

DEVELOPING COLLOCATIONAL AWARENESS

A Master's Thesis

by

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To my beloved family

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by

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ABSTRACT

DEVELOPING COLLOCATIONAL AWARENESS

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This study aimed to investigate to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, develops collocational awareness in students, and whether such instruction has any enhancing effect on the retention of vocabulary.

Eight intact groups of 160 EFL students of upper-intermediate proficiency level under the supervision of their regular course teachers participated in this study. Four of the groups were assigned as the experimental group and received vocabulary instruction focusing on collocations, while the remaining four were assigned as the control group and received instruction concentrating on single words. For this investigation, a vocabulary retention test, which was administered as the pre-and post-test, three tasks for the three treatment sessions, transcriptions of verbal processes of one of the experimental groups, and retrospective interviews with the participant instructors were used as data collection devices.

The analyses of the qualitative data showed that the participants developed awareness to the extent that they could identify collocations in any text and categorize lexical collocations. The analyses of the quantitative data revealed that vocabulary instruction in collocations yielded far better results in terms of vocabulary retention.

In the light of the findings of this study, explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, is highly recommended for developing collocational competence and better retention of vocabulary.

Key Words: Vocabulary Retention, Collocations

ÖZET

KELİME ÖĞRETİMİNDE BİRLİKTE KULLANIM FARKINDALIĞI GELİŞTİRMEK

Gülay Koç

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Charlotte S. Basham

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Bu çalışma, farklı teknikler kullanarak, birlikte kullanım (özdizim / collocation) yoluyla kelime öğretiminin, öğrencilerde birlikte kullanım konusunda ne düzeyde bir farkındalık geliştirdiğini ve böyle bir öğretimin kelimeleri hafızada tutmayı olumlu yönde etkileyip etkilemediğini araştırmıştır.

Bu çalışmaya üst-orta seviyede İngilizce yeterliğe sahip sekiz sınıf, toplam 160 öğrenci, kendi sınıf öğretmenlerinin gözetiminde katılmıştır. Sınıflardan dördü deneysel grup olarak tayin edilmiş ve bu sınıflarda hedeflenen kelimeler birlikte kullanım yoluyla öğretilmiştir. Kalan diğer dört sınıf ise kontrol grup olarak belirlenmiş ve bu sınıflarda aynı kelimeler bağımsız öğeler olarak öğretilmiştir. Bu araştırma için hem öntest hem de sontest olarak uygulanan bir kelime hatırlatma testi, deneysel gruplardan bir tanesinin

bütün dersler boyunca kaydedilmiş olan sözlü ifade süreçleri ve katılımcı öğretmenlerin geçmişe dayalı mülakatları veri toplama araçları olarak kullanılmıştır.

Kalitatif verilerin analizleri, katılımcıların karşılaştıkları herhangi bir metinde birlikte kullanımları tanıyabilecek ve onları sınıflandırabilecek düzeyde farkındalık geliştirdiklerini göstermiştir. Kantitatif veri analizleri ise farklı teknikler kullanarak birlikte kullanım yoluyla kelime öğretiminin kelimeleri hafızada tutabilme açısından daha etkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Bu araştırmadan elde edilmiş olan bulgular doğrultusunda, öğrencilerde birlikte kullanım yeterliliği geliştirmek ve kelimelerin daha iyi hafızada tutulmasını sağlamak için, kelimelerin sınıf içi öğretimde farklı teknikler kullanılarak ve birlikte kullanım yoluyla öğretilmesi önemle tavsiye edilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kelimeyi hafızada tutma, Birlikte kullanım

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

For many years, the significance of vocabulary acquisition was undervalued by researchers, theorists, teachers and others involved in second language learning. Schmitt (2000) observes that systematic work on vocabulary did not begin in earnest until the late twentieth century. The neglect of vocabulary in teaching has been frequently stressed in the literature (Richards, 1976; Judd, 1978; Nunan, 1991; Zimmerman, 1997). Fortunately, based on the evidence by a rapidly growing body of experimental studies and pedagogical material, most of which has addressed several key questions of particular interest for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers, the interest in vocabulary teaching has increased, and for the last two decades vocabulary teaching has come to the forefront of English Language Teaching (ELT).

There is an assumption that the more words a learner knows, the larger the learner's vocabulary knowledge is. However, vocabulary knowledge means more than just knowing the meaning of a word in isolation; rather it means how far a learner knows the combinatory possibilities of that word, that is, knowing the words which co-occur with it. As Bahns (1993) argues, one specific aspect of vocabulary that deserves more attention than it has received up to now is the problem of word combinality, because one of the fundamental difficulties of EFL learners is not knowing what the collocational properties of words are when they encounter new items of vocabulary.

The importance of collocations in teaching vocabulary has been emphasized by many scholars (Gitsaki, 1996; McCarthy, 1998; Wei, 1999; Lewis, 2000; Decarrico, 2001; Nation, 2001), and collocations have received more attention with the advances in computer-based studies of language and the arrival of lexical approaches. Consequently, there is consensus among scholars on the fact that collocations need special attention.

Background of the Study:

The term “collocation”, which means word combinations, such as *catch a cold*, *commit suicide*, *bitter disappointment*, *safety belt*, was originally introduced by Firth (1951 cited in Cowie and Howarth, 1996), directing the attention of ELT practitioners, theorists, linguists and researchers to the highly significant phenomenon of lexicon. However, the importance of it was realized far later.

As Zimmerman (1997) states, especially with the introduction of work in the area of corpus analysis, computational linguistics and lexical approaches, a growing number of scholars (e.g., Sinclair, 1991; Nattinger and Decarrico, 1992; Lewis, 1993), representing a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past with their work, pushed collocations to the center of language acquisition. Today, it has widely been acknowledged that collocations constitute an important part of native speaker competence, and therefore should be integrated into second and foreign language teaching (e.g., Cowie, 1992; Bahns, 1993; Wei, 1999; Lewis; 2000).

Research on collocations falls into a broad spectrum. Nattinger (1988), Sinclair (1991), Willis (1990) and Lewis (2000), among the pioneers of research on collocation, have described and categorized collocations and produced seminal studies which have contributed considerably to our understanding of lexis.

There have been many published studies evaluating the collocational proficiency of EFL learners from various levels, in order to investigate the correlation between English proficiency and knowledge of collocations. Huang (2001), Bonk (2000), Biskup (1992) and Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) are among those who developed and administered small-scale elicitation tests and attempted to reflect on the learners' actual production problems of English collocations. Moreover, some of these studies have contributed to literature revealing what strategies are being used by non-native learners of English when they cannot find the appropriate collocates of words.

Furthermore, some scholars have offered a distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary skills of EFL/ ESL learners. They have emphasized that receptive knowledge enables students to comprehend word meanings appropriately; however, the productive knowledge entails using a wide variety of ways that words collocate with each other. They have focused on learner errors in production, analysed them and made suggestions towards solutions for minimizing these types of collocational errors (e.g., Pawley & Syder, 1983; Meara, 1984; Carter, 1987; Nation, 1990; Wei, 1999; Lewis 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003).

Another field, which has been fruitful for collocation studies is closely related to computer technology. As Kita and Ogata (1997) state, rapid advances in computer technology have caused a shift in natural language applications from a knowledge based to a corpus based or data intensive approach. This new trend has highly affected the field of computer assisted language learning / teaching (CALL / CALT). A growing number of researchers have dealt with the problem of collocation from various aspects yielding

aid for practitioners and learners (e.g., Kita & Ogata, 1997; Shei & Pain, 2000; Nesselhauf & Tschichold, 2002; Sun & Wang, 2003, among others).

Additionally, lexicographers and linguists have also expanded the spectrum of studies on collocations. Dictionaries are the most important sources of lexical information for learners and instructors. Carter (1987: 157) says, “ Dictionaries have a good image” and he notes that almost every learner of a language as a second or foreign language owns one and it is one of the few books retained after following a language course. However, conventional dictionaries are used for decoding- finding the meaning of unknown words- rather than encoding. Since collocations were recognized by many scholars as one of the most significant aspects of lexicon, some researchers have diverted attention to the need of developing more sophisticated phraseological dictionaries. *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations*, *The LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations* and *Longman Essential Activator* are some of the products of this period.

In summary, collocations have been researched from various aspects. However, only a few researchers have attempted to develop insights towards the needs of learners and practitioners in EFL classroom settings. The focus of this study is on explicitly raising students’ consciousness towards collocations, and providing learners with different techniques for the retention of these word combinations.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to analyze to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, develops collocational awareness in students and whether it has any enhancing effects on retention of vocabulary. Since

language consists of an enormous number of words used together, collocations should be at the heart of vocabulary study. Moreover, many linguists (McCarthy, 1998; Lewis, 2000; Nation, 2001) presume that language knowledge is collocational knowledge; therefore, teaching collocations should be a top priority in every language course.

