TEACHING ENGLISH IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS THROUGH COMIC STRIPS

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Hakan ARSLAN

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ABSTRACT

Idiomatic expressions whose total meanings cannot be derived from its parts, are hurdles for foreign language learners. The main problem is not knowing the meanings, but knowing how, where, and when to use the idiomatic expressions correctly. In Chapter I, the background to the problem, which traces the importance of authentic language enrichment in language study, is given briefly. In this chapter, the problem, the purpose of the study, the importance of the study, its limitations and assumptions are introduced. Chapter II reviews literature relevent to the study. In Chapter III, the research method is explained. Chapter IV consists of the results of analysis. In this chapter, the results determined that teaching of idiomatic expressions through comic strips, instead of reading passages, made a particular contribution to the teaching of the idiomatic expressions of the Target Language in a non-native learning setting. The last chapter, Chapter V, includes discussion and suggestions for further studies.

ÖZET

Deyimler, yabancı dil eğitimi öğrencileri için dilin en zor öğrenilen ögelerinden biridir. Bunun nedeni, deyimlerin bir kaç sözcüğün bir araya gelmesi ile oluşması ve bu sözcüklerin tek başlarına taşıdıkları anlamdan soyutlanıp anlamsal bir bütünlük kazanmalarıdır. Bu etken, deyimlerin yalnız anlamlarının bilinmesi değil, nasıl, nerede ve nezaman kullanımında da güçlük çıkarır. Bu nedenle birinci bölümün ilk ünitesinde gerçek yaşamdan alınan dil kesitlerinin dil öğretimindeki önemi üzerinde kısaca durulmuştur. Birinci bölümün diğer üniteleri problemi, çalışmanın amacını, önemini, sınırlılıklarını ve sayıltısını kapsar. İkinci bölümde çalışmayla ilgili kaynak taranmıştır. Üçüncü bölümde araştırma yöntemi ayrıntılı bir şekilde verilmiştir. Dördüncü bölümde ise bulgular yer almaktadır. Bu bölümde bulgular, yabancı dildeki deyimlerin okuma parçaları yerine çizgi roman ile öğretilmesinin daha iyi sonuç verdiğini ve yabancı dildeki deyimlerin bu yolla daha kolay ve kalıcı bir şekilde öğretildiğini göstermiştir. Son bölüm ise bulguların yorumunu ve ileriye dönük araştırmalar için önerileri içermektedir.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the problem

The trend in ESL/EFL methodology is to try all kinds of material to teach language. It is believed that there is no single "best" way of teaching languages. Nonetheless, one thing is clear: the aim in language teaching is to teach the students how to communicate both in spoken and written language.

Eckard et al.(1981:1) state the fact about the issue as in the following:

> "One of the major goals -if not the primary one- for all teachers of English as a second language, regardless of the nature of the ELS program, is to teach students how to speak English well enough to converse spontaneously and naturally with native speakers."

Benda(1983:23) indicates that every language has its own way off expressing things according to its speakers' vision of the world, their logic, their conception of things, their ways of reasoning.

Simone(1987: 37-38) points out that when one teaches a language, one does not simply teach words -the name of things- and how they are strung together; one teaches a way of thinking, a way of ordering the universe and finding one's way in it. Simone(1987) also states that to master a language requires learning how people actually use the language to express their particular way of life.

According to Matos(1976: 17) a student studying English as a second or foreign language in his own country (for example, in Turkey) has a limited number of opportunities available to him to advance his conversational ability. These opportunities are movies, radio broadcasts (B.B.C., Voice of America, TRT 3), studying English in a public or private institution, television programs, face to face comminication with native or other fluent speakers of English, and recordings.

Matos(1976) also states that in all these opportunities except studying English in a public or private institution and face to face communication with native or other fluent speakers of English, the learner plays a passive role-he is simply exposed to varying samples of spoken English without any personal involvement or participation.

It may be possible to learn a foreign language simply by following the programme provided by a Coursebook, learning each new structure, and each new vocabulary item as it is presented in the text. But to learn in this way is to cut oneself off from the real life of the language, and to leave oneself with nothing to say at important moments.

According to Simone(1987: 38) one of the main difficulties encountered by students who begin to study the English language is the idioms, their construction and application. The main problem is not knowing the meanings, but knowing how, where and when to use the idioms correctly. The correct and confident use of idiom in a foreign language is an essential part of a student's overall success in operating within it. Using idiom requires both knowledge and confidence.

Stanislawczyk and Yavener(1976: 62) state that a great deal has been written in recent years about the vital role of authentic language usage in the classroom. They indicate that publishers have tried to include a wealth of culturally relevant material. Dialogues, narratives and all reading materials, including television-program announcements, clippings, marriage and death notices, cartoons and jokes, and pictures that portray the life of people to the student's age, all augment cultural insight.

About the same issue Safadi(1988: 22) states that textbook writers have begun including reprints

of cartoons and comic strips and whatever seems to suit students' desires for real-life relevance of learning material. Safadi also indicates that textbooks reflecting a communicative approach for adult language learners especially, today include more jokes and comic strips than most other language teaching texts.

However, Pint(1981: 43) raises some questions on the above issue and points out that in keeping with the fast pace of modern life, many ESL textbooks are written, edited and published in a hurry. He indicates that although they have witnessed more and more use of illustration -particularly of cartoons and comic strips- in recent years, there is frequently no time for adequate communication between author and illustrator. Sometimes there is no communication whatsoever, and the illustrator's lack of experience as a teacher is painfully evident on every page of the text.

Taska(1976: 9) shares Pint's ideas about the ESL textbooks and says that textbook writers tend to take themselves and their materials so seriously that they cannot create comic situations. Writers' rare attempts at humor, that can be so effective in breaking the monotony of the lesson, seem forced or out of place.

Most of the educators argue that teachers have been encouraged to look beyond textbooks to draw relevant material from newspapers, magazines and bumper stickers.

In recent years, many ESL textbooks display comic strips but as Stanislawczyk and Yavener(1976: 62) point out that no matter how well conceived these presentations are, they remain lifeless unless actively used by teachers who realize the importance of authentic language enrichment in language study.

Whether or not the ESL textbooks include comic strips, there is an obvious fact that those illustrations are not enough for a non-native student to grasp the communicative use of language. One way to overcome the difficulties in learning and teaching of idiomatic expressions in a foreign language is to use authentic materials such as comic strips that can be easily found in newspapers, magazines and comic books.

As Baddock(1983: 43) points out that many comic strips use expressions such as verb phrases and idioms as a language category and they contain a sequence of action, frequently with dialogue and a range of colloquialisms.

Consequently, Steinlein(1950:9) shares Baddock's opinion and indicates the fact that one of the "powerful elementary and simultaneous appeals" of the comic strips as the element of rough humor, and the use of colloquial language. Related to this issue, Taska (1976: 10) points out that comic strips contain colloquial language and natural dialogue, and they have visual appeal, and simple, clear drawings that reinforce

the language they contain. As Taska states that comic strip is one of the most ubiquitous form of popular entertainment and wherever we find newspapers and magazines, we can easily find comic strips.

A number of difficulties that students encounter while reading books in English are due to their lack of foreign language knowledge and that is why most of them may find English very difficult and reading in English for a long time an unbearable task. However, most of the students read comics in their native language and this habit may lead them to read comics also in the target language.

Wittich and Schuller(1962: 142) state that an analysis of the language of the comics by Thorndike indicated several points of interest. Perhaps the most significant of these is the finding that a student who reads one comic book per month will read approximately twice as many words per year as his reading book contains. In the words of Thorndike, they concluded that both the amount and the character of the vocabulary provided valuable practice in reading for the young reader.

This study reveals that comic strips containing idiomatic expressions in them, which are chosen from newspapers, magazines, and comic books, may contribute to students learning and using idiomatic expressions in a correct and better way than if they learned the expressions from reading passages. Furthermore, this

way of teaching will make students aware of how to speak and understand English well enough to converse spontaneously and naturally with native speakers in terms of idiomatic expressions. In addition, a display of comic strips in English which are very rich in terms of colloquialisms may encourage students who do not usually read in English to begin reading.

To sum up, for the reasons stated so far, in foreign-language teaching, in terms of idiomatic expressions, comic strips may help both to the students and teachers of English as a second language to contribute to the students' conversational skills and they will be an aid for the language teachers to enliven their lessons, because as an authentic material comic strips are not only cheaper, but also more up-to-date and thus livelier.

In this study, cartoons are not used because they are the relatively novel offspring of an extremely sophisticated visual culture and very difficult for the non-native speakers to interpret because interpreting cartoons, most of the time, require the recent knowledge of the sociological events of the second language culture. As Dale(1969: 514) points out that cartoon is a kind of generalization, and, like all the generalizations, is useful in proportion to our previous knowledge of the subject. It may be COIK-clear only if known.

The reasons why cartoon filmstrips and movies are not used in this study may be stated as; first of all, the principle disadvantages of filmstrip and movie are the necessity for special equipment (TV sets, videos, electrical attachments). Secondly, it may be difficult for one to find those filmstrips and movies, and even if possible, they may cost very expensive, therefore, the problem of this study is set as follows:

1.2. Problem

The question that will be looked into in this study may be stated as whether teaching of idiomatic expressions through comic strips in Foreign Language Teaching will enhance learning and using the idiomatic expressions of the Target Language.

1.3. Purpose of the study

Freeman(1986: 128) points out that whenever possible, "authentic language" -language as it is used in real context- should be introduced.

Littlewood(1981: 71) also states that the students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers.

Because of the reasons stated above, the purpose of this study is to find an answer to the question stated in the problem section by teaching the idiomatic expressions through comic strips and reading passages and to determine whether there is a significant difference between the two types of instruction by comparing the results of the comprehension tests which are employed to the students at the end of instruction sessions.

1.4. Importance of the study

Idiomatic expressions, whose total meanings can not be derived from their parts, are hurdles for foreign language learners. Although teaching of idiomatic expressions appears to have a long and respectable association with English Language Teaching, it has still been the most neglected area by the teachers of English as a second language. Teaching of idiomatic expressions has been assumed too complex to deal with, therefore, teachers generally avoid insisting on teaching idiomatic expressions. This avoidance comes into being partly because teachers' inadequate knowledge about idiomatic expressions and their doubt about how to teach them.

Thus, this study may help those who believe the teaching of idiomatic expressions has an important role in language teaching but have some problems in teaching them.

1.5. Limitations and assumptions

This study is limited to the teaching of selected English idiomatic expressions to the second year students of the Education Faculty of English Language Teaching Department at Anadolu University through comic strips and reading passages.

The twenty idiomatic expressions are selected randomly according to the availabilty of comic strips and the subjects are assumed that they do not know these idiomatic expressions beforehand. There are idioms, idiomatic phrasal and prepositional verbs, and collocations among these idiomatic expressions.

The duration of the instruction period was limited by the time allowed to this study(i.e. one month).

The observation of the progress is limited with the multiple choice and fill-in-the-blank questions set in the Comprehension tests(cf. Appendices C-1, C-2).

In this study, the idiomatic expressions are taught by the researcher, a non-native speaker of English whose native language is Turkish.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Chapter overview

This chapter contains five sections, each of which is considered to have a relationship to each other and provides a basis of support for the study.

In the first section the role of vocabulary in seven approaches to foreign-language teaching is stated to identify the attitudes of foreign language teachers and learners towards vocabulary depending on the different approaches.

Section two deals with the reading habit of foreign language learners and states the reasons of the grievances of the language teachers on reading.

In section three, different points of view on the definition of idiom and classification approaches are discussed and the non-native students' problems

with phrasal and prepositional verbs are stated. The significance of idioms in communication and language teaching is also stated in this section.

Section four is devoted to the significance of visual aids and authentic materials in language teaching and the importance of context in teaching vocabulary and idioms.

The last section, section five, includes the definitions of the cartoon and the comic strip and focuses on the properties and significance of comic strips as a visual aid in the foreign-language classroom.

2.1. The role of vocabulary in seven approaches to foreign language teaching

In the article "Vocabulary Teaching in the Foreign Language Classroom", Palmberg(1986: 15-20) states that throughout this century, there has been great diversity in the prevailing aproaches to foreign-language teaching. Often shaped in response to contemporary trends in linguistics or psychology, a number of approaches have succeeded and replaced one another, tending, as a rule, to deny the advantages of the preceding ones.

Palmberg(1986) also points out that for the above reason the attitudes of foreign language teachers and learners towards vocabulary have undergone several changes depending on the way in which each approach emphasized different language skills and, above all, the role of vocabulary.

This section will briefly outline the role of vocabulary in seven major approaches to foreign language teaching: the grammar-translation approach, the reading approach, the direct method, the audiolingual approach, the cognitive approach, the communicative approach, and the natural approach.

2.1.1. The grammar-translation (traditional) approach

In his article, Palmberg(1986) states that in the early days of grammar-translation (or traditional) approach, the primary aim of teaching was a thorough knowledge of the foreign-language grammar. Having learned a new grammatical rule, the learner was expected to practice it through translation exercises from the native language into the foreign language or vice versa, using, when necessary, word lists or dictionaries.

About the same issue, Richards and Rodgers(1986: 4) point out that in this approach, vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization. They explain that in a typical Grammar-translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items are presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are prescribed.

Palmberg(1986) also indicates that since the main emphasis was on the recognition of written words

and the production of written translations, the learners were mostly unable to speak or understand natural speech in the foreign language even after studying for five or six years.

2.1.2. The reading approach

Palmberg (1986) points out that the reading approach, as the name suggests, deliberately restricted its primary aim to both intensive and extensive reading skills in the foreign language, at the same time assigning a central role to the teaching of vocabulary. He states that the same shortcoming of garammar-translation approach was also ascribed to the reading appoach developed by West in the late 1920s.

2.1.3. The direct method

During the first quarter of the century and in the late 1950s, respectively, two distinct approaches, (Direct method and Audiolingual method), to foreign language teaching gradually developed to provide a remedy for the state of affairs where foreign-language learners were unable to produce and comprehend foreign-language speech.

