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Investigating Problems Faced by EFL Students
in Comprehending Contextual
Meaning of Written Discourse

**(A Case Study of Fourth year students at University of Al Fashir-
College of Arts)**

تقصي المشكلات التي يواجهها طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية في استيعاب المعنى
السياقي للخطاب المكتوب

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Dedication

To my parents and

To the rest of my family members and

To colleagues

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All praise and great thanks are due to Allah the Almighty who bestowed me with patience, perseverance and the means to make this study. First of all, my sincere gratitude and appreciation are due to Prof. Mohamoud Ali Ahmed Omer for his tireless efforts, guidance, great support and encouragement throughout the stages of this study.

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating problems faced by EFL students in comprehending contextual meaning of written discourse. The researcher has adopted descriptive analytical method. Two instruments have been used for collecting data relevant to the study, namely questionnaire to teachers of English at some Sudanese Universities and written diagnostic test the fourth year students of English at University of Al Fashir, College of Arts. The study sample of questionnaire comprises (104) teachers whereas the written diagnostic test composes (44) students. The researcher applied SPSS program to analyze and verify the results. The results have showed that EFL students are unable to infer the meaning of the words within text. Moreover, EFL students are able to make mental picture of a text to understand the process that face them during reading. EFL students could achieve considerable success in context when they are exposed to comprehensible input. The study has recommended that instructors should raise students' awareness about the importance of contextual meaning of written discourse. On the other hand, EFL students should be able to deduce the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word. The EFL students should be taught via linguistic contextual clues so as to understand the meaning of all idioms. Furthermore, Students should be encouraged by their teachers to infer the meaning of the words in a given context. Some suggestions are also proposed for further studies.

Abstract

(Arabic Version)

يهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تقصي المشكلات التي يواجهها طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية في استيعاب المعنى السياقي للخطاب المكتوب. وقد اتبع الباحث المنهج التحليل الوصفي ، وتم استخدام اثنين من الادوات لجمع البيانات المتعلقة بالدراسة ، المتمثلة في استبيان صمم خصيصاً لأساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية في بعض الجامعات السودانية وايضاً اختبار تسخيصي مكتوب لطلاب السنة الرابعة بكلية الاداب جامعة الفاشر. قد تم اختيار عينه (104) بالنسبة لأداء الدراسة الأولى وعينه (44) طالبا للاختبار التسخيصي المكتوب. وطبق الباحث برامج الحزم الاحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية لتحليل وتأكيد النتائج . واتضح جلياً من خلال نتائج الدراسة ان طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية لا يستطيعون استنتاج معنى الكلمات في النص .بالإضافة الى ذلك بإمكان الطلاب استخدام الصور الذهنية للنص لاستيعاب عملية القراءة. وايضا بإمكان الطلاب استيعاب السياق اذا تم تعرضهم لمداخلات الفهم. وقدمت الدراسة عددا من التوصيات اهمها على الاساتذة تنبيه الطلاب بأهمية تعلم المعنى السياقي للخطاب المكتوب و بجانب اخر على الطلاب استخلاص معنى العبارات في النص بدلا عن الكلمات. علي الاساتذة تدريس الطلاب بمفهوم السياق اللغوي لفهم معانى كل العبارات الاصطلاحية. علاوة علي ذلك علي الاساتذة تشجيع الطلاب لاستنتاج الكلمات في سياقات المكتوب . وايضا قدمت بعض المقترحات للدراسات المستقبلية.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

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

Speakers mean what they say and say what they mean. Spoken communication is not that simple. Much of what we understand, whether when listening or reading, we understand indirectly, by inference. Listening involves a complex combination of hearing words, analyzing sentence structure, and attempting to find meaning within the context of the given situation.

The situation with the written word is no different. Readers construct meaning by what they take the words to mean and how they process sentences to find meaning. Readers draw on their knowledge of the language and of conventions of social communication. They also draw on other factors, such as knowledge of the author ("Would Henry say such a thing?"), the occasion ("No one knew such things then!"), or the audience ("He'd never admit that publicly.") They infer unstated meanings based on social conventions, shared knowledge, shared experience, or shared values. They make sense of remarks by recognizing implications and drawing conclusions.

The importance of learning new words in context should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by simple rote memorization. It is important that new vocabulary items be presented in contexts clues to meaning and that students be given multiple exposures to items they should learn (Decarrico, 2001: 288).

Guessing from context focuses on the particular reference of a word as determined by the context rather than on its underlying meaning. It is likely that this knowledge will directly enter implicit memory as it will be less complicated than the concept of the word. Guessing may also serve to raise consciousness of the word (Nation,1995:13).

Many people believe that knowing a word means knowing its meaning. However, Cook (2001, p. 61) states that “a word is more than its meaning”. For Cook, knowing a word involves four aspects: form of the word such as pronunciation and spelling, grammatical properties such as grammatical category of the word and its possible and impossible structures, lexical properties such as word combinations and appropriateness, and meaning such as general and specific meanings. Stahl (1999, p. 15) suggests that there are four levels of word knowledge: (1) word that one never saw, (2) word that one has heard of but does not know what it means, (3) word that one recognizes in context and can explain that it has something to do with..., (4) word one knows.

It should be agreed that, “...learners appear to have differing degrees of knowledge of their second language lexicon” (Gass&Selinker, 2001. 374). There is a list of elements to be considered for a complete knowledge of a word: spoken form, written form, grammatical behavior, collocational behavior, frequency, stylistic, register constraints, conceptual meaning, and word associations (Nation, 1990. 31). There is yet another dimension in vocabulary which is often termed as receptive and productive or passive and active vocabulary. Normally, these two sets

of terms are defined in relation to the language skills of reading, listening, speaking, and writing. An individual's active vocabulary includes words which are used in speech and writing. Contrarily, one's passive vocabulary is understood as words occur in reading materials or while hearing something (Azadeh, 2010).

Understanding the context means the persons knows these cultural meanings associated with time, place, person, and circumstance. This understanding, in turn, prescribes language behavior appropriate to those circumstances. In essence, one does not need to be familiar with the other person in order to communicate, but one does need to understand the context. This, of course, becomes far more problematical in cross-cultural encounters.

The socio-cultural context includes all of the cultural practices within which the learners and learning are placed. In part, the context of the classroom and the purpose of the lessons provide a socio-cultural context within which meaning is constructed.

1.2 Statement of the Study problem

As the researcher is part and parcel from the field of English language teaching, he has found EFL student of English have problems in understanding contextual meaning of written discourse. Therefore, the researcher tackles this issue "Investigating Problems faced by EFL Students in Comprehending Contextual Meaning of Written Discourse" to find some possible solutions.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

1. It is an attempt to investigate whether denotative meaning of the words can help EFL students in receiving the meaning of a written discourse.
2. It is an attempt to highlight the role of connotative meaning in affecting EFL students in delivering written discourse meaning.
3. It is an attempt to find out whether the cultural meaning of words affects EFL students in grasping written discourse meaning.

1.4 Questions of the Study

This study sets out to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent can denotative meaning of words help EFL students in receiving the meaning of written discourse?
2. To what extent can connotative meaning of words help EFL in delivering written discourse meaning?
3. To what extent can cultural meaning of words affect EFL students in grasping written discourse meaning?

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

This study sets out to test the following hypotheses:

1. Denotative meaning of words can positively help EFL students in receiving the meaning of written discourse.
2. Connotative meaning of words can negatively affect EFL students in delivering written discourse meaning.
3. Cultural meaning of words can adversely affect EFL students in grasping written discourse meaning.

1.6 Significance of the Study

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

1.7 Limits of the Study

This study limits to investigate problems faced EFL students in comprehending contextual meaning of written discourse. It hoped that will tentatively cover the academic year (201-2018). It was conducted at University of Al Fashir, College of Arts, and study sample was exclusively drawn from second year of English at University of Al Fashir, College of Arts.

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 test were used as primary tools for collection of data that relevant to information in pursuing this study.

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 concerns 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, and outline of the research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0 Introduction

This chapter displays the related literature review on investigating problems that face EFL students in comprehending contextual meaning of written discourse. This chapter is divided into two parts; the first part focuses on theoretical background and the second part is about previous studies.

Part one: Theoretical Background

2.1 Definition of Context

The term *context* refers to an immediate linguistic environment (rarely detached or isolated) in which a particular word occurs. Since it is not always explicit, it may be hidden within the neighboring members of a word used in a piece of text. If we cannot extract the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its immediate linguistic environment, we need to take into account the topic of discussion as a sphere of necessary information. Taking these factors into account, Miller and Leacock (2000) have classified context into two types: (a) local context, and (b) topical context. While the local context refers to one or two words immediately before and after the key word (KW) under investigation, the topical context refers to the topic of the text where the KW has been used. According to these scholars, reference to the two contexts is more or less sufficient for understanding the actual contextual meaning of the KW used in a text.

As seen above, the local and topical contexts are not enough for comprehending the intended meaning of a word, as two contexts often fail to support the relevant information needed for the purpose. In some texts, information grasped from the local context and the topical context may be appropriate, but these are not enough for understanding all possible meaning variations of a word. Dash (2005) states that the context can be categorized into four broad types:

- (a) Local Context,
- (b) Sentential Context,
- (c) Topical Context, and
- (d) Global Context

2.1.1 Local Context

The local context refers to the immediate environment of the key word in a sentence where it has occurred, encompassing its immediately preceding and succeeding words.

2.1.2 Sentential Context

The sentential context refers to a sentence where the key word has occurred. It supplies syntactic information to know if the key word has any explicit or implicit syntactic relation with the other words used in the sentence. Sentential context mostly happens in case of broken words, group verbs, idiomatic expressions, and set phrases where the two constituents, despite their idiomatic or phrasal relations, are separated from one another to be located at distant places in the sentence.

2.1.3 Topical Context

The topical context refers to the topic of discussion and focuses on the content of a piece of text. Quite often, it is found that the actual meaning of the key word depends heavily on the topic which has a strong role to alter etymological meaning of the key word. Topical context also

implies that we should extract relevant information from the topic to trail the change of meaning of the key word.

2.1.4. Global Context

Verschueren (1981: 337) States that words are not isolated entities. They are actually interlinked with other words as well as with the extra linguistic reality. So does the meanings of words. The meaning of the key word is not only related to the meanings of other words occurring within local context, sentential context, and topical context, but also to extra linguistic reality surrounding the linguistic acts undertaken by language users.

Fillmore (1977: 82) Argues that the verb forms of a language, for instance, usually evoke a scene of action constituting an agent, a patient, an item, a place, and a time—all coordinated in a particular discourse (Fillmore 1977: 82). This signifies that understanding the meaning of a verb form under investigation we need to consider of all the elements in a cognitive interface to realize its denotative, connotative and figurative meaning.

In order to comprehend the intended meaning of the key word in text we need clues from the global context, since clues available from other contexts is not appropriate for comprehending the actual meaning of the key word.

Pinker (1995: 344) states that in linguistics a word is a bundle of information related to phonology, morphology, lexicology, semantics, syntax, morph syntax, text, grammar, etymology, metaphor, discourse, pragmatics and the world knowledge . It is not easy to capture all the information of a word just by looking at its surface form or to its orthography. We require a versatile system along with our native language intuition to decipher all the possible explicit and implicit meanings of a word used in a piece of text.

2.2 Guessing the meaning of words from Context

Scott Thornbury (2002:148) states that guessing from context is definitely one of the most effective skills learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom. What's more, it seems to be one that can be taught and implemented relatively easily.

The importance of learning new words in context should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by simple rote memorization. It is important that new vocabulary items be presented in contexts clues to meaning and that students be given multiple exposures to items they should learn (Decarrico, 2001: 288).

Brown (1980: 189) makes it very clear why context-based learning is effective:

"A single sentence can seldom be fully analyzed without considering the context. We use language in stretches of discourse. We string many sentences together in cohesive units such that sentences bear interrelationships... Both the production and comprehension of language are a factor in our ability to perceive and process stretches of discourse, to formulate representations of meaning from not just a single sentence, but referents in both previous sentences and following sentences".

As stated above it is very obvious to infer the meaning of a word without getting the clues from surrounding words, therefore, guessing the meaning of words from the context is badly needed.

Johnson and Johnson (2012) state that to know a word students need to see it in context relates to the word around it. An approach that includes definition as well as context can generate a full and flexible knowledge of word meanings. When students are given several sentences that use a word in different ways, they begin to see how a word's meaning can

change and shift depending on its context. For example, consider the changes in the word *got*, as it appears in the following sentences:

Ali got a cold.

Ali got rich.

Ali got a note from Hassan.

Hassan got in trouble.

Although in most of these examples *got* conveys the idea of receiving, the meaning is slightly different in each one. Students need to see words in different contexts in order to learn them thoroughly. Using and applying several examples of a word in different contexts reinforces word knowledge.

Guessing from context focuses on the particular reference of a word as determined by the context rather than on its underlying meaning. It is likely that this knowledge will directly enter implicit memory as it will be less complicated than the concept of the word. Guessing may also serve to raise consciousness of the word (Nation,1995:13).

According to Dole, Sloan and Trathen (1995: 459) find out that teaching vocabulary within the context can help students to learn the contextual meanings of words. This was especially important because so many of the words had multiple meanings, and simply looking them up in the dictionary did not provide students with the support they needed to understand the meanings of the words as they were used in the selections. Thus students learned the meanings of new words as these were actually used in the selections. This prevented the isolated learning of words and demonstrated to students how all word learning is contextualized. Students received practice using the words within the context of the reading selections. Through the generation of sentences using the words

in context and discussions about the words as they related to the selections, students received multiple exposures to the words. They were also able to see how words relate directly to the plot, theme, and characters in the selections. These activities led to the deep processing of the words and repeated exposures to them – both of which have been shown to contribute to word learning and comprehension improvement.

2.3 Steps of Guessing the Meanings of Words from Context

Nation and Coady (1988: 104) suggest a-five-step strategy for guessing from context:

1. Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.
2. Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary.
3. Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences.
4. Guessing the meaning of the unknown word.
5. Checking that the guess is correct.

Thornbury (2002: 148) recommends the following steps for guessing from context:

1. Decide the part of speech of the unknown word-whether, for example, it is a noun verb, adjective, etc. Its position in the sentence may be a guide, as might its ending (e.g. an –ed or –ing ending might indicate it is a verb).
2. Look for further clues in the word’s immediate collocates-if it is a noun, does it have an article (which might suggest whether it is countable or not)? If it is a verb, does it have an object?
3. Look at the wider context, including the surrounding clauses and sentences- especially if there are ‘signposting’ words, such as *but*, *and*, *however*, *so*, that might give a clue as to how the word is connected to its

context. For example: *We got home, tired but elated*: the presence of *but* suggests that *elated* is not similar in meaning to tired.

4. Look at the form of the word for any clues as to meaning. For example: downhearted is made up of down +heart+ a participle affix (-ed).

5. Make a guess as to the meaning of the word, on the basis of the above strategies.

6. Read on and see if the guess is confirmed; if not- and if the word seems critical to the understanding of the text- go back and repeat the above steps. If the word does not seem critical, carry on reading. Maybe the meaning will become clearer later on.

2.4 Guessing Strategy and Vocabulary Learning

The fact that guessing strategy should be encouraged is understandable considering the enormous number of words in the English language, the size of the average adult's working vocabulary, and the number of words one needs to know to recognize a reasonably high percentage of words on the average written page (Dycus, 1997). Webster's Third New International Dictionary, for example, contains 460,000 words, and this number excludes plural forms of nouns, different present and past tenses of verbs, neologisms, and some technical items (Denning & Leben, 1995).

Although estimates of the size of the working vocabulary of the average English-speaker vary widely, commonly accepted figures are around 20,000 words (Nation, 1990). Word frequency counts indicate that this number is more than sufficient for understanding the vocabulary of most non-technical texts though estimates again vary. Diller (1978) states that the 25 most common words account for one-third of the words on a page and 135 words takes one up to 50%. After that, the number of words needed increases in lognormal distribution. Therefore, while it takes 2500

words to cover 78% of the page, vocabulary size has to be doubled to 5000 to reach 86%, and doubled again to 10,000 to cover 92% of the text. One would need to know another 200,000 to cover the low frequency words that make up the remaining 8%. However, Nation (1990) claims that the 2000 most frequently occurring words account for 87% of the average text, and that 2800 will account for 95%, is widely accepted today.

Regardless of the exact size of a native speaker's vocabulary, it is clear that the average second or foreign language learner faces a major challenge in trying to match it. Therefore, it is not surprising that the main reason given for encouraging use of the guessing strategy is the perception that it is the reasonable and fastest way for ESL learners to learn enough words to form suitably large active and passive vocabulary. Not every study, however, supports the utilization of this strategy as a sound strategy for identifying semantically unfamiliar words (Hossein & Hamdollah, 2010).

Redouane (2004) examined the efficacy of the guessing-from-context strategy versus a word-list strategy in learning French words and their meanings as well as retention of those words at the university level. The findings manifested the facilitation role of guessing-from-context strategy in learning more French words. Moreover, the guessing-from-context technique proved to have an impact not only on immediate recall but on long-term retention.

The notion that L2 learners can easily learn a big amount of vocabulary through guessing is relatively convincing. Nevertheless, due to the methodological weakness, studies are only possible to generate inconclusive findings. The present study is an attempt to fill up the

vacuum in the research database into the impact of using guessing strategy on vocabulary acquisition.

