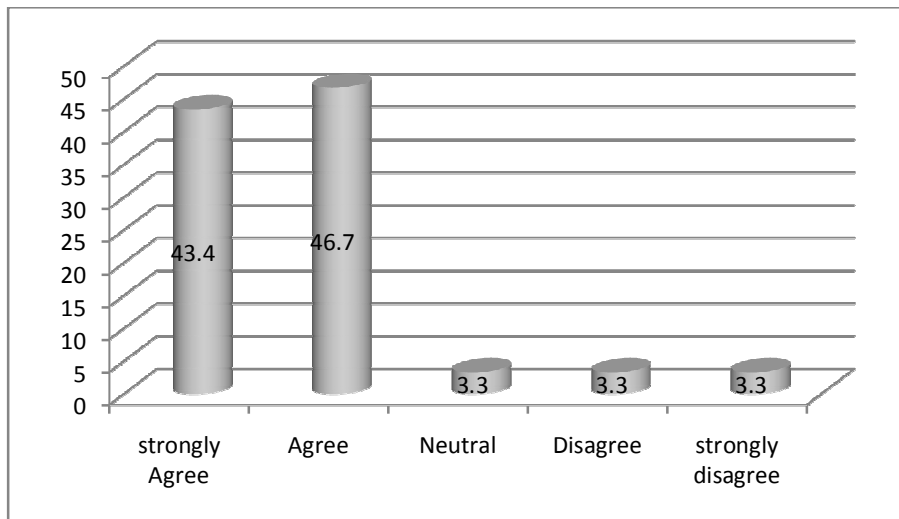
With reference to table (4.1) and figure (4.1) regarding the statement "Arab learners are confused in dealing with English idioms due to its difficulty ". It's clear that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 43.4%, agree turned out to be 46.7%neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only 3.3%.This demonstrates that Arab learners should be well- trained in dealing with idioms.

Statement No. (2): Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms.

Table No (4.2)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	11	36.7	36.7	36.7
Agree	16	53.4	53.3	90.0
Neutral	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.2)
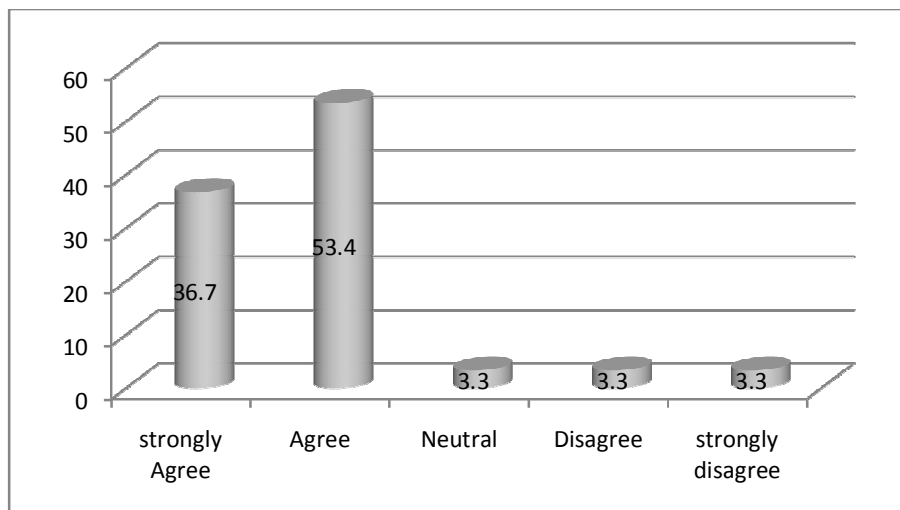
With reference to table (4.2) and figure (4.2) concerning the statement "Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms". It's clear that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 36.7%, agree turned out to be 53.4%neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only 3.3%.This demonstrates that teachers should be well- trained in using English idioms.

Statement No. (3): The failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance.