The direct method (also called the "reform method", "natural method", "psychological method", and "phonetic method") as Palmberg states that was

based on inductive rather than deductive learning, emphasizing the teaching of oral skills directly by means of communication. The use of the native language was not tolerated in the classroom, and translation as a teaching technique was strictly forbidden. It was assumed that the learners would learn vocabulary in context as an integral part of each lesson, e.g., by acting it out.

Freeman(1986: 23-25) indicates that in this method vocabulary is emphasized over grammar and as one of the principles of this method vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences, rather than memorizing word lists.

According to Richards and Rogers(1986: 9-10) in this method only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught and concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

2.1.4. The audiolingual approach

Palmberg(1986) indicates that the "aural-oral" approach originated from the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) initiated during World War II in the United States, and possessed elements traceable both to Bloomfieldian structuralism and to behavioristic psychology. The approach appeared under various names until Brooks proposed the term "audiolingual" in 1960.

Palmberg(1986) states that as indicated in its name, this approach, like the direct method, concentrated largely on listening and speaking skills. The techniques used to produce correct language habits in the learners were, above all, oral imitatiion, memorization, and drills. Vocabulary teaching, however, was kept to a minimum until the learner had developed a firm control of the basic structural patterns and was able to express himself freely within a limited area of the foreing language.

About the same issue, Freeman(1986: 41) points out that in this approach new vocabulary is introduced through lines of the dialogue; vocabulary is limited and since the major objective of language teaching should be for students to acquire the structural patterns; students will learn vocabulary afterward.

2.1.5. The cognitive approach

Palmberg(1986) states that the cognitive approach to foreign-language teaching, which developed in the late 1960s, had, broadly speaking, the same teaching aims as the audiolingual approach. Introduced by Carroll (1966), who was the first to describe a cognitive theory of language teaching, it combined elements from the grammar-translation approach and an updated direct method with those of contemporary cognitive psychology. Palmberg states that in the words of Chastain,

who makes use of the competence/performance distinction introduced by Chomsky in 1965, the learner "is seen as consciously acquiring competence in a meaningful manner as a necessary prerequisite in the acquisition of the performance skills".

Palmberg(1986) points out that the "necessary prerequisite", in Chastain's terms, equaled a firm knowledge of the grammatical rules of the foreign language. After that, however, new sounds, structures, and vocabulary were given equal importance. There was, in fact, a renewed interest in vocabulary, especially as far as the expansion of vocabulary knowledge for reading purposes was concerned.

2.1.6. The communicative approach

Palmberg(1986) states that in the 1970s and early 1980s, the introduction and eleboration of the concept of communicative competence as opposed to Chomsky's "linguistic competence" had a widespread influence on the development of foreign-language teaching. Palmberg indicates that in this approach, the foreign language teaching was often learner-centered in nature, and stressed the importance of learning through the use of the foreign language. Furthermore, this approach generally emphasized vocabulary practice and aimed at providing learners with opportunities to interact with one another and the teacher in as "natural" situations as possible.

Examples of such "new thought" in language pedagogy are Curran's "Community Language Learning" (1972), Gattegno's "The Silent Way"(1972), Lozanov's "Suggestopedia"(1979), and Asher's "Total Physical Response"(1977).

2.1.7. The natural approach

Richards and Rodgers(1986: 140) state that Krashen and Terrell's combined statement of the principles and practices of the Natural Approach appeared in their book, "The Natural Approach" published in 1983. Richards and Rodgers point out that the Natural Approach belongs to a tradition of language teaching methods and approaches based on observation and interpretation of how learners acquire both first and second languages in nonformal settings, such methods reject the formal (grammatical) organization of language as a prerequisite to teaching.

In the Natural Approach, a focus on comprehension and meaningful communication as well as the provision of the right kinds of comprehensible input provide the necessary and sufficient conditions for successful classroom second and foreign language acquisition. This has led to a new rationale for the integration and adaptation of techniques drawn from a wide variety of existing sources. Like Communicative Language Teaching, The Natural Approach is hence evolutionary rather

than revolutionary in its procedures. Its greatest claim to originality lies not in the techniques it employs but in their use in a method that emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful practice activities, rather than production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences.

In the Natural Approach, whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful, as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.

About the role of vocabulary in Natural Approach, in Richards and Rodgers book, **Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,** (1986: 134) Krashen and Terrell state that the Natural Approach has the expectation that students;

> will be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification), and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless-but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar.
>
> (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 71)

2.2. The reading habit

Smithies(1982: 2-3), in his article, "Book Reports and The Reading Habit", states that it is a universal comlplaint that students do not read as much as they should. No matter what the country or the language of instructuon, the grievance is the same. There are obviously more excuses for students not reading as much as they should: apart from language obstacles, and consequent lower reading speeds, there is the question of availabilty of texts, the acquisition of reading habit, the strong oral tradition opposed to a weak written one, and a host of other considerations, ranging from physical enviroment to economic circumstances.

Smithies(1982) points out that in surveys conducted over the last few years in a country where traditionally the reading habit hardly exists but where books are institutionally available, it was found that very little was being read, even including textbooks; full figures have yet to be compiled, but it was the minority of students that appeared to be reading as much as one book a month. Smithies indicates that preferred reading, apart from the daily newspaper, appeared to be comics, and certainly these seemed to be the most visible reading material. He finally states that reading for relaxation clearly has to be encouraged, for this is at the root of the reading habit.

2.3. The definition of the idiom

The early studies on idioms have defined and classified the term idiom from a structural point of view and they have analysed idioms by looking at their structure.

Katz and Postal(1963: 275-6) state two types of idioms; lexical and phrase idioms and they define these idioms as in the following:

"The characterization of an idiom as any concatenation of two or more morphemes whose compound meaning is not compositionally derived from the meanings of the concatenated morphemes does not differentiate those idioms that are syntactically dominated by one of the lowest syntactic categories, i.e. noun, verb, adjective, etc., from those whose syntactic structure is such that no single level syntactic category dominates them. Let us call the former type 'lexical idioms', the latter 'phrase idioms'."

Thus, lexical idioms contain two or more morphemes and the total meaning cannot be derived from the meanings of individual morphemes as far as syntactic categories are concerned, these could be nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. On the other hand, phrase idioms are not of any specific syntactic category since they are an amalgamation of two or more lexemes.

Consequently, the definition of the idiom, depending on the different structural frameworks in

which it is analyzed, has varied accordingly. These earlier studies therefore are not complete because they only look at idioms in terms of structure, and not from a semantic and pragmatic point of view.

However, Strassler(1982: 11) indicates that,

"Idioms are seen as a special category of lexical items which are not only determined through their structure, but which also show a specific type of behaviour in language use."

Therefore, Strassler(1982: 79) treats idioms with pragmatic theory and he defines the idiom as follows:

"An idiom is a concatenation of more than one lexeme whose meaning is not derived from the meanings of its constituents and which does not consist of a verb plus an adverbial partical or preposition. The concatenation is as such then constitutes a lexeme in its own right and should be entered as such in the lexicon."

Strassler's definiton keeps out the phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs as idioms.

In this study, amalgamations which consist of a verb plus an adverbial particle or preposition will also be treated as idioms. The reason is that, the meanings of such phrases cannot be predicted from their parts either. "Blow up", for example, when analyzed structurally, is a phrase consisting of a verb plus an adverb. But in the sentences "When his secretary

asked for the day off, Mr. Smith, with so much work piled up in front of him, blew up." or "I'm sorry I blew up at you.", "blow up" has an idiomatic meaning "a violent outburst of temper and to get angry". Thus, the total meaning is not sum of its parts.

2.3.1. The phrasal and prepositional verbs

Mc Arthur(1989: 39), in his article, "The Long Neglected Phrasal Verb", states that most phrasal verbs are made up of a monosyllabic verb[1] of movement like 'go, come or take' and an adverbial particle of location or direction such as 'up' and 'down', 'in' and 'out', 'on' and 'off'. In many cases, one verb takes several such particles, as with the egregious 'get up, get down, get in, get out, get on, get off, get away, get back', etc. In combination, such verbs may be:

- Conventional and literal, in which case the whole is the sum of the parts: 'They were all in the house and when we arrived **their leader came out**'.

- Idiomatic and figurative, in which case the whole is more than or different from the sum of the parts: 'They were all in the house and when we arrived **the truth came out**'.

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[1] Monosyllabic verb refers to a verb that has only one syllable.

Nonetheless, the phrasal verb is as much a part of grammar and word-formation as the complex sentence, the compound word, the subordinate clause, or the prefix. Its syntax and lexicology are a crucial part of English.

Mc Arthur examines the phrasal verb in three categories and defines it as follows:

1. Word order: Phrasal verbs may be intransitive, as in 'When they **went away**, she **got up** and **went out** or transitive, as in 'She **put** the book **down**, then **picked** it **up** again'. If the verb is transitive, the particle usually goes before or after a noun object without affecting meaning. 'She put the book down' and 'She put down the book' convey the same message. If, however, the object is a pronoun, it comes between verb and particle: 'She put it down', not 'She put down it'.

2. Adverbial and Prepositional Particles: Commonly, a sentence containing a verb followed by a prepositional phrase can be reduced elliptically, turning the preposition into an adverb. In this way, 'He **carried** the box **up the stairs**' becomes 'He **carried** the box **up**' (Stairs understood). When a further prepositional phrase is added, two particles (the first adverbial, the second prepositional)

occur in sequence: 'He carried the box up to his room'.

3. The Adverbial Particles: A large number of such particles typically occur in phrasal verbs. The commonest are 'down, in, off, on, out, up'.

According to Mc Arthur(1989: 42) the sentence 'He came across the street' is rightly analysed as (He came) (across the street), but the sentence 'She came across an old friend' is not (She came) (across an old friend). It makes more sense as a phrasal form: (She came across) (an old friend), with 'come across' being glossed as 'meet by chance'. But the particle is still a preposition.

About the prepositional verb, Mc Arthur states that some commentators call this kind of usage a 'prepositional verb', precisely because the particle is not adverbial but prepositional. He points out that logically, in such a terminology, phrasal verbs proper should be called 'adverbial verbs', but he says that as far as he knows no one has put this proposal forward. His own term for this usage has for some years been 'a fused or non-separable phrasal verb'. This is because the preposition has, as it were, been 'stolen' from its own phrase and 'fused' with the verb in a new, unique idiomatic relationship. Finally, he indicates that such usages are far fewer than typical

phrasal verbs, but are common enough to cause trouble for foreign learners.

About the non-native students' problems with phrasal verbs Eileen et al.(1983: 19) indicate that students' problems with phrasal verbs fall into two broad categories: lexicosemantic (vocabulary problems) and syntactic (word order problems). Students often fail to think of the two-or three- word verb as a semantic unit with a special meaning. This is especially true if phrasal verbs do not exist in the student's own language. When a single word conveys the meaning in their native language, students find it hard to see the importance of the particle, or final word, of the English phrasal verb. As a result students produce sentences like:

"Turn the stove.

Pick the loundry."

instead of:

"Turn on the stove.

Pick up the laundry."

Students also confuse phrasal verbs like 'take off' and 'take out' where the only difference is a couple of letter in that extraneous (they think) second word.

Eileen et al. also point out the second major problem as the syntactic one, involves the placement of objects in relation to particles. According to

Eileen et al, students are led to believe that they
need to memorize a "separable" or "non-separable"
label for every phrasal verb they learn in order to
avoid such errors as:

"Pick up it.

Throw away them.

I heard them from."

Eileen et al. also point out that in the sentences
where the object can be expressed as a noun, the student
has an escape hatch. Even though other syntactic options
may also be available, placing the noun object after
the particle will always be correct.

"Pick up the laundry.

Throw away the papers.

I heard from my parents."

Knowing this can be especially useful in conversation
when it is impossible to stop and check an authority.

Finally, Eileen et al state that although students
should be aware of this escape hatch, they should
not let it become their only way of handling the situation.
Students still must work toward native-like usage.

Elieen et al, in their article, "Helping Students
Sort Out Phrasal Verbs", indicate that all phrasal
verbs fall into one of four categories. First, if
a two-word verb is composed of a verb and a preposition
(call on, run into, go over, hear from), the pre-position,

as its name suggests, must precede any object, and therefore these combinations are non-separable. Second, all three-word verbs (put up with, brush up on) are also non-seperable, as the third word is always a preposition, and therefore must precede its object. Third, all transitive[1] two-word verbs that are not verb+ preposition combinations are seperable (pick it up, turn it on, throw it away). Finally, all intransitive[2] two-word verbs (get up, come back, let up), whether they are "v+ prep or v+ adv", are by definiton non-separable.

Clearly, if a verb takes no object, there is no need for a student to memorize whether or not it is separable by an object. It should be noted that some "v+ adv" phrasal verbs may either transitive or intransitive:

"My mother gets me up at seven every morning.

I get up at seven every morning."

In this case, of course, the phrasal verb is separable only when transitive.

Such a division will give the language teacher and the student an insight on the phrasal verbs which

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[1] Transitive verbs refer to a verb which takes a direct object.

[2] Intransitive verbs refer to a verb which does not take a direct object.

are most difficult to cope with. As for the vocabulary problem, ESL/EFL students should realize that this is where most of their attention should be focused: on learning the meanings of these semantic units and, then, using them when the communicative situation arises.

As John(1986: 19) states that at any rate, even if there were grammars that could adequately account for all aspects of language use, there would still be the disconcerting fact that a knowledge of grammar constitutes but a minimum requirement for the ability to use language effectively. It is easy enough to learn the rules of grammar, but more important are the nuances of idiom and usage that often elude the non-native learner.

Therefore, such phrasal and prepositional verbs which have idiomatic meanings will also be treated as idioms in this study.

2.3.2. Classification of idioms

The early attempts to classify idioms have varied accordingly in the studies depending on different approaches.

The most common categorizing schemes are,

1. according to 'grammatical type' (verb-
   adverb idioms such as 'take back', or

irreversible binominals like 'hem and how', or idioms that function like a particular part of speech...)

