

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 Overview**

This introductory chapter is an overview of 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. A text does not contain a meaning. 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.

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 .

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.

Understanding the context means the person knows the 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.

## **1.2 Statement of Study Problem**

As Sudanese English students who have been learning English for several years at the various institutions of learning. Some of them do not take the contextual meaning seriously, especially in lectures of written discourse. Whatever the efforts that are made by the teachers to teach them contextual meaning, they do not seem to have much influence in improving the quality of learning it.

## **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

This study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

1. It attempts to investigate students' attitudes towards using denotative meaning of the words in written discourse.
2. It attempts to highlight comprehending connotative meaning of the words in conveying the meaning of written discourse.

3. It attempts to reveal understanding cultural meaning of the words in interpreting the meaning of written discourse.

#### **1.4 Questions of the Study**

This study sets out to answer the following questions:

1. What are students' attitudes towards using denotative meaning of the words in written discourse?
2. To what extent can comprehending connotative meaning of the words help students in conveying the meaning of the words written discourse?
3. To what extent can understanding cultural meaning of the words help students in interpreting the meaning of the words in written discourse?

#### **1.5 Hypotheses of the Study**

This study sets out to test the following hypotheses:

1. There are EFL students' attitudes towards using denotative meaning of the words in written discourse.
2. Comprehending connotative meaning of words can positively help students' in conveying the meaning of the words in written discourse.
3. Understanding cultural meaning of the words can potentially help students' in interpreting the meaning of the words in written discourse.

#### **1. 6 Significance of the Study**

This study will be 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 curriculums and syllabus designers.

### **1.7 Limits of the Study**

This study is limited to investigate students' attitudes towards understanding contextual meaning of the words in written discourse. It hoped that will tentatively cover the academic year (2018-2019). It was conducted at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages, and study sample was exclusively drawn from third year students of English at SUST- College of Languages.

### **1.8 Methodology of the Study**

The researcher has adopted the descriptive analytical method as well as quantitative method. Questionnaire is used as primary tool for data collection. A questionnaire was distributed to students of English Sudan University of Science and Technology- College of Languages.

### **1.9 Organization of the Study**

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

# CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter displays the related literature review on investigating Teachers' attitudes towards understanding contextual meaning of written discourse. It is called chapter two which is divided into two parts; the first part is called theoretical background and the second part is called previous studies.

#### Part one: Theoretical Background

### 2.1 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:**

**(i) local context** : . refers to one or two words immediately before and after the key word (KW) under investigation

**(ii) 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 in 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:**

**(i)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.

**(ii)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.

**(iii) 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.

### **(iii) 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 Knowing a word involves four aspects:**

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, collocation 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.

## **2.5 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.

## **2.6 Theories of Reading Comprehension**

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

### **2.6 .1 mental representations:**

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.

### **2.6 .2 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.

### **2.6. 3 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).

## **2.7 Effective Strategies for Reading Comprehension**

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

### **2.7.1 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 develop 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).

### **2.7.2 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).

### **2.7.3 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).

### **2.7.4 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).

### **2.7.5 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).

### **2.7.6 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).

### **2.7.7 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).

## **2.8 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).

## **2.9 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).

### **2.10 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).

### **2.11 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.

## **2.11 Kinds of Reading**

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

### **(i) 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.

### **(ii) 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).

## **2.12 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.

### **(i) 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.

### **(ii) 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).

### **(iii) 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.

#### **2.13 Definition of 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."

#### **2.14 Definition of 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 apart 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 collocation 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.

## **2.15 Relationship between Language, Culture and Idioms**

### **2.15.1 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."*



## **2.15.2 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.

### **2.15.3 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.

#### **2.15.4 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 lens 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 organize 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."

## **2.16. Part Two: Previous Studies**

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.

Relatedly, Sabouri (2016) has carried the paper entitled "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.

Relevantly, 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.

Relatedly, 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.

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. Accordingly, 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.

Relevantly, 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.

Relatedly, 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 utilizing new technologies. Thus the goal is to align fundamental qualities of the culture concept with specific pedagogical designs, tasks and technologies.

Relevantly, 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.

Relatedly, 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.

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.

Similarly, 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.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the following methods of the study, description of sample and the instruments, validity, reliability and data analysis procedures. The study adopted the descriptive analytical method. One instrument is used as primary tool for data collection. A questionnaire was distributed to third year students of English at Sudan University of Science and Technology - College of Languages).

#### **3.1 Method of the Study**

The researcher adopted descriptive analytical method. One instrument has been used to collect the information of this study. A questionnaire has given to third year students of English at Sudan University of Science and Technology - College of Languages.

