TEACHING VOCABULARY USING COLLOCATIONS VERSUS USING DEFINITIONS IN EFL CLASSES

A THESIS PRESENTED BY
ŞERİFE İPER ALTINOK

TO THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT

Title: Teaching Vocabulary Using Collocations versus Using Definitions in EFL Classes.

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Teaching words in collocations is a comparatively new technique and it is accepted as an effective one in vocabulary teaching. The purpose of this study was to find out whether teaching vocabulary would result in better learning and remembering vocabulary items. This study investigated the differences between two vocabulary acquisition techniques, collocations and dictionary definition in EFL classes. The study was conducted at Çukurova University, Center of Foreign Languages Department (YADİM). The participants were 65 intermediate level students in three classes.

The study explored whether there were any significant differences among the three groups in terms of learning vocabulary items. One of the treatment groups was presented new vocabulary items together with their collocations whereas the other treatment group was presented with only definitions. The control group did not receive any vocabulary presentation. To determine the vocabulary to be used in the presentations two pre-tests were given to the students. For the next stage, these vocabulary items were presented in two consecutive sessions in two reading texts. After practicing these vocabulary, two post-tests were given students a day after. Delayed post-tests were given 10 days later in order to measure remembering.
To analyze the results of the post-tests ANOVA and T-tests were conducted too see if there were any significant differences among the scores of the three groups.

Although the groups showed differences in the test results, ANOVA, which was conducted to find out whether these differences were significant, showed that the differences were not statistically significant. This result indicates that using collocations may not help learners very much with vocabulary learning. The results of the delayed post-tests given after 10 days, showed that means were slightly different but ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences among the groups. This suggests that collocations may not help learners remember vocabulary items.
The examining committee appointed by the Institute of Economics and Social Sciences for the thesis examination of the MA TEFL student Şerife İper Altmok has read the thesis of the student.

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To my family
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Although the importance of vocabulary acquisition has always been recognized, scientific interest in this topic has developed only over the past 30 years (Carter & McCarty, 1988). Before the 1970s, there wasn’t much concentration on vocabulary teaching and it was not regarded and treated as a concept separate from grammar or the other skills. Because of this indifference towards vocabulary acquisition there was not much research on it. Since the 1970s, the perspective on vocabulary teaching has changed because of the effect of the communicative approach and the natural approach in teaching, which emphasized the importance of receptive vocabulary growth during the early stages of language learning (Nunan, 1991).

The neglect of vocabulary in teaching has been frequently emphasized in the literature (Judd, 1978; Laufer, 1997; Nunan 1991; Richards, 1976; Zimmerman, 1997). Because of this neglect, most language teachers still do not treat vocabulary as an area to focus on. On the other hand, much research has shown that students give importance to vocabulary learning (Richards, 1976). With the recognition of the importance of vocabulary, many techniques and approaches to teaching and learning vocabulary have emerged. These include word families, key words, formal groupings, mnemonic devices, paired associates and collocation techniques.

Collocations are words that occur together with high frequency and refer to the combination of words that have a certain mutual expectancy. “The combination is not a fixed expression but there is a greater than chance likelihood that the words will co-occur” (Jackson, 1988, p. 96). Nattinger (1988) was one of the first
researchers to discuss collocations. He states that the meaning of a word mostly depends on the other words that it collocates with; by the help of these collocates the learner keeps the words in memory and can easily infer the meaning from the context. He notes that collocations help learners to guess the kind of words that they can expect to find together.

Nattinger (1988) also argued that the notion of collocations is extremely important for acquiring vocabulary but its potential has not yet been fully exploited. Biskup (1992) states that among all the errors L2 learners make, collocational errors form a high percentage; it is difficult for most learners to find the right collocates of a word because of the differences of L1 and L2.

According to Bahns (1993) collocations can be divided into two categories: Lexical Collocations and Grammatical Collocations. Lexical Collocations are combinations of nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs such as Verb + Noun, (withdraw an offer); Adjective + Noun, (serious accident); Noun + Noun, (a pride of lions); Verb + Adverb, (appreciate sincerely). Grammatical Collocations are combinations of content words (nouns, adjectives or verbs) and a grammatical word such as a preposition or certain structural patterns for example, account for, by accident, to be afraid that (Biskup, 1992).

Since lexical collocations cause greater problems for students (Biskup, 1992), this research study focuses on lexical collocations. The aim of this research is to find out whether teaching vocabulary by using collocations will make any difference in learning new vocabulary items in comparison to teaching vocabulary via definitions alone.
Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to analyze the effect of vocabulary teaching techniques on learning new words. It has been accepted that vocabulary learning is an important skill in language learning. However, despite its importance vocabulary instruction has not received the attention it deserves in EFL / ESL instructional contexts (Zimmerman, 1997). In many institutions, for example, many teachers do not recognize the variety of vocabulary teaching techniques available. One of the teachers’ responsibilities is to provide learners with effective opportunities that will enable them to learn more vocabulary items and retain them for a longer time. Traditionally, vocabulary instruction has been mostly incorporated into reading lessons and has been mostly taught through dictionary definitions, synonyms, and antonyms. Guessing meaning from the context is something which has been frequently used. However, there are many other vocabulary teaching techniques that teachers can use, such as word families, collocations and formal groupings. The efficiency of these techniques needs to be empirically investigated (Nattinger, 1988). This experimental study was set up to investigate whether teaching vocabulary in collocations will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using definitions alone.

Significance of the Study

Lewis (1997) states that any language consists of chunks of words either fixed or freer chunks. Therefore, it is advisable for students to learn new words in chunks. When presenting new words, teachers usually tend to use synonyms, antonyms, showing pictures or, mostly, providing the dictionary definitions. They also use methods like guessing meaning from the context (Nattinger, 1988).
However, as a teacher I have experienced that techniques such as mnemonic techniques, collocations and formal groupings are often less used. Students, too, are not usually aware of these different vocabulary learning techniques. I have experienced students complaining about the difficulty of learning new words and remembering them. Moreover, students have always problems with finding appropriate collocations for words.

The case of inability in using appropriate collocations for words maybe more true for Turkish students than students coming from other language backgrounds. Since word order and word selection in Turkish are very different from that of English, Turkish students tend to use collocations inappropriately. Students are not aware of the fact that collocates differ in every language and this creates problems because students mostly attempt to translate collocations directly. For example, in English the noun “promise” takes the verb “make” as in “make a promise” but in Turkish the verb “give” is used for “promise” so, the students try to translate the words directly and this causes misuse of words. This may indicate that students need to learn vocabulary items with the words with which they are associated (collocations). The results of this study may be helpful for teachers and students in our context in terms of becoming familiarized with a comparatively new technique. It may allow teachers to learn about the role of this vocabulary teaching technique. Students may also find this technique beneficial for learning vocabulary since it allows them to learn two or more words at one time.
Research Questions

This research intends to find answers to the following questions.

1) Does presenting new words in collocations result in a better learning of the words than presenting them without collocations?

2) Are there any differences among the groups in terms of remembering vocabulary items?
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In communication, the appropriate choice of vocabulary plays an important role in conveying the meaning as much as grammar. Insufficient vocabulary hinders the comprehension of the meaning in a text. Vocabulary plays a more important role in interpreting a text than that of syntax or background knowledge (Laufer, 1997).

As Carter (1989) indicated, for many years vocabulary has been the victim of discrimination by researchers who claimed syntax to be a more significant issue in the language development process. As a result, vocabulary teaching and learning has not received enough attention in English language teaching contexts (Carter & McCarthy, 1988). During the course of language teaching history, before the 1970s vocabulary was not regarded as an important component of language teaching. Because of the effect of structuralism and the Chomskyan school of linguistics, which did not regard vocabulary as an area to focus on, the issue of vocabulary remained avoided. For instance, that students would infer the meaning of words from context was a dominant belief and because of this, it was assumed that no direct vocabulary instruction was needed (Coady, 1995).