2. according to the 'concept or emotion portrayed' (so, for example, a category LIE would include 'tell someone a tall tale'), and

3. according to the 'image', the picture drawn by the idiom (so, for example, 'she lost her head' would be classified under BODY PARTS).

(Lattey, 1986: 217-218)

However, Lattey(1986: 218) rejects these types of categorization and states that these classifications are inappropriate and they are not very useful to the students of foreign languages.

According to Lattey(1986: 222) the classification of idioms, especially in language teaching, should be from a pragmatic point of view. Therefore, according to the pragmatic functions of idioms, Lattey states four prameters:

1. Interaction/Interrelationship of Individuals

2. Interaction/Interrelationship of an Individual and the world

3. Focus on the Individual

4. Focus on the world

The first category include idioms which describe interpersonal actions or relationships such as, 'lend |someone| a helping hand'. The second category can

be examplified by the idiom, 'take up arms for |something|.
Idioms such as, 'keep a stiff upper lip', 'show |one's|
true color' can be an example for the third category.
The last category includes idioms 'go down the drain',
'|something| is touch and go', that describes the
situation.

This kind of a classification may be useful
in teaching idioms in an organized way for the students
of foreign languages to realize which idioms are used
in which situations as well as their function. However,
it will not enlighten the language teacher regarding
which idioms will be more problematic for students.

On the other hand, Seidl and Mc Mordie(1979:6)
distinguish three types of idioms regarding comprehension
of idioms. They claim that the meanings of some idioms
are clearer than others, that is, some are easier
to guess than others. As an example they give the
idiom "to give someone the green light" and state
that:

> "We can guess the meaning even though we may
> never have heard of it before. If we associate
> 'the green light' with traffic lights where
> green means 'Go', we can imagine that the
> idiom means to give permission to start something."

However, some idioms can be guessed only in
contexts where they appear. That means to understand
the meaning of the idiom, more information is needed.

For example, the idiom "to be at the top of the tree" is very difficult for the hearer or reader to interpret it in a sentence like "John is at the top of the tree", whether the sentence has a negative or positive meaning. But the meaning of the idiom in a sentence like "Ten years ago, John joined the company, and now he's the general manager. He is really at the top of the tree.", becomes more clear.

Finally, there are some idioms whose meanings are very difficult or almost impossible to predict even in a context. As an example, Seidl and Mc Mordie (1979) state that the idiom "to tell someone where to get off", which means "to tell someone rudely and openly what you think of him", in a sentence like "Jane had had enough of Mary's stupied and ciritical remarks, so she finally told her where to get off" is not clear unless the hearer or the reader has encountered the idiom before.

To sum up, according to Seidl and Mc Mordie's (1979) grouping of idioms in terms of the degree of difficulty in the comprehension will be helpful to a foreign language teacher in determining which idioms are problematic for students, which idioms to teach and on which idioms more time is needed to be spent. This type of classification, may also be helpful to non-native language teacher to prepare teaching material emphasizing those idioms.

2.3.3. The significance of idioms in communication and language teaching

English has hundreds of idiomatic expressions, mostly consisting of phrasal verbs, and the capacity to produce many more. Mc Arthur(1989: 41) states that these idiomatic expressions are generally common, complex, colloquial and informal. They are also mostly figurative extensions of a more or less obvious kind, of the basic uses of verbs. For example, "ironing out" problems is not far removed from "ironing out" creases in a shirt.

Those idiomatic phrasal verbs are "inseparable" and it is very difficult to work out their meanings from their parts. Richards(1976: 81) points out that words do not exist in isolation and their meanings are defined through their relationships with other words. He indicates that knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. The speaker of a language recognizes not only the general probability of occurance of a word but also the probability of words being associated together with other words.

Benda(1981: 31) shares Richards's ideas and states that the acquisition of language is the acquisition of words in combination or interaction. Names of things exist inrelation to other things. Words are often

remembered in connection with other words that they combine with. It may even be said that a word has no meaning in isolation: its significance depends on the other words and concepts that is evokes when uttered.

According to Simone(1987: 38) idioms provide an effective vehicle with which to promote conversational practice in an easygoing, informal manner. Because many of the most frequently used American idioms colorfully illustrate American attitudes, they have human-interest value. She states that pedagogically, subjects of human interest work well because they capitalize on human emotions rather than intellectual will to maintain active involvement in the learning process.

Simone also points out that idioms have an emotional appeal that helps to break through the formalities and proprieties of teacher-student, student-student relationships. By drawing upon students' emotions, idioms redirect their attention to the inherent substantive interest in comparing different peoples' customs and behaviours and a way from the fear of making mistakes and appearing foolish or inadequate.

Finally, Simone says that the "friendliness" of idioms prompts rapid imitation and easy incorporation into usage. Idioms embody graphic imagery, making it easier for students to understand the cultural background, remember the vocabulary, and internalize the word order. Grammar can be integrated with spoken

practice less painfully and less artificially to demonstrate the transformation of words from one part of speech to another. In this way, grammar and syntax are reinforced in an unselfconscious way as a part of usage. And by putting idioms to immediate use, students receive positive reinforcement in the form of humor and increasing conversational facility, both of which nature self-confidence.

Related with this issue Benda(1981: 31) indicates that what students of English really need is not so much a series of words to commit to memory as some rhetorical means of combining words and grouping sentences in discourse. In order to bridge the gap in conversation and to produce authentic pieces of English language, our students need a rounded knowledge of idioms, rather than simply mastery of individual words and grammatical rules.

Benda also states that one of the students' most important task when reading or listening to English should be the identification of idiomatic expressions. He says that students must see the language as a combination of meaningful structures, and must learn to imitate rather than analyze these structures, using them in situations where they naturally occur. Finally, he points out that this is the surest way to the mastery of authentic pieces of the English language.

2.4. The significance of visual aids and authentic materials in language teaching

Ernestova(1981: 5) states that there is a great difference between learning a language naturally (picking it up among native speakers) and learning it as a second language in a classroom. The student in the classroom lacks many of the stimuli to natural use of the language that abound for the person who learns a language while living among its native speakers. Therefore, according to Ernestova the teacher must supply the necessary motivation and make up for this lack of natural stimuli, in order to develop the enthusiasm his students must have to learn the language. She points out that usually the teacher calls on the students' imagination to help him. But words alone are not sufficient to carry the student over into an imaginary situation. More than anything else, it is visual aids in one form or another that help the student enter an imaginative experience beyond the classroom.

Lee and Coppen(1973: 1) indicate that visuals aids can be helpful to the teacher of a foreign language in a number of different ways. Visual aids can brighten up the classroom and bring more variety and interest into language-lessons. Visuals in particular can help to provide the situations (contexts) which light up the meaning of the utterances used and they can stimulate

students to speak the language as well as to read and write it. Visuals can help in giving information of one kind or another about the background of literature and about life in the foreign country concerned.

According to Mc Govern(1983: 57) authentic materials have three roles; first of all, they appropriately contextualize new teaching items. Secondly, authentic materials offer a ready context for review of material that had already been practiced under careful control. Thirdly, authentic materials enhance students' motivation because more effectively than any other medium, they push back the walls of the classroom, and shift the forces of the lesson to the outside world.

In foreign language teaching comic strips as an authentic visual aid may give meaning to a thousand words because as Chastain(1976: 431-32) points out that visuals stimulate interest, provide variety, and promote understanding of structure, vocabulary, and culture. He also states that the teacher should never pass up the opportunity to incorporate visuals in the lesson plan at any of the stages of language acquisition.

2.4.1. The importance of context in teaching vocabulary and idioms

Trivedi(1979: 95) points out that "words come to life only when they are used in the situations

representing the cultural ethos of the language under use". That is why, as Benda(1983: 21) states that in order to check students' comprehension of words, it is better to ask them to use these words, in various sentences than to limit ourselves to simple demonstrations, explanations, and translations of words.

Benda indicates that illustrations of words in various sentences are more helpful to students than lexical explanations. Therefore, the best way of teaching new words is to put them into a variety syntactic and semantic uses of words in authentic, correct English sentences.

Especially, while learning idioms, as John (1986: 20) states that neither can the student help himself by learning by heart a lot of idiomatic expressions unless he also learns to use them correctly. This is not an easy task, because the correct use of such expressions depends on the appropriateness of the contexts in which they are used.

As Wilkins(1977: 129) points out, "the appropriateness of idiom to situation is very difficult to master, and where a student has acquired idioms through the memorization of lists of them it is usually apparent through his inability to restrict their use to the appropriate circumstances".

About the same issue Benda(1983: 21-22) states that it is useless to drill students on mere lists of words and uncontextualized exercises if our main objective is to lead them gradually to mastery of vocabulary and correct usage. He cites that unfortunately, some textbooks contain very few exercises on vocabulary and idioms. And some of those that do contain exercises such as "giving synonyms, anthonyms, definitions of words", or " translating words into a given language", or "changing the meaning of a word by adding a prefix or a suffix" are of very little help, as they tend to be simply mechanical.

On the other hand, exercises such as "choose the correct expression among given ones to fit into given sentences (multiple-choice exercises)", "use a word in various sentences. illustrating its various meanings and grammatical functions", "use given words and expressions in a paragraph or in a composition", "correct these sentences, using proper expressions", and so on, are very helpful, as they are generally done in contexts.

Benda(1983) says that moreover, such exercises have many other advantages: they sharpen students' minds and make them aware of their own errors in the use of words; they help learners to discriminate between different meanings; and they facilitate the retention of expressions. Such exercises also help the teacher

not only to test students' real comprehension of vocabulary but also to correct grammatical usage of new words and phrases.

To sum up, as Green(1970: 219) points out that the aim in teaching vocabulary is to lead students "to use words in realistic situations, which is an end for the study of vocabulary".

In this study, because of the reasons stated so far, while testing students' comprehension of idiomatic expressions, the second type of exercises which are generally done in contexts are chosen.

2.5. Definitions of the cartoon and the comic strip

Gopnik(1987: 29) states that if you ask people to tell you everything they know about the definition of cartoons, they may probably offer something like this: cartoons (taking cartoons, caricature, comics, comic strips all together as a single form) are a relic of the infancy of art, one of the earliest forms of visual communication (and therefore, by implication, especially well suited to children); they are naturally funny and popular.

These ideas on the definition of cartoons and the others are not sufficient. So, it may be useful to put down the strict clear-cuts of these terms in order to avoid misunderstanding.

First of all, the terms "cartoon and caricature", and the terms "comics, comic strips, strip drawings, and funnies" indicate the same concepts and therefore they are used to express the same notions.

According to Wittich and Schuller(1962: 135) the cartoon is a pictorial representation or caricature of a person, idea, or situation designed to influence public opinion. Most of the cartoons are prepared for adult readers. A good cartoon is built around a single idea and it may employ caricature, satire, exaggeration, symbolism, and humor of a sort.

About the same issue Dale(1969: 512-13) points out that cartoons often deal with current affairs and they may produce lasting effects because a cartoon tells its story metaphorically through pictures, and a metaphor can be much more powerful than a direct statement. The "perfect" cartoon needs no caption because the symbolism conveys the message. The less the artist depends on words, the more effective the symbolism. The best cartoons make their point instantaneously and they are often esthetically pleasing.

Dale indicates that an excellent cartoon says what it intends to say as powerfully as possible. On controversial subjects it is frankly one-sided and uses every means to make its points, exaggerating some elements, diminishing others. The cartoonist plays with humor, satire, mockery; he damns and he blesses; he blackens and he whitewashes.

However, Wittich and Schuller(1962: 146) define the term "comics" which is the subject matter of this study as; comics are a form of cartoon in which the same characters enact a story in a sequence of closely related pictures designed to entertain the reader.

According to Steinlein(1950: 9) "comic strip" is an inexact term for a story sequentially told through a series of drawings. Although they usually called "comics", a more accurate term is "strip drawings". Sometimes these strips are serious, sometimes funny, sometimes crude, sometimes offensive, sometimes educational, and often entertaining.

About the same issue, Taska(1976: 9) defines the comic strip as a series of drawings presented in frames or boxes called "panels". She states that certain characters appear and reappear in these panels, unfolding a story which may be complete in a day or may spread over a longer period of time in a sequence of episodes. The speech of each character appears in an outlined space called a "balloon". Finally, Taska says that a page in a newspaper containing several of these comic strips is called, by most Americans, the "funny page", or simply the "funnies". It is sometimes the first thing they turn to when they open their daily newspaper.

To sum up, as Foycross and Cypher(1961: 109) point out that comics, or comic strips, are an attempt

to simplify information and present it in a sort of
visual capsule that has eye appeal and will be easy
for all to understand. They state that the production
of comic books has assumed mass proportions today,
with serious import for education.

2.5.1. The properties and significance of comic strips
as a visual aid in the foreign-language classroom

If the trend in ESL/EFL methodology is to try
all kinds of material to teach the language, as Axford
states that one popular approach within this trend
has been to "enliven, then enlighten".(in Safadi 1988: 22)

The ESL/EFL teacher who wishes to enliven a
lesson can find a versatile source of material in
the nearest "funny page" or a comic book. Most of
the teachers have used a comic strip at one time or
another as a diversion. But a teacher who systematically
examines the daily strips can find a lot of instructional
material, containing natural, conversational English
as well as eye-catching drawings, with which to illustrate
a point he is trying to teach.

The delightful thing about some of the comic
strips is that while they appeal to learners of all
ages and backgrounds, they also furnish language material
that is culturally based and pedagogically useful.

Taska(1976: 10) points out the properties of comic strips as:

"1. Comic strips contain colloquial language and natural dialogue.

2. They have visual appeal, and simple, clear drawings that reinforce the language they contain.

3. They tell us something (often a great deal) about the culture of the society they represent. Since they often reflect an authentic slice of life, they are ideal for this purpose.

4. They seem to have no age barriers. While not everyone is a comic strip fan, both children and adults enjoy them.

5. They are short and complete enough to be read and understood quickly. The main point is often obvious and easy to grasp."