2.5 What Does it Mean to Know a ‘Word’?

Many people believe that knowing a word means knowing its meaning. However, Cook (2001, p. 61) states that “a word is more than its meaning”. For Cook, knowing a word involves four aspects: form of the word such as pronunciation and spelling, grammatical properties such as grammatical category of the word and its possible and impossible structures, lexical properties such as word combinations and appropriateness, and meaning such as general and specific meanings. Stahl (1999, p. 15) suggests that there are four levels of word knowledge: (1) word that one never saw, (2) word that one has heard of but does not know what it means, (3) word that one recognizes in context and can explain that it has something to do with..., (4) word one knows.

It should be agreed that, “...learners appear to have differing degrees of knowledge of their second language lexicon” (Gass&Selinker, 2001. 374). There is a list of elements to be considered for a complete knowledge of a word: spoken form, written form, grammatical behavior, collocational behavior, frequency, stylistic, register constraints, conceptual meaning, and word associations (Nation, 1990. 31). There is yet another dimension in vocabulary which is often termed as receptive and productive or passive and active vocabulary. Normally, these two sets of terms are defined in relation to the language skills of reading, listening, speaking, and writing. An individual’s active vocabulary includes words which are used in speech and writing. Contrarily, one’s passive vocabulary is understood as words occur in reading materials or while hearing something (Azadeh, 2010).

Hatch and Brown (1995, p. 374) classify five steps to learning new words: encountering new words, getting the word form, getting the word meaning, consolidating word form and meaning in memory, and using the words. These steps lead to the conclusion that a learner will reach the receptive comprehension of new words before reaching the production comprehension.

2.6 Definition of Reading Comprehension

Duke (2003) states that comprehension is a process in which readers make meaning by interacting with text through the combination of prior knowledge and previous experience, information in the text, and the views of readers related to the text. Kintsch (1998) and Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) define reading comprehension as the process of creating meaning from text. The purpose is to get an understanding of the text rather than to acquire meaning from individual words or sentences. The outcome of reading comprehension is the mental representation of a text meaning that is combined with the readers' previous knowledge.

2.7 Theories of Reading Comprehension

There are three types of theories of reading comprehension. They are mental representations, content literacy, and cognitive processes.

Van Oostendorp and Goldman (1998) express that when a reader is reading a text, he can create a mental representation of the text that explains how the reader understands the text. A lot of researches supported the many levels of representation are included in constructing meaning. When a reader is reading a text, three various levels of mental representation are created. They are the surface component, the text-base, and the situation model. (Kintsch, 1998).

Kintsch (1998) continued that when the words and phrases and not the meaning of the words and phrases, are encoded in the mental representation, this is defined as the surface component of mental representation. The text-based indicates the meaning of the text and is composed of those parts and connections that are arose from the text itself without increasing anything that is not clearly identified in the text. A text-base can be made without any memory of the accurate words or phrases from the text. In a pure text-base, the reader applies previous knowledge to create a more perfect and consistent mental representation.

2.7.1 Content Literacy

McKenna and Robinson, (1990). Argue that content literacy is the ability to read, understand, and learn from texts from a particular matter. There are three types of content literacy: general literacy abilities, content-specific literacy abilities, and previous knowledge of content. The general and the content-specific literacy abilities indicate some more general type of knowledge that does not hinge on the detailed content of a particular text. This knowledge is applied to make a text-base in the mental representation. Previous knowledge of content is the knowledge that is related to the content of a particular text and is applied to make a situation model in the mental representation. For example, it is not obvious that mathematics makes a necessity for content-specific literacy abilities and the reading comprehension in mathematics hinges on more general literacy abilities and previous knowledge. It can be stated that the symbolic language in mathematics is the main cause for the need of content-specific literacy skills.

2.7.2 Cognitive Processes

The application of syntactic and semantic rules together with the activation of more particular previous knowledge occurs automatically

and unconsciously. Various cognitive processes are more or less conscious. Perception is defined as the highly automatic and unconscious processes. For instance, when we see a dog and directly know it as a dog; we are conscious of the outcome of the process but there isn't any active and conscious thought processes for this identification (Kintsch, 1992).

2.8 Effective Strategies for Reading Comprehension

There are a lot of strategies for reading comprehension. These strategies are explained below:

2.8.1 Activating and Using Background Knowledge

In this strategy, readers activate their background knowledge and apply it to aid them comprehend what they are reading. This knowledge consists of individuals' experiences with the world together with their concepts for how written text work, involving word recognition, print concepts, word meaning, and how the text is formed (Anderson & Pearson, 1984).

Schema theory is very important in comprehension process (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, & Goetz, 1977). This theory is based on how people form and activate their previous knowledge. This theory explains that as persons learn about the world, they create a series of knowledge structures or schemas. These schemas develop and shift as the persons learn new information through experience and reading. For instance, a child's schema for dog can involve her or his comprehending of the family pet such as white, furry, and fun. When the child gets more experiences with a lot of dogs in different environments, the dog schema develops and can be improved. It can relate to other schema-kinds of dogs like colors of dogs; foods that dogs eat; places where they stay when the family is on holiday; and dangerous dogs. Cognitive scientists stated that successful readers permanently relate their prior knowledge to the new knowledge they face

in texts. Good readers activate their schema when they start reading. The first schema impacts how readers comprehend and react to a text (Pichert&Anderson, 1977).Schemas are particularly significant to reading comprehension. When learners have knowledge of a text’s organization, this can help them to understand better that text (Armbruster, Anderson, &Ostertag, 1987).

2.8.2 Generating and Asking Questions

In this strategy, readers ask themselves pertinent questions in reading the text. This strategy assists readers to combine information, recognize main ideas, and summarize information. Asking appropriate questions permits successful readers to concentrate on the most important information of a text (Wood, Woloshyn, & Willoughby, 1995). Creating relevant questions helps good readers to concentrate on difficulties with comprehension and to take the necessary actions to solve those problems (Pressley, Symons, McGoldrick, & Snyder, 1995).

2.8.3 Making Inferences

Readers assess or draw conclusions from information in a text. In this strategy, writers do not always provide full information about a topic, place, personality, or happening. Instead, they provide information that readers can use to read by making inferences that integrate information of the text with their previous knowledge. Through this process, readers can improve their skills to make meaning. Being able to make inferences is an important factor for readers’ successful reading (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Hansen& Pearson, 1983).

2.8.4 Predicting

In this strategy, readers are able to gain meaning from a text by making educated guesses. Successful readers apply forecasting to make their existing knowledge to new information from a text to obtain meaning

from what they read. Before reading, readers may apply what they know about a writer to forecast what a text will be about. The title of a text can operate memories of texts with the same content, permitting them to guess the content of a new text. During reading, successful readers can make predictions about what will occur next, or what opinions the writer will offer to support a discussion. Readers try to assess these predictions ceaselessly and change any prediction that is not approved by the reading (Gillet, & Temple,1994).

2.8.5 Summarizing

Readers combine information in a text to elaborate in their own words what the text is about.

Summarizing is a significant strategy that allows readers to remember text rapidly. In this strategy, readers can be aware of text structure, of what is significant in a text, and of how opinions are related to each other. Effective summarizing of explanatory text includes things like condensing the steps in a scientific process, the steps of development of an art movement, or the episodes that result in certain important historical happenings. Effective summarizing of narrative text includes things such as connecting happenings in a story line or recognizing the elements that stimulate a character's activities and conduct (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn,2000).

2.8.6 Visualizing

Readers can make mental picture of a text to comprehend processes they face during reading. This skill shows that a reader perceives a text. Readers who form a mental image as they read are better able to remember what they have read than those who do not image (Pressley, 1976).Visualizing is very important when it is used for narrative texts. When readers read narrative texts, they can easily understand what is

happening by visualizing the place, personalities, or operations of a plan. It can also be used for the reading of expository texts.

Readers visualizing steps in a process or stages in a happening or forming an image that help them to recall some abstract ideas or significant names (Gambrell& Bales, 1986).

2.8.7 Comprehension Monitoring

In this strategy, readers have the ability to know when they comprehend what they read, when they do not perceive, and to apply suitable strategies to make better their understanding. Successful readers know and check their thought processes as they read. Strategies that successful readers use to improve their understanding are called “fix-up” strategies. Particular repair strategies involve rereading, reading ahead, explaining the words by looking them up in a, or asking someone for assistance (Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991).

Successful readers try to use different strategies to make meaning as they read. They do not use similar strategies; instead, they like to expand and practice those strategies that are beneficial to them. Moreover, they are very flexible in the application of their strategies, they change from strategy to strategy, and they apply various strategies with different types of texts (Paris, Wasik,& Turner, 1991).

The important point here is that successful readers can make good decisions about which strategies to apply and when to use them. A lot of students can gain from explicit instruction that teaches them to apply particular strategies for understanding a text. The other point is that particular comprehension strategies can be taught and learned and that their conscious use can help readers to ameliorate their comprehension (National Reading Panel,2000).

2.9 Meaning and Comprehension

Reading comprehension (understanding, gaining meaning and interpreting the text) depends on a variety of reader-related, text-related, and situational factors (De Corte et al. 2001). Meaning is formed in the reader's head, that is, a person's prior knowledge affects the kinds of meanings constructed from the text information (Fukkink and de Glopper 1998; Lipson 1983). From this perspective an individual's existing knowledge is a major determinant in acquiring new information (Ausubel 1968; Cain and Oakhill 1999; Griffin et al. 1995). Furthermore, the reader's comprehension of the text is considered to be linked to the reader's ability to construct hypotheses, rules, schemas, and mental models (Vipond 1980).

2.10 Comprehension Difficulties

There may be a multiplicity of factors that contribute to reading difficulties for many students with special needs and the underlying causes of their reading problems may be largely unknown (Lewis and Doorlag 1999). It has been found that the prevalence of children with reading difficulties is often linked with the economic and social circumstances of the home. For example, many children identified as having reading difficulties experience significant language and cultural differences between home and school (Elkins 2002a, b; McNaughton et al. 2004; Rohl and Rivalland 2002). This finding is supported by studies conducted in the mid-1970s where variables, such as social class, educational background of the parents, family income and the number of books in the home were consistently related to school reading achievement (Romeo 2002). The claim is that the respect for education,

community standards and the value placed on education also influenced whether or not students have mastered basic literacy skills (Samuels 1978).

2.11 Why Some Students Are Poor at Comprehension

Researchers have established that children's early attainment of decoding skill is a reliable predictor of later reading achievement (Juel 1998; Pressley 1998; Chapman and Tunmer 2003). It has been well established that skilled reading comprehension requires the reader to be able to process the written symbols of text at an appropriate level. This is reinforced by the fact that poor decoders, both in and out of school, read considerably less than average readers (Beck and Juel 1992). However, reading and the comprehension of text is a complex interactive process, and there is more to reading and comprehension than just decoding or word calling (De Corte et al. 2001; McNaughton et al. 2004; Rivalland 2000).

2.12 Definition of Reading

Anderson et al. (1985) defined reading as the process of making meaning from written texts. It needs the harmony of a lot of related sources of information. According to Wixson, Peters, Weber, and Roeber (1987), reading is the process of creating meaning that involves: (a) the reader's existing knowledge; (b) the text information; and (c) the reading context. Grabe (1991 as cited in Alyousef 2005) defined reading as an interactive process between readers and texts that result in reading fluency. Readers interact with texts as they try to extract meaning and there are different types of knowledge: linguistic or systemic knowledge (bottom-up processing) and schematic knowledge (top-down processing). Pourhosein Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) stated that the main goal of

reading is to gain the correct message from a text that the writer intended for the reader to receive.

2.12.1 Kinds of Reading

There are two different kinds of reading. They are extensive reading and intensive reading.

2.12 .2 Extensive Reading

There are different definitions for extensive reading. Hedge (2003) described it as skimming and scanning activities while Hafiz and Tudor (1989 as cited in Alyousef 2005) expressed that exposing learners to large quantities of meaningful and fascinating materials and activities will have a significant impact on the learners' knowledge of L2. A lot of researchers have shown great interest in extensive reading in the last years. A three-month extensive reading study was carried out by Hafiz and Tudor (1989 as cited in Alyousef 2005).

According to Carrell and Eisterhold (1983 as cited in Alyousef 2005), extensive reading activities can be beneficial in aiding learners to become self-directed individuals who are searching for meaning provided that they are based on student-selected texts that learners will be interested in what they are reading. The process of choosing reading texts will be done according to content, level of difficulty, and length. Hedge (2003) mentioned the benefits of extensive reading as follows: Students can make their language proficiency, advance in their reading skill, become more independent in their learning, learn cultural knowledge, and expand confidence and incentive to continue their own learning.

2.12.3 Intensive Reading

Hedge (2003).states that in this kind of reading, learners read a page to find the meaning and to be familiar with the strategies of writing.

Through this reading, students can get fundamental practice in performing these strategies based on a series of materials. These strategies can be either text-related or learner-related. The first involves recognition of text organization and the second involves strategies such as linguistic, schematic, and metacognitive strategies (Hedge, 2003).

2.13 Models of Reading Process

There are three models for the second-language reading process: the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model.

2.13.1 The Bottom-up Model

Carrell (1989 as cited in Ahmadi & Pourhosein Gilakjani 2012) said that the main focus of this model is the smaller units of a text like letters, words, phrases, and sentences. The reader reads all of the words in a phrase, or a sentence before understanding it. This model starts with decoding the smallest linguistic units, particularly phonemes, graphemes, and words and then makes meaning from the smallest to the largest units. The reader uses his/her background knowledge to the information that they find into the texts. There are some difficulties in this model. One of the drawbacks is that the reader is successful in reading when he/she deciphers the linguistic units and understands the connection between words.

The reader is not able to keep in his/her memory the meaning of every word. The other difficulty is that it is not possible to connect one word to the other words.

2.13.2 The Top-down Model

Goodman (1967 as cited in Ahmadi & Pourhosein Gilakjani 2012) stated reading as a “psycholinguistic guessing game” in which readers apply their previous knowledge to relate with a text and to connect these to new information found in the text in order to understand it. The readers do not

read every word of a text but they focus on identifying the next words. They try to guess the meaning of words or phrases. Readers begin forecasting from the title of the reading text that permits them to restrict the scope of their reading. Then they assume the message the writer wants to transfer and change their hypotheses based on what they read in the text. Comprehension starts with higher levels of processing and continues to the application of the lower levels (Nuttall, 1996 as cited in Ahmadi & Pourhosein Gilakjani 2012).

2.13.3 The Interactive Model

According to Rumelhart (1977), Nunan (1990), and Grabe (1991), the effective reading needs both top-down and bottom-up decoding. L2 readers can use top-down reading to make up for deficits in bottom-up reading. To obtain meaning, they apply their schemata to make up for the absence of bottom-up knowledge (as cited in Ahmadi & Pourhosein Gilakjani 2012). According to Stanovich (1980 as cited in Ahmadi & Pourhosein Gilakjani 2012), this model is based on information from various sources like orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic knowledge, and schemata. While readers are reading, decoding processes support each other. If they do not understand texts, they should apply their previous knowledge to help them. Readers who are dependent on top-down model use textual signs and infer the meaning but they should make up for deficiencies like weaknesses in word identification and lack of effective bottom-up processing. This model results in the most effective processing of texts. Teachers should find reading instructions according to this model to boost L2 readers' skills. The mutual teaching method is a reading instruction that is based on the interactive model. It involves four principal reading strategies.

2.14 What is denotation?

Denotation represents the explicit or referential meaning of a sign. Denotation refers to the literal meaning of a word, the 'dictionary definition.' For example, if you look up the word *snake* in a dictionary, you will discover that one of its **denotative** meanings is "any of numerous scaly, legless, sometimes venomous reptiles having a long, tapering, cylindrical body and found in most tropical and temperate regions."

2.15 What is connotation?

Connotation represents the various social overtones, cultural implications, or emotional meanings associated with a sign. It refers to the associations that are connected to a certain word or the emotional suggestions related to that word. The connotative meanings of a word exist together with the denotative meanings. The connotations for the word *snake* could include evil or danger. Connotation is created when you mean something else, something that might be initially hidden.

Language meaning is continually shifting, is always contextual, and is influenced by historical, cultural, and economic factors. For instance, terms that were used years ago such as *gangster* and *thug* **denoted** (that is, specifically referred to or explicitly meant) individuals involved in criminal activities, who were prone to violence, and who had general disregard for laws and social order. Also, particularly during the Depression era, gangsters and thugs were associated with male immigrants from Italy, Ireland, and other European countries. However, today's *gangsters* and *thugs* are associated with African-American males, and the terms are used to **connote** (that is, suggest or imply) that these individuals are concerned with accumulating material wealth, are hyper-sexual, and are threats to middle-class suburban folks. The terms also

suggest a particular urban ethic and a particular cultural cachet that far transcend the original suggestion of criminal activity. Just think of the category of “gangster rap,” a musical genre that practitioners have argued captures the “truth” of the black, urban male experience. The terms *thug* and *gangster* have also become prevalent all across youth culture, designating clothing styles, postures, attitudes, values, etc. and spawning a vast array of related terms. Much has changed since the 30s, and these changes are reflected in language as demonstrated by the above example.

House vs. home; kill vs murder; religion vs faith;

The connotation of some words—or the attitudes we associate with them—can easily be seen when we examine pairs of words that are essentially similar in meaning, but different in the favorable or unfavorable attitudes they evoke in most people. Listed below are ten pairs of words that evoke negative or positive feelings. For each pair, place a plus sign after the word that conveys a more favorable attitude and a minus sign after the word that carries a less favorable attitude.