The lack of attention to vocabulary has been also attributed to the dominant influence of audio-linguism and the direct method during that period (Nunan, 1991; Richards, 1976). According to the Audio-Lingual Method, it was essential to keep vocabulary teaching at minimum in the first stages of the learning of an L2 (Celce-Murcia & Rosensweig, 1979). In the Audio-Lingual Method teaching structural patterns and drills had priority, not vocabulary. The vocabulary items used in the drills were selected according to their appropriateness to the topic and according to
their simplicity in understanding the patterns and drills to be taught (Zimmerman, 1997). As a result of this approach, EFL students had a poor comprehension of natural speech and poor writing ability (Celce-Murcia & McIntosh, 1979).

The Direct Method, on the other hand, was indeed in favour of teaching vocabulary, but it believed that it should be learnt in context and without much explanation or translation (Celce-Murcia & Rosensweigh, 1979). There were several reasons which underline this point of view. According to Rivers (1968) the proponents of the direct method believed that predicting what vocabulary learners might need is difficult. Second, if vocabulary teaching was involved too much in teaching, the students would regard language as an accumulation of words. The third reason was based on the assumption that in our first language we acquire a little amount of vocabulary at the beginning but this increases eventually in later stages. They believed that this assumption could also be applied to second language vocabulary acquisition.

During the 1970s, however, because of the influence of communicative language teaching, the importance of vocabulary was recognized again because researchers started to point out the importance of vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary instruction (Carter & McCarthy, 1988). Wallace (1982), for example, stated that since vocabulary teaching is a rather complex area, methods and techniques of teaching vocabulary should be handled in a more systematic way. He also stated that learning a second language requires learning its vocabulary in an effective way. He argued that the inability of a learner to find a word, to express himself or herself could be a frustrating and demotivating experience on behalf of the students.
The fact that massive vocabulary instruction should be given from the early stages of learning; and vocabulary teaching should be given more importance in ESL programmes was also suggested by Judd (1978). Many other authors and researchers also started to consider vocabulary acquisition important and proposed ideas on vocabulary teaching. Twaddell (1973), for example, mentioned the importance of teaching guessing strategies and his point of view was that vocabulary should be considered as a separate language skill. Widdowson (as cited in Zimmerman, 1997) appreciated the importance of vocabulary as well. He believed that native speakers can understand sentences with ungrammatical yet correct vocabulary better than those of grammatical but incorrect vocabulary. This may indicate the more important role of vocabulary knowledge in communication, than grammar knowledge.

Rivers (1983) argued for the vital need to acquire a large enough vocabulary because with an inadequate vocabulary, learners would not be able to use the structures and functions that they learned for understandable communication. Gass and Selinker (1994) thought along the same lines, stating that sentences, which have grammatical errors, can be understood whereas the ones that contain lexical errors have less possibility of being understood. They exemplify this claim with these two sentences; “Can you tell me where is the train station?” and “I feel sorry for people who live in the suburbs.” The first sentence whose correct form should be “Can you tell me where the train station is?” contains a grammatical error but still can be understood. On the other hand, the second sentence contains a lexical error because the speaker, by saying “suburb”, meant here the slum areas and felt sorry for poor people who lived there, but it can be easily inferred and can be misunderstood that
she felt sorry for people who live in suburbs because they live far from the city and they have to drive to city. Here the misuse of only one lexical item can change the whole meaning and turn it into a different direction which actually was not intended by the speaker.

As can be seen in those examples, vocabulary competence plays a crucial role in learners' conveying meaning. Laufer (1997) stated, "No text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary" (p. 20). Haynes and Baker agreed with her by saying that students need sufficient vocabulary rather than strategies for effective comprehension (as cited in Laufer, 1997). These thoughts highlight that lexical problems need to be carefully considered as they can impede comprehension.

Vocabulary Teaching

Nattinger (1988) states that comprehension requires understanding the words and storing them and also committing them to memory whereas production requires retrieving them from memory and using them in appropriate situations. Hence, our aim in teaching vocabulary should be to strengthen this memory storage. According to Nattinger one way to strengthen storage in memory is using mnemonic techniques, which enable students to learn a word in the target language by associating it with its translation in the native language in a special way. Another method is paired associates in which the learner correlates a visual image with a new word. Teaching words in collocations, on the other hand, has been neglected for many years and recently it has gained importance (Hill, 2000).
Collocations

A particular language features lexical items such as phrasal verbs, idioms, compound nouns, and collocations as well as single words. Some of these units such as idioms, collocations, and proverbs tend to be syntactically fixed. Among these multiword units, collocations have been the most neglected (Farghal & Obiedat, 1995).

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) describes collocations as “strings of specific lexical items that co-occur with a mutual expectancy greater than a chance” (p.87). This suggests that in a language some words are naturally and arbitrarily used together; for instance in English for the noun “suicide”; the verb “commit” is used. These groups of words are difficult to learn and they should be taught in class and should be dealt with as a part of the vocabulary learning task (Lewis, Morgan 2000). It is important to point out that collocations should be a part of syllabuses since language involves both single words and a great number of collocations. Woolard (2000) mentioned this emphasis on collocations by saying that “Learning more vocabulary is not just learning new words, it is often learning familiar words in new combinations.” (p. 31)

Although the place of collocations has existed through the years, it has started to be an appealing area for researchers just recently. Ellis (1997), for instance, argues that if foreign language learners want to reach a good level of competency, they should be able to speak idiomatically; they should use frequent and familiar collocations. Because speech is divided into these meaningful units. He believes that when learners have collocations in their minds, they can retrieve these collocations as wholes or chains from the long-term memory. Although, collocations
are longer than single words and thus they may seem to be more difficult to recall than single words, according to Ellis (1997), single words and collocations have the same underlying principle and they both need repetition.

One of the first researchers to mention collocations was Richards (1976). He presented some assumptions related to the lexical competence in order to answer the questions “What does it mean to know a word?” and “What is involved in knowing a word?” and he explained them in detail in order to provide some guidelines for vocabulary instruction. Richards defined “learning a word” as being able to guess how frequently a word may come up in context and knowing which associations that a particular word has. This notion entails the knowledge of collocation. If the word fruit is known, it is expected that the words sweet/ ripe/ green (not ripe) are known as well. Then, it can be assumed that sweet/ ripe/ green are known by association.

Richards also assumed that if the network of associations between words is known, the word is known. He emphasized that words do not stand in isolation. If a word’s relationship with other words were known, its meaning would be clearer, because meanings are better understood if they are associated with other words. From what he claimed, it can be inferred that teaching words with their associations would cause better understanding rather than teaching them in isolation.

Similarly, Judd (1978) believed that words that are taught by themselves are generally not retained, so students must be aware of the linguistic environment in which a word appears. He favoured massive vocabulary instruction in the early stages and stated that vocabulary should be presented in a natural linguistic context.

Lewis (1993) and Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) brought further insights to the nature of collocations. According to Lewis (2000) “Noticing language as chunks,
aids storage as chunks. It therefore aids acquisition, as some of this prefabricated language is then available to the learner both for use as prefabricated items and as raw material for syntactic analysis...” (p. 181).

Among the key principles of his lexical approach, he stated that collocation should be integrated within the syllabus. He believed language consists of multi-word chunks, so teachers' responsibility should be raising the students' awareness of these chunks. Lewis (1997) argued against the traditional dichotomy of language into grammar and vocabulary and dismissed it as being misguided. He believed language is made up of four different kinds of lexical items namely; Words, Polywords / Collocations / Institutional utterances / Sentence frames or heads. As it can be seen, in this division collocations constitute a significant part of language. However, Lewis (1997) stated that collocations have mostly been seen as marginal and ignored.