However, despite the widely accepted importance of collocations, students still make many errors which stem from their lack of collocational competence. If collocations are not learned as part of L2 vocabulary knowledge, learners' use of the second language is odd and deviant from Standard English. In addition, they are not fluent in writing and in speech production. Furthermore, they have difficulties in understanding texts since they cannot identify collocations. Therefore, it is important that language teachers provide opportunities for their students to develop collocational competence.

On the other hand, although there has been considerable amount of research on the role of collocations in second language acquisition, the questions how to develop an awareness towards the domain of collocation among learners of EFL and how to promote the retention of vocabulary have mostly been unresearched. This study investigates whether the use of different techniques has any effect on raising learners' awareness towards collocations and retention of vocabulary.

Research Questions:

This study will address the following questions:

- 1- To what extent does explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations with different techniques develop collocational awareness in students?

2- Does explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, have any enhancing effects on retention of vocabulary?

Significance of the Study

Learners of any foreign language need to know thousands of words in order to understand and use the target language efficiently. Therefore, one of the most important responsibilities of language teachers is to deal with vocabulary building problems of learners effectively, using the most appropriate and fruitful techniques in their classes. Many teachers who are aware of this fact devote a great deal of classroom time to vocabulary teaching; however, since they develop techniques merely to teach vocabulary in isolation, they inevitably encounter their students' written or oral work full of deviant usages of words and feel disappointed. The problem may stem from the fact that knowing a word involves more than knowing its definition. Students need to know how it is used in various contexts, what its cultural connotations are, what words collocate with it, and the like. As a result, bearing this in mind, and also considering the limited instruction time, teachers should use more effective techniques that enable students to acquire productive vocabulary and retain more words. Teaching vocabulary in collocations may be one way to promote vocabulary acquisition and retention with regard to effectiveness and time constraints.

This study aims to develop a new perspective about collocations among EFL teachers at Ankara University, School of Foreign Languages and other universities in Turkiye and encourage them to develop or use vocabulary teaching techniques in order to build an awareness towards collocations in their students and to enhance retention of vocabulary.

Key Terminology

The following terms are used repeatedly throughout this study:

Collocations: Collocations are words that conventionally or statistically are more likely to appear together than random chance suggests, and that have some degree of semantic unpredictability (Lewis, 2000; Nation, 2001).

Mental Lexicon: The set of all words that are understood by a person or the set of all words likely to be used by that person when constructing new sentences.

Vocabulary Retention: Vocabulary retention refers to storing newly learned vocabulary items in memory, remembering them and using them in other contexts.

Prefabricated words: Pre-fabricated words or ready-made words are the words that jump into our heads and then escape from our lips without passing through our brains (e.g., the fact that, send a message).

Conclusion

In this chapter, the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the problem and key terminology that will frequently be used have been presented. The next chapter is a review of literature on the history of vocabulary teaching in ESL / EFL context, definition and categorization of collocations, the importance and problematicity of collocations in EFL settings and the factors affecting learners of EFL. The third chapter is the methodology chapter, which explains the participants, materials, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures of the study. The fourth chapter is the data analysis chapter, which includes overview of the study, the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data, and the results of the

analyses. Finally, in the fifth chapter, the findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research are discussed.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In the field of second language acquisition, a great deal of research has been done to understand the complex process of vocabulary acquisition. One way to promote vocabulary acquisition may be with explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations. As noted in the previous chapter, this study investigates to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations raises students' awareness towards collocations, and to what degree such instruction affects retention of vocabulary.

The first part of this literature review considers briefly how vocabulary and an aspect of it, collocation, gained importance over the years in ESL / EFL settings. The second part deals with definition and categorization of collocation. The third section reviews the significance of collocations in vocabulary teaching in EFL contexts. The last section is allocated to the problematicity of collocations indicated by applied linguists and researchers who have conducted empirical studies on EFL learners' acquisition of collocations and factors affecting EFL learners' performance while dealing with collocations.

History of vocabulary teaching in ESL / EFL Settings

Many of the methods that have been used in the recent decades within the fields of ESL and EFL have downplayed the importance of explicit vocabulary teaching. For example, the Grammar Translation and the Audio Lingual Methods both aimed at mastery of structures and vocabulary played a secondary role. According to Celce-

Murcia and Rosensweig (1979) and Schmitt (2000), in the Grammar Translation Method, English was studied the way Latin was studied, and the emphasis was on the ability to analyze language rather than the ability to use it. Therefore, the main role of vocabulary was viewed as an aid to illustrate a grammar rule, and to understand literary texts full of obsolete vocabulary.

The emergence of the Direct Method seemed to result in increased attention given to vocabulary. The proponents of this method believed that vocabulary should be acquired naturally through interaction, as the main goal of the method was the use of the second language (Celce Murcia & Rosensweig, 1979; Schmitt, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). However, as Rivers (1983) posits, one of the weaknesses of this method was that vocabulary was taught in context without much explanation since it adopted the idea that if vocabulary was involved too much in teaching, students would consider language an accumulation of words. Additionally, another flaw of this method was that it emphasized teaching secondary students how to read in a foreign language, highlighting receptive vocabulary skills but neglecting productive vocabulary skills.

The Audio-Lingual Method, on the other hand, focused mainly on structure patterns, and deemphasized explicit vocabulary teaching. Vocabulary instruction was restricted, that is, merely simple words that were appropriate to the topic being dealt with, were chosen to be taught and the sound system of the language was mastered. One of the flaws of this approach was that students could not develop well enough to comprehend naturally occurring language and they had poor writing ability, which was a result of restricted vocabulary instruction. (See Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig, 1979; Schmitt, 2000; Decarrico, 2001.)

In the late 1960s, as Zimmerman (1997) notes, the effect of the Audiolingualism began to fall out of favor. The emphasis was put on the appropriateness of the language rather than accuracy when Hymes introduced the concept “communicative competence” to the realm of language teaching in 1970s. Among the well-known language specialists of this period, Rivers (1983) directed the attention of language educators to words, emphasizing the significance of the role of words in helping learners communicate meaning. In the same line, Widdowson (1978) posited that native speakers can better understand ungrammatical expressions with accurate vocabulary than those with accurate grammar and inaccurate vocabulary. With the arrival of the Communicative Language Teaching approach, fluency was given far more importance, which would result in an expectation of similar amount of prominence devoted to vocabulary teaching; however, it was again of secondary status, being viewed as support for functional language use.

Vocabulary instruction had differing fortunes in various approaches until the early 1970s. The holders of most methods or approaches either neglected lexical development or had a restricted view, not knowing how to handle lexical development, having students rely on bilingual word lists and memorize them or hoping that they acquire the vocabulary naturally. This resulted in learner lexical deficiency and incapability to function properly in real life situations. Fortunately, the advent of computer analysis techniques and work in the area of corpus linguistics triggered the urge for a reconsideration of the role of vocabulary in foreign language instruction, and the so-called Vocabulary Control Movement started in the late 1970s, concentrating on word frequency, a term that describes the number of times any given word appears in

naturally occurring texts. Adherents of this movement believed that it was beneficial for language learners to learn first the words most commonly used namely, those with the highest frequencies.(See Zimmerman, 1997; Schmitt, 2000.)

Since the late 1970s, the vital need for vocabulary instruction has been increasingly emphasized by many researchers, authors, theorists and curriculum specialists (e.g., Twaddell, 1973; Judd, 1978; Wallace, 1982; Carter, 1987; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Seal, 1991; Coady & Huckin, 1997), and accompanied by a remarkable increase in the amount of research and in the number of publications on vocabulary studies.

The Natural Approach, which emerged after 1970s, held a far more novel view in terms of vocabulary when compared with the former traditional methods. Krashen and Terrel (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.181), the proponents of this approach, have adopted a view that a language is essentially its lexicon. In this approach, as the messages are considered of primary significance, the lexicon for both perception and production is considered critical in the construction and interpretation of messages, whereas grammar has a subordinate role.

The focus on vocabulary teaching developed further with the advances in computer technology and computer assisted corpus research, and especially one aspect of vocabulary, collocation, attracted more attention after the 1980s when serious lexicographical research began. Decarrico (2001) argues that computer aided research provided a great deal of information that had not previously been available, such as the role of vocabulary in actual language use, larger units that function in discourse as single lexical items, and differences between written and spoken

communication, which marked a turning point for communicative syllabus design. Additionally, as Richards and Rodgers (2001) note, three important UK-based corpora—the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus and the British National Corpus, which appeared in this period, have not only served as important sources of information for collocations and other multiword units but also formed the basis for design of lexical syllabi.