#### **3.2 Population and Sample of the Study**

The populations of this study were third year students of English at Sudan University of Science and Technology. A questionnaire was distributed to the students from both sexes. This questionnaire includes a covering page which introduces the topic of research identifies the researcher. It uses likert 5- point scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree). A questionnaire is designed based on the questions of the study. The questions of the study were turn to statements that provide suggested answers from the students at university level were supposed to select the options which correspond to their responses. The items correspond directly to the

hypotheses of the study. It was conducted to third year students of English at SUST, College of Languages. The answers of the responses are treated statistically for the purpose of findings.

### **3.3 Tools of Data Collection**

The tool of study was questionnaire. A questionnaire was distributed to (30) third year students of English at SUST, College of Languages.

### **3.4 Procedures of the Study**

The researcher followed the following procedures in order to conduct this study. Initially, third year students of English at SUST asked to respond to the questionnaire so as to glean their positive ideas about the use of contextual meaning strategy. Students of English at SUST-College of Languages were asked to respond to the questionnaire. The obtained data from the questionnaire was analyzed using the SPSS and Alpha Cronbach's program specifically with percentile.

### **3.5 Validity and Reliability of the Study**

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

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement will use more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one



were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures.

### **3.6 Statistical Reliability of the Questionnaire**

	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>
	<b>0.89</b>	<b>12</b>

#### **Summary of the chapter**

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

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire which was given to 30 respondents who represent the third year students of English at Sudan University of Science and Technology- College of Languages.

#### **4.1 The Responses to the Questionnaire**

The responses to the questionnaire of the 30 students were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

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

#### **4.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire**

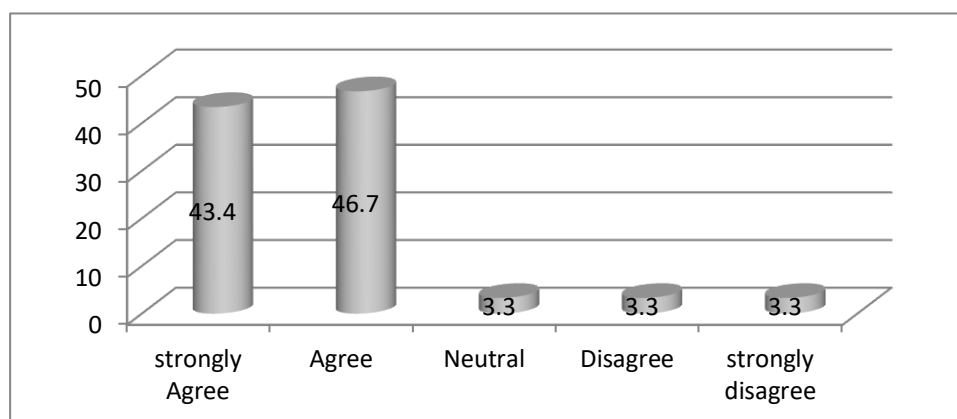
The researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (30), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

**Statement No.(1 ):** Extracting the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment enable me to comprehend the context.

**Table No ( 4.1)**

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

**Fig (4.1)**



With reference to table (4.1) and figure (4.1) regarding the statement "Extracting the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment enable me to comprehend the context". It's clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 43.4%, agree turned out to be 46.7% neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas

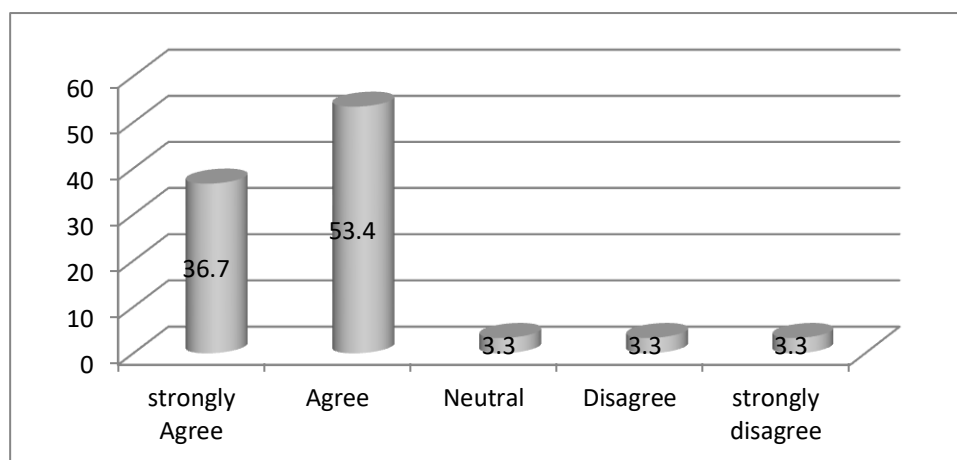
strongly disagree is only 3.3%. This demonstrates that students should be well- trained in comprehending the contextual meaning.