Richards (1976) also emphasized the importance of learners' need of lexis and collocation and he was not in favour of word boundaries. According to Richards speakers of a language not only recognize the general probability of occurrence of a word, but also at the same time they recognize the probability of words being associated with other words. But, since students generally learn words through definitions or in isolation, their chance of using an appropriate collocation or remembering them decreases. This is one of the factors that hinder communication and comprehension. This constitutes another argument in favour of focusing on collocations while presenting new vocabulary (Richards, 1976).

Hill (2000) strongly believed in the idea of the power of collocations in our mental lexicon in creating and comprehending texts. He believes that the way words
combine in collocations is essential in every language and this strengthens its importance. Hill (2000) also points out that 70% of what we hear, say, read or write is some kind of fixed expressions. He also compares native speakers with second language learners. When speaking or listening, native speakers employ ready-made language from their mental lexicon because of their multi-word units' competency. If learners were familiarised with multi-word units, they would employ the same process in their mental lexicon.

One of the advantages of learning words in collocations is that students can be made aware of the word partnership and hence, when they need to record a new vocabulary item, they would record the elements of its collocations in a single package. This is helpful for students, because those words generally appear together in the same order. “The recognition, generation, and effective recording of collocations are essential elements of the lexical approach.” (Lewis, 1997, p. 257). According to Lewis (1997) when presenting new words, the grammar of the word should be explored, meaning that its collocations should be learned. Since collocations are not systematic but determined by logic, it is difficult for students to guess which word takes which word, so when they learn a new one it is better to provide them with a collocate. Lewis (1997) also suggested that it is easy to learn words in collocations in the first place, because, later it would not be difficult for learners to separate them and to use them separately. On the other hand, if they learn words in isolation, it would be hard for a learner to guess the collocation.

Although Lewis agreed that collocations have powerful teaching implications, students still need help in identifying and finding an appropriate collocation. This means teaching vocabulary by using collocations should be helped by the teacher.
Sometimes students would have difficulties in finding a most appropriate collocation by themselves because the rules concerning collocations are not generalizable. As a pedagogical value of collocations, Lewis (1993) advanced that words are normally learned in strong typical patterns. Therefore it is more useful to learn a word together with another, so if needed, it can be broken into parts. Hence, it is always better to learn the words in collocations. As an advantage, learners, when necessary, can use these separately. But if the words were not learned in collocations, students would not know what collocates with what. One the other hand, if words are taught in collocations, it is easier for learners to keep them in their minds.

Lewis had some assumptions, which are significant in terms of the salience of collocations.

- The mental lexicon is larger than we previously thought.
- The prefabricated chunks stored in our mental lexicons ready for use are often larger than previously recognized.

From what he says, we can conclude that, our mental lexicon is able to hold more chunks of words than we have thought which suggests teaching of these chunks must be a part of vocabulary instruction.

Woolard (2000) argues that collocations are becoming an important category of lexical patterning in language courses in recent years. He applied this technique in his classes and found that the nature of collocations fits into the notion of independent learning. He argues that teachers may enable students to improve their knowledge of collocations independently. For instance, if they have a clear notion of collocations, this may lead them to learn a new vocabulary item together with its
collocates every time they learn a new word. If it becomes a habit, students would raise their awareness of collocations and learn collocates independently.

If available, computers can be also utilised for COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database). It is based on keyword-in-context concordance data word lists which means there is a key word used in sentences in a list and this list is composed of sentences taken from newspapers, books, radio, transcripts, of speech and other written texts. When the key word is typed in, the list provides examples of usage of that word in different sentences taken from these different sources. In this way, it can be helpful for students if they are looking for a right collocation. More importantly teacher's role can be an organiser rather than an authority or expert. This provides opportunities for learners to become autonomous in learning vocabulary, especially collocations. (Johns, 1993).

It should be noted that teachers are not supposed to teach all of the collocations because there are a great number of them. They can focus on the most frequently used ones because most of the time it is not easy to decide which collocations to teach. Another point to consider is that, students, sometimes use wrong collocates which means they use them in a wrong way partly because of the direct translations from their mother tongue. The teachers can keep a record of those misuses and take them into consideration when teaching.

**Empirical Studies on Collocations**

Gitsaki, Daigaku, and Taylor (2000) conducted an important study on collocation. They stated that there is a consensus among researchers and language teachers about the importance of collocations for second and foreign language learning. These researchers applied the idea to the second/foreign language
curriculum because then it can be believed beneficial for the development of L2 vocabulary and communicative competence. Gitsaki et al. believed that collocations are difficult to learn because joining words that are semantically compatible does not always produce acceptable combinations. Secondly, there are no standard rules that can be applied to the word combinations and word combinations differ from language to language. The knowledge of collocations requires pragmatic knowledge as well. Another reason is negative transfer from L1 and the unfamiliarity with the structure of the particular collocations.

The purpose of their study was to investigate the patterns of acquisition of English collocations. In the study 275 junior high school Greek learners in three different levels participated. They used three measures: a writing task, a gap-filling task and a translation task.

They found that the knowledge of collocations occur gradually; the higher levels were more successful than the lower levels. Gitsaki et al. (2000) also found that lexical collocations were more difficult to translate than grammatical collocations and the higher levels were more accurate in translating. Another finding was that the amount of exposure to a particular collocation correlated with better acquisition of that collocation. The most important conclusion of this study was that subjects were less accurate with fixed, arbitrary, and unpredictable verb-noun lexical collocations.

This conclusion shows that collocations are language specific and direct translation would end with inaccuracy. They should be dealt with as a significant part of vocabulary instruction. It can be inferred that lexical collocations should be
taught separately, otherwise students would try to translate them, which leads them to wrong usage.

Another study of collocations was done by Biskup (as cited in Biskup, 1992). In his study he defined collocations as different from idioms, since they are transparent. It means that they are non-idiomatic. In this study, Biskup tried to find out whether lexical collocations cause problems for L2 learners and which subtypes are difficult for them. After the tests, there seemed to be no difficulty in perception, but in production and when the students were asked to provide the translation of collocations. They also had difficulties in the verb + noun category. The results showed that L1 has a significant influence on L2 use. He also concluded that verbs are the main part in most collocations and they determine the collocational system of a language. He stated that it is not easy for a non-native speaker to guess the collocates of a word, it needs exposure, so collocations should be taught. In addition when learners encounter a new collocation together with a word they do not make an effort to learn it and this does not ignite their mental process. That is why teaching collocations should be dealt with separately and it should be focused.

In another study, Biskup (1992) tried to find the collocational errors and the role of L1 in committing these errors. There were two groups in his study, Polish and German students who both received 10 years of English language instruction. They were asked to provide the equivalents of lexical collocations. According to the results, Polish students were doubtful about giving answers but German students were trying to render the meanings of collocations. The results generally showed that, if the semantic field of a given item is wide, the possibility of the errors increases. If the word in a collocational item has more synonyms, it is produced less.
Sometimes it is possible to find a word-for-word translations for some collocations but learners tended not to translate them.

Another study was conducted by Farghal and Obiedat (1995). Their study aimed at finding out the deficiencies in the use of collocations by students and teachers and the importance of collocations in EFL field. They stated that collocations are a neglected but important variable in EFL classes. To investigate the deficiencies in using collocations and to find out the importance of collocations, two questionnaires, an English fill-in-the-blank version and an Arabic translation version were given to senior and junior students and teachers at Yarmouk University. The questionnaires consisted of twenty-two common collocations related to topics such as food, colour and weather. The results showed that the students were deficient in collocations, and that they applied strategies like synonymy, paraphrasing and avoidance and transfer. Farghal and Obiedat (1995) argued that teaching lexical items as collocations is as important as teaching them individually.