As a result, computer aided corpus research has had two fundamental consequences: first, it has cast light on the extent to which actual language use is composed of prefabricated chunks and multiwords, which has given rise to new theories of the relation between grammar and lexis. Second, as Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate, it has played a great role in the emergence of several approaches to language learning, such as the “Lexical Syllabus”, “Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching”, and the “Lexical Approach”, the pioneers of which are Willis (1990), Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), and Lewis (1993), who have proposed a view in which vocabulary and lexical units, and retrieval of these units from memory, are central to language learning and teaching. From their point of view, grammar plays a secondary managerial role. More specifically, for instance, Lewis’s (1997, p.13) words, “Language is grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar” put forward the basic principle of the Lexical Approach. Lewis (1997) argues that language consists of pre-fabricated chunks, which produce continuous coherent text when combined, and the most important kind of chunk is collocation. He claims that the teaching of traditional grammar structures should play a less important role, emphasizing the centrality of lexis in language. According to Lewis (2000) every word has its own grammar and knowing a word

involves knowing the patterns in which it is regularly used, namely its grammar, which should be recognized as the basis of his Lexical Approach.

In summary, this section has focused on the historical development of vocabulary instruction and acquisition of an important aspect of vocabulary, collocation, and how vocabulary teaching and collocation have been viewed by proponents of leading methods and approaches. The theoretical priorities of every period fluctuated, with more emphasis on pronunciation, grammar, reading and less on the acquisition of vocabulary until recent years. Then, the emergence of computer technology triggered the work in corpus analysis and computational linguistics, thus extensive samples of actual language were analyzed and the significant role of lexical phrases (an umbrella term used for collocations) was demonstrated, out of which a reorientation in language description and lexical approaches flourished. Consequently, scholars dealing with lexicography and pioneers of lexical approaches put forward that language production is not a syntactic, rule-governed process but retrieval of longer phrases, such as collocations from memory. The next section of this literature review will be allocated to how collocations are defined and categorized by researchers.

Definition and Categorization of the Term “Collocation”

There has been much theoretical and applied research on collocations triggered by the influence of corpus-based studies and then lexical approaches to language teaching. However, although many researchers and linguists, nowadays, have reached a consensus about the inevitable role of collocation for productive vocabulary, they differ as to what collocation is and how it can be categorized according to their interest and standpoint. For example, Firth (cited in Matrynska, 2004) defines collocations as “ the

company words keep together” and he suggests knowing a word by the company it keeps. For the purpose of teaching, a definition adapted from definitions of the scholars who have contributed to literature in the field of EFL can be useful (Lewis, 2000; Hill, 2000; Nation, 2001). Thus, with regard to the scope of the current study, the term “collocation” can be defined as association of two or more words where the combination is semantically transparent, but includes an arbitrary choice of at least one constituent based on grammatical or sociolexical conventions, namely one of the lexemes in the combination is mostly restricted. For example, ”drink water” where “drink” is restricted to “water” or any noun with the semantic property of “liquid”. We cannot say “drink cigarette” or “hazel hair”, where “hazel” selects “eyes” or a few other nouns, while “eyes” can be used with many other words.

As for the categorization of collocations, many researchers and linguists hold the view of collocations that they belong to a continuum and divide them basically into two categories as *grammatical* and *lexical* collocations (Sinclair, 1991; Gitsaki, 1996; Benson, Benson and Ilson, 1997; Conzett, 2000; Hill, 2000; Lewis, 2000), or variously syntactic and semantic collocations (Kjellmer, 1984; Decarrico, 2001). The first group, that is, grammatical or syntactic collocations, is made up of the main word (an adjective, a noun, a verb) plus a preposition or a grammatical construction such as, “ to + infinitive” or “that- clause”. Below are the types of grammatical collocations offered by Benson, Benson and Ilson (1997) with examples:

noun +preposition e.g. *sympathy towards, mercy on*

noun + to-infinitive e.g. *She was a fool to do it.*

noun + that-clause e.g. *She took an oath that she would do her duty.*

preposition+ noun e.g. *on purpose*

adjective + preposition e.g. *obsessed with*

adjective + to-infinitive e.g. It is *nice to see* you.

adjective + that-clause e.g. It was *important that you be there on time*.

verb + to-infinitive / bare infinitive/ and with 17 other verb patterns e.g. *They planned to finish the project in two weeks*.

The second group, lexical or semantic collocations, on the other hand, do not contain infinitives, prepositions or “that clauses”, but adverbs, adjectives, verbs and nouns, and are generally characterized by seven types. Below are the types of lexical collocations adapted from categorizations by Moon (1997), Benson et al. (1997) and Hill (2000) with examples:

verb + noun, in which the verb denotes nullification or eradication e.g. *cease fire*

verb + noun or pronoun, in which the verb denotes creation or activation e.g. *reach a goal*

noun + verb, in which the verb is used as an action characteristic of the thing or person e.g. *babies cry, the bomb goes off*

adjective + noun e.g. *heavy smoker, sour cherry*

adverb + adjective e.g. *completely disappointed, highly recommended*

verb + adverb e.g. *depend purely, work diligently*

unit associated with a noun e.g. *dozens of mistakes*

Additionally, lexical collocations can be found as much longer word combinations such as *seriously affect the current situation in Iraq, walk like an Egyptian, learn a foreign language*.

Apart from the prevalent grammatical and lexical distinction, a number of scholars suggest a broader continuum based on the criteria of semantic transparency, degree of substitutability, and degree of productivity with slight differences (Carter, 1987; Howarth, 1998; Conzett, 2000; Hill, 2000; Lewis, 2000; Woolard, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003). On the one end of this collocational continuum are idioms with the least productivity and allowance for substitutability of the constituent, and the most opaqueness in semantics (e.g., “to have a bee in the bonnet” or “to kick the bucket”). On the other end are the free combinations that are the most productive, semantically transparent and highly available for substitution of the constituents (e.g., “pretty girl” or “good guy”). Between these two ends are various types of restricted collocations. However, the current study mostly adopts the continuum put forward by Hill (2000) as it provides a comprehensive explanation of the classification criteria with easy-to-follow examples. On his continuum, collocations which are unique / fixed / strong are placed on the one end while those which are weak are on the other end, and medium strength collocations appear in the middle. According to Hill (2000), “to foot the bill” and “to shrug one’s shoulders” are examples of unique collocations in that neither can *bill* be substituted by *invoice* or *coffee*, nor *shoulders* with any part of the body, such as *legs*, *arms* or *hands*. Strong collocations follow unique collocations on the cline. In this category, *trenchant criticism*, *nomadic tribe*, *rancid butter*, *ulterior motives*, *harbour grudges*, and *moved to tears* are given as examples. These collocations are not considered unique, for instance, a *nomadic tribe* is a strong collocation since *nomadic* collocates with a very limited number of nouns, and Hill (2000) indicates that any knowledge of the words *trenchant*, *rancid*, *motive*, *grudge* or *tears* would be seriously

incomplete without some knowledge of these strong collocates. Weak collocations are those the constituents of which collocate freely with a number of lexical items and which can easily be predicted by students: *long hair, cheap car, good boy, bad experience*. However, this does not mean that they deserve less attention. For example, “good”, which freely collocates with a host of nouns to produce weak collocations, may also be components of many fixed or semi-fixed expressions (e.g. “He is a good age.”). Medium-strength collocations are placed in the middle of the collocational continuum and they constitute a large part of what is said and written: *hold a meeting / conference, make a mistake / cake / an appointment* and *catch a cold* are of this type. According to scholars (e.g., Hill, 2000; Lewis, 2000) the main problem of EFL learners in vocabulary stems from the fact that they know the words *make* and *mistake*, but since they do not store *make a mistake* in their mental lexicon as a single item, they cannot retrieve it when required. Thus, they propose that most lexical items represent single choices of meaning, and should be recognized and stored as single items for later use. Furthermore, they see this type of collocation, that is, medium-strength collocation, the most important of all in terms of expanding learners’ mental lexicons.

The definition and categorizations to be adopted in the current study have been presented in this section. The main focus in this study will be on all types of medium-strength lexical collocations or variously on those which are not easily produced by EFL learners. However, of the grammatical collocations the types verb + preposition, adjective + preposition, and noun + preposition will also be concentrated on. They are worth noting because as Lewis (2000) points out, these combinations contain lexical and grammatical words often used together, and when this framework is considered, they are

neither more nor less than grammatical collocations. Similarly, these phrasal combinations are never used without at least one more word, which makes more collocational sense to encourage students to record them. The next section of this literature review deals with the reasons collocation deserves more attention in EFL classroom settings.

The Importance of Collocations in EFL Contexts

There were times when vocabulary was considered only in terms of single words and word families. Fortunately, after research revealed that vocabulary knowledge involves more than just knowing the meaning of a given word in isolation, that is, it also involves knowing the words that typically tend to co-occur with it, a great number of scholars have stated the reasons that make collocations important for EFL learners.

Lewis (2000) considers the most obvious reason that makes collocation important is the way words combine with other words, which is fundamental to all language use. Most people learn the conventional collocations of their own languages without noticing them much, and they have extensive knowledge of how words combine in their language, which enables them to retrieve lexical items and link them appropriately in language production; however, this is not the case for learners of a foreign language or second language in that they have to struggle to get them right. Therefore, most scholars have stressed that native-like proficiency in a language depends considerably on a stock of collocations and proposed that they should immediately be brought to the attention of non-native learners and syllabuses should be designed concerning these combinations (e.g., Pawley and Syder, 1983; Ellis, 1996; Cowie, 1998).