- refreshing – chilly
- plain – natural
- clever – sly
- cackle – giggle
- snob – cultured
- cop – officer
- skinny – slender
- statesman – politician
- smile – smirk
- domineering – assertive

The different examples of lexical changes in the history of English presented previously in this study show that as part of ‘lexical change’, sometimes the meaning of words may undergo a change. This change in

meaning is known as ‘semantic change’. As it can be noted from some of these examples (e.g., axis), some words may develop new associative meanings in addition to their original conceptual meaning. Hence, it is worth distinguishing at this point between two types of meaning. The first is the *conceptual* or *denotative* meaning which simply refers to what a word denotes or stands for in the real world, that is, the word's referents. Put it in another way, it is the direct or dictionary meaning of a word. The second is the *connotative* meaning which constitutes the emotional implications and associations that a word may suggest in addition to its *denotative* meaning (Beard, 2004. 94). This type of meaning can be subdivided into *collocative* meaning which arises through association with words that tend to occur in the environment of another word. In other words, a *collocative* meaning of a word is one that a word acquires based on the meanings of words which tend to occur in its vicinity (Leech, 1975. 26) (Chimombo & Roseberry, 1998. 117). Accordingly, semantic change can be looked at via ‘denotative’ (conceptual) and associative (connotative) meaning. Many studies were conducted by linguists to determine the ways through which these associative and denotative meaning can be added, removed or altered over time. Such ways are referred to as types of semantic change. The most widely recognized types of semantic change are extension, restriction, amelioration, pejoration and semantic shift (Minkova & Stockwell, 2001 . 156). An extension occurs when a word acquires a new additional meaning or its meaning becomes more general. A restriction of meaning, on the other hand, takes place when a word loses one of its meanings or its meaning becomes less general (ibid). While restriction and extension represent a change in the scope of a word’s meaning, pejoration and amelioration involve changes in the value or status of the referents of a word. Pejoration occurs as a word develops negative meanings or loses positive

ones. Amelioration, on the other hand, occurs as a word loses negative meanings or gains positive ones (Heller et al., 1984. 20). As for semantic shift, it takes place when a word loses an old meaning and develops a new one (ibid . 23). In short, the meaning of a word may completely change, expand or contract and in some cases when this happens it either ameliorates or pejorates. Such a change in word meaning, whether it is denotative or connotative, can be related to so many factors, for instance the context or the circumstances in which it is used.

In short, studying words' meanings cannot be done based on their individual meaning. Using words in a particular context creates an additional connotative collocative meaning which is sometimes referred to as 'semantic prosody'. Collocates can often indicate the 'semantic prosody' of a word. As Morely and Partington(2009) indicated semantic prosody resides 'in the collocational patterns of items in a text' (cited in Halbe, 2013. 80). Thus, a "word may be said to have a particular semantic prosody if it can be shown to co-occur typically with other words that belong to a particular semantic set" (Hunston& Francis, 1993. 137, cited in Stewart, 2010. 13). In light of this, corpus collocate searches play a crucial role in revealing connotations or semantic prosodies of a given word.

2.16 Definition of Collocation

The word *collocation* is a relatively new addition to the lexicon of English. It first emerged in the writing of Jespersen (1924) and Palmer (1925) and was formally introduced to the discipline of linguistics by Firth (1957, cited in Hyland, 2008); it was further developed and publicized by Halliday and Sinclair during the 1960s (Krishnamurthy, Sinclair, Jones, & Daley, 2004). Collocation has been technically defined slightly variably by scholars, and as Gairns and Redman (1986 .37) noted, "There are inevitably differences of opinion as to what represents

an acceptable collocation” Cruse (1986), for example, defined it as “sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent” (p. 40). Cruse distinguished collocations and idioms, reminding readers that in collocations (such as *heavyrain* or *heavy smoker*) there is a kind of semantic cohesion such that “the constituent elements are, to varying degrees, mutually selective” (p. 40) and that in “bound collocations” like *foot the bill*, “the constituents do not like to be separated” (p. 41). Similarly, Carter (1998) used the term *collocation* to refer to “a group of words which occur repeatedly in a language” (p. 51) with the patterns of co-occurrence being either lexical (where co-occurrence patterns are probabilistic) or grammatical (where patterns are more fixed) with categorical overlaps in numerous instances. *Colligation* is a similar term that shows a general relation between the constituents in a construction as that between an adjective and a noun in *He is a chain smoker* (Matthews, 2007). For Carter, any lexical item of English (or node) can theoretically keep company with any other lexical item (or its cluster), but with varying degrees of probability; however, only those clusters with a high probability of co-occurrence with the node make a collocation. Carter categorized collocations further into four types moving from looser to more determined: unrestricted, semirestricted, familiar, and restricted. A more general and non-technical definition has been given for collocation by the *Oxford Collocation Dictionary for Students of English* (Lea, 2002): “the way words combine in a language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing” (p. vii). Krishnamurthy et al. (2004) and Lewis (2000) set a condition for the combination of words before they may be regarded as collocations: the co-occurrence of words should be statistically significant. Such a statistical view of collocation, which originated with Firth (1957), is essentially quantitative and has been

accepted by many corpus linguists including Halliday (1966), Sinclair (1991), and Hoey (1991, cited in Xiao and McEnery, 2006). This statement implies that if a set of words occur together by chance, such an arrangement cannot necessarily guarantee that the elements so combined will produce a collocation. In other words, as Jackson and ZéAmvela (2000) put it, based on the principle of “mutual expectancy,” “the occurrence of one word predicts the greater than chance likelihood that another word will occur in the context” (p. 114), which is essentially the same claim as that made by Hoey (1991): two lexical items may be regarded as an instance of collocation when one occurs with the other “with greater than random probability in its (textual) context” (p.7). For example, in the above sentence, the co-occurrence of the words “of collocation when one” does not bind us to see it as a collocation. Predictability of pattern (Graney, 2000) is, therefore, a prerequisite for a set of words to be recognized as a collocation. Habitual co-occurrence of the elements (Shei & Pain, 2000) denotes a similar concept whereby replacing a word with a similar one will make the collocation less acceptable. What seems to be important in a discussion of collocations, therefore, is a shift of focus from single lexical items to strings of words or multiword expressions otherwise referred to as multiword units, formulaic expressions, prefabricated chunks, or ready-made utterances (Wang, 2005; Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, Stengers & Demecheleer, 2006), and clusters or bundles (Hyland, 2008).

2.16.1 Types of Collocations

The, collocations can be lexical or grammatical. Lexical collocations are combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs, such as *official permission*, *arbitrary government*, *seriously injured*. They range between Somewhat fixed and nearly loose combinations. However, it seems that words with ‘medium strength’ are the most common. Grammatical

collocations are exemplified by nouns, verbs or adjectives in association with restricted prepositions or grammatical structures, such as *give in*, *demand for*, *dependent on*, and include phrasal verbs.

However, Hausmann (1984: 399; cited in Kimmes, A. and Koopman, H., 2011: 5) differentiates between fixed and non-fixed word combinations: collocation as such belongs to the non-fixed kind of word combinations.

Hausmann (ibid.) explains that a collocation consists of a base and a collocator. The base determines its collocator. He goes further to categorize collocations into six different types, in four of which a noun is the base. These types, with the base in bold, are:

1. verb + **noun** as in: express **admiration**;
2. adjective + **noun**, as in: serious **consequences**;
3. **noun**+ verb, as in: a **problem** persists;
4. **noun**+ noun, as in: job **market**;
5. Adverb + **Adjective**, as in: deadly **serious**;
6. **verb**+ adverb, as in: (to) **sleep** soundly.

Linguists also classify collocations into restricted and non-restricted. Unrestricted collocations have the capacity of being “open to keep company with a wide range of words. Examples are core adjectives, nouns and verbs in particular” Carter (1987: 63). Yamasaki (2008: 76) goes further to stress that “[I]dential words, used in the same sense, if they are polysemous, can perform different functions even at the textual level and ... these functions can be differentiated by distinct collocational and colligational profiles”. However, the “choice of vocabulary is not free but regulated by constraints on word co-occurrence” (ibid.). All of these classifications also lead to a distinction between lexical and grammatical collocations. Whereas lexical collocation is a combination of two or more lexemes (e.g. serious damage), grammatical collocation is a combination of a lexeme and a preposition (e.g. rely on). On another plane,

collocations are distinguished as being of two levels and/or categories: *restricted* and *marked*. Restricted collocations are “semantically arbitrary restrictions which do not follow logically from the propositional meaning of a word” (Baker, 1992: 14).

Marked collocations “involve deliberate confusion of collocational ranges to create new images”, according to Baker (1992: 51). On the other hand, Baker (1992) and other linguists, such as Bahns (1993) and Benson (1985), also categorize word combinations into two major types of collocation: lexical and grammatical.

Carter (1998: 70) classifies collocations on a different cline: (a) unrestricted collocations, which are the commonest such as **take a look**; **run a business**, etc; (b) semi-restricted collocations include a number of items, which fit into certain syntactic slots as in *harbor grudges*; (c) familiar collocations that are of regular company, as in *lukewarm reception*; (d) restricted collocations include words that are generally more closed and fixed, such as *stark naked* (see also Carter, 1987). At the same time, “[R]restricted collocations are generally (and justifiably) believed to be the most difficult part of the lexicon both for lexicographic presentation and for second language teaching/acquisition” (Sandomirskaya, I. & Oparina E., 1996: 273).

Collocations are also strong or weak (Hasan, 2004). Thus, collocations, such as *rancid butter*, *addled eggs* are strong. The same can be said of *ulterior motives* or *harbor grudges*. Knowledge of the meaning of the collocater (or collocate) in the examples above does not necessarily enable non-native users of English to associate them with the right base

or node. On the other hand, weak collocations are ‘more predictable’, as in: good boy, white shirt, white wine, etc.

Hill (2000: 63-64) classifies collocations into *unique* collocations, which are fixed; *strong* collocations, which have a few other possible collocates; *weak* collocations, which can be easily predicted; and *medium-strength* collocations, which Hill (ibid.) suggests to be strongly emphasized in class.

In addition, Palmer (1981) speaks of three types of restrictions on collocation: one of these restrictions is collocational in the strictest sense, regardless of meaning or range; one such restriction is obvious in “addled” being restrictively used or collocated with “eggs” and “brains”.

This shows that collocation must have developed as a natural selection of a given combination of words to denote or imply a specified meaning as intended by native speakers for a concept, or different from what could precisely be expressed by single words. For instance, “when women are talked about in the paper, the collocates are associated repeatedly with the categories of age, appearance, fashion and vulnerability” (Lauder, 2010: 13). Bragina (1996: 203) goes further to assert that “restricted collocations can be classified as direct citations, syntactically modified phrases, and/or semantically modified citations, as well as combinations which bear allusions to cultural ... texts.” In fact, the more restricted a collocation is, the more difficult is its translation into another language. This must apply to culture-specific and language-specific terms, such as those used in greetings, condolences, compliments, expressions of thanks and gratitude, in addition to religious terms. Therefore, it is true that “elements of metaphoric collocations are uniquely restricted to each other” (Baker, 1992: 61).

In other words, “**collocation** [sic] is essentially word-oriented and cohesive: it refers to the extent to which the presence and meaning of a word ‘coheres’ or depends on the presence of another word (or words) in the same stretch of text” (Gledhill, C. 2011: 6).

2.17 Relationship between Language, Culture and Idioms

2.17.1 What is culture?

Chastain (1988:302) states that Culture may mean different things to different people. In the anthropological sense culture is defined as the way people live. Trinovitch (1980:550) defines culture as “...an all-inclusive system which incorporates the biological and technical behavior of human beings with their verbal and non-verbal systems of expressive behavior starting from birth, and this “all-inclusive system” is acquired as the native culture. This process, which can be referred to as “socialization”, prepares the individual for the linguistically and non-linguistically accepted patterns of the society in which he lives.

According to Brown(1994:170) culture is deeply ingrained part of the very fiber of our being, but language –the means for communication among members of a culture- is the most visible and available expression of that culture. And so a person’s world view, self-identity, and systems of thinking, acting, feeling, and communicating can be disrupted by a change from one culture to another.

Similarly, Tang (1999) propounds the view that culture is language and language is culture. He suggests that to speak a language well, one has to be able to think in that language, and thought is extremely powerful. Language is the soul of the country and people who speak it. Language and culture are inextricably linked, and as such we might think about moving away from questions about the inclusion or exclusion of culture

in foreign language curriculum, to issues of deliberate immersion versus non-deliberate exposure to it.

Brown (1994.163) argues that, a word, culture is a way of life. It is the context within which we exist, think, feel and relate others. It is the “glue” that binds a group of people together. It can be defined as a blueprint that guides the behavior of people in community and is incubated in family life. It governs our behavior in groups, makes us sensitive to matters of status, and helps us to know what others expect of us and what will happen if we do not live up to their expectations. Thus, culture helps us to know how far we can go as individuals and what our responsibility is to the group.

Our cultural orientation begins at birth. As we grow and learn our first language, we are acculturated into a particular way of life. It follows, therefore, that when a second language learner begins a new language, the learner is no more a "blank slate" culturally than they are linguistically. In the words of Savignon and Sysoyev (2002. 510):

"... learning of foreign culture does not start from "an absolute zero". By the time learners begin the study of a L2 context and its culture, they have already formed certain concepts, stereotypes, and expectations about L2 cultural realities. These expectations are not fixed and immutable. But they will influence the way learners comprehend and interpret a L2 culture."

2.17.2 Language and culture

The relationship between language and culture is deeply rooted. It seemed to be generally accepted that language learning and culture learning are linked. Learning a language therefore, implies learning something about culture as well. This certainly true for one's first language, but also for further languages acquired (Klippel, 1994).

Brown (1994) cited in Saluveer (2004.164) argues that a language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language. The two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture. Similarly, Tang (1999) propounds the views that culture is a language and language is culture. He suggests that to speak a language well, one has to be able think in that language and thought is extremely powerful.

Language is the soul of the country and people who speak it. Language and culture are inextricably linked, and as such we might think about moving away from questions about inclusion or exclusion of culture in foreign language curriculum, to issues of deliberate exposure to it.

Furthermore, Smith (1995) cited in Saluveer(2004) adds that the presentation of argument in a way that sounds fluent and elegant in one culture may be regarded as clumsy and circular by members of another culture. McKay(2003) cited in Saluveer(2004) contends that culture influences language teaching in two ways: language and pedagogical. Linguistically, it affects the semantic, pragmatic, and discourse levels of the language. Pedagogically, it influences the choice of the language materials because cultural content of the language materials and cultural basis of teaching methodology are to be taken into consideration while deciding upon language materials. For example, while some textbooks provide examples from the target culture, some others use source culture materials.

2.17.3 Cultural Context

Byram (1988) asserts that language has no function independent of the context in which it is used, thus language always refers to something beyond itself: the cultural context. This cultural context defines the language patterns being used when particular persons come together under certain circumstances at a particular time and place. This combination of elements always has a cultural meaning which influences language use. Indeed, Heath (1986) states that most human interaction is based not so much on people having shared intimate knowledge of each other, but rather on their having an understanding of the context in which the communication is taking place. Understanding the context means the persons knows these cultural meanings associated with time, place, person, and circumstance. This understanding, in turn, prescribes language behavior appropriate to those circumstances. In essence, one does not need to be familiar with the other person in order to communicate, but one does need to understand the context. This, of course, becomes far more problematical in cross-cultural encounters.

2.17.4 Socio-Cultural Context

The socio-cultural context includes all of the cultural practices within which the learners and learning are placed. In part, the context of the classroom and the purpose of the lessons provide a socio-cultural context within which meaning is constructed. In addition to the socio-cultural context of the classroom learners are also shaped by their broader experiences, background knowledge, and social/cultural identities that they bring to a learning activity. Literacies involve an understanding of specific codes like alphabetic signs that have relatively little meaning outside of the context of the lesson or the social and cultural practices that the children bring to them. In recent times electronic text genres have

changed quite considerably, they look different from traditional print-based texts but are still primary conveyors of meaning. New technologies, such as digital technologies that include combinations of sound, print, and images, provide a shift in the way we think about literacy at a school today. Alphabetic print must now be understood in the wider socio-cultural context as a partial conveyor of meaning along with other integrated modes. Thus, new literacies and new socio-cultural contexts promote new ways of reading, writing, interpreting, and interacting (Hassett 2006) but always within a meaningful socio-cultural context.

The claim is that the reader's cultural beliefs and values influence the comprehension of the text and by belonging to a particular socio-linguistic group, or having a religious or political affiliation, will influence the way a reader views, thinks, and comprehends the text (Kendeou and van den Broek 2005; Lipson 1983;

Pearson and Raphael 1990). Smith (1978, p. 79) referred to this world view when he said, "What we have in our heads is a theory, a theory of what the world is like, and this theory is the basis of all our perception and understanding of the world; it is the root of all learning...." Our theory of the world is influenced by the socio-cultural context within which students are situated and also by the ongoing life experiences (including language) that impact and form those beliefs. Those beliefs are shaped and nurtured by social interaction and by the language used in the social contexts in which children are situated. When readers comprehend communicative material they apply their beliefs about the world and what they already know about the present topic as a lense through which to interpret and understand the message the writer is attempting to convey. By using this lens children are more able to integrate prior knowledge when required to make inferences about story information. Thus, the processing of information may be limited or enhanced by the knowledge

base that one possesses. For example, even when skilled readers' have inadequate prior knowledge to apply to a reading task they tend to use the best available schema to organise the construction of meaning (Harris and Pressely 1991; Marr and Gormley 1982; Reid 1988). The reader will often rely on background knowledge of similar situations to form an analogy when relating to relatively novel story information. This does not always work well in all situations. While navigating some texts readers may access background knowledge that may be in error, leading to difficulties with comprehension (Brown 1982). For example, Lipson (1983) reported that the influence of religious affiliation on children's memory for text information affected the quantity and accuracy of both explicit and inferential recall. It was also noted that young readers often rejected text information if they thought that it was in error, particularly if they believed that they had the correct interpretation. For example, Elijah is a 6 year old who is reported to one of the best readers in his grade level at school. His bedroom is always spotless and all his toys have a place where they are always kept. He loves to go shopping with his mother. Recently, while helping his mother with the shopping at the local supermarket he said to her, "The shopping trolley is untidy and you might get into trouble."