Steinlein(1950: 9) has set down some of the powerful elementary and simultaneous appeals of the comic strip as:

"- the element of simple, direct, rapid action and advanture;

- the element of rough humor, and the use of colloquial language;

- the simplicity of the psychology and morality; outcomes are never seriously in doubt; values are in black and white."

Most comic strips, which carry the above features, are humorous, and can therefore provide light relief in the English class. Howell(1986:41)

states that comic strips provide lively and entertaining material for gleaning information about the prevailing issues in society. A few squiggles of the pen combined with a subtle caption can be more poignant and forceful than a long, drawn-out article. Not only do comics tell the reader about current problems, but they also give insights into the cultural nature of humor.

Related with the same issue, Wittich and Schuller(1962: 146) state that although comics have achieved extensive popularity purely as an entertainment medium, certain materials in this category have definite educational values. Their extensive use of colorful illustrations, of a rapidly moving story, and of realistic people as characters appeals to students of all ages. They point out that comic books are being used effectively by teachers to arouse interest, to develop vocabulary and reading skills, and to serve as springboards into broader reading interests.

Since students enjoy comics, they are valuable as material for the classrooms. Notarangelo and Schipani(1986: 33) indicate that in comic strips, words and pictures are integrated, and the readers of a "balloon story" can take part emotionally in the events and identify themselves with the various characters.

Baddock(1983: 43) describes a list of language and cultural features of comic strips and indicates that: "many cartoons and strips use expressions from the following language categories:

1. Verb phrases, (e.g. make out, pull through, hang up.)

2. Idioms, (e.g. make ends meet, lead a dog's life, be black and blue.)

3. References to people, places and institutions, (e.g. the Archbishop of Canterbury, Fort Knox, Dallas Cowboys, Hallowe'en.)

4. Vocabulary reflecting social habits and trends. (e.g. stamp-collecting, fish and chips, jogging, gay lib.)

Comic strips also contain a sequence of action, frequently with dialogue and a range of colloquilisms (e.g. Fine! Thanks! No kidding? What's up?)

Both cartoons and comic strips can contain visible aspects of manners and life in foreign culture, e.g.

5. Sports and leisure, (e.g. baseball, surfing, fishing.)

6. The environment, (e.g. pillar boxes, road signs, shop fronts.)

7. Clothes, fashions and hair-styles, (e.g. sweatshirts with slogans, sports fans insignia, uniforms.)

8. Furniture, domestic interiors, offices, etc.: (e.g. pub bar, kitchen, police station.)"

To sum up, the use of comic strips in a classroom can be justified for at least three main reasons. According to Alim(1987: 10) these reasons are:

"1. Linguistic value: The language of humor, apart from providing an additional opportunity for vocabulary and grammar reinforcement, is also an important source of colloquialisms, idioms and puns (aspects of language which are so challenging and useful).

2. Cultural value: In so far as language can't be separated from the people who speak it and the culture it conveys, it is indeed remarkable how much the language of humor expresses and portrays important aspects of this culture: people's attitudes, preoccupations, values, etc. An insight into these will undoubtedly help develop a greater understanding and communicative ability.

3. Pedagogic value: The use of comics:
   - provides a change from routine,
   - is a motivating activity: the learners are presented with the challenge of understanding and enjoying the jokes, something that is not often easily achieved.
   - offers students the possibility to learn in a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere."

CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH METHOD

In this chapter "Research desing", "Subjects", "Data collection", and "Data analysis" are presented.

3.1. Research design

At the beginning of the study, in order to answer the question set in the Problem section(cf.1.2.) and to achieve the purpose set in the Purpose of the study section(cf.1.3.), twenty idiomatic expressions were selected randomly according to the availability of comic strips which were taken from newspapers, magazines, and comic books(cf. Appendices B-1, B-3).

According to these idiomatic expressions, reading passages which have the same contexts of the comic strips(cf. Appendices B-2, B-4) and the two Comprehension tests were designed under the guidance of a native speaker of English(cf. Appendices C-1, C-2).

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3.1.1. Description of comprehension tests

Two comprehension tests were designed to evaluate the degree of comprehension. Each test contains two parts. In the first part of each test, ten multiple choice questions were asked to measure the understanding of the meanings of the given idiomatic expressions. In the second part of each test, ten fill-in-the-blank questions were stated to determine the appropriate usage of the same idiomatic expressions in the given situations.

There were a total of fourty questions: twenty multiple choice and twenty fill-in-the-blank, in two tests. The idiomtic expressions in the multiple choice section were stated according to the contexts in which they appeared in the comic strips and reading passages for the sake of true understanding. The comprehension tests were named as the "First Comprehension Test" for the first one, and the "Second Comprehension Test" for the second one, in this study.

In each test, in the first ten questions, subjects (cf. section 3.2.) were asked to choose the correct definiton of the given idiomatic expression from four choices, and in the second ten fill-in-the-blank questions, subjects were asked to write down the appropriate idiomatic expression which better fits the given situation among the idiomatic expressions thet they have answered in the first ten multiple choice questions before.

The "correct" definition for the first ten questions, and the "correct" idiomatic expression for the second ten questions in two comprehension tests were determined by a native speaker, who helped in the process of preparing the tests.

3.2. Subjects

In this study, fifty students of Anadolu University, Education Faculty, English Language Teaching Department were selected randomly among second-year students. Class 2-A was considered as Group A, and Class 2-B was considered as Group B.

Although subjects were selected randomly, they were assumed to have the same upper-intermediate knowledge in English since they share the same teaching conditions.

3.3. Data collection

At the beginning of the instruction, a special emphasis was put on the properties of idioms and idiomatic expressions, in general, with the help of a comic strip illustrating a number of idiomatic expressions with their concrete meanings was given to show the subjets that the meanings of such phrases cannot be predicted from their parts(cf. Appendices A-1, A-2).

In the first instruction session which consisted of five class periods for each group, the ten idiomatic

expressions were taught through reading passages to Group A, and the same ten idiomatic expressions were taught through comic strips to Group B. At the end of the first instruction session, the same comprehension test was given to both groups and subjects were asked to answer the twenty questions in the first comprehension test.

In the second instruction session which consisted of five class periods for each group, different ten idiomatic expressions were taught through comic strips to Group A, and the same ten idiomatic expressions were taught through reading passages to Group B. At the end of the second instruction session the same comprehension test was given to both groups, and subjects were asked to answer the twenty questions in the second comprehension test.

To sum up, in order to collect data to compare the two types of instruction, the same method of teaching was applied to both groups, and the method of learning through comic strips was applied to both the first and second group.

3.4. Data analysis

In order to calculate and obtain statistical data, raw scores were collected by the application of the following procedure.

In the comprehension tests, since each of them contained twenty questions, subjects received five points for each correct answer. In other words, a student would get one hundred percent credit as the highest score out of twenty queistions.

As it was indicated earlier in this chapter (cf. section 3.1.1.), the two comprehension tests were employed in order to compare the randomly selected two groups of second-year students.

Therefore, to obtain statistical data for comparing the two groups and due to the fact that each group consisted of fewer than thirty subjects, the "two-sample t-test" was preferred(cf. Appendix E).

After having the raw scores of the two comprehension tests(cf. Appendices D-1, D-2, D-3, D-4) statistical results were calculated by the application of "t-tests". In comparing **between-group** raw scores, the "two-sample t-test" was conducted.

The first "t-test" was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two groups of students, in terms of their level of English, who were taught through reading passages. For this purpose, the statistical results of Group A and Group B, who were taught through reading passages in both instruction sessions were compared.

The second task was to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two groups

of students, in terms of their level of English, who were taught through comic strips by the application of the second "t-test". For this purpose, the statistical results of Group A and Group B, who were taught through comic strips in both instruction sessions were compared.

The third task was to investigate the instructional differences between the two groups. The third "t-test" was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between Group A, who was taught through reading passages, and Group B, who was taught through comic strips, in terms of teaching method, in the first instruction session. For this purpose, the statistical results of Group A and Group B were compared.

The last task was to investigate whether there was a significant difference between Group A, who was taught through comic strips, and Group B, who was taught through reading passages, in terms of teaching method, in the second instruction session. For this purpose, the statistical results of Group A and Group B were compared.

In this study, the entire results were compared at the "0.05" level of significance.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The specific aim of this study is to compare two different teaching methods and to determine if teaching of idiomatic expressions through comic strips in Foreign Language Teaching will enhance learning and using the idiomatic expressions of the Target Language. To achieve this task, the research has been carried out with two groups who were taught both through comic strips and reading passages.

4.1. Results of Two-Sample T-tests

In this study, two comprehension tests were employed both Group A and Group B after the two instruction sessions.

The first question to be answered was: Is there a significant difference between Group A and Group B, in

terms of subjects' level of English, in the two comprehension tests when they were taught through reading passages?

This question was investigated by testing the following null hypothesis:

H_o: There will be no significant difference between Group A and Group B in terms of subjects' level of English, in the two comprehension tests, when they were taught through reading passages.

The distribution of the difference between Group A and Group B is summarized in table.

Table 1

The results of the t-test showing the difference between Group A and Group B, in the two comprehension tests, when both groups were taught through reading passages

	n	d.F.	$\overline{x}$	s.d.	t	p	Level of significance
Group A	25	24	62.8	14.44			
					0.87	2.021	0.05
Group B	25	24	59.2	14.55			

As it can be observed from table 1, Group A reached a mean value of $\overline{x}=62.8$ and Group B scored as $\overline{x}=59.2$ in the two comprehension tests when they were taught through reading passages. The standard deviation s.d.=14.44 in Group A and s.d.=14.55 in Group B.

The t-value between the two comprehension tests of Group A and Group B when they were taught through reading passages was t=0.87 < p=2.021 at the 0.05 level of significance.

Accordingly, this result justifies that there is no significant difference between Group A and Group B in terms of subjects' level of English.

Thus, we failed to reject the null hypothesis set above.

The second question to be answered was: Is there a significant difference between group A and Group B, in terms of subjects' level of English in the two comprehension tests, when they were taught through comic strips?

This question was investigated by testing the following null hypothesis:

H_o: There will be no significant difference between Group A and Group B in terms of subjects' level of English, in the comprehension tests, when they were taught through comic strips.

The distribution of the difference between Group A and Group B is summarized in table 2.

The results in table 2 show that Group A reached a mean value of $\bar{x}=72.4$ and Group B scored a mean value of $\bar{x}=71.6$ in the two comprehension tests when they were taught through comic strips. The standard deviation

was calculated as s.d.=15.28 in Group A and as s.d.=15.05 in Group B.

Table   2

The results of the t-test showing the difference between Group A and Group B, in the two camprehension tests, when both groups were taught through comic strips

	n	d.f.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	t	p	Level of significance
Group A	25	24	72.4	15.28	0.18	2.021	0.05
Group B	25	24	71.6	15.05			

The t-value between the two comprehersion tests of Group A and Group B when they were taught through comic strips was t=0.18 < p=2.021 at the 0.05 level of significance.

Accordingly, this result justifies that there is no significant difference between Group A and Group B in terms of subjects' level of English.

Thus, we failed to reject the null hypothesis set above.

The third question to be answered was: Is there a significant difference between Group A who was taught through reading passages and Group B who was taught through comic strips, in terms of teaching method, in the first comprehension test?

This question was investigated by testing the following null hypothesis:

H_o: There will be no significant difference between Group A who was taught through reading passages and Group B who was taught through comic strips, in terms of teaching method, in the first comprehension test.

The distribution of the difference between Group A and Group B is demonstrated in table 3.

Table 3

The results of the t-test showing the difference between Group A, who was taught through reading passages, and Group B, who was taught through comic strips in the first comprehension test

	n	d.f.	$\overline{x}$	s.d.	t	p	Level of significance
Group A	25	24	62.8	14.44			
					2.090	2.021	0.05
Group B	24	24	71.6	15.05			

As it can be observed from table 3, Group A reached a mean value of $\overline{x}$=62.8 in the first comprehension test. On the other hand, Group B reached a mean value of $\overline{x}$=71.6. The standard deviation was calculated as s.d.=14.44 in Group A and s.d.=15.05 in Group B.

The t-value between the first comprehension test of Group A, when it was taught through reading passages, and Group B, when it was taught through comic strips was t=2.090 > p=2.021 at the 0.05 level of significance. Hence, such a result shows a significant difference between Group A and Group B in terms of teaching method.

Accordingly, we failed to accept the null hypothesis which was set above.

The fourth and the final question to be answered was: Is there a significant difference between Group A who was taught through comic strips and Group B who was taught through reading passages, in terms of teaching method, in the second comprehension test?

This question was investigated by testing the following null hypothesis.

H_o: There will be no significant difference between Group A who was taught through reading passages, in terms of teaching method, in the second comprehension test.

The distribution of the difference between Group A and Group B is demonstrated in table 4.

As it can be observed from table 4, Group A reached a mean value of $\bar{x}$=72.4 in the second comprehension test. On the other hand, Group B reached a mean value of $\bar{x}$=59.2. The standard deviation was calculated as s.d.=15.28 in Group A and s.d.=14.55 in Group B.

Table 4

The results of the t-test showing the difference

between Group A, who was taught through

comic strips, and Group B, who was taught

through reading passages in the second

comprehension test

	n	d.f.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	t	p	Level of significance
Group A	25	24	72.4	15.28			
					3.098	2.021	0.05
Group B	25	24	59.2	14.55			

The t-value between the second comprehension test of Group A, when it was taught through comic strips, and Group B, when it was taught through reading passages was t=3.098 > p=2.021 at the 0.05 level of significance. This result justifies that there is a significant difference between Group A and Group B in terms of teaching method.

Accordingly, we failed to accept the null hypothesis which was set above.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Discussion

By this study, teaching of idiomatic expressions through comic strips and through reading passages in Foreign Language Teaching were compared.