The pervasive nature of collocations has also been mentioned by many

scholars (e.g., Tannen, 1989; Lewis, 1997, Ellis, 1996; 2000; Hill, 2000; Nation, 2001). Tannen (1989), for instance, states, “Language is less freely generated, more pre-patterned than most linguistic theory acknowledges,” and she goes on to say, “ Collocation is a vastly more pervasive phenomenon than we ever imagined, and vastly harder to separate from the pure freedom of syntax” (p. 37-38). Accordingly, Nation (2001) stresses that pervasive evidence of collocations provides support for the importance of collocations in language use and teaching.

In the same vein, many scholars (e.g., Brown, 1974; Mackin, 1978; Kjellmer, 1984; Hunston et al., 1997; Lewis, 2000; Hill, 2000; Nesselhauf & Tschichold, 2002; Nesselhauf, 2003) see collocation as a crucial factor in the generation of a learner’s lexicon and for accuracy in the language. For example, according to Hill (2000) collocations make up approximately 70 % of everything we read, write, say or hear. Therefore, when students do not have ready-made chunks at their disposal, namely the collocations, which express precisely what they want to say, they have to generate utterances on the basis of grammar rules, which leads to numerous grammatical mistakes. Hill (1999) expresses his opinion as follows: “Students with good ideas often lose marks because they do not know the four or five most important collocations of a key word that is central to what they are writing about” (p.5), and he clarifies this issue by the following examples: “His disability will continue until he dies” rather than, “ He has a permanent disability” (Hill, 2000, p. 49). He stresses that there is no formula for correcting these mistakes. In order to foster accuracy, he suggests increasing mental lexicons of the learner, having them acquire collocations through large amounts of quality input.

Collocation is crucial in that it allows learners to think more quickly and communicate more efficiently. Hill (2000) attributes the fluency of native speakers to the retrieval of ready-made language immediately available from their mental lexicons. In addition, they can read faster and listen at the speed of speech since they have no difficulty in recognizing collocations or multiword units. However, most EFL learners have to process them word-by-word. As Hill (2000) notes, the basic problem of EFL learners is that they cannot recognize and produce these ready-made chunks, which seriously impedes their fluency. In the same line, Brown (1974) also stresses that although most intermediate and advanced level students know a great number of words and grammatical features, they still lack the feel for what is acceptable and what is appropriate in that they can produce all kinds of sentences that are grammatically correct but contain mistakes stemming from the misuse, or unacceptable use of content words. Therefore, most scholars consider acquisition of a number of collocations or “automation of collocation” as the prerequisite for enhancing fluency in foreign language (e.g., Pawley and Syder, 1983; Nattinger and De Carrico, 1989; McLaughlin, 1990; Kjellmer, 1991; Ellis, 1997; Hunston et al., 1997; Lewis, 1997; Hill, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003). Similarly, Kjellmer (1991) and Nattinger and De Carrico (1989) claim that if the learners acquire more chunks and become capable of producing them, it will enable them to process and produce language at a far faster rate without any hesitations or pauses and motivate them to participate in more social interaction . Moreover, their reading and listening skills will develop better as a result of instant recognition of these prescribed patterns and they will be more competent in the foreign language.

In the same vein, Meara (1984) indicates that one of the reasons for believing that collocations are important is the error type of ESL /EFL learners. Most researchers see collocational errors one of the most serious and the most common. (e.g. Martin, 1984 cited in Carter, 1987; Meara, 1984; Gass and Selinker, 1994, among others), because they are the sources of communication break-down and ambiguity. According to Gass and Selinker (1994), a sentence which contains a grammatical mistake may not lead to misunderstanding; however, a sentence which contains a lexical error may seriously interfere with communication. Similarly, Carter (1987: 65) states, “Mistakes in lexical selection may be less generously tolerated outside the classroom than mistakes in syntax”. Their statements may apply to collocations as well. For example, Turkish students of EFL who lack collocational competence have the tendency to say, “I make breakfast every morning” rather than “I have breakfast every morning”, leaving the impression that s/he prepares breakfast for someone else and leading to misinterpretation. On the other hand the same statement with a grammatical mistake such as “I have breakfast an hour ago.” does not bring about any misunderstanding.

Another importance of collocation is that it serves as a memory aid and helps retention. Nattinger (1988) claims that words that are naturally associated in a text are more likely to be learned than those having no associations. De Carrico (2001, p.292) supports his claim saying, “These associations assist the learner in committing these words to memory and also aid in defining the semantic areas of a word.” In the same line, Judd (1978) also supports his claim stressing that words, when taught as single items, are mostly not retained. She goes on to suggest that learners should be presented words with their associations and in the linguistic environments they appear to enhance

retention. However, there are scholars who think that it is the amount of repetition that affects keeping words in mind, and both collocations and single words have a similar underlying principle with regard to retention (e.g., Ellis, 1997).

To sum up, this section has been designed to show how collocations are important for fostering language skills, fluency, accuracy, retention, and expanding mental lexicon. The next section will focus on the extent to which collocations constitute a problem for EFL learners, which has been determined by language specialists and assessed through empirical studies conducted on collocations and discussed along with implications for teaching. This section also includes the factors affecting learners in dealing with collocations.

The Problematicity of Collocations and Factors Affecting Learners of EFL:

The significance of collocations for a higher degree of competence in EFL, accuracy and fluency has been put forward by many researchers and linguists. However, it is also essential that teachers of EFL, course developers, and course-book designers become more aware about the problematicity of collocations and factors affecting learners' performance in dealing with collocations. A growing number of researchers have attempted to cast some light on the most problematic aspects of collocations through analyses of non-native speaker collocation production, which may serve as a basis for further studies in addition to clarifying and suggesting teaching procedures.

Among the problems stemming from the nature of collocations, arbitrariness and degree of restriction take the first place. Every teacher encounters questions raised by their students such as: "Why can't *amicable divorce* be replaced by *friendly divorce*?" "Why is it *make a mistake, reach a goal* but not *do a mistake or reach an aim*?" or

“Can’t we say *train stop* or *drink medicine*?”. These questions are generally answered unsatisfactorily by teachers. It is arbitrary restriction of substitutability that leads to such questions from the learner. And according to Lewis (1997), arbitrariness of collocation means students cannot assume that a pattern is generalizable or that words which are similar in one way will behave similarly in other ways. For instance, if we take the collocation “commit suicide”, there is no justifiable rule for selecting “commit” as the standard from among the synonyms such as “do, perform, execute”. The arbitrary collocational restriction allows it to be acceptable while it causes “do suicide” to sound odd. Words have varying degrees of arbitrary collocational restriction. Some can collocate with a great number of others, and are called free combinations based on this feature. On the other hand, some words allow only a few others as collocates, and these are generally referred to as restricted collocations.

A number of researchers analyzing collocational errors of learners have showed that learners fail to produce collocations on the basis of degree of restriction, and collocations with a higher degree of restriction have been found to be more problematic (Martin 1984, cited in Carter, 1987; Conzett, 2000; Huang, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003). They have proposed special attention for this type in EFL settings. However, Nesselhauf (2003) has found that less restricted collocations are also problematic, and she asserts that particular emphasis should be put on combinations, such as *exert pressure*, *perform a task*, etc. Similarly, Lewis (2000) suggests heightening students’ awareness towards looking at how words really behave in the environments in which they are used as a solution to this problem.

Another factor, which may be a great source of problem, is the huge number of collocations. As indicated by research, the number of collocations is far more enormous than the amount of vocabulary. For example, “ *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* offers over 70,000 combinations and phrases under a total of 14,000 entries and *Collins COBUILD English Words in Use* gives about 100,000 collocational examples grouped around 5,000 headwords from the core vocabulary of modern English” (Bahns, 1993, p. 59). The enormous number of collocations raises the question how and which of the great number of collocations should be taught.

A number of language specialists have attempted to reduce this burden of learning by putting forward suggestions. Bahns (1993), for instance, proposes that collocations which are equivalent in both learner’s mother tongue and target language can be neglected, since such collocations allow positive language transfer; however, those which are not equivalent in L1 and L2 should receive special care. For example, collocations in Turkish such as “ilaç almak”, “bitkileri sulamak” have direct correspondence in English, “take medicine”, “to water the plants”, and thus there is no need to concentrate on them. However, collocations such as “açık çay”, “kaçırılmamış fırsat” and “patlak teker”, which are “weak tea”, “open opportunity”, and “flat tire” in English, need to be specifically taught because they are subject to negative language transfer and cannot be translated directly.