2.17.5 Idioms

The term *idiom* originates from the Greek word (*idioma*) which means peculiarity, separate, distinct (Liddell and Scott, 1891; Taule, 2003). Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms defines an idiom as "a special kind of phrase. It is a group of words which have a different meaning when used together from the one it would have if the meaning of each word were taken individually". That is, the expression has both a literal and a

figurative meaning. The nature of idioms is fascinating for several reasons. First, it is a phenomenon that requires a speaker's lexical knowledge to be beyond the word level since meaning is deduced from the phrase as a whole, rather than the individual words (Baker, 2006). Further, the processing of an idiom presents the addressee with two possible interpretations due to the difference between the literal and figurative reading (Collins Cobuild, 1995; Vega-Moreno, 2001). In those cases linguistic context will most likely provide the addressee with the information needed to retrieve the correct interpretation (Nippold, 2006). However, linguistic contextual clues are not always sufficient to capture the meanings of all idioms. This points to a third reason, namely the importance of culture-specific knowledge involved in comprehension and production of idioms (Nippold, 2006). Hence, acquiring a language is not only about learning what is coded in language but also learning about the culture that these codes have been created and exist in.

However, to give one definite definition of what the phenomenon of idioms holds is rather challenging. In the following, a brief discussion of the degrees of flexibility, compositionality and transparency will shed some light on the complexity of idioms nature before the difference of familiar and novel figurative expressions are presented in relation to conventionality.

To a second language learner, idioms can be a challenging to comprehend and master due to the fact that knowing the meaning of the individual words is not sufficient to know the meaning of the phrase, and that the cultural aspects of the target language intertwined in these linguistic strings can be unfamiliar to the L2 speaker. In the production of idioms in a second language, avoidance as a communication strategy among L2 speakers has been discussed (Gass and Selinker, 2001), and

favored by researchers such as Kellerman (1978 in Laufer, 2000). However, others would argue that L2 idioms as a category is not avoided, but that certain expressions are avoided. This avoidance is a result of the multifaceted nature of the phenomenon, the speaker's proficiency level and the degree of similarities between the speaker's native language and the target language. Hence, the avoidance is not due to ignorance but a strategy utilized to overcome obstacles in certain communicative situations (Laufer, 2000).

2.17.6. The nature of idioms

A widely accepted view is that idioms are stored in the mental lexicon, much in the same way as words, the only difference being in terms of structural complexity and size (Gibbs, 1980). While in the case of words, there is a simple association between a lemma (semantic) and a lexeme (phonological) representation, for idioms, there is a complex phonological representation comprising a string of individual lexemes. Idioms function as items of word size and can be inserted, replaced or deleted very much like words, and quite often, by items of word size. Semantically, they can participate in the same type of systemic relations of opposition (antonymy), similarity (synonymy), and the like. At the same time there are many differences between words and idioms. Idioms have a different grammar which resembles that of phrases and clauses, and may, to a certain degree participate in various alternations and derivations (e.g., passives) or modification (adverbial or adjectival).

Idioms are expressions of varying degree of fossilization or frozenness and semantic transparency. Unlike regular phrases and expressions, which are generated by the rules of grammar, idioms come largely in a "pre-packaged" form, with many, if not all of their components that cannot be freely replaced or supplemented. *Kickthe bucket* is one of the

most often used and notorious examples used to illustrate the nature of idioms. As pointed out by Nunberg et al. (1994), and discussed in Jackendoff (2002), many idioms appear only with special overt syntax, which cannot be changed or modified – play hard to get (tough-movement), *How do you do?* (wh-movement), *Johnny-come-lately* (compound). However, there are many expressions of idiomatic nature that have variables, are semi-transparent, and, as a result, can be in part subjected to syntactic analysis – *take X to task*, *take NP for granted*, *V NP's head off/heart out*. Thus, a more subtle typology of idioms will recognize and distinguish between fixed/non-transparent and flexible/semi-transparent expressions, as proposed in Jackendoff (2002), and as reflected in the compositionality continuum of Nunberg (1978) and Nunberg et al. (1994). Also, it should be kept in mind that there is an interesting correlation between the degree of flexibility in form and semantic interpretation - the more fixed the surface form of the expression is (i.e. the more frozen), the more de-semanticised its component parts become.

2.17. 7 Idiomatic Expression

Idiomatic expressions are understood in relation to the context in which they are used. For most idioms different scenarios could be used to support the literal and figurative interpretations, although not all idioms can support a sensible literal interpretation. As a result, the skills used to process and understand language in context are thought to be important for the development of idiom understanding (Levorato&Cacciari, 1995). Populations who experience difficulties processing language in context often have poor idiom understanding (Norbury, 2004) and the presence of a supportive context boosts younger and older children's comprehension of idioms (Gibbs, 1987; Nippold& Martin, 1989).

When an idiom is unfamiliar, it may be (partly) understood by analysis of the meanings of the words in the phrase (Nippold & Taylor, 1995). In the example used above, ‘wrong’ provides a clue to the figurative meaning. Idioms that have a strong overlap between their literal and figurative meanings are generally easier to understand than those that do not (Gibbs, 1991; Nippold & Rudzinski, 1993; Nippold & Taylor, 1995). These idioms are commonly referred to as transparent and opaque, respectively. Analysis of the internal semantics of the phrase may aid idiom comprehension, particularly for children and adolescents (Nippold, 1998): children and adolescents aged 11, 13, and 17 years find that idioms rated as more familiar and more transparent are easiest to comprehend (assessed with a forced-choice task) (Nippold & Taylor, 1995). There is also evidence that adults engage in literal analysis of the phrase. They are influenced by the transparency of known idioms, taking longer to read non-decomposable (opaque) idioms than decomposable (transparent) items presented in context (Titone & Connine, 1999). Titone and Connine (1999) propose that the longer reading times arise because adults activate both literal and figurative meanings, which are semantically distinct for non-decomposable idioms and, therefore, result in a processing cost for the more opaque expressions.

2.17.8 The Representation and Processing of Idioms

One of the major issues in the research is the processing of idioms. Different theoretical proposals have been developed for both L1 and L2. In the article *Representing and Processing Idioms*, Rosa Elena Vega-Moreno (2001) presents five different hypotheses of L1 idiom processing: the literal first hypothesis, the simultaneous processing hypothesis, the figurative first hypothesis, the conceptual metaphor hypothesis and the

configuration hypothesis and phrase-induced polysemy model. The first three hypothesis are based on the traditional view of non-decomposition whereas the two latter present a compositional view.

According to the literal first hypothesis, Bobrow and Bell (1973) argue that idioms are stored and processed as lexical items. However, idioms are stored in a separate lexicon. This view's comprehension model consists of three steps; the speaker processes the literal meaning, the interpretation is rejected, and then, the idiom lexicon is hence checked to find the correct interpretation. The supporters of the simultaneous processing hypothesis presented by Swinney & Cutler (1979) agree with the latter position in that idioms are represented and processed as lexical items. However, idioms are stored in the one and same mental lexicon. According to this view both interpretations run parallel but the figurative is often favored (Vega-Moreno, 2001). The last hypothesis with a non-compositional view is the figurative first hypothesis. This position, represented by Gibbs (1980), claims that "idioms are to be considered lexical items whose idiomatic meaning is retrieved directly from the mental lexicon as soon as the string starts to be heard" (Vega-Moreno, 2001:76). These hypotheses have been criticized due to their controversial experimental evidence for the flexibility of idioms and the fact that they are stored as lexical items. In addition, it cannot be said that the relation between the meaning of the idiom and its linguistic form is completely arbitrary. The current views point out that the idiomatic meaning in many cases can be retrieved from the different constituents of the expression and hence, support a compositional view (Vega-Moreno, 2001). The first of the two current positions is the conceptual metaphor hypothesis which introduces quite a different approach compare to

the previous hypothesis. The second position, however, builds on elements from the simultaneous processing hypothesis.

The conceptual metaphor hypothesis is based on a more recent account by Gibbs (1994; Gibbs et al. 1997) where the comprehension of idiomatic expression is based on the assumption that “language use is constrained and motivated by pre-existing metaphorical schemes in our mind, which are grounded in our bodily experience”, and that the comprehension of the expression relies on mapping the metaphors (Vega-Moreno, 2001. 78). The configuration hypothesis and phrase-induced polysemy model support a parallel processing for a short span of time due to context. However, the addressee usually recognizes the first or second word in the string of lexical items as a part of an idiomatic expression. Idioms are not stored as lexical items but with memorized strings such as poems and lyrics. It is this account that is currently favored (Vega-Moreno, 2001).

In the light of second language acquisition research, the processing of idioms does not necessarily suggest that the approach is exactly the same for L2 speakers. In the study of online processing of idiomatic expressions by second language learners, Cieslicka (2006) argues that none of the processing models above would be able to account for all the added aspects that have to be included in a L2 speaker’s performance. The study supports the claim of an obligatory processing of the literal meaning of the idiom and the expression’s lexical items separately. The primacy of the literal over the figurative meaning is accordingly not affected by the L2 speaker’s familiarity with the context and the figurative interpretation.

2.18 Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb generally refers to a two-word or three-word combination that functions as a single verb. The first component is always a verb followed by a preposition or a particle.

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985) defined phrasal verbs on two primary dimensions: syntactic and lexical. The syntactic dimension views a phrasal verb as a single grammatical item, and it reports that a phrasal verb consists of “a verb followed by a morphologically invariable particle” (cited in Darwin and Gray, 1999). On the lexical basis, the meaning of a phrasal verb is less transparent, because its meaning can be rarely predicted from the meaning of its parts. For example, a learner who knows “throw” and “up” may not understand the meaning of “throw up” in the statement “John did not *throw up* his plan.” Further, Side (1990) stated that many phrasal verbs have multiple meanings. In the example “make up,” it expresses different meanings in “The story was *made up*” and “We need one hundred dollars to *make up* the sum required.” Therefore, a phrasal verb acts as a single verb syntactically and lexically with multiple meanings, as is the case with “put on” in “*put on* the dress” and “*put on* the show.”

Although phrasal verbs are largely used in oral speech and written texts, understanding them is a relatively tough task for ESL/EFL learners. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1990) emphasized the fact that because *verb +particle* combinations are seldom found in non-Germanic languages, ESL learners with non-Germanic L1 backgrounds find it difficult to learn phrasal verbs. Folse (2004: 6-8) also put forward four reasons why mastering phrasal verbs is problematic for ESL learners. To begin with, because phrasal verbs are frequently used in English, students have to learn a great number of phrasal verbs to function well when communicating in English. Second, as stated above, the meaning of a

phrasal verb is less transparent and is often unconnected to that of its parts. The co-occurrence of two highly-frequent words may produce a somewhat different meaning, which is not related to either of them (Sinclair, 1991). Therefore, inducing a contextually appropriate meaning is problematic for English learners.

2.19. Difficulty in Comprehending Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs are used a great deal, especially in spoken English. Therefore, it is important for a student to recognize their meaning at least. If he wants to learn to speak English naturally and well, he must become able to use these verbs properly. Phrasal verbs are a feature of the “Germanic language family.” English also belongs to this language family. (Schmitt & Siyanova, 2007). Learners who are not German or Scandinavian may be unfamiliar with these multi-word verbs and lack the strategies to deal with them. As a result, L2 learners mostly tend to avoid this linguistic category that is absent in their L1, and use the one-word verb instead (Ziahosseini, 1999; Schmitt & Siyanova, 2007).

A number of studies consider phrasal verbs as a subcategory of the more general lexical phenomenon of formulaic language. Both L1 and L2 language learner researchers have explored formulaic Language under a variety of labels: “prefabricated routines and patterns,” “imitated utterances,” “formulas” or “formulaic units” (Myles, Hooper, & Mitchell, 1998; Simpson & Mendis, 2003). Bardovi-Harlig (2002) reported that despite the difficulty in detecting form-meaning associations by the learners through learning formulaic language, formulaic use may be traced in learner's interlanguage “beyond the earliest stage.”

2.19.1 Vocabulary learning and input

Krashen (1983) proposed “input hypothesis” in order to emphasize the primacy of meaning and the importance of vocabulary through the unconscious process of language acquisition. In this view language is essentially its lexicon and the quantity of lexicon exceeds far beyond the amount of other parts of language (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

According to Hulstijn (1996, as cited in Pulido, 2003: 241), "during reading, easily guessed words may not be better retained because of lack of need to sufficient attention to the new word form." Coady (1997, as cited in Krashen and Mason, 2004) believed that most vocabulary learning occurs through reading but according to him there is a “threshold level “ of vocabulary knowledge below which a learner cannot read well enough to learn new vocabulary through reading.

2.19.2 Vocabulary learning and noticing

Schmidt (1990) proposed the Noticing Hypothesis. Noticing, i.e. attention accompanied by some low level of awareness, is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake.” He believed that noticing is a necessary condition for second language acquisition. From a cognitive perspective, Tomlin and Villa (1994) proposed three components for the role of attention in second language acquisition: *Alertness, orientation, Detection*. Robinson (1995, as cited in Robinson, 2005), inspired by both Schmidt’s and Tomlin and Villa’s idea about attention, reported that noticing includes detection and rehearsal in short-term memory. R. Ellis (1997, as cited in Cross, 2002) suggested that input becomes intake via noticing language features in input.

There is no doubt that L2 learners can achieve considerable success in contexts where they are exposed to comprehensible input. However, such

input alone does not necessarily lead learners to high level of development in the L2. Sometimes the input does not become intake. To improve learner's language learning they should be provided with a variety of consciousness-raising activities. Sharwood Smith (1991) has proposed that the term consciousness-raising can be replaced by "input enhancement" because he believed that the instructor can only know that some aspects of input are highlighted in some way, but it is impossible to tell whether the learner's consciousness has been raised.

2.19.2 Vocabulary learning and output

Following the failure of the French Immersion Programmes in changing L2 learners into proficient L2 users through providing them with comprehensible input, the "input hypothesis" was brought into question. As an answer to this deficiency, Swain (1993, as cited in Swain, 2005) proposed "output hypothesis" that was in accordance with Schmidt's "noticing the gap principle." In this view "output" was considered as a "process" and not a "product" of learning. Encouraging learners to produce language can lead them to consciously notice some of their linguistic problems (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Izumi, 2002 & 2003; Swain, 2005). Swain (1995:127, cited in Izumi, 2003) Stated:

'...in speaking and writing learners can „stretch“ their interlanguage to meet communicative goals. They might work towards solving their linguistic limitations by using their own internalized knowledge, or by cueing themselves to listen for a solution in future input. Learners (as well as native speakers, of course) can fake it, so to speak, in comprehension, but they cannot do so in the same way in production..... to produce, learners need to do something; they need to create linguistic form and meaning and in so doing, discover what they can and cannot do.'

It implies that the role of comprehensible output is entirely independent of the role of comprehensible input, because the kind of processing that is necessary for comprehension is different

from the type of processing which is required for production. This indicated that it is not necessary to understand a complete message for some vocabulary learning to take place. It implies that learners need “pushed output” for the accurate performance.

2.20 Part Two: Previous Studies

1- Dash (2008) conducted study on Context and Contextual Word Meaning in linguistics; context carries tremendous importance in disambiguation of meanings as well as in understanding the actual meaning of words. Therefore, understanding the context becomes an important task in the area of applied linguistics, computational linguistics, lexical semantics, cognitive linguistics, as well as in other areas of linguistics as context triggers variation of meaning and supplies valuable information to understand why and how a particular word varies in meaning when used in a piece of text. Keeping this question in mind, I have made an attempt here to understand the nature, type, and role of context in the act of meaning disambiguation of words used in a language. In contrast to the observation of earlier scholars, I have identified four types of context that can help us to understand the actual meaning of a word. At certain situations, although reference to the local context appears to be the most suitable proposition, reference to other contexts also becomes equally important to decipher the actual meaning of a word in a natural language text.

2- Sabouri (2016) has carried the paper entitle" How Can Students Improve Their Reading Comprehension Skill?"Reading is an interactive process in which readers construct a meaningful representation of a text using effective reading strategies. Effective reading strategies are considered as significant skills that have received the special focus on

students' reading comprehension proficiency. In this paper, the researchers define the term reading and reading comprehension, explain the types of reading, declare models of reading process, state theories of reading comprehension, review the effective strategies for reading comprehension, and finally mention findings of learners' reading strategies and their reading comprehension proficiency.

The review of literature indicates that reading strategies play a significant role in improving the students' reading comprehension skill.

3- Mart (2012) conducted paper on "Guessing the Meanings of Words From Context: Why and How" Vocabulary is an indispensable part of a language. It is vitally needed to express meaning. Teaching English vocabulary, an important field in language teaching, is worthy of effort. In order our students to acquire reading, listening, speaking and writing skills we need to help students with developing their vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary learning is essential to the development of language skills. Recently the importance of vocabulary learning and teaching has been considerably emphasized. One of the most effective ways of vocabulary learning is guessing the meanings of words from context. The purpose of this study is to show why guessing the meaning of unknown words from context clues is a very important learning strategy and how it is done efficiently.