Table No (4.3)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
Agree	22	73.4	73.3	83.3
Neutral	3	10.0	10.0	93.3
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.3)
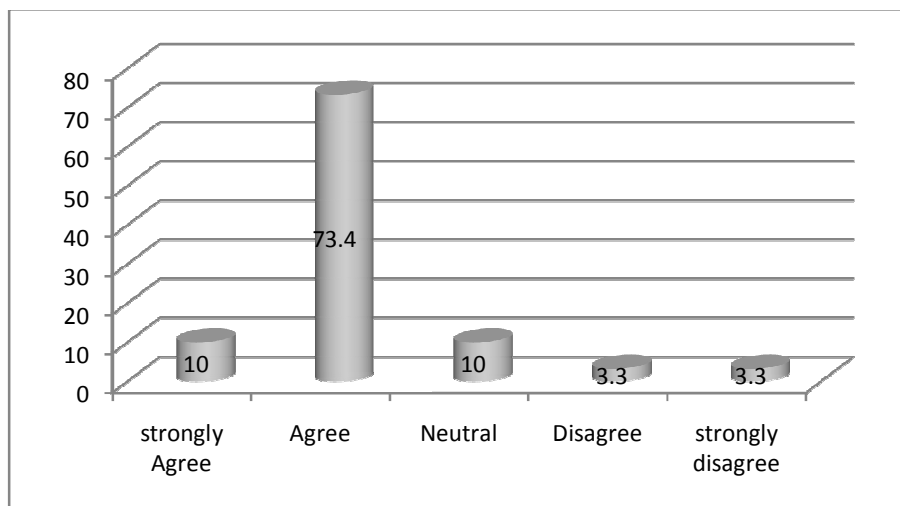
With regard to table (4.3) and figure (4.3) concerning the statement "The failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance."It's observed that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 10.0%, agree turned out to be73.4%, neutral is 10.0%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 3.3%.This justifies the idea that, students should be well- trained in using idiomatic expressions.

Statement No. (4): Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions.

Table No (4.4)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	6	20.0	20.0	20.0
Agree	14	46.7	46.7	66.7
Neutral	4	13.3	13.3	80.0
Disagree	2	6.7	6.7	86.7
strongly disagree	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.4)
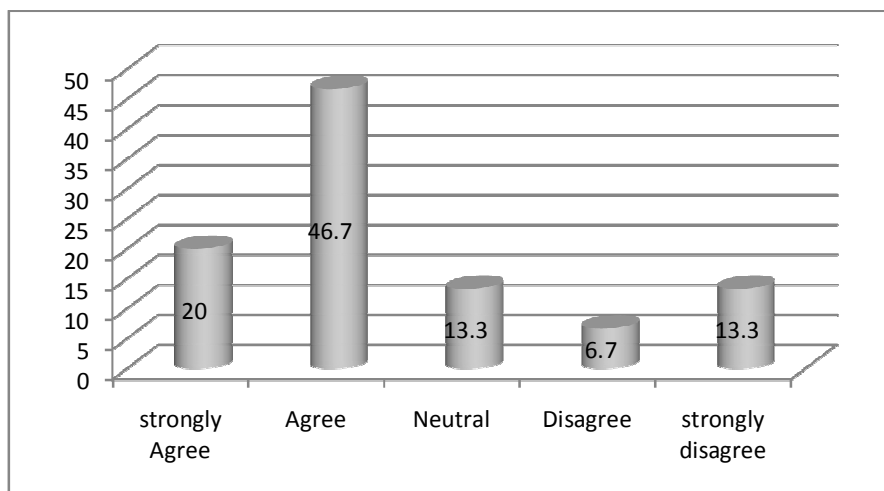
With regard to table (4.4) and figure (4.4) focusing on the statement "Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions ". It's noticed that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 20%, agree turned out to be46.4%, neutral is 13.3%, disagree is 6.7%, whereas strongly disagree is only 13.3%.This strengthens the view of that; students should expose to activities concerning idioms.

Statement No. (5): Non- literal language can thoroughly help Arab learners to comprehend English idioms.

Table No (4.5)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	13	43.3	43.3	43.3
Agree	8	26.7	26.7	70.0
Neutral	5	16.7	16.7	86.7
Disagree	3	10.0	10.0	96.7
strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.5)
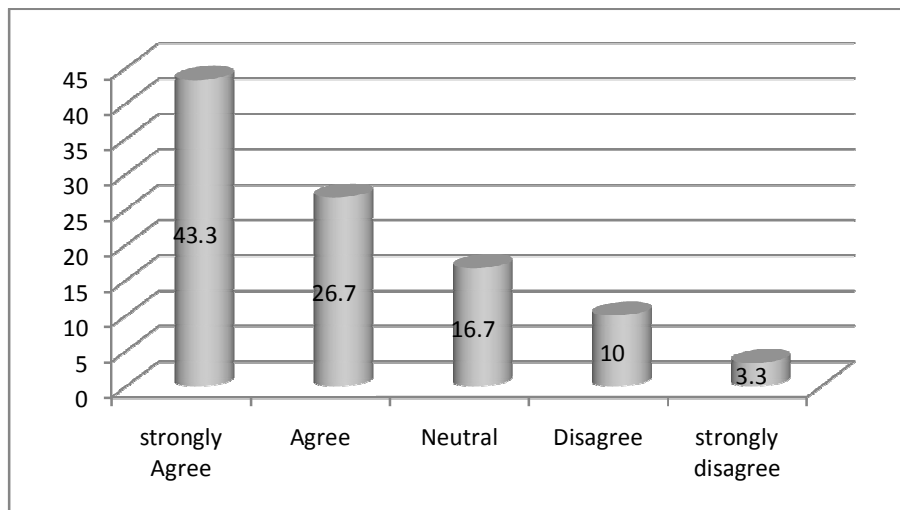
With reference to table (4.5) and figure (4.5) concentrating on the statement "Non- literal language can thoroughly help Arab learners to comprehend English idioms". It's clear that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 43.3%, agree turned out to be26.7%, neutral is 16.7%, disagree is 10.0%, whereas strongly disagree is only 13.3%.This indicates that Arab students should be well- trained in comprehending English idioms.