**Statement No.( 2):** Learning vocabulary within the context helps me understand the meaning of the words.

**Table No (4.2 )**

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

**Fig (4.2)**



With reference to table (4.2) and figure (4.2) concerning the statement "Learning vocabulary within the context helps me understand the meaning of the words". It's clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 36.7%, agree turned out to be 53.4% neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only 3.3%. This

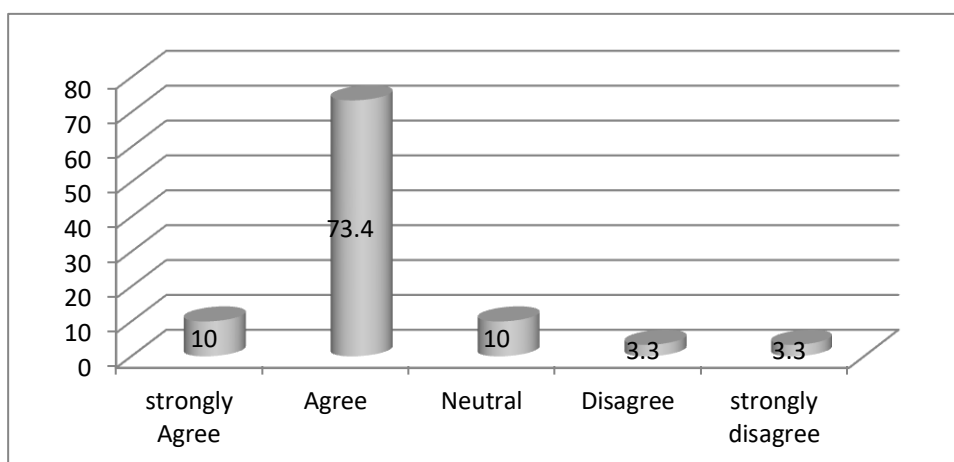
demonstrates that students should be well- trained in understanding the meaning of the words.

**Statement No.(3 ):** Achieving considerable success in context when they are exposed me to comprehensible input.

**Table No (4.3 )**

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

**Fig (4.3)**



With regard to table (4.3) and figure (4.3) concerning the statement " Achieving considerable success in context when they are exposed me to comprehensible input." It's observed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 10.0%, agree turned out to be 73.4%, neutral is

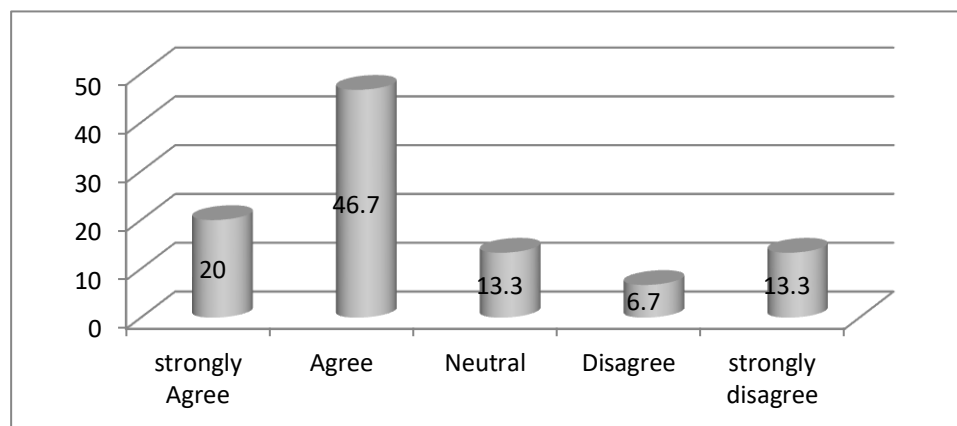
10.0%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 3.3%. This justifies the idea that, students should be well- trained in developing comprehensible input.