The purpose of my study is to find out whether the learners learn the lexical items better in collocations rather than individually. Also, it aims to find out the extent to which the known collocates can help the students learn unknown items. This study will give a chance to gain an insight about teaching and learning collocations and compare it with teaching words in isolation.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to compare the effect of two different vocabulary teaching techniques in learning new words. In particular, the study investigated whether teaching vocabulary in collocations would result in better learning.

Participants

The Participants were from Çukurova University, Center of Foreign Languages Department (YADIM). Three intermediate preparatory classes participated in the study, one as the control group, two as the experimental groups. Totally there were 65 students participating.

In both experimental groups, there were 25 students and in the control group there were 15 students. Their ages ranged from 18 to 22. In selecting these classes the sameness of their level was taken into consideration. During the treatment, most of the classes at YADIM were at intermediate level. Thus, for this study intermediate level classes were chosen, because more classes were available.

Materials and Procedure

The main aim of the study was to find out whether collocations would help students to learn and remember the new words with which they were associated. The first step was to select words they did not know.

In order to select these words, a list of a 100 words was constructed and given to students as a first pre-test (see appendix A). The aim of this pre-test was to find out the words that the students did not know because these words were to be taught during treatment. Since the level of the students were intermediate, the 100 words,
especially difficult words, were chosen from 2 intermediate level course books, *Atlas* (Nunan, 1995) and *Interchange* (Richards, 1991). These books were chosen because they were intermediate level course books, which were similar to most of the intermediate course books used in Turkish schools. The three classes had to indicate their knowledge of the words by circling one of the three options; *I know the word, I don’t know the word at all* or *I think I know the word but I am not sure*. Only those words they indicated they did not know at all were selected for further use. Then for those words, appropriate collocates were found by using Collins Cobuild Corpora (available at http://www.cobuild.collins.co.uk/) and The LTP Dictionary of Collocations.

Students' knowledge of collocates were also tested using another pre-test in order to select and keep the ones that the students knew. The aim of the second pre-test was to select the words that the students knew because during the treatment these known collocates would help them to learn new vocabulary items better. This second pre-test was a matching test in which the students were asked to match the words with their definitions (see appendix B). In the second pre-test there were a total of 40 words and their meanings. These 40 words were divided into four parts each comprising 10 words and their meanings. The purpose of the second pre-test was to select the known words (as collocates) which would be taught to students together with the unknown vocabulary items. In this way, the effect of the known collocates would show that whether these collocates help the students to learn and remember the newly presented vocabulary items.

For this stage, I selected 20 collocates among the correct answers, in this way I selected the known words and I put the known and the unknown words together and
categorized them into the subgroups such as verb + noun, adjective + noun, noun + noun, verb + adverb (see appendix C).

Three classes participated in the research: two experimental and one control group. The level of these three classes was intermediate. In these classes the items were presented in two reading texts (see appendices D and E). Two reading texts were written by a native speaker and these words were placed in these reading texts together with their collocates. Each text included 10 unknown words. The researcher was teaching all the groups during the treatment, because there was not a single teacher who teaches three different classes also the procedure of the treatment and conducting the tests were complicated. Hence, the teaching was done by the researcher and it was done in two consecutive sessions. In the first session, for the collocation group, the collocation technique was used. The students first read the reading text, and then the teacher presented 10 vocabulary items and explained their meanings. She also provided a collocate (which students knew the meaning of) for each word, in this way while students were learning a new word, they were learning them with collocations. After providing the words and their collocates, five comprehension questions related to the text were asked and answered to make the task more meaningful. Finally, a gap-filling exercise was practiced for newly learned vocabulary (see appendices F and G). The gap-filling exercise involved both these new words and the collocates. Two words were given together and the students were asked to fill in the blanks with these two words. The second reading session had the same procedure.

The second experimental group received only the dictionary definitions of words. The students read the same reading text and answered the same
comprehension questions. For this group while the teacher was presenting the vocabulary she did not provide the collocates of the words, only the definitions were given. In order for the teacher to spend nearly the same amount of time in two classes during the presentation stage, the teacher practiced the word formations of new vocabulary items with the students. For this group the gap-filling exercises consisted only of single words (see appendices H and I).

The control group received the same reading texts. But this group only answered the comprehension questions and they were not taught the unknown words. In order to keep the amount of time same with the treatment groups, a speaking activity related to the topic was done with the control group.

After the treatment sessions, the three classes took two immediate post-tests, which were given the day after (see appendices J and K). In the first post-test, the students answered multiple-choice questions which included 25 words. Twenty of these words were the ones presented in the text and the other five of them were extra words. These five extra words were easy words which students knew the meanings of. In the second post-test the students were given 25 items and asked to write their meanings in English and use them in meaningful sentences. Twenty of these words were the ones that they were presented and the five others were extra words. In order to counter balance the effect of tests, each class was divided into two halves and the first half took the multiple-choice test whereas the second half took the definition-sentence test and then they did the reverse.

After 10 days, delayed post-tests were given to the students, which included the same questions, but in a different order (see appendices L and M). See Figure 1 for the design of the study.
### A Schematic Representation of the Design of the Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment Group 1</th>
<th>Treatment Group 2</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Pre-Test 1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1. Pre-Test 1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1. Pre-Test 1</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test 2 (Matching Test)</td>
<td>Pre-Test 2 (Matching Test)</td>
<td>Pre-Test 2 (Matching Test)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Treatment Group</strong></td>
<td><strong>2. Treatment Group</strong></td>
<td><strong>2. Control Group</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session One</td>
<td>Session One</td>
<td>Session One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Reading a passage</td>
<td>i. Reading a passage</td>
<td>i. Reading a passage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Presenting the vocabulary</td>
<td>ii. Presenting the vocabulary</td>
<td>ii. Answering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with their meanings and collocates</td>
<td>with their meanings and other forms (word formation)</td>
<td>comprehension questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Answering comprehension questions</td>
<td>iii. Answering comprehension questions</td>
<td>iii. Speaking activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using the words together with their collocates</td>
<td>using only the words</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session Two</td>
<td>Session Two</td>
<td>Session Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The above was repeated</td>
<td>The above was repeated</td>
<td>The above was repeated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Immediate Post-Tests</strong></td>
<td><strong>3. Immediate Post-Tests</strong></td>
<td><strong>3. Immediate Post-Tests</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Multiple-Choice Test</td>
<td>i. Multiple-Choice Test</td>
<td>i. Multiple-Choice Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Definition-Sentence Test</td>
<td>ii. Definition-Sentence Test</td>
<td>ii. Definition-Sentence Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same tests, in different order</td>
<td>Same tests, in different order</td>
<td>Same tests, in different order</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** A schematic representation of the design of the study.
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of collocations in helping learners to learn the meanings of unknown words. Three groups, comprising two experimental groups and a control group participated in this study. The first experimental group, consisted of 16 students and was presented with definitions only. The second experimental group, consisted of 21 students and was presented with the definitions of the new words together with their collocations. The control group, a total of 13 students, did not receive any of the above treatments. In total, 65 students participated in this study during the treatment but during the conducting of the tests 50 students were present.

Before the experiments, two separate pre-tests were given to the three groups. In the first pre-test, the aim was to be sure that they did not already know the meaning of the new words to be presented to them. The second pre-test aimed at they knew the meanings of collocates which would be presented together with a new word. The treatment took place over two consecutive class hours. The immediate post-tests were given a day after the experiment and the delayed post-tests were given 10 days later. The immediate and delayed sets of post-tests were the same; however, the questions were in different order.