Also Bahns and Eldaw (1993) suggest that the load can be reduced by not focusing on collocations that can be acceptably paraphrased, that is, collocations that do not have equivalent in the mother tongue of the learner but allow learners to paraphrase them in an understandable way do not need special care. On the other hand, Nation

(2001), considering the limited classroom time, suggests noting the criteria of frequency and range. According to Nation (2001), if the frequency of a collocation is high and it occurs in many various uses of the target language, it deserves classroom time. He also notes the significance of frequent collocations of frequent words that deserve attention.

The influence of the learner's first language is among the most significant factors affecting learners' collocational production. A number of previous studies, in which collocational deficiencies of learners were identified via translation tasks or analyzing the participants' essays, have revealed that most errors committed by learners are due to their heavy reliance on L1 (Biskup, 1992; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Farghal and Obiedat, 1995; Huang; 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003). These researchers have consistently found that learners are highly likely to transfer restricted collocations from L1 to L2 when they are not sure of the appropriate L2 form. Students do not learn a foreign language as they learn their mother tongue. According to Lewis (1997), learners develop a mental picture of the target language, which consists of a mental lexicon and a personal perception of the structure of L2. They build this mental picture by utilizing many sources, such as written and oral texts in L2 and by analogy with L1. However, although there are interlingual similarities, collocations mostly vary across languages. There are specialized uses in every language, and positive L1 transfer occurs with the overlapping cases between the target language and the mother tongue. On the other hand, when learners attempt to translate partially overlapping collocations or those which do not exist in their mother tongue into the target language, those heavily relying on their L1 fail to find the appropriate counterpart, which results in negative L1 transfer. Thus, many effects of L1 on L2 are both helpful and unhelpful. Lewis (1997)

suggests that teachers of EFL should raise their learners' awareness of the effects, helping them both to avoid the unhelpful and to utilize the overlapping cases. He also draws attention to the translation technique as having great potential value in developing such awareness in learners. Additionally, Nesselhauf (2003) and many other researchers who have detected learners' collocational deficiencies stemming from their L1 stress that students should be made aware of L1- L2 differences; otherwise, although they know the appropriate collocate, they have the tendency to use the L1 equivalent.

Culture-based knowledge serves as another source of problem for collocations. Researchers (e.g., Biskup, 1992; Alpaslan, 1993; Teliya et al, 1998 among others) have pointed out that learners from different cultural backgrounds perform differently in dealing with collocations. They posit that the use of some lexical collocations is restricted to specific cultural stereotypes, and they see metaphorical collocates as clues to the cultural data associated with the meaning of restricted collocations. However, since students lack cultural competence of the target language, they fail to notice and acquire such culturally marked collocations. Idioms and strong collocations whose metaphorical meanings are highly connected with cultural connotations and discourse stereotypes particularly lead to such failure. Nevertheless, teachers in EFL settings, bearing cross-cultural differences in mind, and directing their students' attention to those which are most common and important, can help students overcome this problem.

Another problem originates from the fact that collocations are not taught explicitly. Most students know a lot of words; however, they cannot use them productively because they do not know what words are found in the vicinity of what words in discourse, or variously because their teachers do not focus their attention on

collocations in the EFL classrooms. Several researchers (e.g., Brown, 1974; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Gitsaki, 1996; Bonk, 2000) developing, administering and analyzing tests of collocational knowledge for EFL learners of a wide range of proficiency levels, have put forward that the knowledge of collocations generally increases with proficiency, but they also indicate that students do not acquire collocational knowledge while they acquire ordinary vocabulary and therefore, their collocational proficiency lags far behind their vocabulary competence. They attribute the reason to the instruction type concentrating on single words. Many teachers too often draw their learners' attention merely to single words in texts and they mostly teach them in isolation. As they are not aware of such consequences and the significance of collocations, they develop or use techniques just to teach vocabulary as isolated items. As a result, their students' collocational knowledge does not develop as well as their knowledge of single vocabulary, which leads to lots of errors in production of language. Thus, most scholars suggest that the pre-fabricated part of speech should be highlighted in the classroom as a fundamental part of acquisition of English vocabulary, making use of various consciousness raising tasks (Wardell, 1991; Biskup, 1992; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Farghal and Obiedat, 1995; Conzett, 2000; Woolard, 2000; Huang, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003).

Additionally, among the most significant factors that influence learners' performance in producing collocations are the strategies they rely on. Most EFL learners, due to their insufficient knowledge of collocations, adopt various strategies to produce collocations, which lead to certain types of errors. It is important that teachers of EFL be aware of these strategies to adopt more effective methods to enhance their

learners' collocational competence, help them overcome their collocational problems, and reduce errors made by their learners. A number of researchers have identified several strategies used by EFL learners, analyzing the error types produced by them in recent empirical studies (e.g., Biskup, 1992; Farghal and Obiedat 1995; Howarth, 1998; Huang, 2001; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003, among others). Based on their findings, one of the most commonly used strategies is *transfer*. Learners employing this strategy rely on L1 equivalents when they have difficulty in finding the desired collocations in the target language, which results in language switches and blends. According to Huang (2001) this strategy may reflect learners' assumption that there is a one-to-one correspondence between their mother tongue and the target language. The second frequently used strategy is *avoidance* (Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Farghal and Obiedat 1995; Huang, 2001; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003). Most EFL learners have the tendency to avoid the target lexical items since they have restricted collocational knowledge and cannot retrieve the appropriate collocates from their mental lexicons. As a consequence, they refrain from carrying out tasks or conveying the intended message, and lose confidence. It is common observation of most researchers that learners often employ *synonymity* or *assumed synonymity* when dealing with collocations which are not familiar (e.g., Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Farghal and Obiedat 1995; Huang, 2001; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003). Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) point out that as most EFL learners are not fully aware of the selectional restrictions imposed on the use of synonymous words based on the instructional input they have received or variously because of the bilingual dictionaries that present some words as synonymous without much detailed contextual distinction, they substitute the target item with a synonym or

near-synonym. “Some workers *interrupted / violated* the strike.” (p. 72) is an example from their research study. Another mostly favored strategy is *paraphrasing*, which is employed by learners when they fail to convey the desired meaning idiomatically due to a deficiency in their lexical knowledge. As a result learners make sentences, such as, “People have the ability to say what they need” rather than saying “freedom of expression” (Taiwo, 2004, p. 4). However, heavy reliance on paraphrasing may bring about lexically and structurally odd and deviant sentences as demonstrated by Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) with the following examples: “His death caused the army to lose their morality.” and “The irrevocable debts made to him lose his money.”

Substitution has also been identified as a common strategy. Learners may resort to using a substitute term that shares certain semantic properties with the target lexical item when they fail to produce the proper collocation, which can be illustrated by an example from Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah’s (2003) study: “The police penetrated / violated the law when...” (p. 70). Huang (2001) and Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) have also identified *overgeneralization* and *analogy* as other frequently used strategies. Learners who rely on these strategies expand a certain target language feature or form to a different contextual use in the target language. An example of this would be “He *wetted / extinguished his thirst* with cold water” from Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah’s (2003, p. 71).

There are some other strategies including *experimentation*, *repetition*, *derivativeness*, *imitation of literary style*, *graphic ambiguity*, *false first language assumptions*, *literal translation*, and *quasi-morphological similarity*, which have been identified by Howarth (1998), Huang (2001), and Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003).

Consequently, based on the findings of these studies, it can be deduced that most strategies used by the EFL learners are not helpful. Nevertheless, they provide a holistic picture of the processes students undergo while generating the target collocations and can be helpful for teachers of EFL to know. Therefore, the researchers whose work has been cited above mostly suggest explicitly teaching collocations, focusing on the interlingual and intralingual differences in EFL classrooms.

Additionally, in light of the knowledge of these strategies, coursebook developers, syllabus designers as well as teachers of EFL may pinpoint the exact problems of learners and realize to what extent they are responsible for helping learners with their collocational deficiencies. They may also develop insights about how students deal with collocations and an understanding of the processes they go through to attain target collocations, which would be beneficial for generating effective techniques to teach collocations.

This section has covered to what extent collocation constitute a problem for EFL learners, concentrating on the work of several language specialists as well as their suggestions and implications. It also attempted to reveal the most important factors affecting learners' performance with regard to collocations. Although there is a great body of research on the factors influencing learners' performance and problematicity of collocations, how these combinations can be dealt with in EFL classroom settings has mostly remained unresearched. This study aims at investigating to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, develops an awareness in students and whether such instruction has any positive effect on retention of vocabulary.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This experimental study was designed to investigate whether explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, develops any awareness in students towards collocations and whether such instruction has any positive effect on retention when compared with teaching vocabulary in isolation with traditional techniques.

This chapter covers information about the setting and participants, instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures.

Setting and Participants

This study was conducted with the participation of eight intact classrooms with 160 EFL students of upper intermediate proficiency level who were enrolled in the preparatory program at Ankara University School of Foreign Languages, which is an intensive English language program preparing students for their further university studies. Regular course teachers of the eight classrooms, who had at least four year-experience with the same proficiency level students, also participated in the study to teach in three treatment sessions and administer the pre- and post-test.