**Statement No.( 4):** Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word help me understand the context.

**Table No (4.4)**

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

**Fig (4.4)**



With regard to table (4.4) and figure (4.4) focusing on the statement "Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word help me understand the context ". It's noticed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 20%, agree turned out to be 46.4%, neutral is 13.3%, disagree is 6.7%, whereas strongly disagree

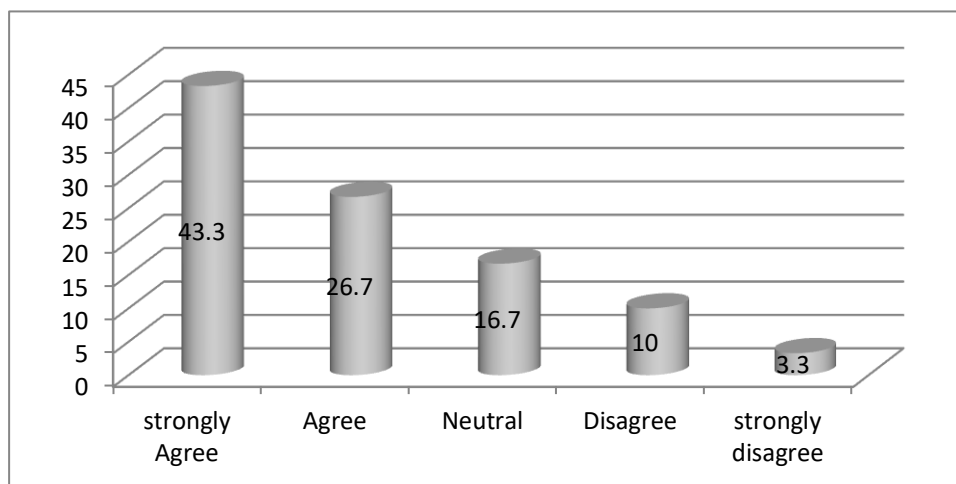
is only 13.3%. This strengthens the view of that; students should be well- trained to understand the context.

**Statement No.(5 ):** Comprehending the figurative meaning of the words enable me to decode the context.

**Table No (4.5 )**

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

**Fig (4.5)**



With reference to table (4.5) and figure (4.5) concentrating on the statement "Comprehending the figurative meaning of the words enable me to decode the context ". It's clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 43.3%, agree turned out to be 26.7%, neutral is

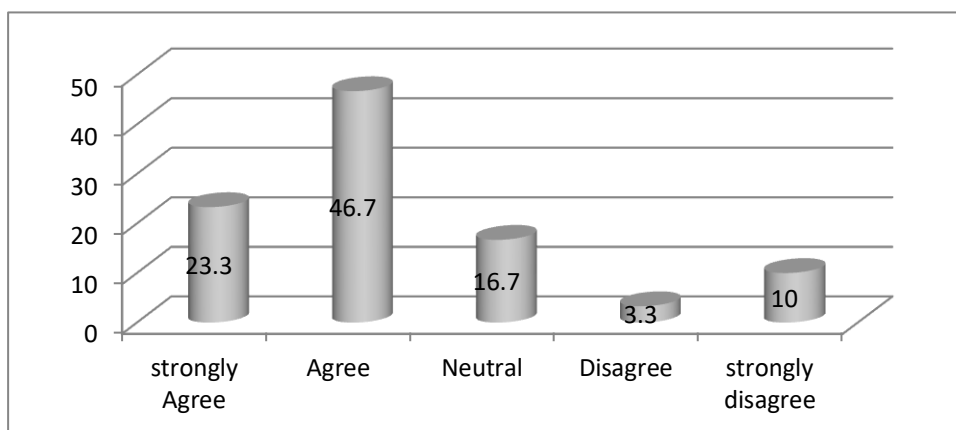
16.7%, disagree is 10.0%, whereas strongly disagree is only 13.3%. This indicates that students should be encouraged to comprehend the figurative meaning of the words.

**Statement No.( 6 ):** Mental picture of a text help me to comprehend the process of contextual meaning.

**Table No (4.6 )**

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

**Fig (4. 6)**



Concerning the table (4.6) and figure (4.6) referring to the statement "Mental picture of a text help me to comprehend the process of contextual meaning". It's illustrated that participants' responses to strongly agree is 23.3%, agree turned out to be 46.7%, neutral is 16.7%, disagree is 10%, whereas strongly disagree is only 10 %. This