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Statement No. (6): Unequipped with English culture is behind erroneous use of idiomatic expressions.

Table No (4.6)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	7	23.3	23.3	23.3
Agree	14	46.7	46.7	70.0
Neutral	5	16.7	16.7	86.7
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	90.0
strongly disagree	3	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.6)
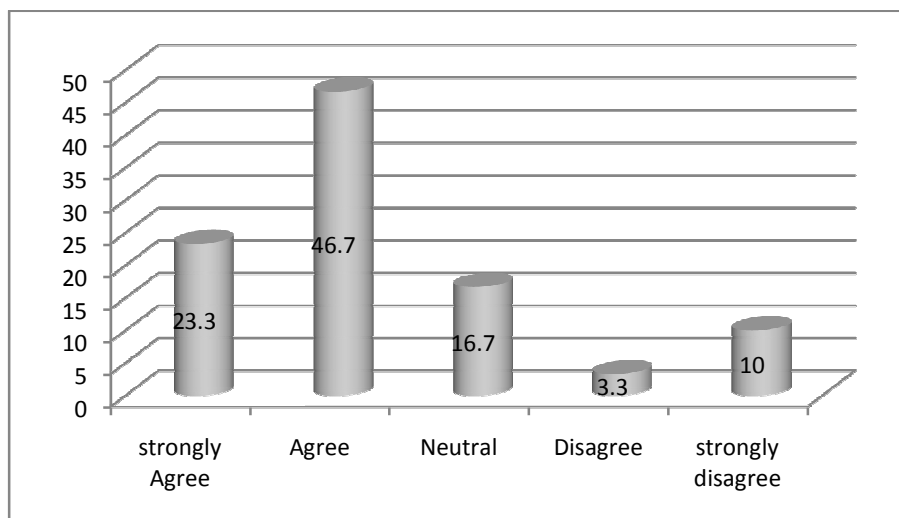
Concerning the table (4.6) and figure (4.6) referring to the statement "Unequipped with English culture is behind erroneous use of idiomatic expressions." It's illustrated that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 23.3%, agree turned out to be46.7%, neutral is 16.7%, disagree is 10%, whereas strongly disagree is only 10 %.This demonstrates that Arab learners should adopt English culture so as to grasp idiomatic expressions.

Statement No. (7): Interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms.

Table No (4.7)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	10	33.4	33.3	33.3
Agree	17	56.7	56.7	90.0
Neutral	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.7)
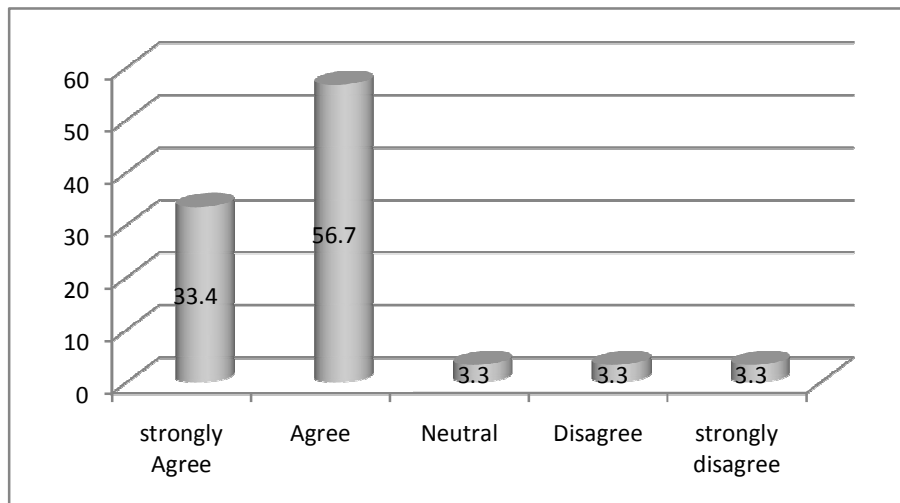
With regard to the table (4.7) and figure (4.7) referring to the statement "Interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms." It's showed that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 33.4%, agree turned out to be56.7%, neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only 3.3%.This provesthat Arab learners should avoid mother tongue interference while using idioms.