In this study, in order to measure the understanding of the meanings of the given idiomatic expressions and to determine the appropriate usage of the same idiomatic expressions in the given situations, two comprehension tests were employed to the randomly selected second-year students after each instruction session which consisted of five class periods. There were two instruction sessions in this study and in each instruction session different ten idiomatic expressions were taught through comic strips to one group and through reading passages to the other group

in five class periods. In other words, each group had the chance of learning the idiomatic expressions through comic strips in both instruction sessions.

At the beginning of the study, the students in both groups were assumed to have the same upper-intermediate knowledge in English since they share the same teaching conditions. In order to measure above assumed point a "two-sample t-test" was conducted.

The analysis of the statistical results (cf. Table 1), in both comprehension tests, indicated that there was no significant difference between Group A and Group B, in terms of subjects' level of English, when they were taught through reading passages in the two instruction sessions each of which consisted of five class periods for each group.

The t-test (cf. Table 2) also showed that, in both comprehension tests, there was no significant difference between Group A and Group B, in terms of subjects' level of English, when they were taught through comic strips in the two instruction sessions each of which consisted of five class periods for each group.

On the other hand, the analysis of the statistical results of Group A who was taught through reading passages and the analysis of the statistical results of Group B who was taught through comic strips in the first instruction session which consisted of five

class periods for each group, the t-value (cf. Table 3) indicated that there was a significant difference, in terms of teaching method, between the groups in the first comprehension test.

The t-test (cf. Table 4) also showed that there was a significant difference, in terms of teaching method, between Group A who was taught through comic strips and Group B who was taught through reading passages in the second instruction session which consisted of five class periods for each group, when the statistical results of both groups were analysed in the second comprehension test.

Thus, the results determined that teaching of idiomatic expressions through comic strips, instead of reading passages, made a particular contribution to the teaching of the idiomatic expressions of the Target Language in a non-native learning setting.

In other words, authentic visual materials such as comic strips can make a vital contribution to the understanding and using of the idiomatic expressions of the Target language.

This can be easily observed when the mean values of Group A and Group B, in the two comprehension tests, were taken into consideration. In the first comprehension test Group B and in the second comprehension test Group A, when they were taught through comic strips in each instruction session, showed better performance.

Thus, it can be said that comic strips had a particular value in teaching the idiomatic expressions of the Target Language.

The point may be that since comic strips appear to be attractive in content, they seem to activate students' minds more than regular reading passages. Since comic strips are so commonplace in modern life and since they contain colloquial natural speech, it will be to our advantage too to consider what students like and start thinking about the format of our foreign language lessons from a different angle.

As Mollica(1976: 444) points out that comic strips can be a good stimulating and motivational force in language learning. Provided that they are used wisely, sparingly and effectively, they can become an indispensable tool in the acquisition of language and culture.

5.2. Suggestions for further studies

By this study, two different methods of teaching the idiomatic expressions of the Target language were compared.

Although this study was carried out considering the requirements for the study, the following points will be beneficial for further studies.

In order to gain further insight into the problem of understanding and using the idiomatic expressions of the Target language, more than twenty idiomatic expressions can be taught through more comic strips and the investigation period can be lengthened.

Number of the subjects can be more than twenty-five, both in Group A and in Group B, in order to have better statistical results.

When selecting the study subjects, age, sex, social and economic background can be considered in forming the groups.

A further study can be designed for the students who have different levels of English, or even it can be experimented with advanced level students.

In teaching the idiomatic expressions of the Target language, cartoon filmstrips and movies could be obtained from culture centres such as British Council and U.S.I.S. Another source for the cartoon movies could be the private video centres.

Finally, when testing the students' understanding and using the idiomatic expressions of the Target language, different test techniques such as; "correct these sentences, using proper idiomatic expressions", and "use the given idiomatic expression in different sentences" can be applied and instead of reading passages, dialogues can be used.

The other aspects of comic strips and cartoons in the foreign language Teaching may be stated as followings:

- A question can be asked about the role of comic strips and cartoons play in the development of "visual culture" in the second language learning. As Fowles(1970: 156) states that understanding a culture's humor is tantamount to understanding the culture itself, students may be asked to explain the humor in a comic strip or a cartoon.

- As Goldstein(1986: 657) points out that comic strips and cartoons can be used as an untapped and inexpensive source for developing language ability, vocabulary, reading comprehension and values in second language learners.

- Mollica(1976: 441) states that cartoons may be captioned by students. Also the students can be motivated to write new stories for comic strips. That kind of activities can be very useful for developing writing skills.

- Sometimes comic strips and cartoons may illustrate in a more pleasing way a grammatical rule. As Mollica (1976: 434) points out that they may be used to reinforce the teaching of both morphology and syntax.

- Finally, as Mollica(1976: 442) indicates that comic strips may be used for oral testing. The students may be asked to describe the comic strips or cartoons and tell the short stories in their own words. This activity will enhance the spoken skills of second language learners.

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APPENDIX A-1

The Comic Strip Used to Show the Concrete Meanings of the Idiomatic Expressions

Hi and Lois

by MORT WALKER and DIX BROWNE

Panel 1: OH, OH! HERE COMES HI, AND DINNER ISN'T READY YET. — HE'S GOING TO BE _IN A STEW_!

Panel 2: JUST WHEN I THINK I'M _GETTING THE HANG OF_ THE LANGUAGE, SHE PULLS SOMETHING LIKE THAT!

Panel 3: GUESS WHO _DROPPED INTO_ MY OFFICE TODAY. MITCH ZARBA! — WHAM!

Panel 4: I HAVEN'T SEEN HIM SINCE HE AND DODIE _BROKE UP_.

Panel 5: I HEARD HE WAS _HITTING THE BOTTLE_ PRETTY HARD.

Panel 6: YEAH, HE WAS _ON THE SKIDS_ AND TOOK HIS _WHOLE FAMILY DOWN WITH HIM_!

Panel 7: BUT HE BECAME _A.A._ AND HE'S _PATCHING UP_ HIS HOME LIFE NOW.

Panel 8: BOY! DAD SURE KNOWS SOME WEIRD PEOPLE...

11-21

APPENDIX A-2

The Definitions of Idiomatic Expressions
Appeared in the Comic Strip "HI and LOIS"

in a stew: angry, worried, or frustrated (A stew-in its nonidiomatic meaning- is a mixture, usually of fish or meat, vegetables, and water or stock, cooked by boiling slowly.)

get the hang of: understand how something works

pull something on someone: do something unexpected that tricks, upsets, or confuses someone

drop in: separate from each other (as lovers, friends, or relatives) so that the special relationship no longer exists

hit the bottle: drink alcoholic beverages excessively or compulsively

on the skids: on the decline from success, fame, honesty, good reputation, or sobriety to failure, mediocrity, a life of disappointment, or a bad reputation

take someone down with one: ruin another's life along with one's own

A.A.: Alcoholics Anonymous-an organization composed of alcoholics (excessive or compulsive drinkers of alcohol) who help one another abstain from drinking

APPENDIX   A-2 (CONTINUED)

patch up: mend or put together again something that has fallen into disrepair

NOTE: The names "Hi and Lois" themselves constitute a play on words (high/low). "Hi" may be a short form of "Hiram".

APPENDIX B-1

The Comic Strips Used in the First Instruction Session

a.

Panel 3: WHAT'S THE NAME OF THIS MOVIE, LINUS? / IT'S CALLED "FEET"

Panel 2 (top right): ONE, PLEASE...

Panel 4: IT'S ABOUT SOME FEET THAT TRAMPLE EVERYBODY, AND TAKE OVER THE WORLD

Panel 5: THAT SOUNDS GROSS...MAYBE I SHOULDN'T SEE IT...IF IT'S REALLY GROSS, I'LL FLIP OUT FOR SURE! / SUIT YOURSELF... ONE, PLEASE!

Panel 6: WHAT ARE YOU DOING HOME? I THOUGHT YOU WENT TO THE SHOW...

Panel 7: IT SOUNDED TOO SCARY... I DIDN'T GO IN...

Panel 8: THERE'S A GOOD ONE STARTING NEXT WEEK...IT'S CALLED "ELBOWS," AND IT'S ABOUT THESE GIANT ELBOWS WHO TAKE OVER THE UNIVERSE...

Panel 9: I THINK I'LL STAY IN BED NEXT WEEK

PEANUTS - THE PEANUTS GANG - 1979 · p. 47
HODDER AND STOUGHTON - LONDON SYDNEY
AUCKLAND TORONTO

APPENDIX B-1 (CONTINUED)

b.
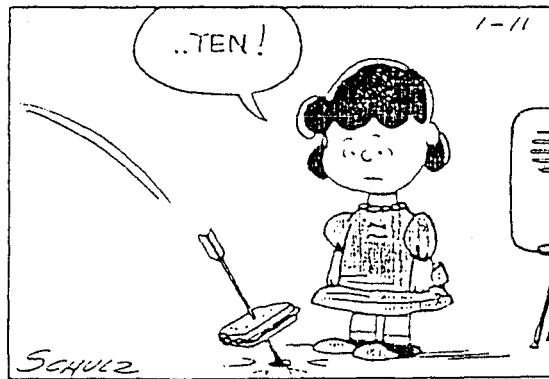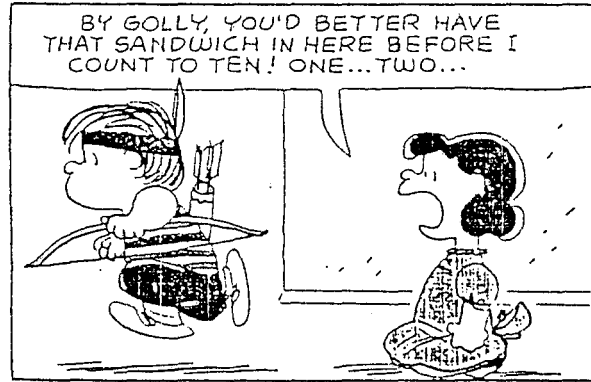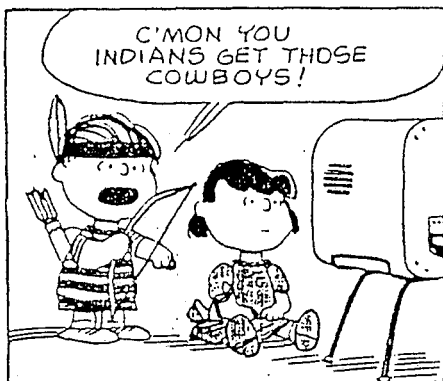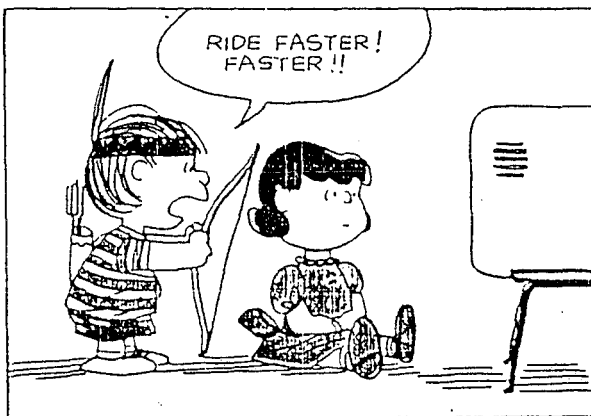
PEANUTS - LUCY RULES OK? - 1979 - p. 30
HODDER AND STOUGHTON - LONDON SYDNEY
AUCKLAND TORONTO

APPENDIX B-1 (CONTINUED)

c.
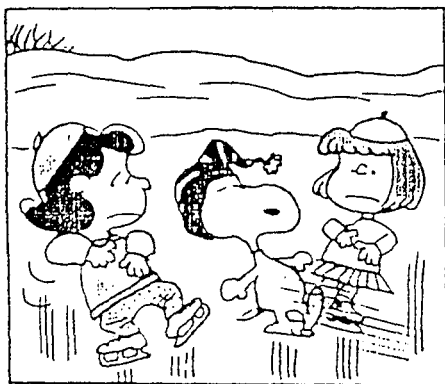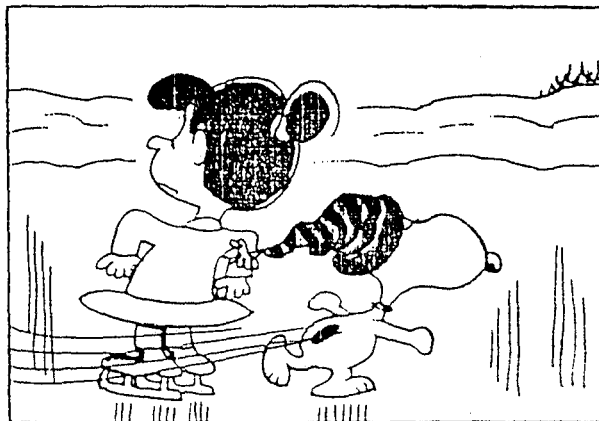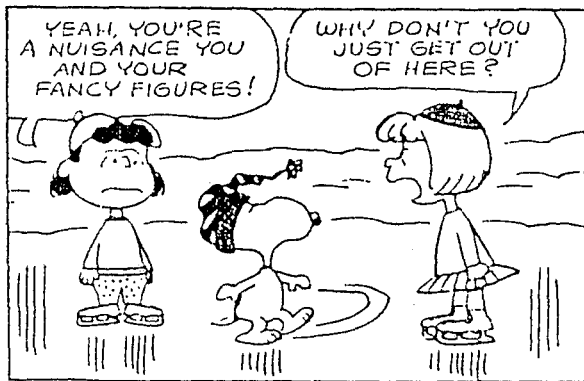
79
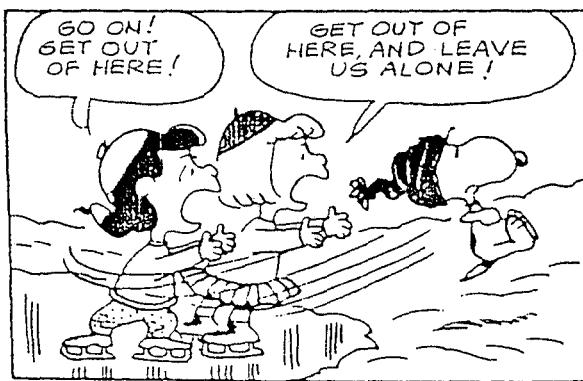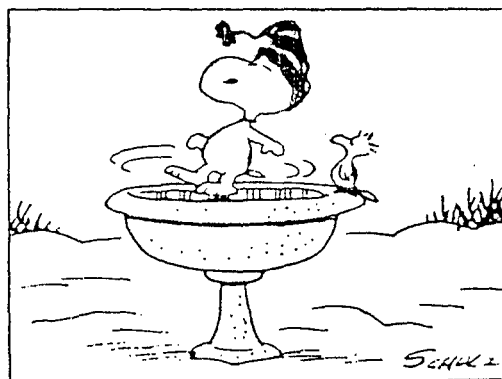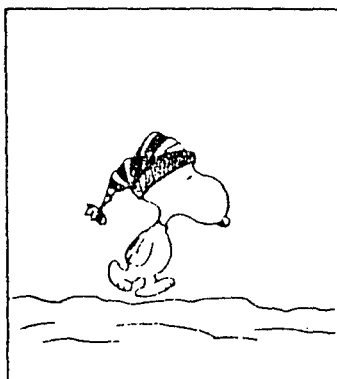
APPENDIX   B-1 (CONTINUED)

d.