The eight classrooms were divided into two groups and four of them were assigned as the control while the remaining four classrooms were assigned as the experimental group. To ensure parallelism between the groups, the classroom averages of the students' grades from monthly assessment tests throughout the first and second

semesters were taken into consideration before assigning the classrooms to the treatment conditions as control and experimental groups. Four classes who were assigned as the control group were exposed to the same pre- and post- test and treatment materials but without any focus on the collocates of the targeted words. On the other hand, with the experimental group targeted collocations were concentrated on in three treatment sessions with three different techniques. Both groups studied the vocabulary instruction materials under their regular teachers' supervision.

In addition to the control and experimental groups, two classrooms, who were at the same proficiency level as the experimental and control groups but who did not participate in the experimental study, were given the pilot test before determining the collocations to be targeted in the actual study.

Instruments

The instruments used in the data collection process included the Vocabulary Retention Test, its subsections, its piloted version, the tasks and techniques used in the treatments and the materials delivered in the treatments. In addition, classroom sessions were audiotaped and transcribed, and interviews were held with the participant teachers

The Vocabulary Retention Test as the Pre- and Post-test

As this was an experimental research study with two groups (experimental and control groups) and with three treatment or instruction types for each group, a vocabulary test with three subsections was designed by the researcher and administered before and after the treatments in order to see the preliminary collocational knowledge of the participants and to assess the difference, if any, stemming from the effect of treatment types focusing on collocations in the experimental group. Another reason for

the vocabulary retention test to serve as the pre- and post-test was that similar testing procedures have been widely used in experimental studies with the same design as the present one (e.g., Tokaç, 2005).

The test was comprised of 75 collocations, both grammatical and lexical. In the literature, mostly lexical collocations have been emphasized as the source of problems for learners of EFL. However, although grammatical collocations have received more attention than lexical collocations and taught explicitly in most EFL classrooms, students still fail to produce adjectives, verbs and nouns when they form combinations with prepositions because they are not transparent; therefore, they require special attention as much as lexical collocations. For example, Bonk (2000) posits that there is a combination of semantic, syntactic and lexical knowledge in these expressions that make them hard to acquire. Considering these reasons and to prevent the negligence towards this type of collocations, one of the sections in the test was allotted to grammatical collocations and the other two to lexical collocations. In choosing this type of collocations for inclusion, the suggestion made by Woolard (2000) was also taken into consideration. What he suggests is that teachers should keep a record of mis-collocations students make in their production of language and provide a platform for raising awareness of collocations focusing on the selection of their mis-collocations. Therefore, in this section, the researcher used some of the mis-collocations students generally produce, drawing on her experience of teaching students of the same proficiency level.

The first subtest was a simple recognition test in multiple choice format with 25 verb + preposition, noun + preposition, and adjective + preposition type collocations and the participants were asked to choose the best alternative among the choices of

prepositions. As the focus of this section was on grammatical collocations and there were only a few alternative prepositions as collocates of the headwords, multiple choice type of testing was found more appropriate due to the fact that it would be more reliable and provide more practicality for later evaluation.

The second subtest was a fill-in-the-blank test adapted by the researcher, leaving the collocates of 25 words blank in two selected passages of an article from Newsweek Magazine, which was also used in the corresponding treatment session. The collocations targeted here were mainly of the lexical type, and to provide more contextual clues for the participants to make closer guesses and to enhance reliability in evaluation they were presented in context. Additionally, this section aimed at more free production of the participants when compared with the first and third subtests because choices were not provided.

The third subtest was a cued fill-in-the-blank test. In this section, a passage on pollution with sentences containing blanks for the collocates of 25 words and the synonyms of the blanked collocates in parantheses at the end of each sentence was used, and the participants were required to provide the missing part of the collocations. The answers of the participants were kept under control by providing as many synonyms of the targeted collocates as possible in parantheses to raise the reliability. This section also mostly concentrated on lexical collocations and except for the last two sentences all of them were adapted from a reading text which was designed to teach collocations and retrieved from a website. (<http://esl.about.com/od/vocabularylessonplans/a/chunk.htm>)

With regard to validity of the test, the participants were all at the same proficiency level (as revealed on table 2 in chapter 4) and the test was piloted with two

classrooms who were at the same level as the participants. Reliability was assured by having two native English teachers check the items in all sections. Additionally, the researcher evaluated the results at different times.

Piloting the Vocabulary Retention Test

The test was piloted two weeks prior to the first treatment session with two classes who were at the same proficiency level as the control and experimental groups but did not take part in the experimental study. The test was reduced to 45 items excluding ten items from each section, which were answered by the majority of the pilot group. Thus the items to be used in the pre-test, three treatment sessions and post-test were determined. (See Appendix A for the final version of the pre- and post-test.)

Materials Used in the Treatment Sessions

Three tasks for three treatment sessions were designed, and to ensure unity in classrooms and to inform the participant teachers about how to administer the lessons, a training session was held one day prior to each treatment session. The instructors were also provided with lesson plans, which showed all the steps to be followed in detail. (See Appendix B for the lesson plans.)

In the first treatment session, the goal was to have students recognize lexical collocations and develop an understanding of the kinds of lexical collocations in a reading text. With this purpose in mind, an article on anorexia nervosa, which was taken from Newsweek Magazine, was used. In choosing this text, both richness of it in terms of all kinds of lexical collocations and the appropriateness of it for the proficiency level of the students were taken into consideration. In this session, the participants in the experimental group were also given a handout consisting of sentences in Turkish. In

each sentence, there were one or two of the targeted collocations and the participants were asked to translate them into English. The translation task, which has been widely preferred in collocation studies and suggested by Hill (2000) as a technique to draw learners' attention to collocations, was used to highlight the targeted collocations. Another goal of using translation was to make learners aware that rather than translating word-for-word with single word units, it would be better to notice collocations and collect them to be able to express their thoughts fluently in English. (See Appendix C for a copy of the handout and the article.)

The goal of the second treatment session was to have students recognize collocations in a text read aloud by their teachers and write a similar passage using them. Dictaglossing technique was used to achieve this goal. This integrated technique, proposed by Deveci (2004) and Hill et al. (2000), consists of multiple reading of a short text. In the first round of reading an instructor reads aloud a short text full of collocations and students work in groups to compile words and reconstruct the text. In the second or third rounds of reading, students focus on the collocates of the words they have compiled and reshape the text they have written. Listening cannot be ignored while developing collocational awareness. What learners notice about collocations is not constrained to written texts they encounter in the classroom or outside. As Lewis (2000) emphasizes, intake is what learners consciously notice. Most students, outside the classroom, listen to radio programmes and watch movies in English and have the chance to find lots of useful collocations in the language they hear as long as they are made to notice them. When limited instruction time is considered, raising students' awareness in terms of collocations found in oral contexts would also serve to help them transform

“input” into “intake” and become more autonomous learners as they have the opportunity to listen to more of the target language outside the classroom. In this treatment session, a short passage on pollution was retrieved from a website which was designed to provide supplementary materials for teaching collocations. The text was read two or three times, and the participants of the experimental group first concentrated on single vocabulary items, and in groups reconstructed the passage. Then, they worked to compile the collocates of the words and refined their first version of the pollution passage. Additionally, several comprehension questions focusing on the targeted collocations were asked in order to ensure that they were compiled and to solidify students’ learning them. Thus, the participants had the chance to develop an understanding of how to treat collocations when they hear any piece of the target language. (See Appendix C for the pollution passage or visit the following website <http://esl.about.com/od/vocabularylessonplans/a/chunk.htm>.)

The goal of the last treatment session was to introduce grammatical collocations (verb + preposition, adjective + preposition, and noun + preposition) to participants with selected mis-collocations of students at the same proficiency level and to make them aware that each word has its own grammar, as indicated by Lewis (2000). According to Lewis (2000), many smaller patterns in language exhibit varying degrees of fixedness or generalizability, each based on a word. To achieve this goal the experimental classrooms were divided into two groups, and one group of participants in each classroom were delivered handouts consisting of 15 sets of sentences which contain one or two collocational mistakes or none, while the other group was provided with a set of concordancing extracts which were retrieved from Web Concordancer and The Collins

Wordbanks Online English Corpus. The group members were asked to help their friends to find the mistakes and correct them by examining the examples in the extracts. On the other hand, the concordancing extracts were utilized to have students correct the mis-collocations because they have been found to be useful tools that provide a clear visual representation of collocations, authentic learning experience, and more recycling with lots of examples by a number of scholars (e.g., Somogyi, 1996; Wright, 1996; Woolard, 2000; Nesselhauf & Tschichold, 2002). Similarly, Lewis (2000) also implicitly supports the appropriateness of concordancing extracts in directing learners' attention to their mis-collocations. According to Lewis (2000), recording grammatical collocations, such as “advise on”, “attitude toward”, and “comment on” is unsatisfactory; these phrasal combinations should be presented in rich examples from authentic language. (See Appendix C for the handouts and several copies of the concordancing extracts.)