Statement No. (8): Usage of idioms that have no resemblance between the L1 and L2 is extremely difficult.

Table No (4.8)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	5	16.7	16.7	16.7
Agree	18	60.0	60.0	76.7
Neutral	4	13.3	13.3	90.0
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
strongly disagree	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.8)
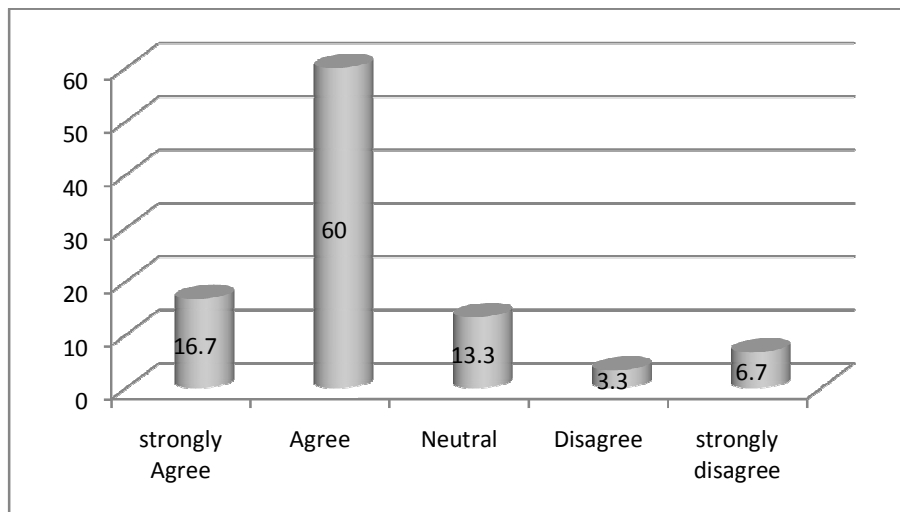
Regarding to the table (4.8) and figure (4.8) relating to the Usage of idioms that have no resemblance between the L1 and L2 is extremely difficult". It is clear that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 16.7%, agree turned out to be60.0%, neutral is 13.3%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 6.3%.This illustratesthatArab learners should practice idioms activities.

Statement No. (9): Outside of an educational environment can influence learners in understanding idioms.

Table No (4.9)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
Agree	18	60.0	60.0	63.3
Neutral	8	26.7	26.7	90.0
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
strongly disagree	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.9)
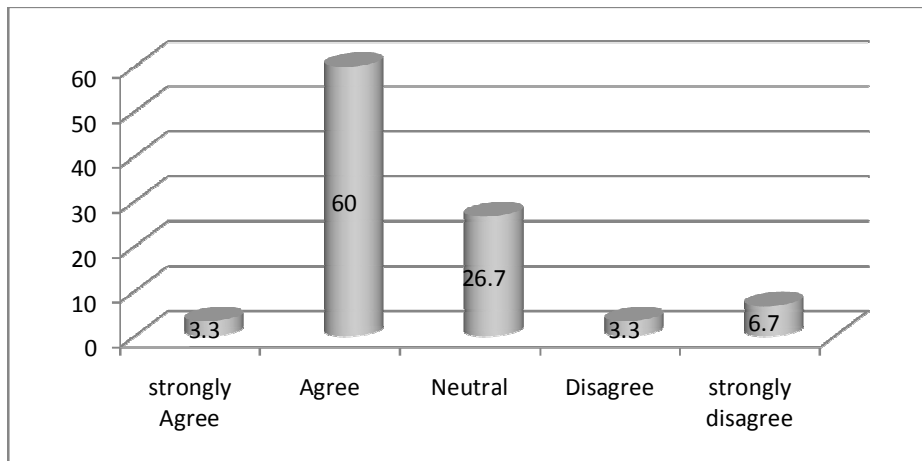
With regard to the table (4.9) and figure (4.9) relating to the statement "Outside of an educational environment can influence learners in understanding idioms." It is obvious that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 3.3%, agree turned out to be60.0%, neutral 26.7%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 6.3%.This

emphasizesthateducational environment can affect Arab learner in grasping idioms

Statement No. (10): A systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers.