4- Alaa Ghazi Rababah(2014) conducted the paper "corpus linguistic analysis of the connotative meaning of some terms used in the context of 'The war on terror'"The study mainly examines the connotative meaning of several terms that are frequently used in the media in the political discourse of the September 11th attacks and the 'War on Terror'. Eight items were identified which are' Sunni', 'jihad', 'Islamist', 'fatwa',

‘terrorism’, ‘radicalism’, ‘militant’ and ‘fundamentalism’. The study explores the existence of these terms in the Corpus of Contemporary American English in terms of the frequency of the selected terms, collocations and collocation patterns over two periods of time: ten years before and after the September 11th attacks. The results of the study revealed that the frequency of these terms had remarkably increased after September 11th and their conceptual meaning had been colored with new connotations.

5- Karim Sadeghi (2007) conducted the paper on "collocational differences between L1 and L2: implications for EFL learners and teachers". Collocations are one of the areas that produce problems for learners of English as a foreign language. Iranian learners of English are by no means an exception. Teaching experience at schools, private language centers, and universities in Iran suggests that a significant part of EFL learners' problems with producing the language, especially at lower levels of proficiency, can be traced back to the areas where there is a difference between source- and target-language word partners.

As an example, whereas people in English make mistakes, Iranians do mistakes when speaking Farsi (Iran's official language, also called Persian) or Azari (a Turkic language spoken mainly in the north west of Iran). Accordingly, many beginning EFL learners in Iran are tempted to produce the latter incorrect form rather than its acceptable counterpart in English. This is a comparative study of Farsi (Persian) and English collocations with respect to lexis and grammar. The results of the study, with 76 participants who sat a 60-item Farsi (Persian)-English test of collocations, indicated that learners are most likely to face great obstacles in cases where they negatively transfer their linguistic knowledge of the L1 to an L2 context. The findings of this study have some immediate

implications for both language learners and teachers of EFL/ESL, as well as for writers of materials.

6- Shamma (2013) conducted the paper on "Collocation in English: Comprehension and Use by MA Students at Arab Universities"

An intricate area in communication and translation for Arab learners of English is collocation. This paper attempts to assess Arab MA students' comprehension and use of collocation at four Arab universities. Testing these two factors relied on three questionnaires. The first consisted of 20 collocations in Arabic for the 96 respondents to translate into English; the second had 20 English collocations to be translated into Arabic. The third had 9 English collocations with four choices for each along with their Arabic translation equivalents, and the respondents were requested to choose the best collocater for each base. The respondents had no access to any references. The findings revealed that the errors in Questionnaire 1 were 1478 out of 1920 (76.979%), 1218 out of 1920 (63.437%) in Questionnaire 2, and 2712 out of 3456 (78.472%) in the choices of Questionnaire 3. The reasons for such weaknesses were analyzed and suggestions were made.

7- Cakir (2007) conducted the paper on "Developing Cultural Awareness In Foreign Language Teaching"Regardless of different points of view, culture has taken an important place in foreign language teaching and learning studies. It has been widely recognized that culture and language is used as a main medium through which culture is expressed. However, "pure information" is useful but does not necessarily lead learners' insight; whereas the development of people's cultural awareness leads them to more critical thinking. Most frequently confronted that students to a great extent know the rules of language, but are not always able to use

the language adequately as it requires since they are not knowledgeable enough about the target culture. Bearing all this in mind, the aim of this article has been to provide necessary information for the foreign language teachers and learners so that they can establish a good connection with the target language and its culture.

8- Levy (2007) conducted the paper on "culture, cultural learning and new technologies: towards a pedagogical framework"

This paper seeks to improve approaches to the learning and teaching of culture using new technologies by relating the key qualities and dimensions of the culture concept to elements within a pedagogical framework. In Part One, five facets of the culture concept are developed: culture as elemental; culture as relative; culture as group membership; culture as contested; and culture as individual (variable and multiple). Each perspective aims to provide a focus for thinking about culture, and thereby to provide a valid and useful point of departure for thinking about the practice of culture learning and teaching with new technologies. The referenced literature draws from a broad range of disciplines and definitions of culture. In Part Two, five projects are chosen to represent relevant technologies currently in use for culture learning: e-mail, chat, a discussion forum and a Web-based project. Each project is used to illustrate facets of the culture concept discussed in Part One with a view to identifying key elements within a pedagogical framework that can help us respond effectively to the challenge of culture learning and teaching utilising new technologies. Thus the goal is to align fundamental qualities of the culture concept with specific pedagogical designs, tasks and technologies.

9- Singstad(2014) conducted the paper on "Norwegian Students' Comprehension of Idioms in English' 'a quantitative experimental study was conducted with two Norwegian high school classes with a total of forty-six 16 years old students as participants. The participants were divided into two groups identical to their original school classes, one that would function as the experiment group and the other as the control group. The proficiency level and idiom comprehension level of both groups were tested before the experiment group received systematic instruction and practice on the topic idioms twice a week for a month. A week after the instruction part in the experiment group was completed, both groups were tested a second time. The study was designed to investigate if systematic instruction would have a positive effect on the students' comprehension of idioms in their second language, English. And secondly, to explore if the systematic instruction provided would have a positive effect on the students' overall proficiency in their second language. The results showed that instruction does have a positive effect on one's comprehension of idioms. The experiment group achieved significantly better scores on the second idiom comprehension questionnaire than the control group. In terms of effect on the students' overall proficiency, the results are inconclusive.

10- Towse(2008) conducted the paper on "Idiom understanding and reading difficulties" *Purpose:* The aim was to identify the source of idiom understanding difficulties in children with specific reading comprehension failure.

Method: Two groups (Ns=15) of 9- to 10-year-olds participated. One group had age appropriate word reading and reading comprehension; the other had age appropriate word reading, but poor reading comprehension. Each child completed an independent assessment of semantic analysis

skills and two multiple-choice assessments of idiom comprehension. In one, idiomatic phrases were embedded in supportive story contexts; in the other they were presented out of context. Performance on transparent idioms, which are amenable to interpretation by semantic analysis, and opaque idioms, which can only be interpreted by inference from context if the meaning is not known, was compared.

Results: The groups demonstrated comparable semantic analysis skills and understanding of transparent idioms. Children with poor comprehension were impaired in the use of supportive context to aid their understanding of the opaque idioms.

11-Wang(2009) conducted the paper on "Phrasal Verbs and Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge in Second Language Reading: An Exploratory Study"this study explores whether the presence of phrasal verbs in reading texts affects the reading recalls of EFL learners, and whether having a large vocabulary size assists learners' reading recall of a text with frequent occurring of phrasal verbs. Forty-five university students from North Taiwan were invited to participate in the present study. Three major instruments were used: the Vocabulary Levels Test, two reading passages, and a reading recall measure. The study was conducted over two consecutive weeks, with these three instruments of data collection implemented separately. Results indicated that the occurrence of phrasal verbs significantly hindered readers' recall of the proposition units containing phrasal verbs, while it did not impact the recall of those units not containing phrasal verbs. This study's second line of inquiry revealed that having increased vocabulary size did not guarantee higher competence as regards coping with phrasal verbs in reading. These findings were further extended to provide some pedagogical

recommendations regarding the teaching of phrasal verbs in EFL contexts.

12- Khatib(2011) conducted the paper on " Interventionist (Explicit and Implicit) versus Non-interventionist (Incidental) Learning of Phrasal Verbs by Iranian EFL Learners" Phrasal verbs are commonly used in spoken English. Due to the problems experienced by Iranian EFL learners in acquiring phrasal verbs, this study investigated the effectiveness of interventionist and non-interventionist approaches to learning (both recognition and production) of phrasal verbs. To this end, 63 Iranian EFL learners in three groups, with equal numbers of participants, participated in the study: a non-interventional control group, an experimental implicit group, and an experimental explicit group. They were homogenized through a TOEFL test and were asked to complete a pre-test to ascertain their unfamiliarity with the target phrasal verbs. Then, they were given 10 different passages followed by comprehension questions. After a 10-session treatment period, the recognition and production of these target phrasal verbs were tested through a post-test. The results of the ANOVA revealed the superiority of interventionist groups over the non-interventionist group in both recognition and production of phrasal verbs. In addition, the interventional explicit group greatly outperformed the interventional implicit group in both recognition and production. This effect of interventionist learning implies the necessity of a more balanced approach involving both implicit and explicit practice and instruction in order to enhance the acquisition of phrasal verbs.

2.21 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter concerned with the presentation of theoretical framework of the research, reporting the relevant literature review on the contextual meaning of written discourse. It also shed light on related previous studies.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological issues in accordance with the study questions and hypotheses posed in chapter one. First, brief account about quantitative approaches is displayed. This justifies the choice of the method adopted in this research. Then, it is followed by full information about the study participants. Next, the research instrument, which includes the written diagnostic test applied at University of Al Fashir - College of Arts, is explained. To that questionnaire is used.

Characteristics related to data collection, such as validity and reliability are also addressed. Then a detailed description of data collection procedure is provided. Eventually, the chapter is concluded with a summary.

3.1 Research Design

The nature of this research advocates the necessity to derive its data from a genuine language classroom to gauge and reveal the problems faced by EFL students in comprehending contextual meaning of written discourse. Therefore, the researcher followed a quantitative approach, which means a research in which quantitative technique is a single study. A questionnaire and a test are used to support this study.

3.2 Participants of the Study

3.2.1 The Participants of the Questionnaire

Concerning the questionnaire, it was distributed to the teachers from both sexes. This questionnaire includes a covering page which introduces the topic of research identifies the researcher. It was used Likert 5- point scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree). A

questionnaire was designed based on the hypotheses of the study. These hypotheses were turned to statements that provide suggested answers from the teachers at Sudanese Universities.

3.2.2 The Participants of the Written Diagnostic Test

With regard to the diagnostic test as a main analytical tool for this research, this contained four questions. These questions correspond directly to the hypotheses of the study. The diagnostic test was distributed to four year students of English at University of Al Fashir-College of Arts. The answers of the written diagnostic test were treated statistically for the purpose of findings. The aim of written diagnostic test is to diagnose the area of difficulties that encounter four year students in comprehending the contextual meaning of written discourse. The researcher himself and his colleagues conducted and collected the responses by giving the students written test.

3.3 Instruments

The data of this study is based on one type of instrument to achieve the objectives put forward in it. All of them related to quantitative method, which effectively functioned in gathering the major quantity of data that could be helpful for the later analysis of the results, so the followings are the instruments were used.

3.4 Description of the Questionnaire

An introduction of the research questionnaire has been written clearly, in which the respondents were informed about the aim of the research. The questionnaire was included fifteen statements which were designed in accordance with the terms and expressions used in the related literature

review, and each of which is accompanied by Likert 5- point scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree).

The first five statements are designed to correlate to the specific domain, which concerns, to what extent can denotative meaning of words help EFL students in receiving the meaning of written discourse?

The second five statements are designed to correlate to the specific domain, which concerns, to what extent can connotative meaning of words help EFL in delivering written discourse meaning?

The third five statements are designed to correlate to the specific domain, which concerns, to what extent can cultural meaning of words affect EFL students in grasping written discourse meaning?

Next is to investigate whether denotative meaning of the words can help EFL students in receiving the meaning of a written. Also, it aims to highlight the role of connotative meaning in affecting EFL students in delivering written discourse meaning. Then, the domain concludes to find out whether the cultural meaning of words affects EFL students in grasping written discourse meaning.

Later, the second domain comprises five statements targeting students' community. These statements are designed, mainly, for students who are believed to be in a good position for providing primary data, relevant to the present study. In particular, the statements indicate that EFL students are unable to extract the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistic environment. Also, teaching vocabulary within the context can help EFL students to learn the contextual meanings of words. After that, EFL students can achieve considerable success in contexts when they are exposed to comprehensible input.

Finally, EFL students can comprehend with difficulty the figurative meanings of the words in contexts.

3.6 Questionnaire Validity

It is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on a certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the Chi-square root of the reliability coefficient which is a part of SPSS program. In the present study the validity of the questionnaire measures its precise aim accurately which is considered to be valid.

As shown below:

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

$$\text{i.e. } \sqrt{0.93}$$

3.7 Test Validity

The test has been conducted in a natural educational environment. And to ensure the validity of the test; it was validated and evaluated by some experts who teach at Sudan University of Science and Technology.

3.8 Test Reliability

The reliability of every test means to measure a degree of which a test gives consistent results, so if the test is valid it investigates what is to be investigated, i.e., the test will be reliable. To obtain the reliability of this test, the same from technique was adopted. Then the separate test (written diagnostic test) were administered to the fourth year students at University of Al Fashir- College of Arts , so as to calculate the difference test's scores.

3.9 Procedures of Data Collection

The researcher followed the procedures in order to conduct this study. Initially, lecturers and teachers from some of the Sudanese educational institutes were asked to respond to the questionnaire so as to glean their positive ideas about the use of contextual meaning learning strategy. The obtained data from the questionnaire was analyzed using the SPSS and Alpha Cronbach program specifically with percentile.

Quantitative data was obtained from the written performance using a diagnostic test and the questionnaire survey. So, all of the participants were asked to sit for written test. Then, the results of the test, that is to say, (written diagnostic test) were accurately verified by using SPSS program to show if there is a statistically significant differences among the students.

3.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the study methodology and the tools used for data collection. It provides fully detailed description of all the stages and the procedures employed in each step, including instruments, population, study sample, validity and reliability for tools.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to data analysis, evaluation and discussion collected through the study tools including the questionnaire which is given to 104 participants who represent the teachers' community at some of the Sudanese universities, as well as the test, which is distributed to the fourth year students belong to College of Arts at University of Al Fashir. Then, the results are used to provide answers to the research questions, and verify its hypotheses.

4.1 Analysis of the Questionnaire

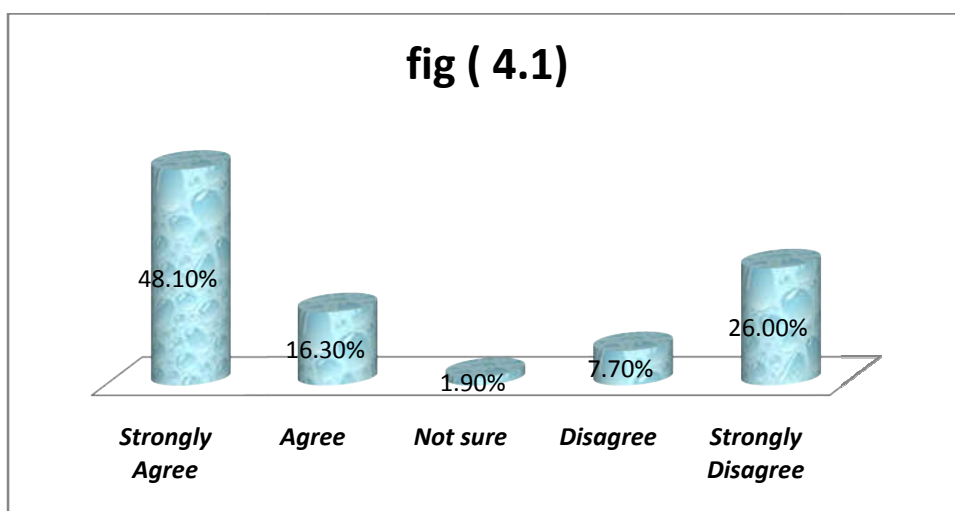
The researcher distributed the questionnaires to the determined study sample which includes (104) lecturers and teachers, then constructed the required tables for the collected data. This step consists of transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2, 1) respectively, also the graphical representations were designed for this purpose.

Statement (1): EFL students can easily decode the literal meaning of the words.

Table No (4.1)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	50	48.1%
Agree	17	16.3%
Not sure	2	1.9%
Disagree	8	7.7%
Strongly Disagree	27	26.0%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2011

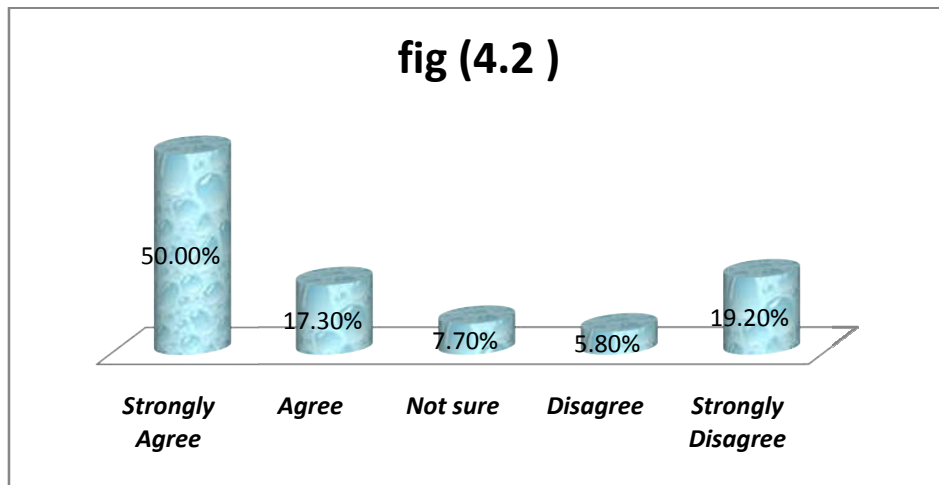


With reference to table (4.1) and figure (4.1) regarding the statement "EFL students can easily decode the literal meaning of the words ". It's clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 48.1, agree turned out to be 16.3%, not sure is 1.9%, disagree is 7.70%, whereas strongly disagree is only 26%. This demonstrates that students should be well-trained and developed so as to decode the literal meaning of word by applying the best teaching strategies.

Statement (2): EFL students are not able to infer the meaning of the words within text.