Although during the presentation stage some of the students were absent, during the testing stage the number decreased. The numbers of the students who took each test are as follows: In the immediate multiple-choice test, 21 students in the collocation group; 12 students in the definition group; and 13 students in the control group were present. In the immediate definition-sentence test, 17 students in the collocation group; 12 students in the definition group; and 13 students in the
control group were present. In the delayed post-tests the numbers decreased. The number of the students in delayed multiple-choice test are as follows: 10 students in the collocation group; 16 students in the definition group; and 12 students in the control group. In the delayed definition-sentence test; there were 9 students in the collocation group; 10 in the definition group; and 10 in the control group.

After scoring each test, in order to find out the differences among the three groups, ANOVA (analysis of variance) was used. In order to determine the differences between the immediate post-tests and the delayed post-tests, t-tests were employed.

Data Analysis Procedures

The scoring of the immediate and delayed multiple-choice tests was done by giving one point to each correct answer. Since there were 25 questions in each of the tests, the total score for each was 25. The five extra questions were not excluded because upon inspection it was found that all the students had answered all of them correctly. The scoring of the immediate and the delayed definition-sentence tests was done by giving one point to each correct answer. Since there were 50 questions in each, total score was 50 for each of the tests. For all these tests, the means and the standard deviations of each group were calculated. Then, three groups were compared to see if there were differences among the groups. For the next stage, the differences between the immediate and delayed post-tests were determined. First, the mean and the standard deviations of the tests for each group were calculated. One way ANOVA-Analysis of Variance- was conducted to determine if there was any significant difference in learning new words among the two experimental groups and the one control group. The results of these analyses are presented in the tables.
Table 1 contains the means and the standard deviations of the immediate multiple-choice tests.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of the Immediate Multiple-Choice Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>6.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.66</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.84</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n = The number of the students

An examination of Table 1 shows that in the immediate multiple-choice tests, the mean for the collocation group was 12.80 and the standard deviation was 6.66. The mean for the definition group was 13.66 and the standard deviation was 6.98. The mean for the control group was 9.84 and the standard deviation was 4.52. As can be seen, both the definition group and the collocation group had higher means than the control group, which explains that there are no differences between the two experimental groups in terms of learning words either in collocation and definition or definition only. This might show that collocations did not help learners to learn new words; otherwise the mean of the collocation group would be the highest.

To see if there was any significant difference among the scores of the three groups ANOVA was conducted. Table 2 shows the results of the ANOVA.
Table 2

Results of ANOVA for the Immediate Multiple-Choice Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>105.642</td>
<td>52.821</td>
<td>1.359</td>
<td>.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1671.597</td>
<td>38.874</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1777.239</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of ANOVA as presented in Table 2 revealed that there was no significant difference among the three groups for the first immediate multiple-choice test. 

\( F = 1.359; P = .268 \). Table 3 shows the means and the standard deviations of the delayed multiple-choice tests.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of the Delayed Multiple-Choice Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>7.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11.75</td>
<td>5.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.16</td>
<td>4.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. \( n = \) The number of the students

In Table 3, in the delayed multiple-choice post-test, the mean for the collocation group was 13.50 and the standard deviation was 7.39. The mean for the definition group was 11.75 and the standard deviation was 5.68. The mean for the control group was 10.16 and the standard deviation was 4.91. The mean for the collocation group is 13.50, which is higher than the other two groups’ means. This might indicate that collocations helped learners to remember the vocabulary items in
the delayed test. Again ANOVA was conducted to see if any of the differences were significant.

The results of ANOVA for the delayed multiple-choice tests is given in Table 4.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60.649</td>
<td>30.325</td>
<td>.854</td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1243.167</td>
<td>35.519</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1303.816</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the collocation group got the highest mean, the results of ANOVA showed that there were no statistically significant differences among the groups. ($F = .854, P = .434$).

For the definition-sentence post-tests, means and standard deviations were calculated to see the difference in the scores of the three groups. Table 5 shows these figures.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>4.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n= The number of the students
As Table 5 demonstrates, the mean for the collocation group was 7.35 and the standard deviation was 6.67. For the definition group the mean was 7.25 and the standard deviation was 4.91. The mean for the control group was 3.38 and the standard deviation was 4.13. In these tests the two treatment groups got higher means than the control group, which might suggest the effectiveness of the treatment. The differences among the groups were then examined by using ANOVA. Table 6 shows if there is statistical significance among the three groups.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results of ANOVA for the Immediate Definition-Sentence Post-Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant difference among the three groups in immediate definition-sentence post-tests.

Table 7 indicates the means and standard deviations for the delayed definition-sentence post-tests.
Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of the Delayed Definition-Sentence Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: n = The number of the students

As Table 7 shows, in the delayed definition-sentence post test, the mean for the collocation group was 3.66 and the standard deviation was 2.29. The mean for the definition group was 4.50 and the standard deviation was 2.71. The mean for the control group was 3.60 and the standard deviation was 2.59. In this test the control group got the lowest mean. If we compare the means of both treatment groups it can be seen that collocation group got lower mean than the definition group which might suggest that collocations were not effective in remembering vocabulary for collocation group.

The results of ANOVA for the delayed definition-sentence post-tests are given in Table 8.

Table 8

Results of ANOVA for the Delayed Definition-Sentence Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.962</td>
<td>2.481</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>168.900</td>
<td>6.469</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>173.862</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although the definition group scored higher than the other groups in these tests, according to the results of ANOVA, the means of the three groups shown no significant difference. \((F = .382, P = .686)\).

In order to determine whether there were any differences between the immediate and the delayed post-tests in each group, several t-tests were calculated. The results are displayed in Table 9.

Table 9

Comparison Between the Immediate Multiple-Choice Post-Tests and the Delayed Multiple-Choice Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Immediate</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Delayed</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( M )</td>
<td>( SD )</td>
<td>( M )</td>
<td>( SD )</td>
<td>( t )-value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>.485</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>13.66</td>
<td>6.98</td>
<td>11.75</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>9.84</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>10.16</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Between the means and the standard deviations of the immediate and the delayed post-tests, any significant difference can not be seen. The letter \( t \) shows the significance among the groups. In Table 9, although for each group there is no significant difference between the immediate and the delayed post tests, it can be seen that collocation group got a higher mean in the delayed post test which suggests collocations helped the students to remember the words, whereas the mean of the definition group decreased in the delayed post-test.
Next, t-tests were calculated for the immediate and delayed definition-sentence post-tests for the tree groups. Table 10 shows the results of the t-test for all groups in immediate and delayed post-tests.

Table 10

Comparison Between the Immediate Definition-Sentence Post-Tests and the Delayed Definition-Sentence Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Immediate</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. *p < .05

For the definition-sentence post-tests the only significant difference is in the collocation group. The mean for the collocation group decreased significantly in the delayed post-test, which suggests collocations did not help the students remember the meanings of the words. For the definition and the control group the difference is not significant but the means of two treatment groups decreased in the delayed post-tests. This may suggest that vocabulary that were presented to both treatment groups were not retained.

The Results of the Data Analyses

The results of this data analysis showed that the treatment groups in general outperformed the control group in all the tests. However, the results of the ANOVA showed that the differences were not statistically significant. The results also showed
no difference between the two treatment groups; that is, the collocation and the
definition groups. These test results indicate that teaching words in collocations did
not result in better learning for the collocation group since there were no significant
differences between the test results of the groups who learned new words in
definitions and who learned them in collocations and definitions.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

The intention of this study was to investigate whether teaching vocabulary-using collocations was an effective method. In particular, it aimed at finding out if teaching new words using collocations could result in a better learning and remembering of those words than teaching them with definitions only.