Table No (4.10)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
Agree	14	46.7	46.7	50.0
Neutral	8	26.7	26.7	76.7
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	80.0
strongly disagree	6	20	20	100
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.10)
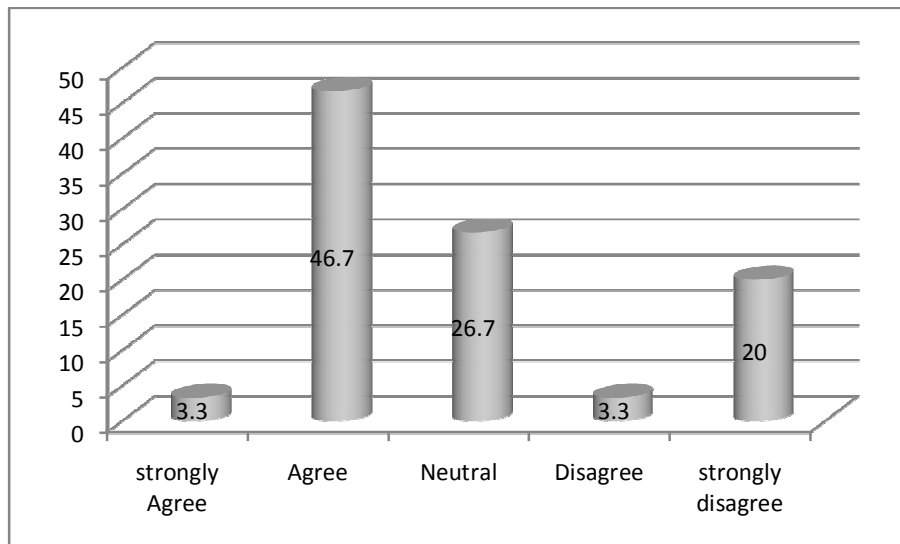
With regard to the table (4.10) and figure (4.10) relating to the statement "A systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers ". It is obvious that participants' responses

tostrongly agree are 3.3%, agree turned out to be 46.7%, neutral is 26.7%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 20%.This emphasizesthatteachers should use systematic plan for teaching idioms.

Statement No. (11): Teachers' ability inrecognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency.

Table No (4.11)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	5	16.7	16.7	16.7
Agree	14	46.7	46.7	63.3
Neutral	6	20.0	20.0	83.3
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	86.7
strongly disagree	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.11)
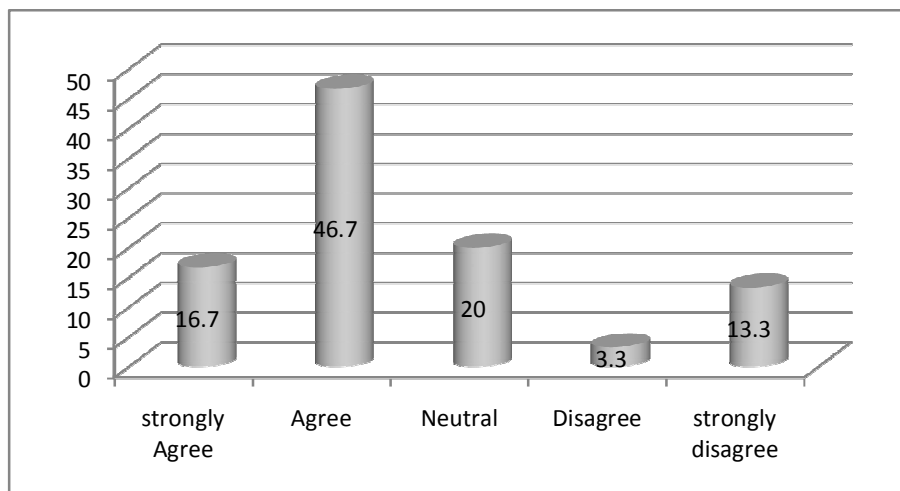
With referring to the table (4.11) and figure (4.11) relating to the statement "Teachers' ability inrecognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency". It is obvious that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 16.7%, agree turned out to

be46.7%, neutral is 20.0%, disagree is 3.3%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 13.3%.This showsthatidiomatic expressions can increase learner's proficiency.

Statement No. (12): English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as independent subject.

Table No (4.12)