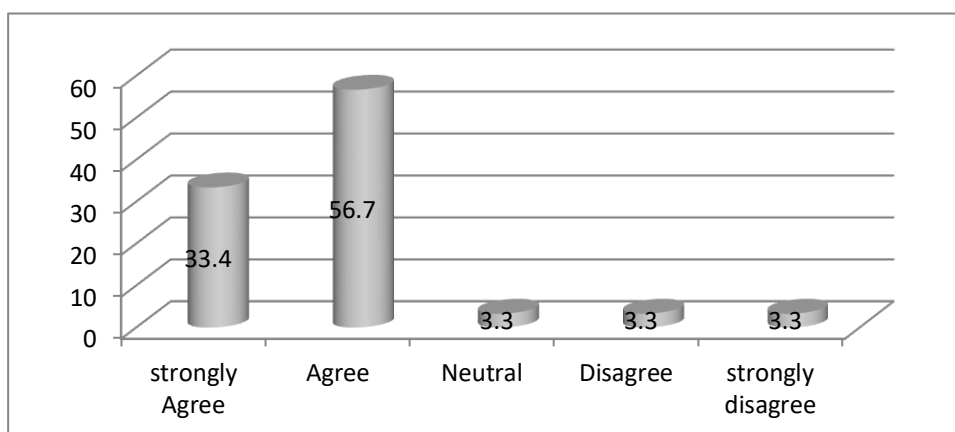
demonstrates that students should be trained in comprehending the process of contextual meaning.

**Statement No.( 7):** Retaining the meaning of every word encourage me to grasp the context.

**Table No (4.7)**

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

**Fig (4. 7)**



With regard to the table (4.7) and figure (4.7) referring to the statement " Retaining the meaning of every word encourage me to grasp the context". It's showed that participants' responses to strongly agree is 33.4%, agree turned out to be 56. 7%, neutral is 3.3%, disagree is 3.3%, whereas strongly disagree is only 3.3%. This proves

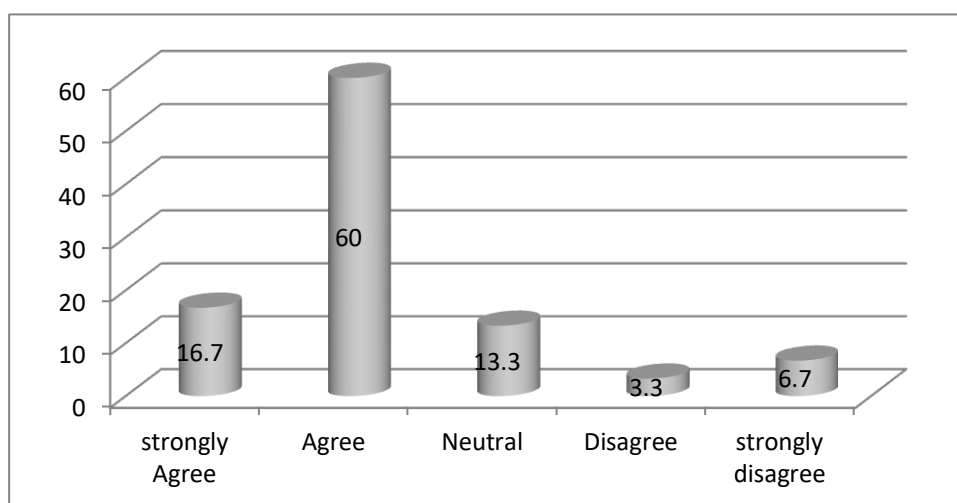
that students should be well-trained in retaining the meaning of every word.

**Statement No. ( 8):** Inferring the meaning of the words within context can positively help me convey the message.

**Table No (4.8 )**

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

**Fig (4. 8)**



Regarding to the table (4.8) and figure (4.8) relating to the statement "Inferring the meaning of the words within context can positively help me convey the message ". It is clear that participants' responses to strongly agree is 16.7%, agree turned out to be 60.0%, neutral is

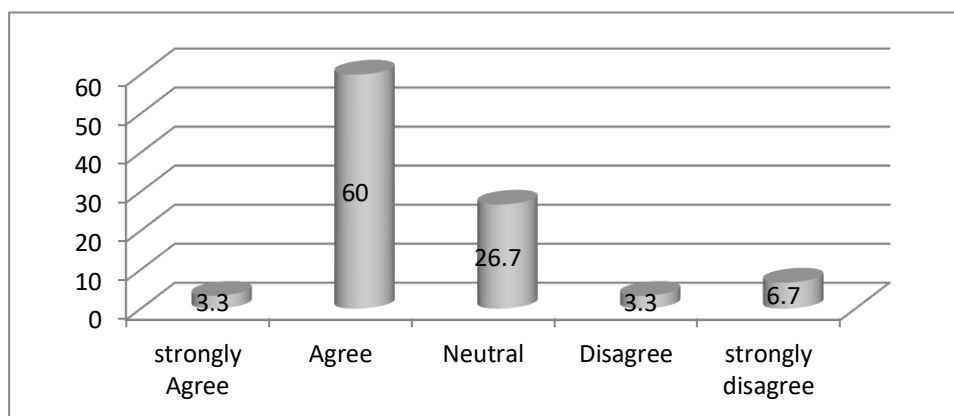
13.3%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 6.3%. This illustrates that students should be well-trained in inferring the meaning of the words within context.