The study was conducted at Çukurova University, Center of Foreign Languages Department (YADIM). Three preparatory classes of intermediate level students participated in the study, one as control group and two as experimental groups. The first treatment group comprised of 25 students was presented with the new words along with their definitions and collocations. The second treatment group also comprised of 25 students was presented with definitions only. The control group, a total of 15 students, did not receive any of the above treatments.

The data collection procedure was as follows. First, using a pre-test the vocabulary items that the students did not know was selected and then in another pre-test the collocates of those items that they knew were selected. Next, these words were presented to experimental groups using two reading texts. There were 20 new words, 10 of which were presented in the first reading text and the remaining 10 were presented in the second text. The two texts were presented in two consecutive sessions. The experimental group students were presented with the reading texts, then the presentation of vocabulary, followed by comprehension questions related to the texts, and then gap-filling exercises. The control group was presented with only the texts and the comprehension questions. The collocation group was provided with both definitions and collocations of the words. The definition group was provided with definitions only. After the treatments, students received two immediate post-
tests. The first immediate post-test was a multiple-choice test consisting of 25 vocabulary items, 20 of which were the ones students were presented with before and five of which were extra items. The second test was a definition-sentence test, in which the students were supposed to write the meaning of the experimental words in English and then provide an example sentence. The test consisted of 25 vocabulary items, five of which were again extra words. After 10 days the same tests were given as delayed post-tests. Finally, the tests' results were compared to determine if there were any significant differences among the groups. To this end, the means and the standard deviations were calculated and ANOVA and t-test were used.

Conclusions and Discussions

The first research question was as follows. "Does presenting new words in collocations result in a better learning of the words than presenting them without collocations?" The results of the multiple-choice immediate post-tests and definition-sentence immediate posts-tests showed no significant difference among the groups. The means and the standard deviations of the treatment groups were higher than the control group in both immediate post-tests. In the immediate multiple-choice post-test the scores of the definition group were higher, whereas the scores of the collocation group were higher in the immediate definition-sentence post-tests. In the multiple-choice delayed post-tests the scores of the collocation group were higher but in the delayed definition-sentence post-tests the scores of the definition group were higher. Although the groups showed differences in the test results, ANOVA, which was conducted to find out whether these differences were significant, showed that the differences were not statistically significant. This result was unexpected since the collocation group was expected to score higher than the
other groups. Because the researcher assumed that collocations would help learners learn the vocabulary items better than the other groups. This result indicates that using collocations may not help learners very much with vocabulary learning.

The second research question was whether there were any differences among the groups in terms of remembering the vocabulary items. The results of the delayed post-tests given after 10 days, showed that means were slightly different but ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences among the groups. This suggests that collocations may not help learners remember vocabulary items. This result also was not expected, it was assumed that collocations would help learners remember vocabulary items in the delayed post-tests. However, the results of the study should be interpreted in light of the problems and limitations of the study.

There were several reasons why the results of this study did not show any significant difference among the three groups. The amount of time could be an important reason. The students in my study were taught words with collocations in a short period of time, which was two class hours. However, the research study conducted by Gitsaki et al. (2000) concluded that it is not easy for learners to learn collocations in a short period of time. According to this research, learning collocations requires more time than devoted to it. One reason was that it requires pragmatic knowledge and there are no standard rules for combining words. Another reason this study found was negative transfer from L1. The solution the research recommended was “learners need more exposure to collocations, also these words should be taught as a significant part of vocabulary instruction.”

Another reason might be that the students might not have paid very much attention when presented with new words in the treatment. Biskup (1992) mentions
this in his study. After conducting the study, he concluded that, it is difficult for learners to learn the collocate of a word because they had difficulty in producing collocations and also, when learners encounter a new word, they do not pay attention to the collocate of that word. This inattentiveness to collocations may be because students are not aware of the notion of collocation.

A study conducted by Elkhatib (1984) analyzed writing samples of four Arab college freshmen students and eight types of lexical errors were found. One of them was unfamiliarity with word collocation. This result might indicate that students should be more familiarized with the notion of collocation. Similarly, the results of another study which was done by Farghal and Obiedat (1995) showed that learners don’t learn collocations because they are not familiar with them. The students participated in my study may not have been familiar with collocations. Indeed they were not taught collocations before. This might be another reason of their not being successful.

When the nature of native language and the target language are considered, it can be seen that direct translation for words in collocations is not possible for every language. Bahns (1993) suggested this in a study, which he conducted with English students learning German. He concluded that in German, a high proportion of words in collocations has direct translation equivalence from English, and he suggests that these words do not need to be taught. On the other hand, the words and their collocates which cannot be translated directly should be taught and workbooks should cover some of these kind of collocational exercises. From his study it can be concluded that, as the nature of German and English is similar, words and their collocates might be guessed by their translation equivalencies. However, Turkish is
very different from English. Turkish students cannot always guess the right collocate for a word. For this reason, they need more direct and extended vocabulary instruction, which should also cover collocations. But, in my study because the students did not have this opportunity they were not successful during the treatment. Also, because they might not know about the importance of collocations, presenting the new words using collocations was not very successful.

In addition, in this study, the total number of students were 65 but only 50 of these students were present during the tests. That might be another reason why I could not find any significant difference among the groups. As this was a small study and the number of the participants was quite low, the results of the study cannot be generalized. If there is to be further research on collocations, this limitation should be taken into consideration and the number of the participants should be increased.

Another limitation of this study was the level of the students. It was limited to only intermediate level students. If it were applied to other levels, the results might have been different. The study conducted by Gitsaki et al. (2000) revealed that students from different language proficiency levels responded differently to collocations. For instance, advanced level students were shown to be more aware of the notion of collocations.

However, as mentioned before the most important limitation of this study was the time limitation. Extended exposure to the collocations is an important factor and this requires a longer time period. Thus, the time span for the treatment should have been longer. It might have lead to different results if the time was longer. In this
way, students would have been exposed to collocations more and the results might have been more accurate.

From all these studies, it might be concluded that collocations should be dealt with more carefully especially in our context and the teaching of them should take more time. Thus, although in this study teaching words in collocations did not produce any statistically significant difference in learning new vocabulary items, the idea that collocates of words should be taught when presenting new vocabulary is still worth considering, because students particularly Turkish students have difficulties in finding appropriate collocates for words.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Appendix A

Dear student,

Here is a hundred-word list, please tick the column "I know the word", "I don't know the word at all", "I think I know the word but I am not sure" which best indicates your knowledge of each word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I know the word</th>
<th>I don't know the word at all</th>
<th>I think I know the word but I am not sure</th>
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<td>7- Confusion</td>
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<td>9- Society</td>
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<td>100-</td>
<td>Luggage</td>
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Dear student,
Please match the words in the right column with their definitions on the left.