Table No (4.2)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	52	50.0%
Agree	17	17.3%
Not sure	9	7.7%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	20	19.2%
Total	104	100%

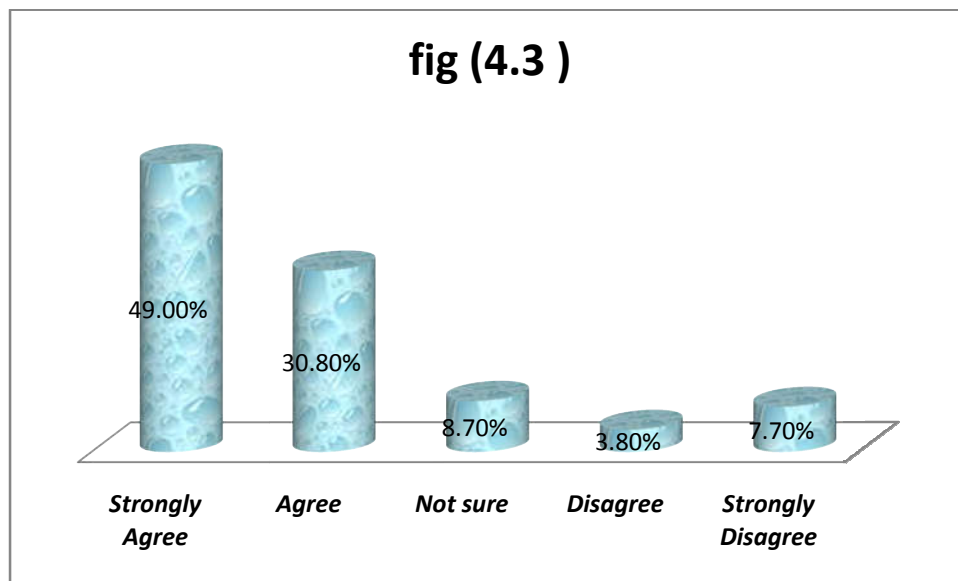


With reference to table (4.2) and figure (4.2) concerning the statement "EFL students are not able to infer the meaning of the words within text ". It's seen that participants' responses to strongly agree is 50%, agree turned out to be 17.30%, not sure is 7.70%, disagree is 5.80%, whereas strongly disagree is only 19.20%. This emphasizes the proposition that, students should be well- trained in inferring the meaning of words in written contexts.

Statement (3): EFL students are unable to retain the meaning of every word.

Table No (4.3)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.0%
Agree	32	30.8%
Not sure	9	8.7%
Disagree	4	3.8%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%

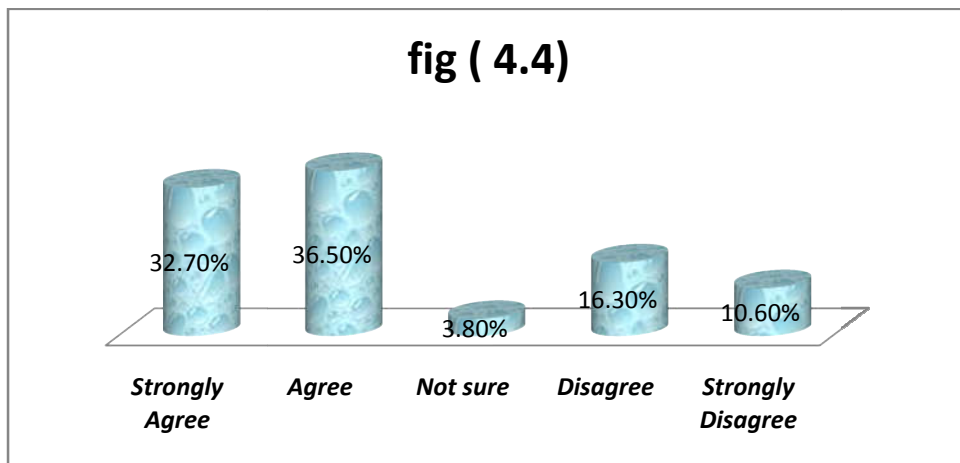


With regard to table (4.3) and figure (4.3) concerning the statement "EFL students are unable to retain the meaning of every word ". It's observed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 49%, agree turned out to be 30.80%, not sure is 8.70%, disagree is 3.80%, while strongly disagree is only 7.70%. This justifies the idea that, students should be well- trained in recalling the meaning of every word in written contexts.

Statement (4): EFL students can make mental picture of a text to comprehend the process that face them during reading.

Table No (4.4)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	34	32.7%
Agree	38	36.5%
Not sure	4	3.8%
Disagree	17	16.3%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.6%
Total	104	100%

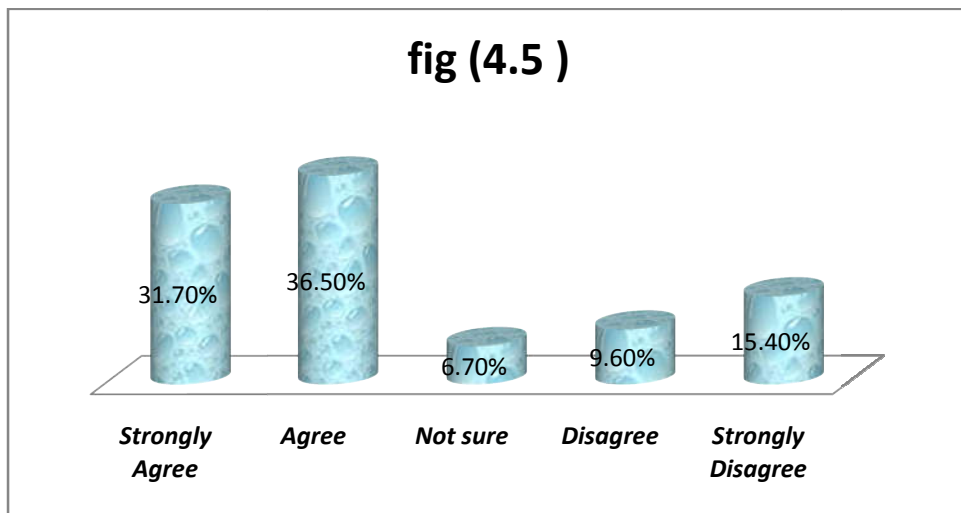


With regard to table (4.4) and figure (4.4) focusing on the statement "EFL students can make mental picture of a text to comprehend the process that face them during reading ". It's noticed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 32.0%, agree turned out to be 36.50%, not sure is 3.80%, disagree is 16.30%, whereas strongly disagree is only 10.60%. This strengthens the view of that; EFL students should be able to visualize the mental image of a text to grasp the reading process.

Statement (4.5): EFL students can positively interact with text as they try to extract the meaning.

Table No (4.5)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	33	31.7%
Agree	38	36.5%
Not sure	7	6.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	16	15.4%
Total	104	100%

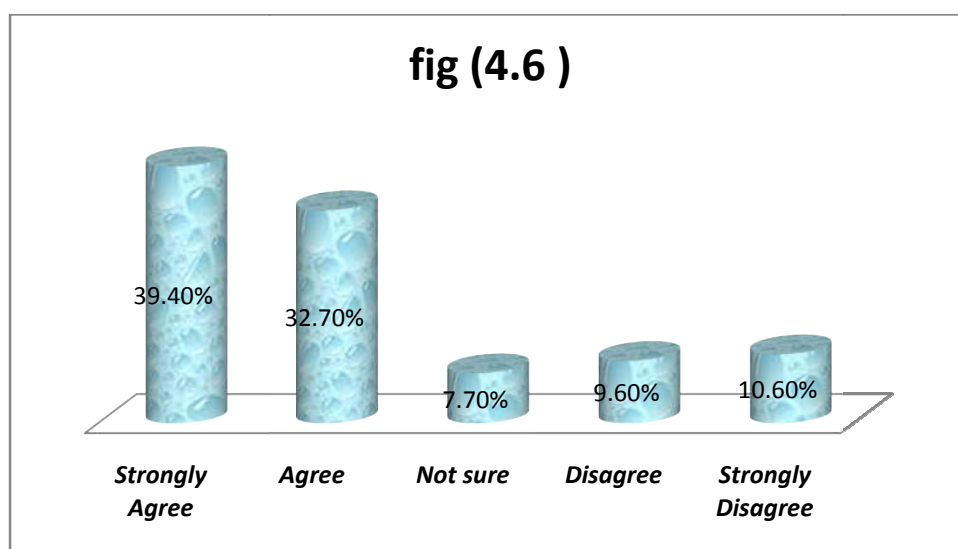


With reference to table (4.5) and figure (4.5) concentrating on the statement "EFL students can positively interact with text as they try to extract the meaning ". It's clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 31.70%, agree turned out to be 36.50%, not sure is 6.70%, disagree is 9.60%, whereas strongly disagree is only 15.40%. This indicates that EFL students should be able to elicit the meaning of text so as to create classroom interaction among them.

Statement (6): EFL students are not able to extract information relevant to the meaning of a word of linguistics environment.

Table No (4.6)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	41	39.4%
Agree	34	32.7%
Not sure	8	7.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.6%
Total	104	100%

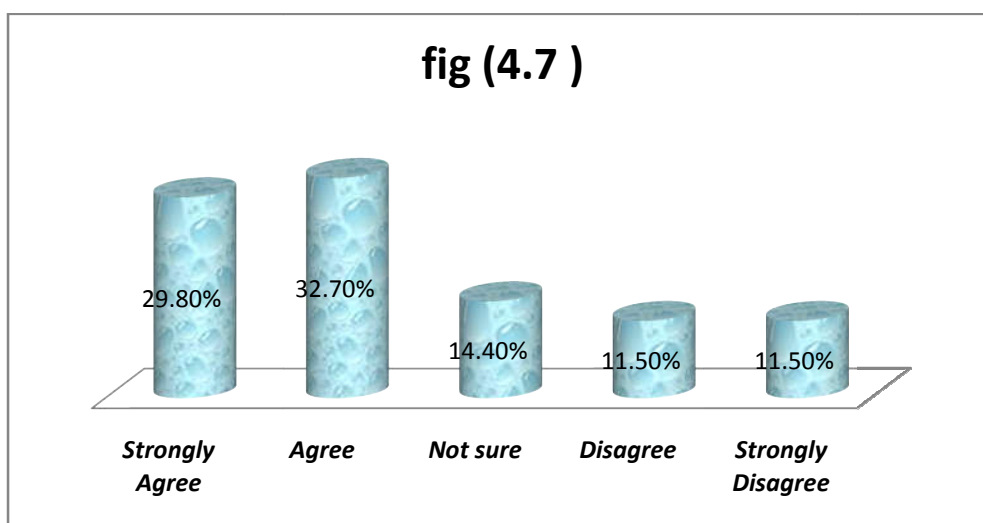


Concerning the table (4.6) and figure (4.6) referring to the statement "EFL students are not able to extract information relevant to the meaning of a word of linguistics environment ". It's illustrated that participants' responses to strongly agree is 39.40%, agree turned out to be 32.70%, not sure is 7.70%, disagree is 9.60%, whereas strongly disagree is only 10.60%. This demonstrates that EFL students should be able to inferring the meaning of word so as to create linguistic environment.

Statement (7): Teaching vocabulary within the context can help EFL to learn the contextual meaning of words.

Table No (4.7)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	31	29.8%
Agree	34	32.7%
Not sure	15	14.4%
Disagree	12	11.5%
Strongly Disagree	12	11.5%
Total	104	100%



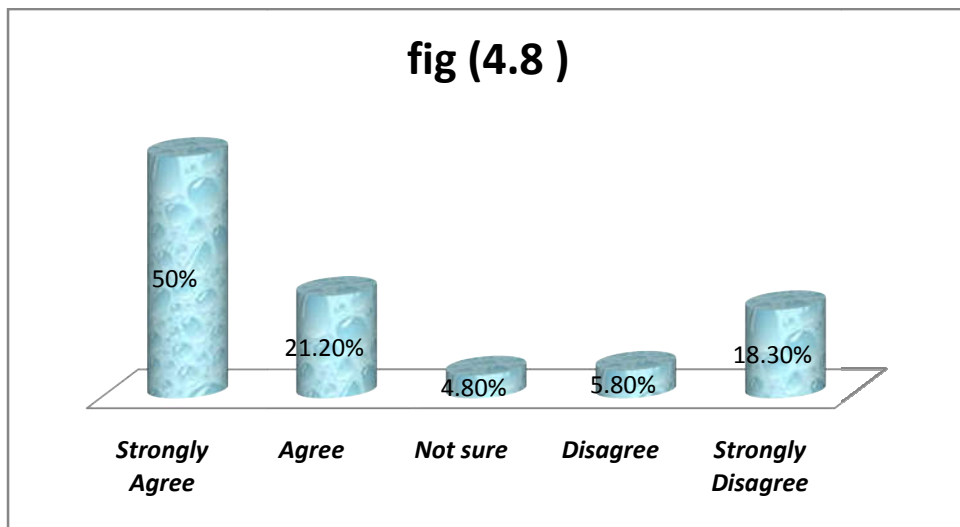
With regard to the table (4.7) and figure (4.7) referring to the statement "Teaching vocabulary within the context can help EFL to learn the contextual meaning of words ". It's showed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 29.80%, agree turned out to be 32.70%, not sure is 14.40%, disagree is 11.50%, whereas strongly disagree is only 11.50%. This proves that teaching vocabulary in the context can positively assist students to learn the contextual meanings of words.

Statement (8): EFL students can achieve considerable success in context when they are exposed to comprehensible input.

Table No (4.8)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	52	50%
Agree	22	21.2%
Not sure	5	4.8%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	19	18.3%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015

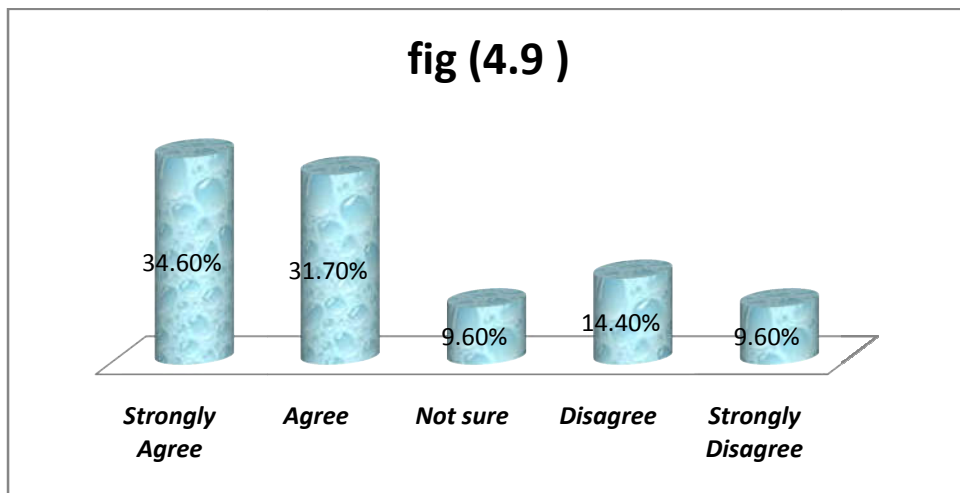


Regarding to the table (4.7) and figure (4.7) relating to the statement " EFL students can achieve considerable success in context when they are exposed to comprehensible input". It is clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 50%, agree turned out to be 21.20%, not sure is 4.80%, disagree is 5.80%, while strongly disagree is only 18.30%. This illustrates that exposing comprehensible input to EFL students can enable them to understand the contextual meaning successively.

Statement (9): EFL students are unable to deduce the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word.

Table No (4.9)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	36	34.6%
Agree	33	31.7%
Not sure	10	9.6%
Disagree	15	14.4%
Strongly Disagree	10	9.6%
Total	104	100%

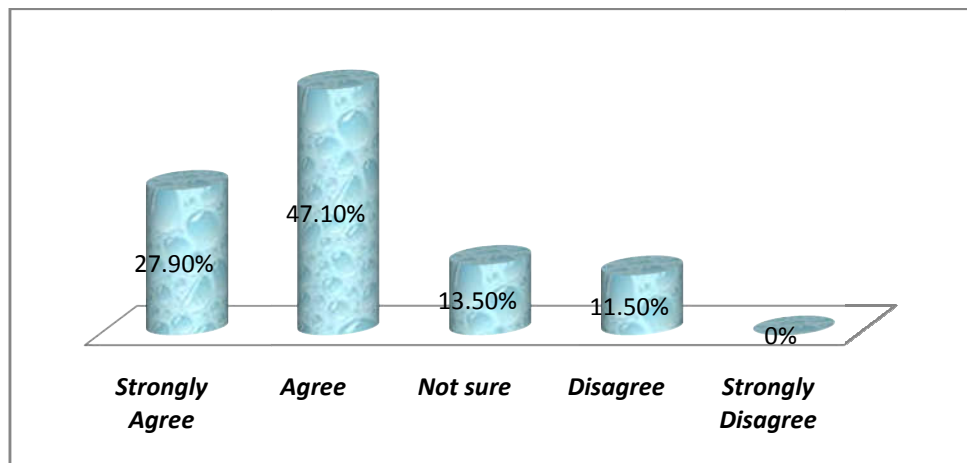


With regard to the table (4.9) and figure (4.9) relating to the statement "EFL students are unable to deduce the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word ". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 34.60%, agree turned out to be 31.70%, not sure is 9.60%, disagree is 14.40%, while strongly disagree is only 9.60%. This emphasizes that EFL students could not infer the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word.

Statement (10): EFL student can comprehend with difficulty the figurative meaning of the words in contexts.