THE WASHINGTON POST
THE COMICS- SECTION 2
SUNDAY, JULY 16, 1989

e.

SNOOPY VOL. 1 - 1977
HERE COMES SNOOPY
CORONET BOOKS
HODDER FAWCETT - LONDON

f.
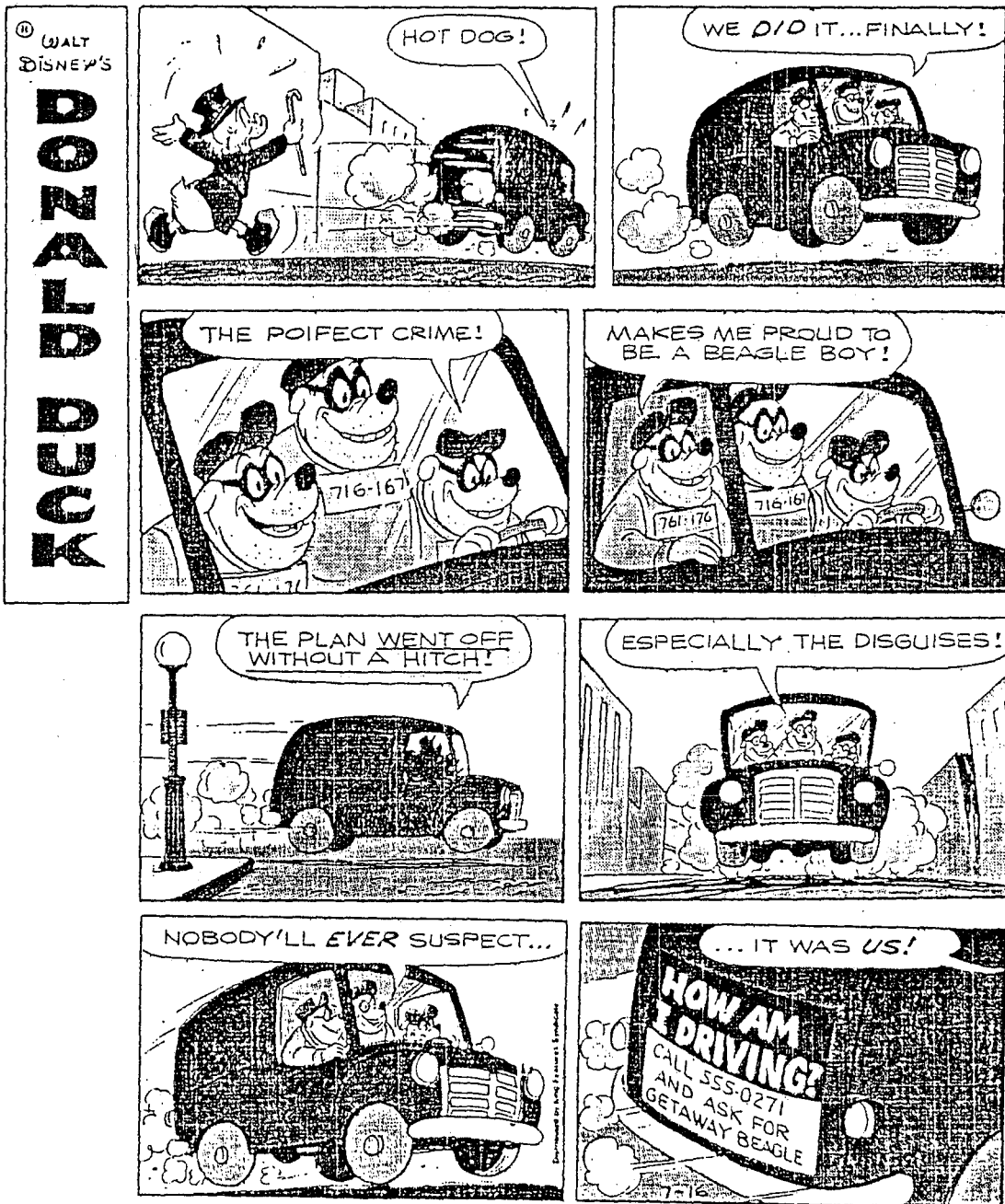
THE WASHINGTON POST
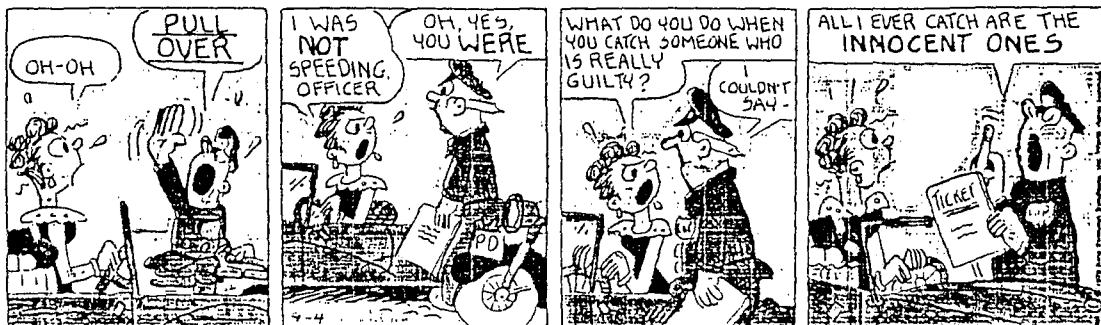THE COMICS - SECTION 2
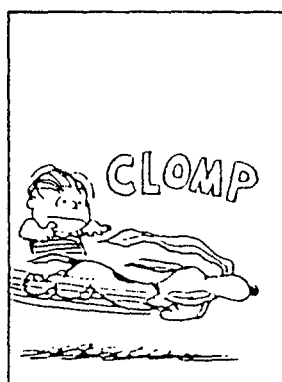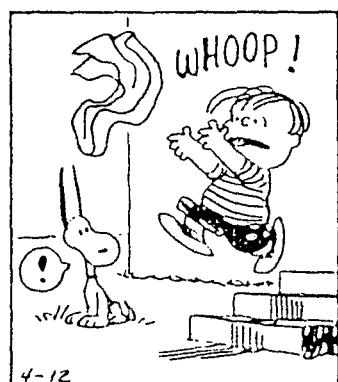SUNDAY, JULY 16, 1989
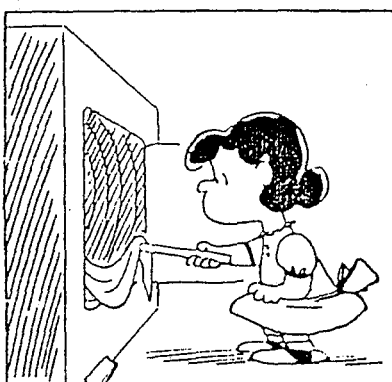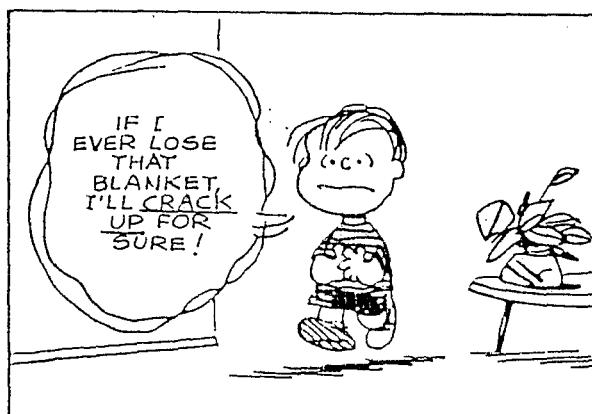
APPENDIX B-1 (CONTINUED)

g.

Novice speed cop . . .

HELLO MAGAZINE
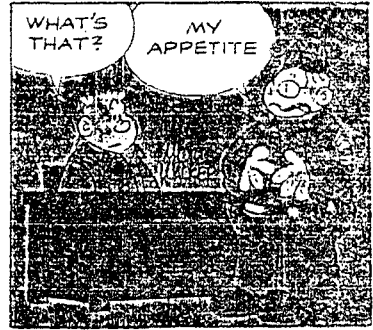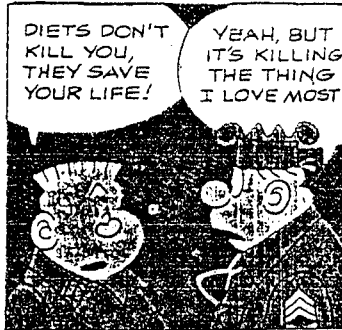VOL. 1, NO. 1 · APRIL 1982 · p. 62

APPENDIX B-1 (CONTINUED)

h.

1.
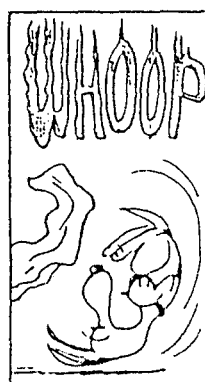
BEETLE
BAILEY

Life's problems . . .

HELLO MAGAZINE
VOL. 1. NO.1 APRIL 1982 - p. 44.

APPENDIX   B-2

The Reading Passages Used in the

First Instruction Session

a. Linus and Charlie Brown's sister Nancy were in line for a horror movie to buy tickets. Nancy wanted to know what the movie was about. It is called "feet", Linus said, "It's about these huge feet that walk all over the world, and crush all the people to death".

Nancy thought the movie sounded disgusting, and she felt sick. "That sounds gross", she thought, "maybe I shouldn't see it, if it's really gross, I'll **flip out**".

When Nancy went back home, her brother Charlie Brown asked her why she was at home so early because he thought she went to the movie. "The movie was too scary", she said, "I couldn't watch it".

b. Lucy was sitting in front of the TV, trying to watch a "cowboy and indian" movie. Suddenly, she heard her brother behind her. Linus was dressed up in an indian costume, with feathers on his head and a rubber Indian arrow in his hand. "Go get those cowboys", Linus shouted at the TV.

Lucy smiled sweetly at her brother and asked him if he would make her a sandwich. Linus didn't want to leave the TV. "Go **jump in the lake**", he said to Lucy.

APPENDIX   B-2   (CONTINUED)

Lucy   was   really   angry.   Her   face   got   red   and
herbody   got   tense.   Suddenly,   she   grabbed   Linus   by
the   throat   and   threatend   to   hit   him.   Linus   was   terrified.
"O.K.   I'll   make   it,   I'll   make   it.   Don't   **slug   me.**"
he   said.

Lucy   told   him   she   had   to   have   that   sandwich
before   she   finished   counting   to   ten.   She   began   to
count;   "One,   two,   three,...."   And   suddenly,   at   "ten,"
an   arrow   flew   at   her   feet,   and   on   the   arrow,   was   the
sandwich.

c.It   was   a   cold,   icy   morning.   Snoopy,   the   famous
dog,   with   a   red   hat   on   his   head,   threw   himself   onto
the   ice,   and   skated   very   near   Lucy   and   her   friend
Violet,   moving   his   body   into   hundreds   of   fancy   figures.

Lucy,   getting   angry   at   Snoopy   for   moving   into
herspace,   began   to   shout   at   him,   saying;   **"Cut   that
out,**   you   stupid   dog."   Lucy   and   her   friends,   Violet
and   Candy,   finally   got   tired   of   Snoopy,   and   threw
him   off   the   ice.

Snoopy,   depressed,   sat   on   the   snow   for   a   moment.
Then,   he   decided   to   visit   his   bird   friend,   and   skate
on   the   bird's   birdbath,   which   was   covered   with   ice.

d.   The   robbery   was   just   finished.   The   three
men   were   just   driving   away   from   the   bank,   happy   that

APPENDIX B-2 (CONTINUED)

they had stolen all that money. They were so happy that the plan had succeded perfectly, without any problems.

"The perfect crime" said one, "The plan went of without a hitch." But as the men were congratulating each other, they forgot that the back of the bus they were driving had their names and home phone number on it.

e. Snoopy was trying to sleep when he heard some voices near him. Charlie Brown and one of his friends were passing-by and they were talking about dogs, and Charlie said: "Some dogs sleep with one eye open," and his friend found it very interesting.

After they went, Snoopy tried to sleep with one of his eyes open, but it was impossible to sleep. Snoopy thought that Charlie Brown was "Out of his mind."

f. Nancy was sitting in the classroom, trying to read a book, when she heard a voice behind her. The voice was telling a joke: "Hey, Nancy, What goes shh!, chop!, shh!, shop!? Nancy said "I don't know." The voice answered: "Conan the librarian". Then, the voice started to laugh: "Ha!, ha!, ha!."