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<tr>
<td>1. Economic</td>
<td>a) A group of people who are related to each other.</td>
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<td>2. Remain</td>
<td>b) A piece of information or a request that you send to someone or leave for them.</td>
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<td>3. Message</td>
<td>c) The important facts or activities connected with a particular subject.</td>
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<td>4. Cause</td>
<td>d) Concerned with the organisation of the money, industry and trade of a country, region or social group.</td>
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<td>5. Family</td>
<td>e) To experience something physical or emotional.</td>
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<td>6. Mind</td>
<td>f) To stay in the same place or in the same condition.</td>
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<td>7. Relation</td>
<td>g) The connection or similarity between two things.</td>
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<td>8. Feel</td>
<td>h) Make something happen.</td>
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<td>10. Affairs</td>
<td>j) Happens or appears once a week.</td>
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</table>
1. Act ______
2. Mutual ______
3. Civilisation ______
4. Absolute ______
5. Conclusion ______
6. Education ______
7. Quickly ______
8. Heavily ______
9. Price ______
10. Total ______

a) Human society with its own social organisation.
b) Something that is decided to be true after careful thought.
c) The amount of money for which something is sold.
d) To do something for a particular purpose, or to behave in a stated way.
e) Fast, not slowly.
f) Feeling the same emotion or doing the same thing to or for each other.
g) To a great degree.
h) Not dependent on anything else, total and complete.
i) The action or process of educating or of being educated.
j) Very great or to the largest degree possible.
| 1. Properly       | a) The way in which two or more things which you are comparing are not the same. |
| 2. Result        | b) The making of a gift especially to a charity or a public institution or a free contribution. |
| 3. Talent        | c) A person who receives services, a customer. |
| 4. Difference    | d) In a suitable or correct manner. |
| 5. Gift          | e) One or more reasons for believing that something is or is not true. |
| 6. Evidence      | f) Feeling or opinion about something or someone. |
| 7. Dull          | g) Something that happens or exists because of something else. |
| 8. Donation      | h) Something which is given, a present. |
| 9. Client        | i) A natural ability to be good at something. |
| 10. Attitude     | j) Not interesting or exciting in any way. |
1. Changing ____  a) Something that is made to be sold.
2. Political ____  b) Something which is in a state of becoming different.
3. Nation _____  
4. Inexpensive _____  c) In or to a high degree or amount.
5. Product _____  
6. Twin _____  d) Either of two children born to the same mother on the same occasion.
7. Activity _____  e) Not costing a lot of money.
8. Container _____  f) All people living in one country.
9. Highly _____  g) Increasing in size or quantity.
10. Growing _____  h) Something you do.
   i) Relating to politics.
   j) A hollow object which can be used for holding something.
### Appendix C

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<td>1.</td>
<td>Spread – quickly</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Reasonable – price</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Society – changing</td>
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<td>Decline – political</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Traditional – gift</td>
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<td>Entire – nation</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Contemporary – product</td>
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<td>Individual – difference</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Identical – twins</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>Establish – relations</td>
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<td>Creative – activity</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Trend – growing</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Ambitious – highly</td>
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<td>Convey – message</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>Pressure – feel</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>Schedule – weekly</td>
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Appendix D

Democracy

In the last few years, more governments have become democratic all around the world. More and more people want to choose their own leaders. Having free elections is a growing trend everywhere.

But it has not always been this way. For most of history, countries have been ruled by kings and queens. The fate of an entire nation was decided by one person. The people could not choose their king because power was kept in the royal family. When the king was good, here would be economic advancement and the country would become stronger. The best kings established relations with other countries and tried to keep peace. But a bad king would lead to political decline and weakness for the country.

Modern society is very different from those times. Through technology like television, computers, and cellular phones, new ideas spread quickly and cannot be controlled by a king. Compulsory education has made people feel that they can decide about power for themselves. They want to decide what is good for the nation by themselves. Any highly ambitious person can become a politician and try to become president or prime minister.

It seems like everyone agrees today that in a changing society, democracy is the best form of government.

Read through the whole text and answer the questions.

1. What is the main idea of this passage?

2. In history, how were the countries ruled?

3. What are the differences between a well ruled and a badly ruled country?

4. In what ways the modern society is different from the old ones? Why?

5. Which ruling system would you prefer?
Appendix E

Buying Presents

Buying presents for other people is always a difficult thing to do. We feel pressure to get the perfect thing every time. We want to find something that conveys a message of love or respect or friendship. But everyone is different; even identical twins don’t like the same things. It is this individual difference that makes the job so hard. We have to remember what each person likes or dislikes and get them something they will like.

But the challenge of finding a nice present can also be a creative activity. Trying to match people and presents can make us think more. For an old-fashioned person, a traditional gift, like flowers or a picture can be right. For more modern people, a contemporary product, like a fashionable tie or scarf might be good.

Of course, for ourselves, it’s good if what we want to give is comparatively inexpensive. We each have to decide, though, what a reasonable price is for any present we want to give. Spending too much money or too little can both look bad. Once we know what present we want to give someone, there is only one more problem — trying to find time to shop in our weekly schedule.

Read through the whole text and answer the questions.

1. What is the main idea of this passage?
2. Why is it so difficult to buy presents for other people?
3. How can we choose the right present?
4. According to the writer what is the last problem in buying presents?
5. How would you choose a present when you want to buy?
Fill in the blanks with appropriate word combinations below.

Highly ambitious  Spread quickly  Growing trend  Compulsory education
Royal family  Political decline  Entire nation  Changing society
Establish relations  Economic advancement

1. _____________ is very important for the young generation of a country.
2. The new Prime Minister is trying to _____________ with Greece.
3. There is a/an _____________ towards smaller families.
4. News of their marriage _____________.
5. The members of the _____________ are going to visit our country.
6. Computers play an important role in a/an _____________.
7. The job offers her _____________.
8. She is _____________ and plans to be the director of the company.
9. Because of the current administration, there is a/an _____________ going on in our country.
10. The _____________ is going to celebrate the anniversary of the independence day.
Appendix G

Fill in the blanks with appropriate word combinations below.

Contemporary product  Individual difference  Feel pressure
Weekly schedule  Creative activity  Identical twins
Traditional gift  Convey a message  Reasonable price
Comparatively inexpensive

1. My mother always buy things which are ____________

2. It is very difficult to differentiate these ____________

3. My grandmother likes getting a / an ____________ for her birthday.

4. If you see John, please ____________ to him.

5. They are selling their house with a / an ____________, we should have a look at it.

6. Although we are getting on well with Edward, there are many ____________ between us.

7. I have to plan my ____________ beforehand.

8. I wish everybody could afford to buy ____________

9. We need to find some ____________ for the coming graduation party.

10. Sue is going to learn the results of her exams next week, she ____________ these days.
Appendix H

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words below and make any changes

Ambitious  Spread  Trend  Compulsory  Royal
Decline  Entire  Society  Establish  Advancement

1. Military service is not _________ in every country.
2. The have _________ a good reputation for honesty.
3. She always follows every _________ in fashion.
4. Fear _________ quickly through the village.
5. He is going to the palace in his _________ car.
6. Women must have equal rights in every _________.
7. All she was interested in was the _________ of her own career.
8. He is the most _________ student in our class, he wants to be a computer engineer.
9. The number of the congress members _________ from 252 to 241.
10. Two of them ate the _________ cake.
Appendix I

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words and if it is necessary make some changes.

Contemporary  Individual  Pressure  Schedule  Creative
Identical  Comparatively  Traditional  Convey  Reasonable

1. Prices for vegetables are _________ at this time of year.
2. Each person has _________ needs.
3. A nice mothers’ day card can _________ your feeling of love.
4. The bride is dressed in a _________ costume.
5. We have planned our teaching _________ for the next month.
6. His composition is full of different ideas, I think he is very _________.
7. The musician’s style is _________.
8. He has got a lot of _________ on him just now. His wife is ill and he has problems at work.
9. He came to the club _________ often because it was exciting.
10. I have got three _________ navy suits.
Appendix J

Read the sentences below and choose the best word from among the choices to fill the gap.