As for the materials delivered in sessions conducted with the control group participants, they were the same as the materials used by the experimental group participants. However, the techniques differed in that they focused on single vocabulary items in the first and second treatment sessions while in the last one, the participants performed the same task using their dictionaries rather than concordancing extracts.

All treatment sessions in one of the experimental groups were observed, audiotaped, and these tapes were later transcribed for analysis. After each treatment session, all the participant teachers were interviewed to see whether anything interfering with the treatments happened and whether the tasks were performed in the desired way. Additionally, two months after the treatments three teachers who administered the

lessons in the experimental groups were interviewed to draw conclusions about whether the treatments affected their teaching and their learners' attitudes towards collocations.

Data Collection Procedures

The procedures followed in the data collection process, which were administration of the pre-test, the training sessions conducted with the participant instructors, the first second and third treatment sessions, administration of the post-test, classroom observation and retrospective interviews held with participant instructors will be covered in this section.

Administration of the Pre-test

As a first step in exploring the viability of integrating collocations into second language vocabulary teaching, a test comprising 75 collocations was designed and piloted with students at the same proficiency level as those in the control and experimental groups two weeks prior to the first treatment session. The goal of the pilot study was to determine the collocations to be used in the pre- and post-test and three treatment sessions. Based on the results of the pilot test, 10 items from each subtest, which were correctly answered by the majority of the participants were excluded and the pre- and post-test was revised. The pre-test was administered to 160 students one week prior to the first treatment session.

Training Sessions for the Tasks

Three tasks for three treatment sessions were designed and all the participant instructors were trained in workshops, which were held one day prior to each treatment session by the researcher.

The First Treatment Session

In the first treatment session, participants of both control and experimental groups were exposed to the same reading text, the article on anorexia nervosa. The participants in the control group read the article twice, worked on the vocabulary unfamiliar to them, answered comprehension questions and summarized the article in their own words. On the other hand, in the experimental classrooms, the participants were first asked to work in groups of four to translate some Turkish sentences, all of which contained targeted collocations, into English in groups of four. The teachers then introduced some information about collocations and asked them to read the text to reshape their actual versions. (See appendix C for the information given about collocations.) The groups worked on their versions after reading the text on anorexia nervosa and corrected their mistakes on collocations. Then, they completed a table drawn by their teachers with types of lexical collocations they encountered in the text. They also summarized the text using the word combinations they worked on.

The Second Treatment Session

In the second treatment session, a dictaglossing technique was used with a short text on pollution, which was retrieved from a web site. The text was read aloud by the instructors twice or three times and the participants in the control group were asked to collect words while it was being read and work in groups of four to reconstruct the passage using the words they compiled. On the other hand, the participants in the experimental group were asked to collect words during the first round of the reading to reconstruct the passage and their collocates in the second round to reshape their first

versions. Their attention to collocations was also ensured by three questions eliciting some of the targeted phrases after the first round of the reading.

The Third Treatment Session

In the last treatment session, grammatical collocations were focused on and participants in both groups were delivered a handout consisting of fifteen sets of sentences. In each set, there were sentences containing one or two collocational mistakes or none. The participants in the control group were asked to work in pairs to mark and correct the mistakes looking up the headwords in their dictionaries, while those in the experimental group were provided with concordancing extracts for the same procedure. The experimental group participants were also asked to find the most frequent collocates of the headwords looking at the extracts as well as making funny sentences with the collocations they corrected. Thus they had the chance to recycle the target collocations and to solidify their learning.

The treatment sessions were conducted at the same class hour in all classrooms under the supervision of their regular course teachers on subsequent days. As for the time allotted to the treatments, in both groups, it was 100 minutes to the first treatment, and 50 minutes each for the second and third treatment sessions.

Administration of the Post-test

One week following the last treatment session, the Vocabulary Retention Test was administered to control and experimental groups as a post-test. The researcher, comparing the results of the pre-test and post-test, aimed at collecting data for the assessment of whether the three treatments with different techniques focusing on collocations promoted retention of vocabulary.

Classroom Observation and Retrospective Interviews

The duration of the experiment was 27 days together with the piloting of the vocabulary retention test. Additionally, all treatment sessions in one of the experimental classrooms were observed and audiotaped and participant instructors were interviewed immediately after each treatment session to collect data about the implementations of the tasks. Furthermore, as the final step, three teachers who administered lessons to experimental groups were interviewed two months after the treatments to see to what extent their students developed awareness towards collocations and whether they utilized the techniques used in the treatments.

Data Analysis

To explore the research questions of the study, quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were used in the study. The quantitative data was gathered from comparing the pre- and post-test scores. The vocabulary retention test was administered as a pre-test one week before the first treatment session and it was conducted a second time as the post-test one week following the last treatment session. The pre- and post-test scores of the control group and experimental group were assessed by running a paired samples test. The pre- and post-test scores of the two groups were compared running independent samples t- test. The test scores served as the values of the between and within- participants variables of the study. Additionally, to compare the effectiveness of each technique used in treatment sessions independent samples t-test was run for subtest scores of the experimental group from subtest one, two and three.

As for the qualitative data, one of the classrooms in experimental group was observed and audiotaped throughout the treatment sessions, and some segments from the

verbal processes of the participants were transcribed and translated into English. The participant instructors of both groups were also interviewed with three questions after each treatment to explore how the students reacted to the corresponding learning conditions and whether the tasks were implemented in the desired way, and the responses were noted. Two months after the treatments, three interviews with four questions were held with three of the experimental group instructors, and their responses were audiotaped and transcribed.

Conclusion

This chapter introduced the methodology of the study designed to find answers to the research questions. It also provided information about the participants, the instruments, the data collection procedures and data analysis. The next chapter will provide information on the results of the data analysis using the above mentioned statistical methods.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

Overview of the study

The aim of this study was to investigate whether explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, raises students' awareness towards collocations, and to what degree such instruction affects retention of vocabulary.

Two groups, one experimental and one control, participated in this study. The experimental group, consisting of 80 students of upper intermediate level proficiency, were given three treatments with three different techniques, focusing on 15 collocations in each session. On the other hand, the participants in the control group, equal in number and proficiency level to the experimental group, were exposed to the same treatment materials, but focusing on merely the headwords of the same targeted collocations in the first and third treatment sessions, and dealing with the grammatical collocations using their dictionaries in the second treatment.

Before the experiment, both groups were administered a pre-test comprised of forty-five items. In this test, the aim was to see the preliminary collocational knowledge of the participants. The participants sat the pre-test one week prior to the first treatment session. The three treatment sessions were conducted at the same class hour in all eight classrooms over consecutive days. The post-test was administered one week following the last treatment.

This chapter covers the quantitative and qualitative data analyses involved in the study. Before presenting the results of qualitative and quantitative analyses of the study, the type of the research design of the study will be reviewed, as the research design determines the statistical tests and analyses. The design of the current study consists of a single within subject variable (vocabulary test), and a single between subjects variable (vocabulary instruction), with two levels (vocabulary instruction focusing on collocations and vocabulary instruction with a concentration on single words). Table 1 displays the research design of the study.

Table 1

Research Design of the Study

Between group Factor (Instruction Type)	Within Group Factor (Vocabulary Gain)	
	Pre-test	Post-test
Experimental group: Vocabulary instruction focusing on collocations	Experimental Gr.	Experimental Gr.
Control group: Vocabulary instruction focusing on single words	Control Gr.	Control Gr.

As shown in the table above, this was a pre- and post test experimental design with two groups; the analysis of data collected through the vocabulary test was computed by running paired samples t-test to see within-group vocabulary gains and independent samples t-test to explore the difference between the pre- and post-test scores of the control and experimental groups. Although it was not stated among the

purposes of this study, to see the effectiveness of the three techniques used in the three treatment sessions, corresponding subtest scores of the experimental group were compared by running one-way ANOVA.

Regarding the qualitative data collection design, immediately after each treatment session, the participant instructors of the control and experimental groups were interviewed, and additional interviews were held only with the experimental group instructors two months after the last treatment. In the first interviews, the participant teachers were asked three questions to inquire whether anything interfering with the treatments happened, how the participant students reacted to the tasks, and whether the tasks were performed in the desired way. In the second interviews, the experimental group teachers were asked whether they were aware of the significance of collocations in vocabulary teaching before the treatments, in what way the treatments affected their attitudes, whether they did anything additional to deal with collocations in their classes and whether they observed any tendency from their students to deal with collocations in their usual courses. Additionally, one of the classrooms assigned to the treatment conditions was observed and audiotaped throughout the three treatment sessions. Some parts of their verbal processes were transcribed and used to explore whether the students developed any awareness towards collocations.

In this part of the data analysis chapter, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques used in the study were briefly reviewed. In the remaining sections of this chapter, tables and results will be presented to display the analyses of quantitative data. As for the results of analyzing the qualitative data, transcriptions of the verbal processes of the learners in one experimental group, first interviews with all the

participant teachers after each treatment session and second interviews with experimental group teachers will be presented and interpreted.