Nancy was getting angry, and told the boy to stop bothering her: "Quiet!," she said, "I'm trying to concentrate." Suddenly, the boy behind her started

squirting water in her face with a water-gun. Nancy shouted at him again. She was very angry: "Stop it. You're getting my book all wet."

But the boy didn't stop. He started to hit her on the back and put a "kick me" sign on the back of her chair. Nancy was really angry: "Would you please just konck it off?," She shouted. But nothing changed, and Nancy knew that she had to sit next to this boy in the classroom all year.

g. One day, Mrs Flop decided to visit her friend Mary, and she got in her car and began to drive on the highway. She didn't drive very fast but a traffic-policeman who drove a motorcycle told her to pull over.

Mrs Flop said to the policeman that she didn't drive fast but the policeman didn't agree with her. She began to complain about the policeman and she asked him what he does when he catches someone who is really quilty. The policeman said he couldn't say because he said, he only catches "innocent" ones.

h. Linus lost his blanket and he tried to find it. He looked everywhere in the house but he couldn't find it. He got angry and said; "If I ever lose that blanket I'll crack up for sure."

APPENDIX B-2 (CONTINUED)

He decided to ask his sister where his blanket was. Lucy was washing the clothes and she said it was in the washing-machine. She got the blanket out of the washing-machine and gave it to Linus. The blanket was very hot and Linus coludn't hold it.

At that moment Snoopy, the famous dog, was running past Linus, and grabbed the blanket with his mouth. Finally he tripped, the hot steamy blanket fell to the ground, and Snoopy hugged Linus in fear.

1. The soldier Sergeant George is a very fat man and he likes to eat too much but he has to eat less for his health. That's why he is on a diet that day.

In the afternoon, he went to Captain Smith's office to get an order. Captain Smith asked him how his diet was going. Sergeant George told that his diet was **killing him**, but Captain Smith didn't agree with him and told that diets never kill a person, they save people's life.

Surgeant George, was agree with him at that point but he said, that diet was killing his appetite.

APPENDIX B-3

The Comic Strips Used in the Second Instruction Session
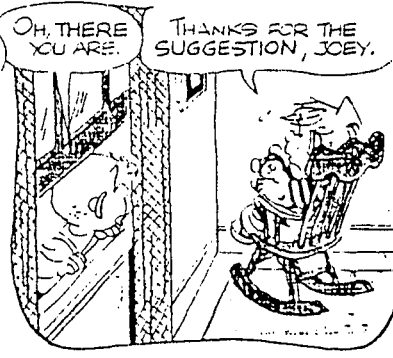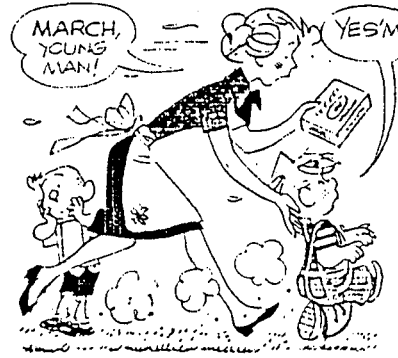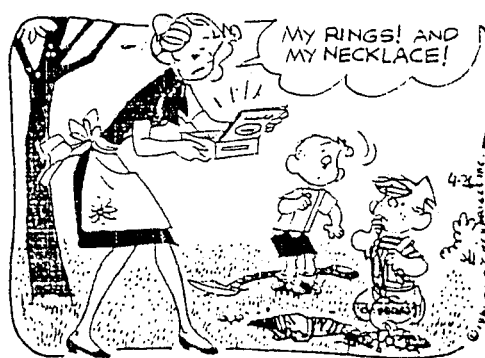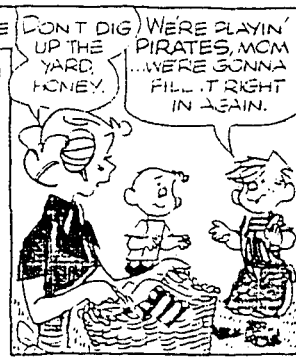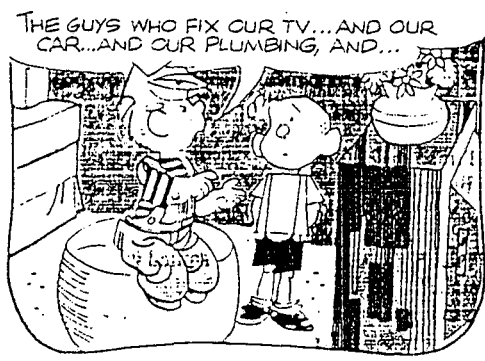
a.

APPENDIX   B-3   (CONTINUED)

APPENDIX B-3 (CONTINUED)
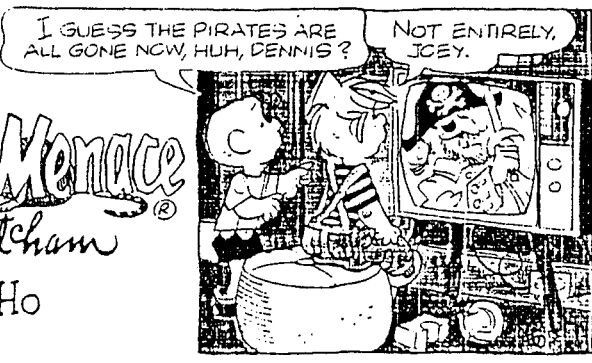
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APPENDIX B-3 (CONTINUED)

c.
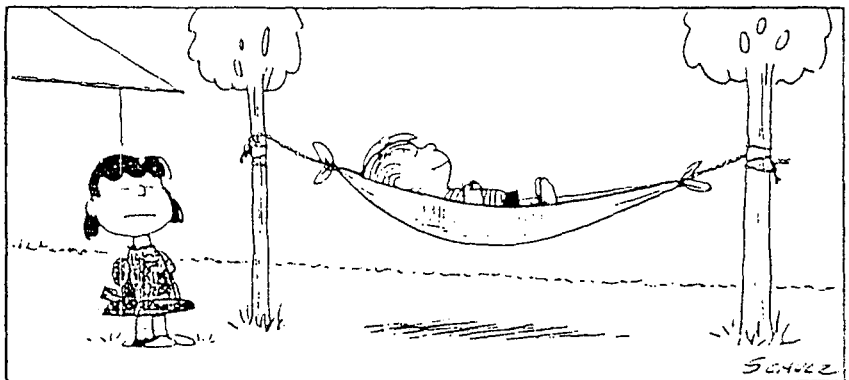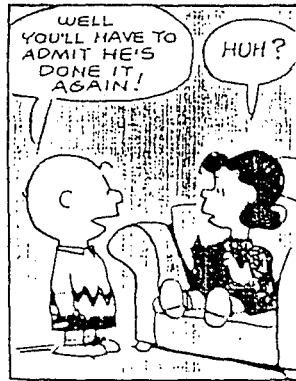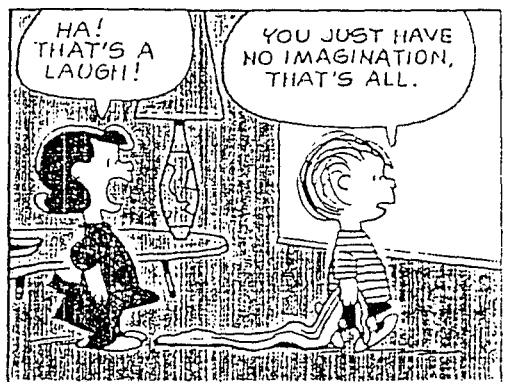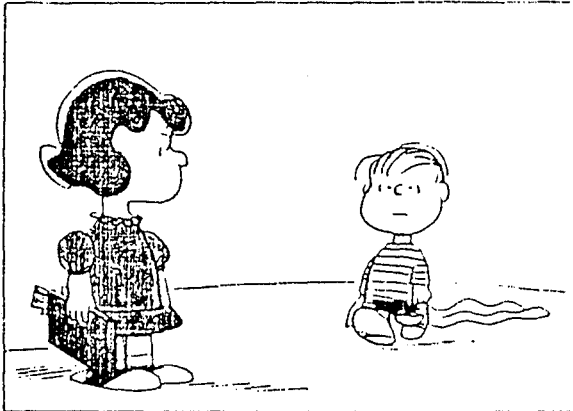
YOU KNOW, I CAN'T POSSIBLY TELL YOU HOW SICK I GET OF SEEING YOU DRAG AROUND THAT STUPID BLANKET!

IT'S NOT STUPID... THIS BLANKET HAS MANY VERY PRACTICAL USES...

HA! THAT'S A LAUGH!

YOU JUST HAVE NO IMAGINATION, THAT'S ALL.

I HAVE PLENTY OF IMAGINATION... IT DOESN'T TAKE ANY IMAGINATION TO SEE HE'S CRAZY!

OF ALL THE BROTHERS IN THE WORLD, I HAD TO GET HIM!

WELL YOU'LL HAVE TO ADMIT HE'S DONE IT AGAIN!

HUH?

I SAID LINUS HAS DONE IT AGAIN... YOU'D BETTER GO SEE FOR YOURSELF...

?

PEANUTS - LUCY RULES OK? 1979-p.34
HODDOR AND STOUGHTON - LONDON SYDNEY
AUCKLAND TORONTO

d.
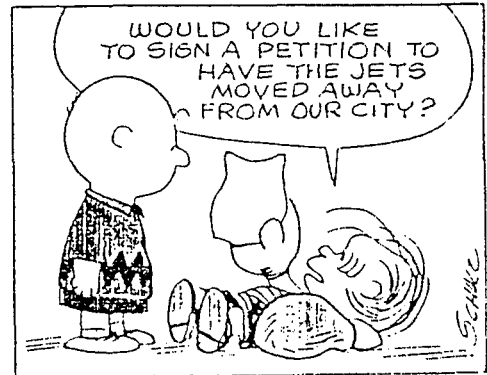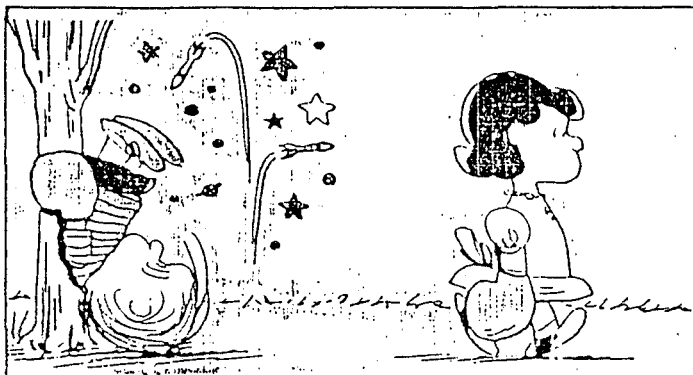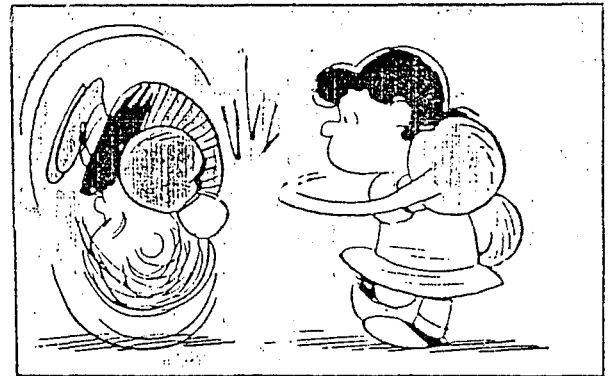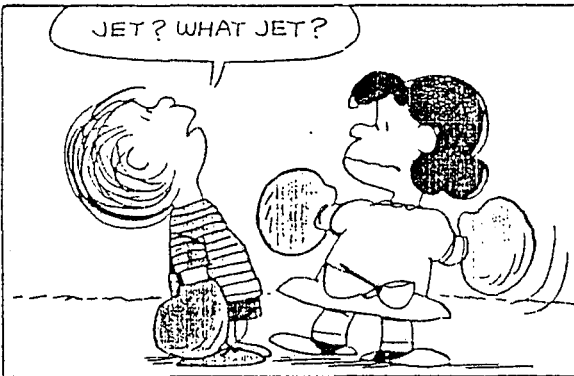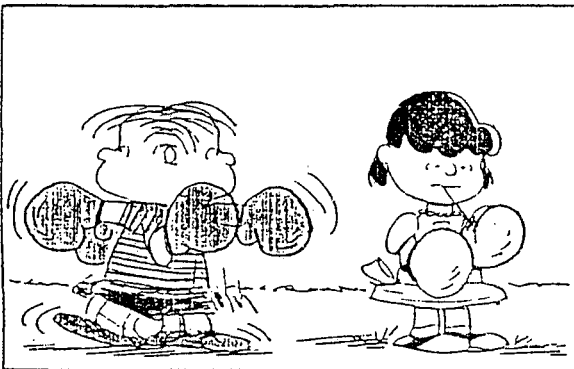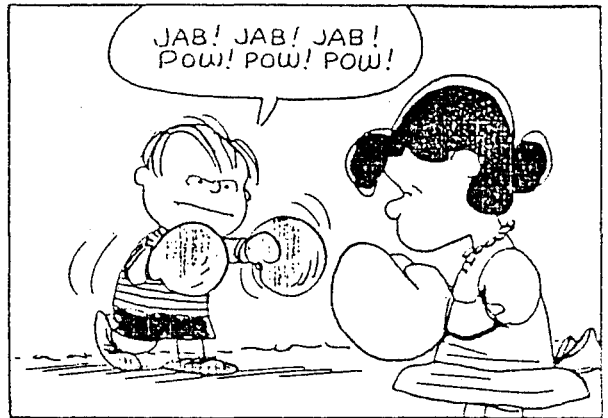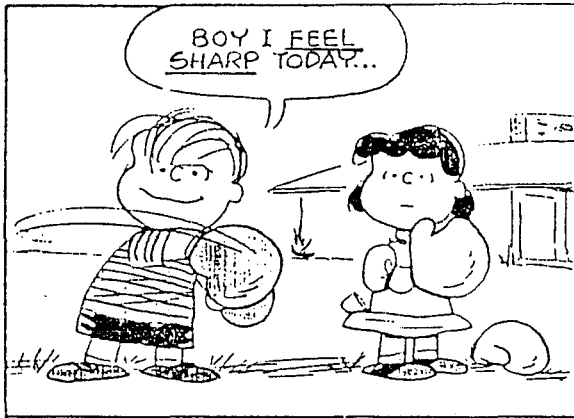
PEANUTS - LUCY RULES OK? 1979, P. 28
HODDER AND STOUGHTON - LONDON SYDNEY
AUCKLAND TORONTO

APPENDIX   B-4

The Reading Passages Used in the
Second Instruction Session

THAT GUY UPSTAIRS!

a. Brenda, 21, was giving a party in her new flat for her friends, with a lot of loud rock music and dancing, the party had got a bit out of hand. Suddenly, the handsome medical student from upstairs knocked on the door. "Look, I'm trying to study, could you stop the noise?" he said. Brenda told her friends to be quiet, and then her friends decided to leave early and go to a disco instead.