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly Agree	6	20.0	20.0	20.0
Agree	11	36.7	36.7	56.7
Neutral	8	26.7	26.7	83.3
Disagree	1	3.3	3.3	86.7
strongly disagree	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Fig (4.12)
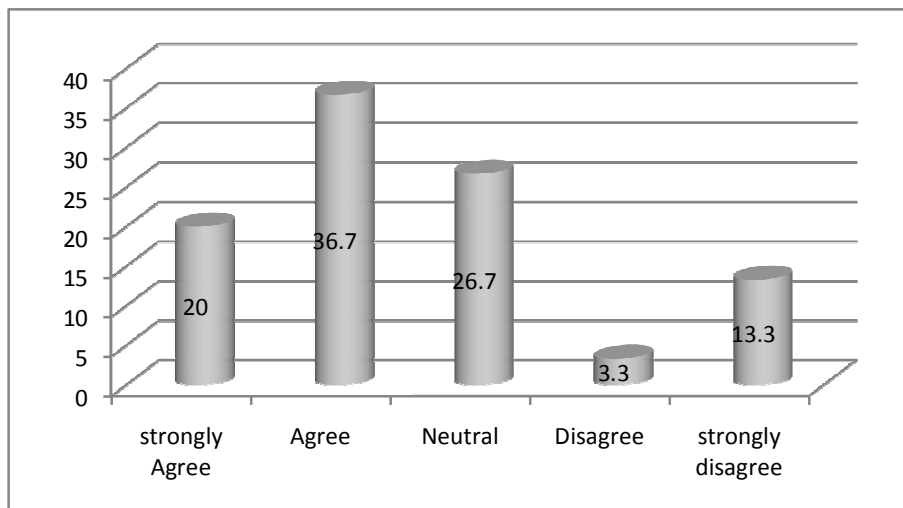
With referring to the table (4.12) and figure (4.12) relating to the statement "English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as

independent subject." It is obvious that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 20.0%, agree turned out to be36.7%%, neutral is 26.7%, disagree is 33.3%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 13.3%.This indicatesthatEnglish syllabusshould develop in using idioms.

Table No. (4.13)

Chi-Square Test Results for Respondents' Answers of the Questions

No.	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Arab learners are confused in dealing with English idioms due to its difficulty.	2.5	1.3	24	0.00
2	Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms.	3.5	0.6	24	0.00
3	The failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance.	2.6	2.4	13	0.00
4	Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions.	2.4	0.8	25	0.03
5	Non- literal language can thoroughly help Arab learners to comprehend English idioms.	3.3	0.6	21	0.00
6	Unequipped with English culture is behind erroneous use of idiomatic expressions .	2.3	1.0	14	0.00
7	Interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms.	2.5	0.6	16	0.00
8	Usage of idioms that have no resemblance between the L1 and L2 is extremely difficult.	2.4	0.8	24	0.001
9	Outside of an educational environment can influence learners	4.3	0.7	21	0.008

	in understanding idioms.				
10	A systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers.	4.2	2.4	34	0.00
11	Teachers' ability inrecognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency	3.5	0.7	21	0.00
12	English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as independent subject.	2.0	1.7	32	0.00

Source: The researcher from applied study, SPSS 24

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (1) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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 "Arab learners are confused in dealing with English idioms due to its difficulty.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (2) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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 "Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (3) question was (13) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4)

and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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 failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (4) question 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 (7.13). 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 "Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (5) question 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 (7.13). 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 "Non- literal language can thoroughly help Arab learners to comprehend English idioms.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (6) question was (14) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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"Unequipped with English culture is behind erroneous use of idiomatic expressions .

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (7) question was (16) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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 "Interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (8) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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 "Usage of idioms that have no resemblance between the L1 and L2 is extremely difficult.

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (9) question 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 (7.13). 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 "Outside of an educational environment can influence learners in understanding idioms.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (10) question was (34) which is

greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). 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 "A systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (11) question 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 (7.13). 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 "Teachers' ability inrecognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (2) question 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 (7.13). 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 "English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as independent subject".

4.3 Analysis of the Second Tool (Diagnostic Test)

The test was carried out with fourth year students of English language at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science – College of Languages.

4.4.1 The Sample of the Second Tool (diagnostic test)

The population of this study consists of 30 students of English language at University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science. They responded to the test questions, there were only three questions which directly relate to the research hypotheses.

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

Table No (4.14) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of question number (1)

Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q1	10	33. 3%
Failure Q1	20	66. 7%
Total	30	100%

The above table shows that there are only (10) students in the study sample with percentage (33. 3%) passed the question number (1), while the most of the students (20) students with percentage (66. 7%) failed to pass the question, this result leads to the acceptance of hypothesis related to question number (1)

Table No (4.15) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of question number (2)

Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q2	11	36. 7%
Failure Q2	19	63.3%
Total	30	100%

According to the above table displays that there are only (11) students in the sample of study with percentage (36. 7%) passed the question number (2), whereas, the most of the students (19) students with percentage (63.3%%) failed to pass the question , this result leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (2).

Table No (4.16) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of question number (3)

Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q3	4	13. 3%
Failure Q3	26	86. 7%
Total	30	100%

Regarding to the above table and figure display that there are only (4) students in the sample of study with percentage (13. 3%) passed the question number (3), meanwhile, the majority of the students (26) students with percentage (86. 7%) failed to pass the question , this

result leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (3).

Table No (4.17) The Frequency Distribution and decisions for the Respondent's Answers of all questions.