Table No (4.10)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	29	27.9%
Agree	49	47.1%
Not sure	14	13.5%
Disagree	12	11.5%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Total	104	100%



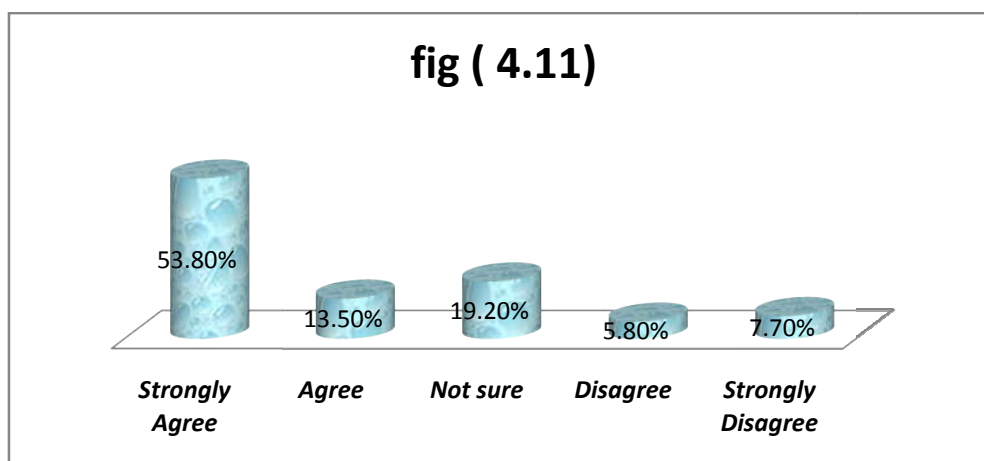
With reference to the table (4.10) and figure (4.10) concerning to the statement " EFL student can comprehend with difficulty the figurative meaning of the words in contexts ". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 27.90%, agree turned out to be 47.10%, not sure is 13.50%, disagree is 11.50%, whereas strongly disagree is only 0%. This justifies that EFL student can hardly grasp the figurative meaning of the vocabulary within contexts.

Statement (11) EFL students' cultural beliefs and values can negatively influence the comprehension of the written text.

Table No (4.11)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	56	53.8%
Agree	14	13.5%
Not sure	20	19.2%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015



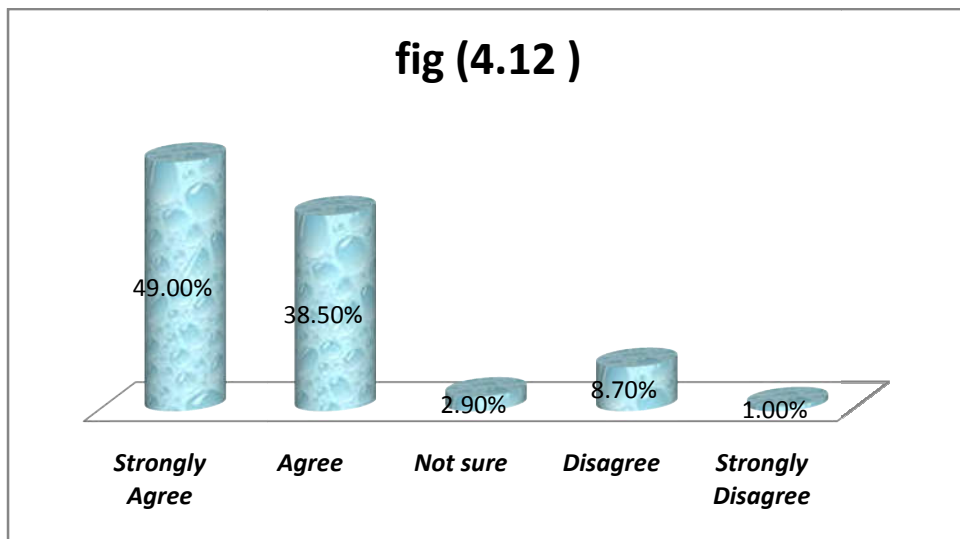
With referring to the table (4.11) and figure (4.11) relating to the statement "EFL students cultural beliefs and values can negatively influence the comprehension of the written text ". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 58.80%, agree turned out to be 18.50%, not sure is 19.20%, disagree is 5.80%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 7.70%. This shows that cultural beliefs and values of the students could not help them to comprehend the meaning of the written text.

Statement (12): Linguistic contextual clues are insufficient to understand the meaning of all idioms.

Table No (4.12)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.0%
Agree	40	38.5%
Not sure	3	2.9%
Disagree	9	8.7%
Strongly Disagree	1	1.0%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015



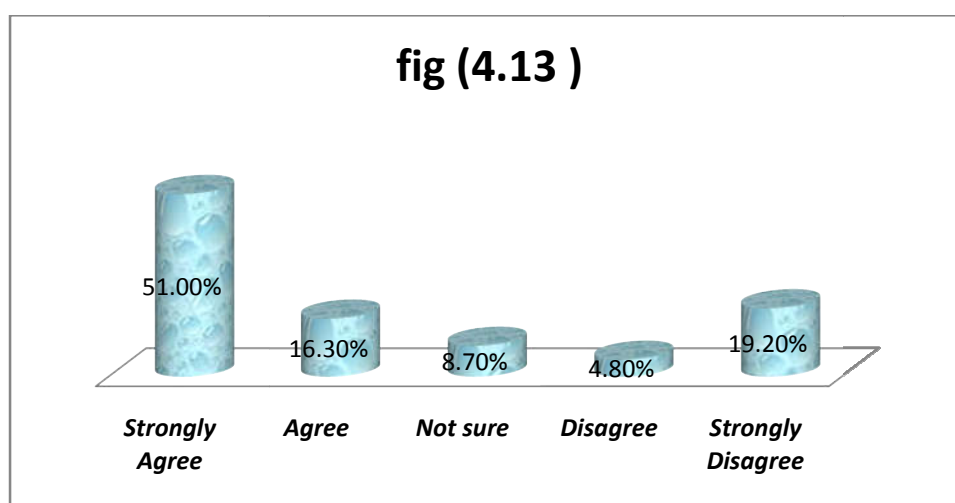
With referring to the table (4.12) and figure (4.12) relating to the statement "Linguistic contextual clues are insufficient to understand the meaning of all idioms ". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 49.00%, agree turned out to be 38.50%, not sure is 2.90%, disagree is 8.70%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 1.00%. This indicates that Linguistic contextual clues are not quite enough to enable the students understand the meaning of all idioms.

Statement (13): EFL student are unable to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they use.

Table No (4.13)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	53	51.0%
Agree	17	16.3%
Not sure	9	8.7%
Disagree	5	4.8%
Strongly Disagree	20	19.2%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015



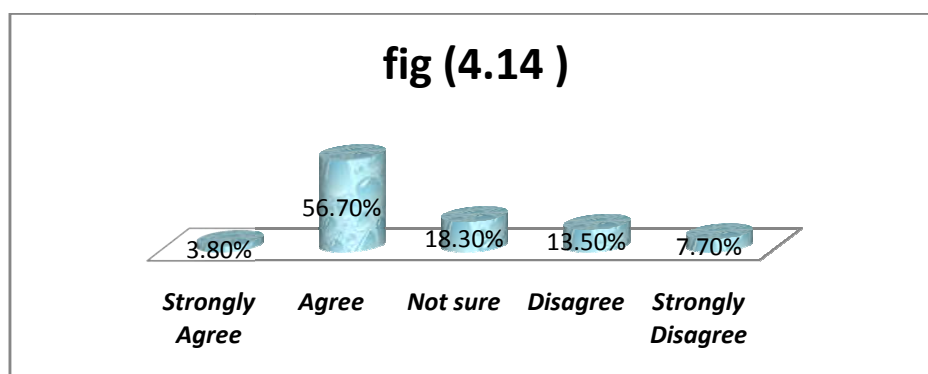
With regarding to the table (4.13) and figure (4.13) referring to the statement "EFL student are unable to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they use ". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 51.00%, agree turned out to be 16.30%, not sure is 8.70%, disagree is 4.80%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 19.20%. This illustrates that EFL students could not deduce the meaning of idiomatic expressions in the relevant context.

Statement (14): EFL students can rarely predict the meaning of phrasal verbs from the meaning of its parts.

Table No (4.14)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	4	3.8%
Agree	59	56.7%
Not sure	19	18.3%
Disagree	14	13.5%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015



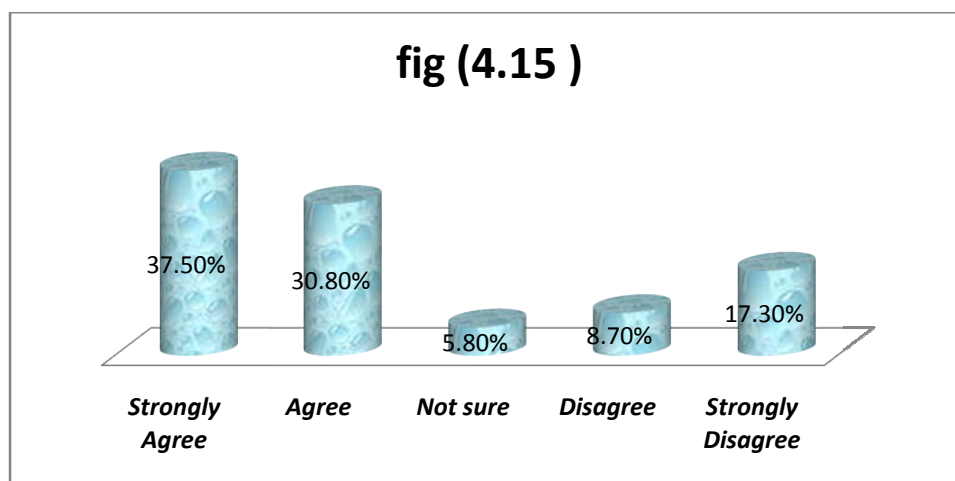
With regarding to the table (4.14) and figure (4.14) referring to the statement "EFL students can rarely predict the meaning of phrasal verbs from the meaning of its parts ". It is illustrated that participants' responses to strongly agree is 3.80%, agree turned out to be 56.70%, not sure is 18.30%, disagree is 4.80%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 19.20%. This illustrates that EFL students could not deduce the meaning of idiomatic expressions in the relevant context.

Statement (15): Inducing a contextually appropriate meaning in context is problematic for EFL students.

Table No (4.15)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	39	37.5%
Agree	32	30.8%
Not sure	6	5.8%
Disagree	9	8.7%
Strongly Disagree	18	17.3%
Total	104	100%

Source: The researcher from applied study, 2015



According to the table (4.15) and figure (4.15) referring to the statement "Inducing a contextually appropriate meaning in context is problematic for EFL students ". It is noticed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 37.50%, agree turned out to be 31.80%, not sure is 5.80%, disagree is 8.70%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 17.30%. This shows that inducing the suitable meaning in the given context is very difficult for the students.

4.3 Test of the Hypotheses of the Study:

To answer the study questions and check its hypotheses, the mean and standard deviation is computed for each question from the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problems .To do that, we will give five degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer "agree", three degrees for each answer "neutral", two degrees with each answer "disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree ". This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, the non-parametric chi-square test is used to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions.

Table No. (4.16) Chi –square test for hypothesis NO (1) :

Hypothesis: Denotative meaning of words can positively help EFL students in receiving the meaning of written discourse.

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	EFL students can easily decode the literal meaning of the words.	2.7	4.1	22	0.000
2	EFL students are unable to infer the meaning of the words within text.	2.6	0.5	19	0.000
3	EFL students are unable to retain the meaning of every word.	2.5	.90	31	0.000
4	EFL students can make mental picture of a text to comprehend the process that face them during reading.	2.9	1.6	22	0.000
5	EFL students can positively interact with texts as they try to extract the meaning.	2.6	.70	36	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-1) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among

the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students can decode the literal meaning of the words easily.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (2) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students are not able to infer the meaning of the words within text.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (3) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL are un able to retain the meaning of every word.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (4) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the

answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students can make mental picture of a text to comprehend the process that face them during reading.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (5) was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students can positively interact with text as they try to extract the meaning. According to the previous results the hypothesis NO (1) is accepted.

Table (4.17) Chi –square test for hypothesis NO (2):

Hypothesis: Connotative meaning of words can negatively affect EFL students in delivering written discourse meaning.

No	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	EFL students are unable to extract the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment.	2.8	2.1	27	0.000
2	Teaching vocabulary within the context can help EFL students to learn the contextual meaning of words.	2.7	1.5	29	0.000
3	EFL students can achieve considerable success in context when they are exposed to comprehensible input.	2.6	.50	34	0.000
4	EFL students are unable to deduce the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual words.	2.4	1.6	27	0.000
5	EFL students can hardly comprehend the figurative meaning in contexts.	2.9	2.7	23	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-1) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4)

and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students are not able to extract information relevant to the meaning of award of linguistics environment.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (2) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “Teaching vocabulary within the context can help EFL to learn the contextual meaning of words”.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (3) 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 (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students can achieve considerable success in context when they are exposed to comprehensible input.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (4) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "EFL students are unable to deduce the meaning from the phrases as whole rather than individual words."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (5) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "EFL students can hardly comprehend the figurative meaning in contexts."

According to the previous results the hypothesis NO (2) is accepted.

Table (4.18) Chi –square test for hypothesis NO (3):

Hypothesis: Cultural meaning of words can adversely affect EFL students in grasping written discourse meaning.

Nom	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	EFL students' cultural beliefs and values can negatively influence the comprehension of the written text.	2.8	3.4	25	0.000
2	Linguistic contextual clues are insufficient to understand the meaning of all idioms	2.5	1.5	19	0.000
3	EFL student are unable to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they use	2.4	.90	31	0.000
4	EFL students can rarely predict the meaning of phrasal verbs from the meaning of its parts	2.9	1.6	25	0.000
5	Inducing a contextually appropriate meaning in problematic for EFL students	2.6	.70	36	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1-1) 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 (11.7). this indicates that,

there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "EFL students cultural beliefs and values can negatively influence the comprehension of the written text."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Linguistic contextual clues are in sufficient to understand the meaning of all idioms."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "EFL student are un able to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they use.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3) was (31) which is

greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “EFL students can rarely predict the meaning of phrasal verbs from the meaning of its parts.”

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (4) 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 (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ Inducing a contextually appropriate meaning in problematic for EFL students.”

4.4 Analysis of the Second Tool (diagnostic test)

The test was carried out with fourth year students of English language at University of Al Fashir, Faculty of Arts.

4.4.1 The Sample of the Second Tool (diagnostic test)

The population of this stud consists of Forty five students of English language at University of Al Fashir. They responded to the test questions, there were only four questions which directly relate to the research hypotheses.

4.4.3 Statistical Reliability and Validity of Student's Test

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the test using Alpha - Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following: For calculating the validity and the reliability of the test from the above equation, the researcher distributed the attest to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient the results have been showed in the following table

4.4.4 Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of questions
	86	4

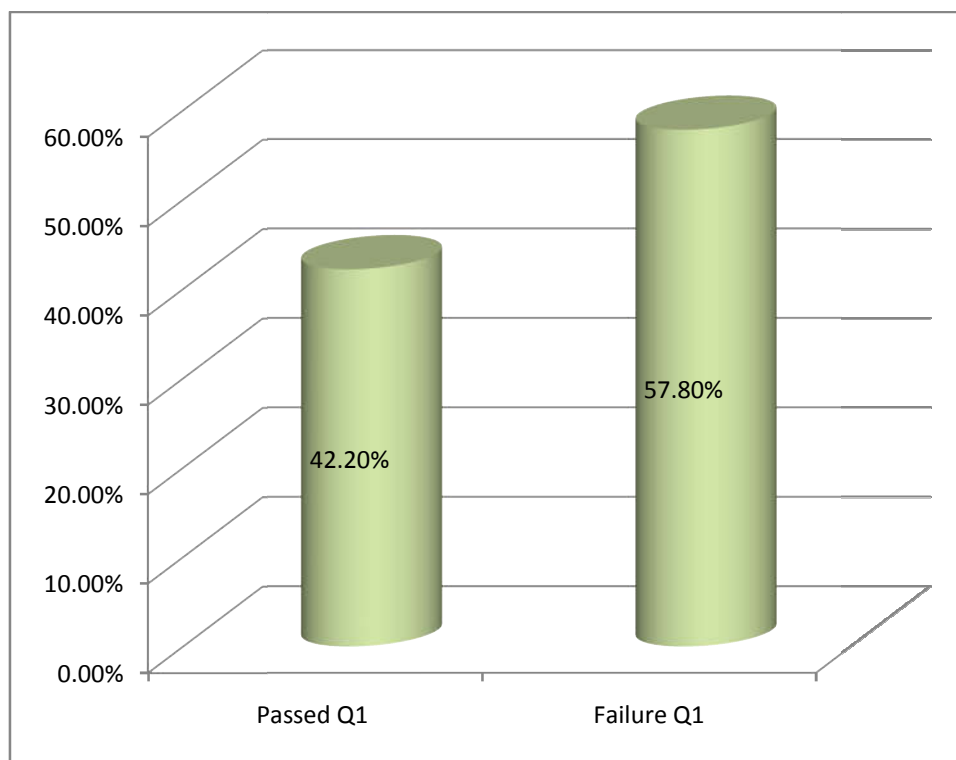
4.4.5 The responses to the Diagnostic Test

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

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

Table No (4.19) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of question number (1)