The next day, Brenda twisted her ankle, and her friends took her to the First Aid station nearby. In the station, she met the medical student from upstairs. He was very nice to her, fixed her ankle and told her that he wasn't a creep, in fact, he was very nice. She was sorry for making all that noise at the party. "Now I feel rotten about making a noise while he was studying", she thought.

The next night, her friends all came to cheer her up. "Hi! Brenda", they said, "we heard you were laid up, so we came by to say hello." Another party started again, and Brenda's "friend" from upstairs camedown again to complain about the noise. His complaining started a fight between himself and Brenda's male
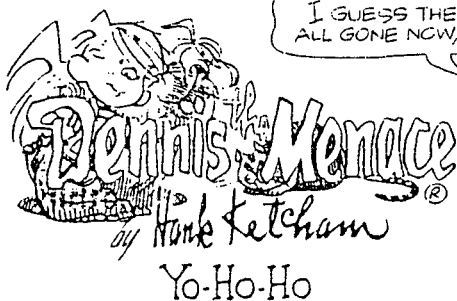
APPENDIX B-4 (CONTINUED)

friend. When Brenda defended her neighbor: "We do
make a lot of noise", her friends were disappointed
with her. "You are **getting square** since you moved
here", they said, and they left very early.

One day, a week later, Brenda felt herself
lonely and decided to to go home and ask her neighbor
to drink coffee in her flat. But when she came into
the building, she heard the noise of a wild party
in her neighbor's flat upstairs-trumpets and loud
music. "What a nerve", she thought, "he shouted at
me but look at the noise in his flat". Angry, she
ran upstairs to shout at her neighbor, but when she
opened the door, she saw that he had two noisy children
in the room. "They are my sister's children", he said,
"I'm taking care of them, but I don't **have the knack.**"
Immediately, Brenda entertained the children so well
that they didn't bother him at all. The neighbor,
seeing how nice everything was, began to look at Brenda
differently, and the finally asked Brenda out for
a date.

b. Dennis and his friend Joey were watching
a movie about pirates on TV. Joey thought that all
the pirates will lose the war but Dennis didn't agree
with him because he knew lots of pirates such as the
guys who fixed their car, their TV, their plumbing.

APPENDIX B-4 (CONTINUED)

Later, that movie gave them an idea to hide
the most important and expensive things that they
had. First, they decided to draw a map in order not
to lose the place of the treasure. They took the spade
and began to dig the backyard to burry their treasure.

At that moment, Dennis's mother was coming
from shopping and she saw the children in the backyard
and told them not to dig up the backyard. Dennis told
his mother that they were playing pirates and in a
short time they will fill the holes. Joey said that
they were burrying their treasure, diamonds and pearls.
Dennis's mother couldn't believe her eyes because
they were her diamonds and pearls. She got angry at
the children and took Dennis into the house. While
they were entering the house, Joey offered her to
make Dennis walk the plank. She liked the idea and
thanked to Joey and closed the front door.

c. Linus carries his blanket with him wherever
he goes because he generally sucks his thumb and doesn't
want people to see him while sucking it. That's why,
he uses his blanket as a shield.

Lucy always gets angry her brother for his
this behaviour and one day she said; "I get sick of
seeing you with that stupid blanket." She told him
that he must stop it but Linus told her that his blanket

APPENDIX B-4 (CONTINUED)

wasn't stupied but extremely practical. Lucy didn't believe that until she saw her brother outside, using his blanket as a hammock.

d. Linus slept very well the night before and in the morning he had a big breakfast. That day, he and his sister Lucy were going to make a boxing match and Linus said; "I **feel sharp** today," and he began to make practice.

But Lucy tricked Linus by having him look at an imaginary jet, and while he looked up Lucy punched him in the face. So Linus, even thought he felt sharp at first, was easily beaten by his sister.

APPENDIX C-1

The First Comprehension Test

A. CHOOSE THE CORRECT DEFINITION OF THE GIVEN IDIOMATIC
EXPRESSION

1. I shouldn't see that horror movie, if it is really
gross, I'll **flip out**. What does **"flip out"** mean
in this sentence?

a. to leave

b. to go crazy

c. to be sad

d. to be happy

2. "Please, make me a sandwich Linus." Linus gets
angry and says; "Go **jump in the lake**." What does
"Go jump in the lake" mean?

a. go and swim in the lake

b. I'll be happy to do it

c. do it yourself

d. go away and leave me alone

3. "Don't **slug me**, I'll do whatever you want." What
does "slug me" mean?

a. hit me

b. shout at me

c. get angry at me

d. kiss me

APPENDIX C-1 (CONTINUED)

4. "Please, **cut that out,** and leave us alone." What does "**cut that out**" mean in this sentence?

   a. cut into pieces

   b. continue doing it

   c. stop doing it

   d. go away

5. "The robbery was just finished and the plan **went off without a hitch.**" What does "**went of without a hitch**" mean?

   a. with trouble

   b. with a longer period of time than expected

   c. without difficulty or delay

   d. with tremendous speed

6. He told me that some dogs sleep with one eye open. I don't believe it, I think **he is out of his mind.** What does "**out of his mind**" mean?

   a. he forgets everything

   b. he is not very clever

   c. he is angry

   d. he is crazy

7. "You are getting my book all wet with your water-gun. Would you please just **knock it off**?" What does "**knock it off**" mean?

   a. Please continue doing it

   b. please throw your water-gun

   c. please stop doing it

   d. please kick the water-gun

APPENDIX C-1 (CONTINUED)

8. When I was speeding with my car on the highway, the traffic policeman told me to **pull over**. What does **"pull over"** mean?

   a. continue driving

   b. stop your car

   c. take your car to the side of the road

   d. take your car to the side of the road and stop

9. Linus lost his blanket and began to look for it. He said; "If I ever lose that blanket, I'll **crack up**". What does **"crack up"** mean?

   a. go crazy

   b. divide into two pieces

   c. get angry

   d. get confused

10. Because I'm too fat, my doctor told me not to eat too much. But my diet is **killing me**. What does **"killing me"** mean?

    a. making me happy

    b. making me tired

    c. making me very uncomfortable

    d. murdering me

B. WRITE DOWN THE APPROPRIATE IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION WHICH BETTER FITS THE GIVEN SITUATION AMONG THE IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED IN THE FIRST PART OF THIS TEST

APPENDIX C-1 (CONTINUED)

11. Charlie was studying his lessons when his friend
    Linus came into the room. Linus began to bother
    Charlie by making noise with a trumpet. Charlie
    told him to _____.

12. I studied very hard for the exam tomorrow. If
    the questions are very difficult, I will _____

    _____.

13. On a cold, icy evening my brother told me to go
    out and buy him a packet of cigarettes. I was
    very tired that evening, so I told him to _____

    _____.

14. They hope that the wedding ceremony will _____

    _____, because they organized it

    perfectly.

15. He told me that he will leave his job. I don't
    believe it because he is getting a good salary
    and it is a nice job. I think he is _____

    _____.

16. We were making to much noise in the classroom
    and the teacher got angry and told us to _____

    _____.

17 I lost my notes and I have an exam tomorrow. If
    I can't find them, I will _____.

APPENDIX C-1 (CONTINUED)

18. We were driving too fast because we had to get
    to a wedding ceremony. On the way, a traffic policeman
    told us to _____.

19. These difficult questions are _____
    me, because I don't know the answers.

20. If you throw that snowball at me, I will _____
    _____ you a good one.

APPENDIX C-2

The Second Comprehension Test

A. CHOOSE THE CORRECT DEFINITION OF THE GIVEN IDIOMATIC
   EXPRESSION

1. With a lot of loud rock music and dancing, the
   party had **got a bit out of hand.** What does "got
   a bit out of hand" mean?

   a. get slow

   b. get noisy

   c. get uncontrollable

   d. get peaceful

2. He fixed my ankle. I think he is a nice person,
   he shouldn't **be a creep.** What does "**be a creep**"
   mean?

   a. to be an angry person

   b. to be a rude and bad person

   c. to be a polite person

   d. to be a shy and quiet person

3. Now I **feel rotten** about making a noise while he
   was studying. What does "**feel rotten**" mean?

   a. to feel confused

   b. to feel terrible

   c. to feel angry

   d. to feel heppy

APPENDIX C-2 (CONTINUED)

4. She was ill and that night her friends all came to **cheer her up.** What does **"cheer her up"** mean?

   a. visit her

   b. carry her upstairs

   c. make her feel better

   d. get angry at her

5. Brenda twisted her ankle and the next day all her friends visited her and they said; "We heard you were **laid up,** so we came by to say hello. What does "**laid up** mean?

   a. to stay in bed

   b. to be exhausted

   c. to limp

   d. to be tired

6. She didn't want her friends to make noise in her flat and her friends thought that she was **getting square** since she moved to that flat. What does "getting square" mean?

   a. to stay alona in that flat

   b. to be fat

   c. to refuse visiters

   d. to become boring and conservative

7. My sister told me to look after her children, but I **don't have the knack** because they still bother everybody. What does "I **don't have the knack** mean?

a. I don't have any time

b. I don't have ability

c. I don't have interest

d. I don't have patience

8. He took my diamonds and pearls without any permission. I'm going to **make him walk the plank.** What does "**make him walk the plank**" mean?

a. give him a reward

b. punish him

c. make him happy

d. give him another chance

9. Linus always carries his blanket wherever he goes. Lucy said; "I'm **getting sick of** seeing you with this blanket. "What does "**getting sick of**" mean?

a. to get tired

b. to get physically ill

c. to get excited

d. to get confused

APPENDIX C-2 (CONTINUED)

10. Linus slept very well that night and in the morning he had a big breakfast. He said; "I **feel sharp** today." What does **"feel sharp"** mean?

    a. feel exhausted

    b. feel confused

    c. feel alert

    d. feel peaceful

B. WRITE DOWN THE APPROPRIATE IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION WHICH BETTER FITS THE GIVEN SITUATION AMONG THE IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED IN THE FIRST PART OF THIS TEST

11. I feel _____ today because I caused a quarrel between my father and mother. Now they are not speaking to each other.

12. Since you left, the things at the factory have got completely _____ and now nobody knows where anything is.

13. At first, I thought he was a _____, but in fact he is a nice person because he offered me help with my lessons.

14. He broke his leg yesterday and the doctor told him to _____ for a few days.

15. I told the new secretary to finish that report immediately, but she couldn't do it. I'm sure she doesn't have the _____.

APPENDIX C-2 (CONTINUED)

16. He isn't very happy nowadays, that's why we will

    go to his hous to _____

    because we have good news for him.

17. He changed too much since he joined that group

    because he refused to go to the disco yesterday.

    I think he is getting _____.

18. I'll make him _____, because

    he took my antique vase without permission and

    broke it.

19. I feel _____ today because I

    slept very well last night.

20. She doesn't smoke and she hates people who smokes.

    I'm sure she is _____

    of seeing me with a cigarette in my hand all the

    time.

APPENDIX D-1

Distribution of the Scores of Group A
for the First Comprehension Test, who
was taught through reading passages

Subjects	Scores
1	55
2	75
3	70
4	55
5	65
6	65
7	85
8	70
9	45
10	40
11	65
12	80
13	70
14	80
15	35
16	60
17	40
18	90
19	65
20	70
21	45
22	60
23	50
24	65
25	70

APPENDIX   D-2

Distribution of the Scores of Group B

for the First Comprehension Test, who

was taught through comic strips

Subjects	Scores
1	85
2	90
3	70
4	70
5	75
6	95
7	60
8	65
9	90
10	80
11	75
12	55
13	65
14	50
15	80
16	95
17	85
18	60
19	50
20	50
21	85
22	45
23	60
24	80
25	75

APPENDIX D-3

Distribution of the scores of Group A
for the Second Comprehension Test, who
was taught through comic strips

Subjects	Scores
1	75
2	65
3	70
4	90
5	65
6	60
7	85
8	55
9	80
10	95
11	75
12	50
13	85
14	75
15	45
16	95
17	80
18	50
19	75
20	90
21	50
22	80
23	75
24	55
25	90

APPENDIX   D-4

Distribution of the scores of Group b
for the Second Comprehension Test, who
was taught through reading passages

Subjects	Scores
1	50
2	55
3	75
4	40
5	50
6	65
7	35
8	65
9	60
10	55
11	60
12	40
13	65
14	80
15	65
16	40
17	65
18	70
19	55
20	85
21	40
22	80
23	75
24	40
25	70

APPENDIX   E

Formulas Used in the Two-sample T-test

Hypothesis: H_0: $\overline{X}_A = \overline{X}_B$

H_1: $\overline{X}_A \neq \overline{X}_B$

Standard

Deviation:

$$S = \frac{n_A s_A^2 + n_B s_B^2}{n_A + n_B - 2}$$

t-statistics:

$$t = \frac{\overline{X}_A - \overline{X}_B}{S \quad \frac{1}{n_A} + \frac{1}{n_B}}$$