Questions	Correct		Wrong		Decision
	frequency	*Percentage*	*frequency*	*Percentage*	
Question 1	10	33.3%	20	66. 7%	**Accept**
Question 2	11	36. 7%	19	63. 7%	**Accept**
Question 3	4	13.3%	26	86. 7 %	**Accept**

This table presents the summery of the results. For the **Question one**it's clear that the number of students who failed to pass the question is greaterthan the number of students who passed it with percent (66. 7%) so we acceptour hypothesis of the study which is related to question one.

The table No.(4.23) shows the summery of the results . For the **Question two**it is clear that the number of students who failed to pass the

question is greaterthan the number of students who passed it with percent (63. 7%) so we accept our first hypothesis of the study which is related to question two.

This above table No. (4.23) displays the summery of the results. For the **Question three**it is clear that the number of students who failed to pass the question is greater than the number of students who passed it with percent (86. 7 %) so we accept our first hypothesis of the study which is related to question three.

Table (4.18) one sample T-TEST for the questions of the study

Question s	N	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
1	30	3.5	12.2	30	0.00
2	30	1.85	7.3	30	0.00
3	30	1.44	8.4	30	0.00
For all	30	2.43	15.07	30	0.00

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (1) was (12.2) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (30) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.21). This indicates that, there is no statistically significant difference at the level

(0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents .This means that hypothesis is accepted.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (1) was (7.3) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (30) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.21). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this means that the 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 (8.4) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (30) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (**2.21**). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents. this mean that our hypothesis is accepted.

4.5 Discussion

This study has discussed the difficulties faced by Arab learners in grasping English idioms. The first the statement "Arab learners are confused in dealing with English idioms due to its difficulty ". It's clear that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 43.4%, agree turned out to be 46.7%neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only 3.3%.This demonstrates that Arab learners should be well- trained in dealing with idioms.Thesecond statement "Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms". It's clear that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 36.7%, agree turned out to be 53.4%neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only

3.3%.This demonstrates that teachers should be well- trained in using English idioms.With regard to table (4.3) and figure (4.3) concerning the statement "The failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance."It's observed that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 10.0%, agree turned out to be73.4%, neutral is 10.0%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 3.3%.This justifies the idea that, students should be well- trained in using idiomatic expressions. With regard to table (4.4) and figure (4.4) focusing on the statement "Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions ". It's noticed that participants' responses tostrongly agree is 20%, agree turned out to be46.4%, neutral is 13.3%, disagree is 6.7%, whereas strongly disagree is only 13.3%.This strengthens the view of that; students should expose to activities concerning idioms.

Regarding diagnostic test has discussed the first question that there are only (10) students in the study sample with percentage (33. 3%) passed the question number (1), while the most of the students (20) students with percentage (66. 7%) failed to pass the question, this result leads to the acceptance of hypothesis related to question number (1) . According to the above table displays that there are only (11) students in the sample of study with percentage (36. 7%) passed the question number (2), whereas, the most of the students (19) students with percentage (63.3%%) failed to pass the question , this result leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (2). Regarding to the above table and figure display that there are only (4) students in the sample of study with percentage (13. 3%) passed the question number (3), meanwhile, the majority of the students (26) students with percentage (86. 7%) failed to pass the question , this result leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (3)

4.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has covered the data analysis of the study which is about investigating difficulties faced by Arab learners in grasping English idioms. This is done through a questionnaire to the teachers of English at some Sudanese Universities and diagnostic test to students of English. Moreover, it showed the data tabulated in figures and tables. Then, interpretations were made from the collected data. Finally, the researcher has discussed the results of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS,

RECOMMENDATIONS

AND SUGESSTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

AND SUGESSTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presentsthe discussion of main findings gained when applying the tools and conclusions. Moreover, a brief recommendations and suggestions were given at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Main Findings

The results of this study investigate teachers' views towards using information communication technologies (ICTs) to teach oral skills. Researcher has summarized following findings:

- Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms.

- The failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance.

- Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities (drills) on idiomatic expressions.

- Non- literal language can thoroughly help Arab learners to comprehend English idioms.

-Unequipped with English culture is behind erroneous use of idiomatic expressions.

-Interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms.

-Usage of idioms that have no resemblance between the L1 and L2 is extremely difficult.

-Outside of an educational environment can influence learners in understanding idioms.

-Teachers' ability inrecognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency.