**Statement No.(9 ):** Cultural beliefs and values negatively influence my comprehension of the written text.

**Table No (4.9 )**

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

**Fig (4. 9)**



With regard to the table (4.9) and figure (4.9) relating to the statement "Cultural beliefs and values negatively influence my comprehension of the written text". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 3.3%, agree turned out to be 60.0%, neutral 26.7%,

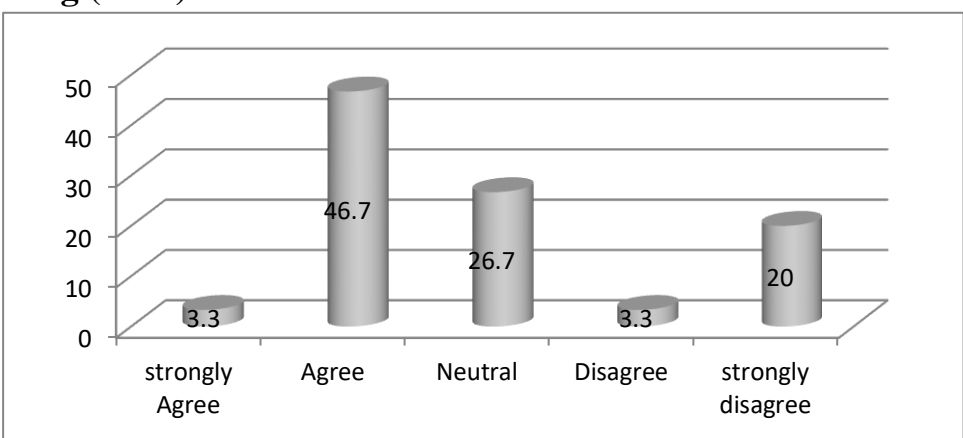
disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only 6.3%. This emphasizes that cultural beliefs and values affect students' understanding of context.

**Statement No.( 10):** Linguistic contextual clues are inadequate for me to understand the meaning of all idioms.

**Table No ( 4.10)**

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

**Fig (4. 10)**



With regard to the table (4.10) and figure (4.10) relating to the statement "Linguistic contextual clues are inadequate for me to understand the meaning of all idioms". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree are 3.3%, agree turned out to be 46.7%, neutral is 26.7%, disagree is 3.3%, while strongly disagree is only

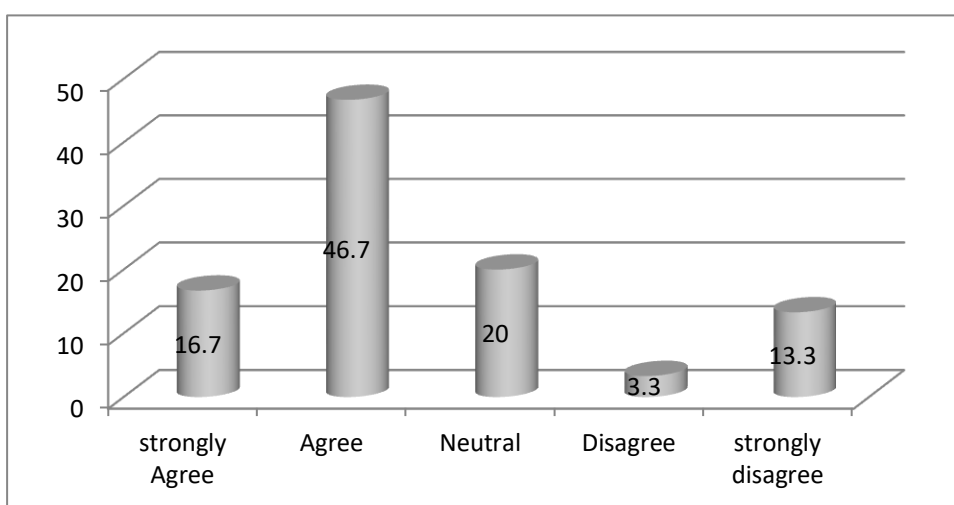
20%. This emphasizes that linguistic contextual clues should be enough for students to understand the meaning of context.