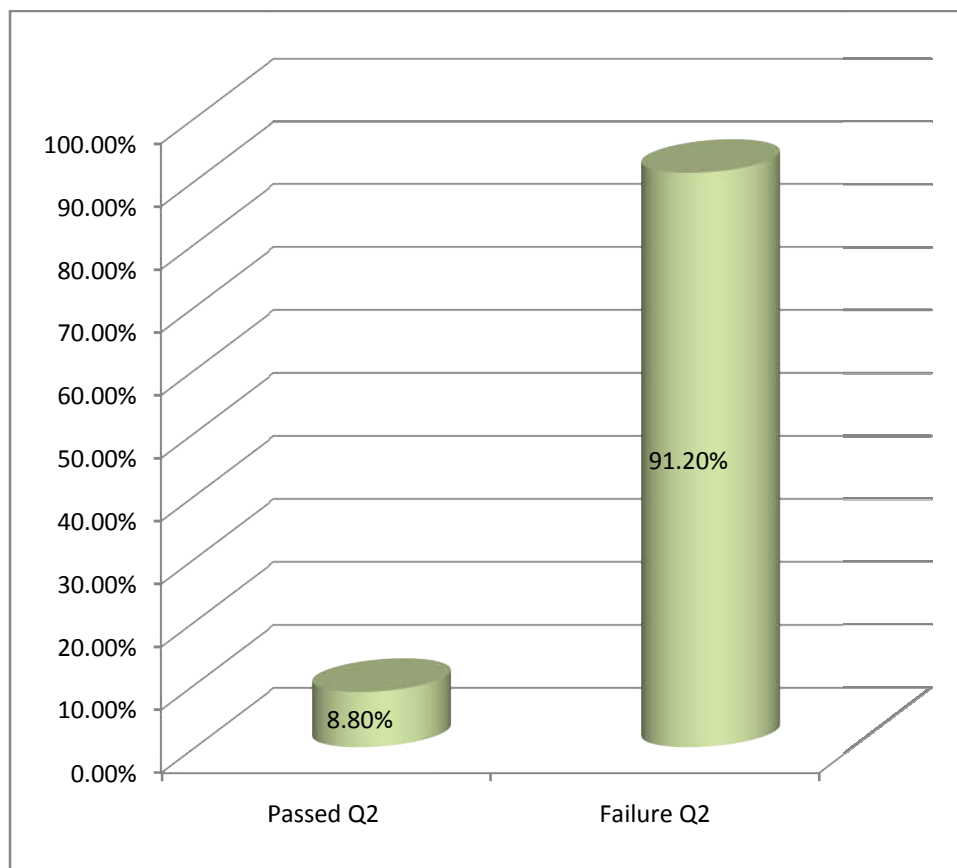
Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q1	19	42.2%
Failure Q1	26	57.8%
Total	45	100%



The above table and figure show that there are only (19) students in the study's sample with percentage (42.2%) passed the question number (1), while the most of the students (26) students with percentage (57.8 %) failed to pass the question, this result leads to the acceptance of hypothesis related to question number (1)

Table No (4.20) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of question number (2)

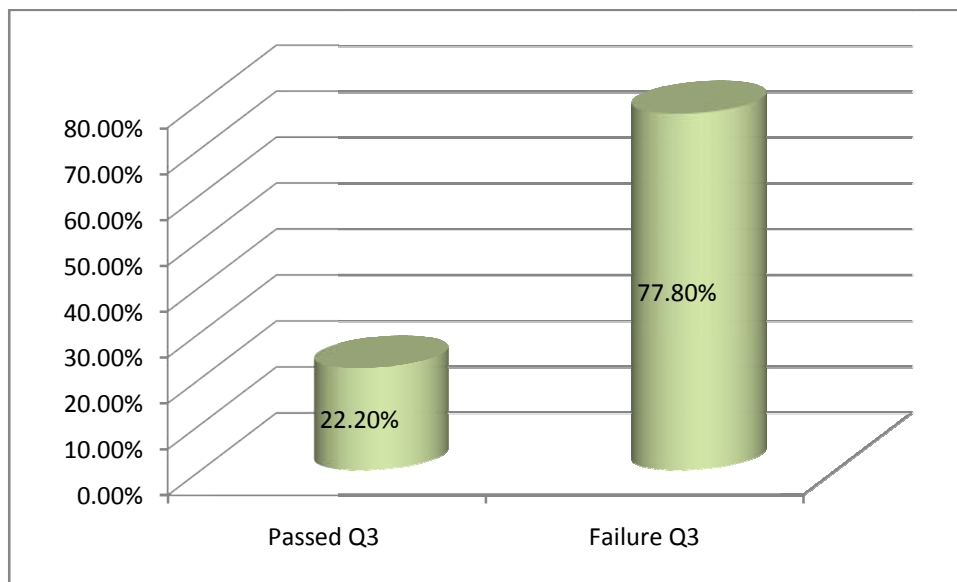
Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q2	4	8.8%
Failure Q2	41	91.2%
Total	45	100%



According to the above table and figure there are only (4) students in the sample of study with percentage (8.8%) passed the question number (2), whereas, the most of the students (41) students with percentage (91.2 %) failed to pass the question , this result leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (2).

Table No (4.21) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of question number (3)

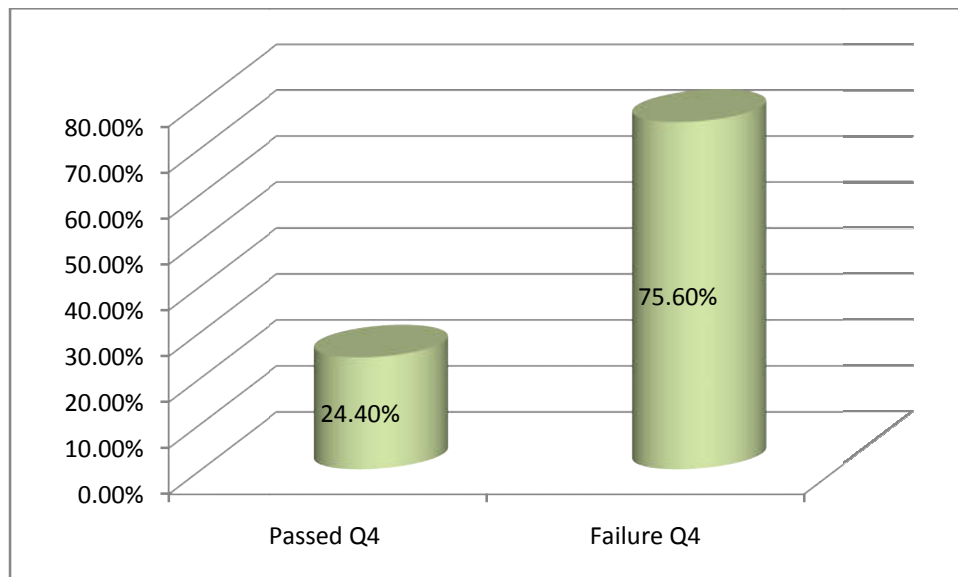
Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q3	10	22.2%
Failure Q3	35	77.8%
Total	45	100%



Regarding to the above table and figure display that there are only (10) students in the sample of study with percentage (22. 2%) passed the question number (3), meanwhile, the majority of the students (35) students with percentage (77. 8 %) failed to pass the question , this result leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (3)

Table No (4.22) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of question number (3)

Answers	Frequencies	Percentage
Passed Q4	11	24.4%
Failure Q4	34	75.6%
Total	45	100%



With reference to the above table and figure there are only (11) students in the study's sample with percentage (24. 4%) passed the question number (4), and the most of the students (34) students with percentage (75. 6 %) was failed to pass the question , this results leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis related to question number (4).

Table No (4.23) The Frequency Distribution and decisions for the Respondent's Answers of all questions.

Questions	Correct		wrong		Decision
	<i>frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	
Question 1	19	42.2%	26	57.8%	Accept
Question 2	4	8.8%	41	91.2%	Accept
Question 3	10	22.2%	35	77.8%	Accept
Question 4	11	24.4%	34	75.6%	Accept

This table presents the summary of the results. For the **Question one** 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 (57.8%) so we accept our hypothesis of the study which is related to question one.

The table No.(4.23) shows the summary of the results . For the **Question two** 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

(91.2%) 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 (77.8%%) so we accept our first hypothesis of the study which is related to question three.

The table No.(4.23) shows the summery of the results . For the **Question four** 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 (75.6%) so we accept our first hypothesis of the study which is related to **Question four**.

Table (4.24) one sample T-TEST for the questions of the study

Question s	N	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
1	45	3.5	12.2	45	0.00
2	45	1.85	7.3	45	0.00
3	45	1.44	8.4	45	0.00
4	45	1.43	8.5	45	0.00
For all	45	2.43	15.07	45	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 (44) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.21). this indicates that, there is no statistically significant differences 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 (44) 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 (44) 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.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the question No (3) was (8.5) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (44) 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 the hypothesis is accept

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGESSTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the 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 problems faced by EFL students in comprehending contextual meaning of written discourse. The researcher has summarized following findings:

- 1- The students can easily decode the literal meaning of the words.
- 2 - The EFL students are unable to infer the meaning of the words within text.
- 3 - The EFL students could not recall the meaning of every word.
- 4 - The EFL students are able to make mental picture of a text to understand the process that face them during reading.
- 5 - The EFL students can effectively interact with text as they try to induce the meaning.
- 6 - The EFL students could not extract information relevant to the meaning of a word of linguistic environment.
- 7 - The EFL students could achieve considerable success in context when they are exposed to comprehensible input.

8 - The EFL students' cultural beliefs and values can negatively influence the comprehension of the written text.

9- Linguistic contextual clues are quite enough to grasp the meaning of all idioms.

10 - The EFL students are unable to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they use.

11- The EFL students can rarely predict the meaning of phrasal verbs from the meaning of its parts.

5.2 Conclusion

This study pointed out that, majority of the Sudanese students at tertiary level are unable to comprehend the contextual meaning of written discourse effectively .And the reasons for that are many and varied. Dash (2005) states that the context can be categorized into four broad types:

Local context, sentential context, topical context and global context.

The local context refers to the immediate environment of the key word in a sentence where it has occurred, encompassing its immediately preceding and succeeding words.

The sentential context refers to a sentence where the key word has occurred. It supplies syntactic information to know if the key word has any explicit or implicit syntactic relation with the other words used in the sentence. Sentential context mostly happens in case of broken words, group verbs, idiomatic expressions, and set phrases where the two constituents, despite their idiomatic or phrasal relations, are separated from one another to be located at distant places in the sentence.

The topical context refers to the topic of discussion and focuses on the content of a piece of text. Quite often, it is found that the actual meaning of the key word depends heavily on the topic which has a strong role to alter etymological meaning of the key word. Topical context also implies

that we should extract relevant information from the topic to trail the change of meaning of the key word.

Verschueren (1981: 337) States that words are not isolated entities. They are actually interlinked with other words as well as with the extra linguistic reality. So does the meanings of words. The meaning of the key word is not only related to the meanings of other words occurring within local context, sentential context, and topical context, but also to extra linguistic reality surrounding the linguistic acts undertaken by language users.

Fillmore (1977: 82) his signifies that understanding the meaning of a verb form under investigation we need to consider of all the elements in a cognitive interface to realize its denotative, connotative and figurative meaning.

In order to comprehend the intended meaning of the key word in text we need clues from the global context, since clues available from other contexts is not appropriate for comprehending the actual meaning of the key word.

Pinker (1995: 344) states that in linguistics a word is a bundle of information related to phonology, morphology, lexicology, semantics, syntax, morph syntax, text, grammar, etymology, metaphor, discourse, pragmatics and the world knowledge . It is not easy to capture all the information of a word just by looking at its surface form or to its orthography. We require a versatile system along with our native language intuition to decipher all the possible explicit and implicit meanings of a word used in a piece of text.

As seen above, the local, topical, sentential and global contexts are quite enough for comprehending the intended meaning of a word, as these contexts often succeed to support the relevant information needed for the purpose. In some texts, information grasped from the local context and

the topical context may be appropriate, therefore, these four contexts are sufficient for understanding all possible meaning variations of a word.

5.3 Recommendations

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

- 1- EFL students should be able to induce an appropriate meaning in the written context.
- 2- Instructors raise the students' awareness about the importance of the contextual of the written discourse.
- 3- Contextual meaning of written discourse is badly needed to be integrated in the English curriculum in Sudan.
- 4- The EFL students should be taught via linguistic contextual clues so as to understand the meaning of all idioms.
- 5- EFL students should be able to deduce the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

The contextual meanings of the written discourse still an inviting area in the field of learning meaning of the words within contexts. Thus, the researcher would like to suggest that guessing from context is definitely one of the most effective skills that learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom. The importance of learning new words in context should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned by simple rote memorization but, by presenting the new vocabulary items in context clues to meaning. Moreover, an approach that includes definition as well as context can generate a full and flexible knowledge of word meanings.

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Appendix (A)

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear.....

This questionnaire is a part of a PhD study entitled" **Investigating Problems faced by EFL Students in Comprehending Contextual Meaning in Written Discourse.**"

So, I would be thankful for your assistance by applying your opinion about the questionnaire statements. For doing so, **please put"√" in front of your choice.**Your assistance is highly estimated.

Part One:

1- Age:

- (a) Less than 25 (b) 25-35 (c) 36-45
(d) 46-60 (e) 60 above

2- Gender:

- (a) Male (b) Female

3- Qualifications

- (a) Ph.D (b) M.B (C) High Dip (d) B.A

4- Years of experience as language teacher:

- (a) 1-5 (b) 6-10 (c) 11- 15 (d) 16 above

Part Two:

First hypothesis

Denotative meaning of words can positively help EFL students in grasping the meaning of written discourse.

	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	EFL students can decode the literal meaning of the words easily.					
2	EFL students are not able to infer the meaning of the words within the text.					
3	EFL students are not able to retain the meaning of every word.					
4	EFL students can make mental picture of a text to comprehend processes that face them during reading.					
5	EFL students can positively interact with texts as they try to extract the meaning.					

Second hypothesis:

Connotative meaning of words can negatively affect EFL students in delivering written discourse meaning.

6	EFL students are unable to extract the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistic environment.					
7	Teaching vocabulary within the context can help EFL students to learn the contextual meanings of words.					
8	EFL students can achieve considerable success in contexts when they are exposed to comprehensible input.					
9	EFL students are not able to deduce the meaning from the phrase as whole rather than individual words.					
10	EFL students can comprehend with difficulty the figurative meanings of the words in contexts.					

Third hypothesis:

Cultural specific meaning of expressions can adversely affect EFL students in grasping written meaning.

11	EFL students' cultural beliefs and values can negatively influence the comprehension of the written text.					
12	Linguistic contextual clues are insufficient to understand the meaning of all idioms.					
13	EFL students are not able to comprehend idiomatic expressions in relation to the context in which they are used.					
14	EFL students can rarely predict the meaning of phrasal verbs from the meaning of its parts.					
15	Inducing a contextually appropriate meaning is problematic for EFL students.					

Appendix (B)
Alfashir University
Faculty of Arts

Subject: Diagnostic Test

Name..... Class.....Time 1

Answer the following questions

Question One

Work out the meaning of the underlined words as stated in the context.

- 1- I thought she was my friend, but she turned out to be a snake in the grass.
.....
- 2- He is crazy like a fox.....
- 3- Now that he finally has a job, everything is coming up roses for him.
.....
- 4- He was a literary lion among the writers of his time.
.....
- 5- My brother does not like fighting, because he is a hen.
.....

B: Which word invokes negative or positive feelings. For each pair, place a plus sign (+) after a word that conveys a more favorable attitude and minus (-) after a less favorable attitude.

- 1- skinny.....slender.....
- 2- clever.....sly.....
- 3- cop.....officer.....
- 4- stateman.....politician.....
- 5- refreshing.....chilly.....

Question Two

Read this text carefully, and then answer the following questions below.

Let's face it: In today's *business* world you need to be young and free of attachments to strike it rich. It's a dog eat dog world out there and you're going to have to work quite a lot. Of course, not only will you have to work quite a lot, you'll need to be flexible and ready to take *advantage* of anything. That's where the "free" part comes in. I've got a young friend, he's only 25, but he fits the bill perfectly. He's *single* and he's hungry. He's willing to start from scratch and, best of all, he isn't afraid of putting his nose to the grindstone for those 80 hour weeks. He decided to take the *bull* by the horns by going starting up his own business. He found a software developer who knew the internet inside out. This young man was also very *ambitious*. He left his safe job at the drop of a hat. They were both reaching for pie in the sky, and they were ready. They also were lucky. They founded a startup and got into the whole social networking business in 2002. In other words, they were early birds and they were willing to sink or swim. Probably the most important *ingredient* in their success was that they were willing to play things by ear. They kept their ears to the ground, moved full steam ahead and drove hard *bargains*. Soon, their business was growing by leaps and bounds. Of course, they had some stumbling blocks along the way. Who doesn't? Still, they got the jump on the *competition* and by the year 2008 they were multi-millionaires.

A: work out the meaning of the following idiomatic expressions from the above text:

- 1- dog eat dog =
- 2- early bird =
- 3- fit the bill =
- 4- have one's ears to the ground =
- 5- know something inside out =

- 6- play something by ear =
- 7- sink or swim =
- 8- start from scratch =
- 9- strike it rich =
- 10- take the bull by the horns =

Question Three

Write the denotative meaning(dictionary meaning) of these words from the above text:

- 1- ambitious.....
- 2- advantage.....
- 3- bargains.....
- 4- competition
- 5- business
- 6- single
- 7- ingredient
- 8- bull
- 9- free
- 10- success

Question Four

Write the meaning of the following underlined phrasal verbs.

- 1- I made up the story.....
- 2- She got over her illness.....
- 3- I **put in** three hours on the project.....
- 4- She **looks forward to** going on vacation.....
- 5- I'm **getting ready for** a competition.....

- 6- Let's **get on with** this job.....
- 7- I **turned on** TV.....
- 8- She has **given up** the jogging.....
- 9- My friend **never lets me down**.....
- 10- **Check up** this word in dictionary.....