5.2 Conclusion

This study pointed out that, majority of the Sudanese learners at tertiary level are unable to use English idioms effectively. And the reasons for that are many and varied. Idioms are classified one of non-literal or figurative language that also includes metaphors, similes and proverbs. As mentioned earlier, there are many definitions available which suggests that researchers have not been able to settle for a single explanation. In the following section we provide examples of how idioms can be defined differently. However, this study (and the search for relevant material) required us to be very broad, and to not settle for a narrow definition. Furthermore, the broad description that was used led to the fact that we ended up with texts that all defined idioms differently.An idiom is a phrase that is commonly used within a given culture and understood to have a meaning different from its literal meaning. Glucksberg (2001) states that "[w]hat sets idioms apart from most other fixed expressions is their 'non-logical' nature, that is, the absence of any discernable relation between their linguistic meanings and their idiomatic meanings" (p. 68). This point of view is supported by Cooper (1998) who compares idioms to metaphors; "[a]n idiom can have a literal meaning, but its alternate, figurative meaning must be understood metaphorically. For example, over the hill can mean on the other side of the hill, but the figurative meaning is to be very old" (p. 255). D'Angelo Bromley (1994) goes even further by saying that "its meaning cannot be inferred grammatically,

neither can meaning be determined from its literal translation, nor can meaning always be determined from the surrounding material "(p. 274). Without a doubt, this presents language learners with a special vocabulary-learning problem.

In conclusion, Glucksberg (2001) identifies four types of idioms: non-compositional (not transparent), compositional opaque, compositional transparent and quasi-metaphorical. However, this section has provided a few different suggestions for how to define idioms. But, as mentioned before, this thesis makes use of the broadest description of idioms in order to find suitable research.

5.3 Recommendations

In the light of the results of the study, the followings are recommended:

-A systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers.

- Instructors should raise students' awareness about the importance of learning English idioms.

- English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as independent subject.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

English idioms are still an inviting area in the field of learning. Thus, the researcher would like to apply English idioms are considered to bean effectivemethodthat learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom. Moreover,an approach that includes the use of idioms in education can generate a full and flexible knowledge of English languages.

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APPENDIXES

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire serves as data collection tool for a research work that aims to investigate the difficulties faced by Arab English learners in grasping English idioms. I would very much appreciate if you could take the time and energy to share your experience by responding to the statements below.

Your answer is very important and will be of much help for the completion of this work.

Please tick (√) in front of your choice. Your assistance is highly appreciated.

No	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Arab learners are confused dealing with English idioms due to their difficulty.					
2	Arab learners with language weakness are often challenged by English idioms.					
3	The failure to comprehend idioms can negatively impact learners' academic performance.					
4	Arab learners are insufficiently exposed to activities on idiomatic expressions.					
5	Non- literal language can thoroughly help Arab learners to comprehend English idioms.					
6	Ineffective teaching of idioms can leads to error in using idiomatic expression					
7	Interference of mother tongue influences learners' interpretation of English idioms.					
8	The use of idioms with no resemblance between the L1 and L2 is					

	extremelydifficult.					
9	Outside educational environment can influence learners understanding idioms.					
10	A systematic plan for teaching idioms in the classroom should be developed by teachers.					
11	Teachers' ability in recognizing and using idiomatic expressions increases the learner's proficiency					
12	English idioms should be included in educational syllabuses as independent subject.					

University of Holy Quran and Islamic Science

College of Languages

Class: Fourth year   **Time: 1hour**

Answer All Questions

Question One:Draw a circle round the letter of best option.

1-If you say that thing costs and arm and leg. Means:

      A- It is not worth the money

      B-It is very expensive

      C-It is extremely cheap

2- If I say "I'm going to hit the books now" that means?

      A-Am going to take a shortbreaks from studying?

      b-Am I going to study?

      c- Am I going to throw my books away?

3-if you feel under the weather that means?

      A-you feel ill
      B-you feel frustrated
      C-you feel sad
           4- If you let the cat out of the bag. That means?
      A-you greater problem
      B-you pretend to be someone you are not and you are discovered
      C-you accidentally reveal a secret

Question Two: there are four English idioms below. Imagine that you have to translate these idioms to an Arabic friend who does not know English. How will you translate these idioms? Write the Arabic translation for each idiom in the given space.

1-out of the blue.

_____
_____
_____

2-it takes one to know one.

_____

_____

_____

3-all in the same boat.

_____

_____

_____

4-over my dead body.

_____

_____

_____

Question three: Choose the correct answer.

1. If you give me a hand, then I shall be able to finish more quickly.

A-Take my hand   B-help me   C-take my finger

2.I prefer to talk to people face to face rather than to talk on the phone.

A-In person   B- looking at them   C-seeing them

3.As she is new to the job I would ask you to keep an eye onher for the time being.

A-look at   B-consider   C-observe

4. I would advise you to do that as well and in that way you'll kill twobirds with one stone.

A-Get things done twiceB-Get something done two time

C- Get two things done twice