**Statement No. (11):** It is difficult for me to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they utilize.

**Table No (4.11)**

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

**Fig (4. 11)**



With referring to the table (4.11) and figure (4.11) relating to the statement " It is difficult for me to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they utilize". It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 16.7%, agree turned out to be 46.7%, neutral is 20.0%, disagree is 3.3%, meanwhile strongly

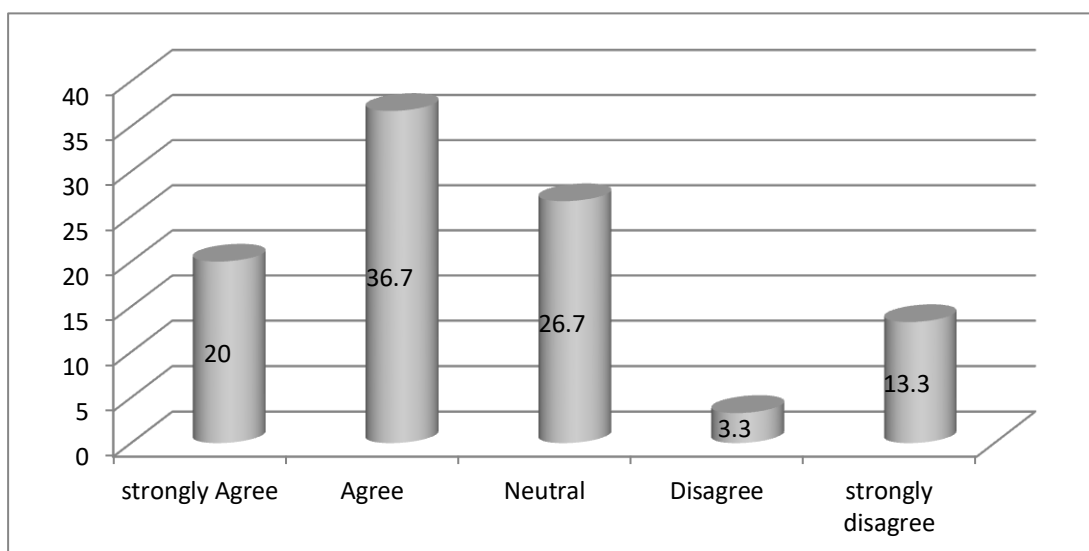
disagree is only 13.3%. This shows that idiomatic expression in relation to the context should help students to guess the meaning.

**Statement No.(12 ):** Inducing a appropriate meaning of context is considered as vital issue for me.

**Table No (4.12 )**

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

**Fig (4. 21)**



With referring to the table (4.12) and figure (4.12) relating to the statement "Inducing an appropriate meaning of context is considered as vital issue for me." It is obvious that participants' responses to strongly agree is 20.0%, agree turned out to be 36.7%%, neutral is

26.7%, disagree is 33.3%, meanwhile strongly disagree is only 13.3%.

This indicates that students should induce the meaning of context.

**Table No.(13 )**

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

No.	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	Extracting the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment enable me to comprehend the context.	2.5	1.3	24	0.00
2	Learning vocabulary within the context helps me understand the meaning of the words.	3.5	0.6	24	0.00
3	Achieving considerable success in context when they are exposed me to comprehensible input.	2.6	2.4	13	0.00
4	Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word help me understand the context.	2.4	0.8	25	0.03
5	Comprehending the figurative meaning of the words enable me to decode the context. .	3.3	0.6	21	0.00
6	Mental picture of a text help me	2.3	1.0	14	0.00

	to comprehend the process of contextual meaning.				
7	Retaining the meaning of every word encourage me to grasp the context.	2.5	0.6	16	0.00
8	Inferring the meaning of the words within context can positively help me convey the message.	2.4	0.8	24	0.001
9	Cultural beliefs and values negatively influence my comprehension of the written text.	4.3	0.7	21	0.008
10	Linguistic contextual clues are inadequate for me to understand the meaning of all idioms	4.2	2.4	34	0.00
11	It is difficult for me to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they utilize.	3.5	0.7	21	0.00
12	Inducing an appropriate meaning of context is considered as vital issue for me	2.0	1.7	32	0.00

Source: The researcher from applied study, SPSS 24



The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (1) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Extracting the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment enable me to comprehend the context.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (2) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Learning vocabulary within the context helps me understand the meaning of the words.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (3) question was (13) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Achieving

considerable success in context when they are exposed me to comprehensible input."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (4) question was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word help me understand the context.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (5) question was (21) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word help me understand the context.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (6) question was (14) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences

at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Mental picture of a text help me to comprehend the process of contextual meaning."

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (7) question was (16) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Retaining the meaning of every word encourage me to grasp the context."

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (8) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "Inferring the meaning of the words within context can positively help me convey the message."