1. Funda wants to look modern, so she always dresses in __________ fashions.
   a) compulsory  b) contemporary  c) contrastive  d) confidential

2. Countries sometimes __________ because of wars and diseases.
   a) decline  b) fall  c) improve  d) grow

3. Timur’s wife put __________ on him to change his mind about retiring.
   a) prestige  b) pride  c) pressure  d) procedure

4. Better laws about guns and driving will make __________ safer.
   a) network  b) society  c) house  d) club

5. The police found a / an __________ on the window of the house that had been robbed.
   a) fingerboard  b) fingerpit  c) fingernail  d) fingerprint

6. The __________ assistant replaced his lazy boss in only three days.
   a) ambitious  b) ambiguous  c) ambition  d) amusing

7. Feyza left the meeting to take a / an __________ telephone call.
   a) irrelevant  b) urgent  c) easy  d) unimportant

8. We can look at the __________ in the newspaper to see what movie is showing tonight.
   a) calendar  b) schedule  c) outline  d) index

9. Yasemin is so __________ that I think she should study art.
   a) creationism  b) creation  c) creatively  d) creative

10. Filiz is successful because she can __________ her ideas clearly in writing.
    a) receive  b) understand  c) convey  d) hear
11. Ahmet didn’t like the new club because the music was too __________.
   a) weird        b) pleasant          c) enjoyable        d) satisfactory

12. Wearing sunglasses all the time is the newest __________ on campus.
   a) trade        b) tread             c) treat           d) trend

13. In some countries, voting is __________; people who don’t do it have to pay a fine.
   a) free         b) compulsory        c) optional        d) illegal

14. We were so hungry that we ate the __________ pizza we ordered.
   a) entity       b) entitle           c) entry           d) entire

15. Ali wants to __________ his restaurant in a good neighbourhood.
   a) establish    b) introduce         c) install         d) support

16. Unfortunately, the flu __________ through the whole city.
   a) spread       b) develop           c) activate        d) follow

17. Because there was no rain, the garden gave __________ small vegetables this year.
   a) actively     b) comparatively     c) fully           d) impulsively

18. Ismail cut his finger and began to __________ on the floor.
   a) blend        b) bless             c) bleat           d) bleed

19. The victims of the flood were helped by the __________ efforts of many people.
   a) unwilling    b) voluntary         c) hesitant       d) reluctant

20. The family decided to have the __________ holiday dinner in a restaurant this year.
   a) boring       b) monotonous        c) traditional     d) tiring
21. Emine liked Burcu’s new hat so much she bought a / an ________ one.
   a) different  b) unusual  c) identical  d) separate

22. After the revolution, the ________ jewels were put in a museum.
   a) imitation  b) loyal  c) fake  d) royal

23. The ________ of medicine in recent years has let people live longer.
   a) advancement  b) adventure  c) advertisement  d) adverse

24. I need to find a / an ________ ticket home so I can visit my family.
   a) logical  b) reasonable  c) suitable  d) sensible

25. You can always tell if it’s written by Zeynep because she has a/an ________ style.
   a) shared  b) general  c) individual  d) collective
Appendix K

Explain the meanings of the words and use them in meaningful sentences as in the example below.

Headache

a) *A pain you feel inside your head.*

b) *That noise is giving me a headache.*

1. Reasonable
   a)
   b)

2. Royal
   a)
   b)

3. Establish
   a)
   b)

4. Comparatively
   a)
   b)

5. Society
   a)
   b)
6. Entire
   a)
   b)

7. Individual
   a)
   b)

8. Identical
   a)
   b)

9. Convey
   a)
   b)

10. Creative
    a)
    b)

11. Ambitious
    a)
    b)

12. Trend
    a)
    b)
13. Pressure
   a)
   b)

14. Advancement
   a)
   b)

15. Employer
   a)
   b)

16. Decline
   a)
   b)

17. Traditional
   a)
   b)

18. Schedule
   a)
   b)

19. Spread
   a)
   b)

20. Alien
   a)
   b)
21. Compulsory
   a)
   b)

22. Contemporary
   a)
   b)

23. Grow
   a)
   b)

24. Enormous
   a)
   b)

25. Treatment
   a)
   b)
Appendix L

Read the sentences below and choose the best word from among the choices to fill the gap.

1. Yasemin is so ________ that I think she should study art.
   a) creationism b) creation c) creatively d) creative

2. In some countries, voting is __________: people who don’t do it have to pay a fine.
   a) free b) compulsory c) optional d) illegal

3. Because there was no rain, the garden gave __________ small vegetables this year.
   a) actively b) comparatively c) fully d) impulsively

4. The police found a / an __________ on the window of the house that had been robbed.
   a) fingerboard b) fingerpit c) fingernail d) fingerprint

5. You can always tell if it is written by Zeynep because she has a / an __________ style.
   a) shared b) general c) individual d) collective

6. The family decided to have the __________ holiday dinner in a restaurant this year.
   a) boring b) monotonous c) traditional d) tiring

7. Funda wants to look modern, so she always dresses in ________ fashions.
   a) compulsory b) contemporary c) contrastive d) confidential

8. Feyza left the meeting to take a / an ________ telephone call.
   a) irrelevant b) urgent c) easy d) unimportant

9. Countries sometimes __________ because of wars and diseases.
   a) decline b) fall c) improve d) grow
10. After the revolution, the __________ jewels were put in a museum.
   a) imitation  b) loyal  c) fake  d) royal

11. Ismail cut his finger and began to __________ on the floor.
   a) blend  b) bless  c) bleat  d) bleed

12. Timur’s wife put __________ on him to change his mind about retiring.
   a) prestige  b) pride  c) pressure  d) procedure

13. The __________ of medicine in recent years has let people live longer.
   a) advancement  b) adventure  c) advertisement  d) adverse

14. Ahmet didn’t like the new club because the music was too __________.
   a) weird  b) pleasant  c) enjoyable  d) satisfactory

15. Emine liked Burcu’s new hat so much she bought a / an __________ one.
   a) different  b) unusual  c) identical  d) separate

16. Better laws about guns and driving will make __________ safer.
   a) network  b) society  c) house  d) club

17. Filiz is successful because she can __________ her ideas clearly in writing.
   a) receive  b) understand  c) convey  d) hear

18. The __________ assistant replaced his lazy boss in only three days.
   a) ambitious  b) ambiguous  c) ambition  d) amusing

19. We can look at the __________ in the newspaper to see what movie is showing tonight.
   a) calendar  b) schedule  c) outline  d) index

20. Wearing sunglasses all the time is the newest __________ on campus.
   a) trade  b) tread  c) treat  d) trend
21. The victims of the flood were helped by the _________ efforts of many people.
   a) unwilling    b) voluntary    c) hesitant    d) reluctant

22. We were so hungry that we ate the _________ pizza we ordered.
   a) entity    b) entitle    c) entry    d) entire

23. I need to find a / an _________ ticket home so I can visit my family.
   a) logical    b) reasonable    c) suitable    d) sensible

24. Unfortunately, the flu _________ through the whole city.
   a) spread    b) develop    c) activate    d) follow

25. Ali wants to _________ his restaurant in a good neighbourhood.
   a) establish    b) introduce    c) install    d) support
Appendix M

Explain the meanings of the words and use them in meaningful sentences as in the example below.

Headache

a) A pain you feel inside your head.
b) That noise is giving me a headache.

1. Identical
a)
b)

2. Trend
a)
b)

3. Society
a)
b)

4. Employer
a)
b)

5. Royal
a)
b)
6. Ambitious
   a)
   b)

7. Schedule
   a)
   b)

8. Pressure
   a)
   b)

9. Spread
   a)
   b)

10. Individual
    a)
    b)

11. Alien
    a)
    b)

12. Traditional
    a)
    b)

13. Entire
    a)
    b)
14. Contemporary
a) 

b) 

15. Treatment
a) 

b) 

16. Reasonable
a) 

b) 

17. Grow
a) 

b) 

18. Establish
a) 

b) 

19. Compulsory
a) 

b) 

20. Enormous
a) 

b) 

21. Creative
a) 

b)
22. Advancement
   a)
   b)

23. Decline
   a)
   b)

24. Convey
   a)
   b)

25. Comparatively
   a)
   b)