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (9) question was (21) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences

at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “Cultural beliefs and values negatively influence my comprehension of the written text.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the No (10) question was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “Linguistic contextual clues are inadequate for me to understand the meaning of all idioms.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the No (11) question was (21) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “It is difficult for me to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they utilize.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents’ answers in the No (2) question was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (7.13). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences

at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement Inducing an appropriate meaning of context is considered as vital issue for me.

### **Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter has covered the data analysis of the study which is about difficulties students' attitudes towards understanding contextual meaning of written discourse. This is done through a questionnaire to the third year students of English at SUST- College of Languages. Moreover, it showed the data tabulated in figures and tables. Then, interpretations were made from the collected data. Finally, the researcher has discussed the results of the study.

# **CHAPTER FIVE**

## **MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES**

### **5.0. Introduction**

This chapter presents the answers to research questions, including the discussion of main findings. Moreover, brief recommendation and suggestions for further studies were given at the end of the chapter. To fulfill the purpose of the study, the researcher applied a questionnaire to students of English.

### **5.1 Main Findings**

The results of this study investigate students' attitudes towards understanding contextual meaning of written discourse. The researcher has summarized following findings:

- 1- Extracting the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment enable students to comprehend the context.
- 2- Learning vocabulary within the context helps students in understanding the meaning of the words.
- 3- Achieving considerable success in context when they are exposed students to comprehensible input.
- 4- Comprehending the figurative meaning of the words enable students to decode the context.
- 5- Inferring the meaning of the words within context can positively help students in delivering the message.

6- Cultural beliefs and values negatively influence student's comprehension of the written text.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

This study deals with the analysis and evaluation the students' attitudes towards understanding contextual meaning of written discourse in five chapters.

In chapter one, the researcher has introduced a brief background of the study, statement of the research problems, significance of the study, objectives of the study, questions of the study, hypotheses of the study, method, population and sampling, instrument of data collection, limitations as well as tools.

Chapter two introduces the theoretical framework related to using with regard to mobile learning and speaking skill and concluding with previous studies.

Chapter three presents the research methodology one instruments of data collection has been used questionnaire for students.

In chapter four the result of the questionnaire has been analyzed statistically by using SPSS program. Then each of three questions and hypotheses have been discussed and answered respectively according to the results. Consequently, significant findings show that cultural beliefs and values negatively influence student's comprehension of the written text.

Finally, in chapter five, the research summary, main findings, recommendations and suggestions for further studies have been clarified. The study has added some insights to English language

learners as well as their teachers particularly in the field of Linguistics.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Considering the above-stated findings and results, the researcher recommends the following:

- 1- Linguistic contextual clues should be adequate for students to understand the meaning of all idioms
- 2- Mental picture of a text should help students to comprehend the process of contextual meaning.
- 3- Retaining the meaning of every word should encourage students to grasp the context.
- 4- Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word should help students to understand the context

### **5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies**

Writing skill is still an inviting area in the field of English languages teaching learning. Thus, the researcher would like to suggest teaching of writing skill should be modernized; teachers must adopt the appropriate techniques for teaching contextual meaning. Thus, teacher should play a relatively more vital role in giving directions and teaching, students' improvements are mainly in the academic field.



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## Students' Questionnaire

This questionnaire serves as a tool for a research work that aims to investigate the EFL students' attitudes towards understanding contextual meaning of written discourse. I appreciate your time.

Your response will be of much help for the completion of this work.

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

**4. Hypothesis One:** Students' attitudes towards using denotative meaning of the words in written discourse.

NO	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Extracting the information relevant to the meaning of a word from its linguistics environment enable me to comprehend the context.					
2	Learning vocabulary within the context helps me in understanding the meaning of the words.					
3	Achieving considerable success in context when they are exposed me to comprehensible input.					
4	Deducing the meaning from the phrases as a whole rather than individual word help me to understand the context.					

**5. Hypothesis Two:** Comprehending connotative meaning of the words can positively help students convey the meaning of written discourse.

<b>NO</b>	<b>Statements</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
1	Comprehending the figurative meaning of the words enable me to decode the context..					
2	Mental picture of a text help me to comprehend the process of contextual meaning.					
3	Retaining the meaning of every word encourage me to grasp the context.					
4	Inferring the meaning of the words within context can positively help me in delivering the message.					



**6. Hypothesis Three:** Understanding cultural meaning of words can potentially help students decode the meaning of the words in written discourse.

<b>.NO</b>	<b>Statements</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
1	Cultural beliefs and values negatively influence student's comprehension of the written text.					
2	Linguistic contextual clues are inadequate for students to understand the meaning of all idioms					
3	It is difficult for me to comprehend idiomatic expression in relation to the context in which they utilize.					
4	Inducing a appropriate meaning of context is considered as vital issue for me					