The quantitative data analysis is given in four sub-sections: (1) Comparison of the groups in terms of the collocations they knew prior to the treatments, (2) The vocabulary gain of the groups after treatments, (3) Comparison of the groups in terms of the words they knew after the treatment sessions, (4) Comparison of the mean gains between the subtests.

Analysis of the Quantitative Data

In this study, the quantitative data was collected through the Vocabulary Retention Test. The scoring of the pre- and post-test was done by giving one point to each correct answer. An answer that showed a correct choice of lexicon but had wrong inflection was judged to be correct because the focus was on lexicon rather than grammar. Additionally, in the second and third subtests, which were designed to elicit targeted collocates with the participants' cued productions (in the first one the context itself served as a cue while in the third the synonyms of the targeted collocates were provided in parentheses at the end of each sentence), the answers which were correct, although not desired ones, were marked as acceptable in both groups. Note the example below:

By most accounts, Carpenter seldom even *took a drink*.

In this case, although the desired one was *took, get, gets, has, had* and *have* were judged to be correct. As there were 45 items targeted on the pre- and post-test, the total possible score for each participant was 45. For both tests, the means and the standard deviations of each group were calculated. As a first step, the pre-test results of the experimental

group and the control group were compared to see whether these groups were equal before the treatments. In the second stage, vocabulary gains of the groups were calculated separately, comparing the scores of the pre- and post-test, to see the effect of the corresponding treatments. As the third step, the post-test scores of the groups were compared with each other to see which treatment type yielded better results. In the final stage, the subtest scores of the experimental group were compared with each other to determine the effectiveness of each technique over others.

In order to show whether there is a significant difference in pre-test results between groups, independent samples t-test was run. The table below displays the means, standard deviation and independent samples t-test results for the pre-test.

Table 2

Comparison of the groups in terms of the collocations they knew prior to the treatment sessions

<u>Test Score</u>	<u>Experimental Group</u>	<u>Control Group</u>	<u>P*</u>
N	80	80	
Pretest	9.88 ± 2.65	10.28 ± 2.66	= 0.343

*; Independent Samples T-test

As displayed in the table above, there was not a significant difference in the mean scores of the experimental group and control group on the pre-test (P = 0.343). Thus, the independent samples t-test analysis revealed that both groups performed similarly on the pretest and they were not different before the treatments.

In order to explore within-group vocabulary gains, paired samples t-test was run. The table below shows the means, standard deviation and paired samples t-test results for the pre-test and post-test.

Table 3

The Vocabulary Gain of the Groups after Treatments

<u>Groups</u>	<u>Pre-test Scores</u>	<u>Post-test Scores</u>	<u>Dif</u>	<u>P*</u>
Experimental Group	9.88 ± 2.65	28.05 ± 4.79	18 ± 3.80	< 0.001
Control Group	10.28 ± 2.66	17.87 ± 4.24	7.58 ± 2.89	< 0.001

*; Paired Samples T-test

As seen in the table, the mean test scores of both the experimental group and the control group rose significantly after the treatments ($P < 0.001$). In other words, the overall effect of the treatments on both groups, regardless of the type was statistically significant at the level of $P < 0.001$.

The vocabulary gain of both groups after treatments was compared by running the independent samples t-test. The table below displays the means of vocabulary gain, standard deviation and independent samples t-test results for the post-test.

Table 4

Comparison of the groups in terms of vocabulary gains after the treatment sessions

<u>Vocabulary Gain</u>	<u>Experimental Group</u>	<u>Control Group</u>	<u>P*</u>
Treatment Gain	18 ± 3.80	7.58 ± 2.89	< 0.001

*: Independent Samples T-test Results for the Post-test

As can be seen in table 4 above, when the means of vocabulary gain in both groups after the treatments are compared, the mean gain in experimental group is significantly higher than the mean gain in the control group ($P < 0.001$). Namely, the experimental group performed far better than the control group on the post-test, and the corresponding treatment received by the experimental group generated better results and affected vocabulary retention more positively.

Additionally, the effectiveness of the tasks performed in the treatment sessions was compared by running the one-way ANOVA. In the vocabulary retention test, which was administered as the pre- and post-test, subtest 1 was designed to assess the treatment given in the third session (verb + preposition, noun + preposition, adjective + preposition with concordancing extracts), the corresponding treatment for subtest two was given in the first session (anorexia nervosa article with translation technique) and for the third subtest the corresponding treatment was in the second session (pollution passage with dictaglossing technique). For this procedure, the score differences of each participant on the pre- and post-test were calculated separately for each subtest, and the one-way ANOVA was run to compare the effectiveness of the techniques used in the corresponding treatments. Table 5 displays the means, standard deviations, and the one-way ANOVA results for the subtests.

Table 5
Comparison of the Mean Gains between the Subtests of the Experimental Group

	<u>Subtest 1</u> (Concordancing Extracts)	<u>Subtest 2</u> (Translation)	<u>Subtest 3</u> (Dictaglossing)	<u>P*</u>
<u>Scores</u>	5.65 ± 1.79	6.98 ± 2.68	5.65 ± 1.81	< 0.001

Table 6
Comparison of the mean gains of subtest 1 and subtest 2:

	<u>Subtest 1</u>	<u>Subtest 2</u>	<u>P*</u>
<u>Scores</u>	5.65 ± 1.79	6.98 ± 2.68	< 0.001

Table 7
Comparison of the mean gains of the subtest 1 and subtest 3:

	<u>Subtest 1</u>	<u>Subtest 3</u>	<u>P*</u>
Scores	5.65 ± 1.79	5.65 ± 1.81	1

Table 8
Comparison of the mean gains of the subtest 2 and subtest 3:

	<u>Subtest 2</u>	<u>Subtest 3</u>	<u>P*</u>
Scores	6.98 ± 2.68	5.65 ± 1.81	< 0.001

*; One- way ANOVA

As can be inferred from tables 5, 6, 7, and 8, when the mean gains in each subtest in the experimental group are evaluated, the task used in the first treatment session (anorexia article with translation technique) was found significantly more effective than the other two ($P < 0.001$) while the effectiveness of the tasks performed in the second and third treatment sessions (pollution passage with dictaglossing and verb + preposition, noun + preposition, adjective + preposition with concordancing extracts respectively) is not different ($P = 1$).

In this part of the data analysis, results of the within groups' contrast and between groups' contrast were presented. Although control group scores were slightly better than those of experimental group on the pre-test (see table 2), and both groups showed significant vocabulary gains based on the treatments they received (see table 3), the vocabulary gains of the experimental group were significantly higher on the post-test, which indicates that the treatment received by the experimental group was more effective than the treatment received by the control group (see table 4). In order to evaluate the effectiveness of each technique used in the three treatment sessions, the corresponding subtest scores of the experimental group were also compared with each other. The data analyzed in this section have revealed that the treatment in which translation technique was used yielded better results than the treatment sessions in which dictaglossing and concordancing extracts were used to teach collocations (see tables 5, 6, 7, and 8).

To sum up, it can be inferred from the analyses of data gathered from the vocabulary retention test that learners, when presented words with more emphasis on their collocates, retain them better. This can be attributed to the techniques used in the

treatments which had the students spend more time on the targeted words and provided them with the chance to recycle the words with their collocates as well as making them aware that for production they need to know the collocates of the words. However, the students in the control group, exposed to the same treatment materials, merely dealing with the words without any emphasis on their collocates, were able to retain less vocabulary since the traditional techniques did not provide them with the opportunities mentioned above. As for the effectiveness of the techniques used in the treatments, the translation technique yielded better results, presumably because the students were confronted with what they lacked in terms of the collocates they required for performing the translation task.

Analyses of the Qualitative Data

In this study, the qualitative data were collected through two different interviews: one was held with eight participant instructors after each treatment session to explore whether the tasks were performed in the desired way, and the other was conducted two months after the treatments only with experimental group instructors to see whether the treatments had any positive effects on their teaching and whether the treatments developed an awareness in their students towards collocations. Additionally, one of the classes in the experimental group was observed and the group and pair work processes were audiotaped. Some segments of these group and pair-work activities were transcribed and interpreted with a purpose of exploring whether the participants in this group developed any awareness towards collocations in the course of treatments.

The qualitative data analysis is given in three sub-sections: (1) analysis of the post-treatment interviews, (2) analysis of the verbal processes of the experimental group

participants, (3) analysis of the interviews held with experimental group instructors two months after the treatments.

The Analysis of the Post-treatment Interviews Held with Participant Instructors

With the purpose of exploring whether anything interfering with the treatments happened, all the participant instructors were interviewed immediately after each treatment session and three questions were asked. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and the responses were not audiotaped but the significant parts were noted and translated into English.

The questions explored in the interviews were:

1. Did you experience anything interfering with the treatment session?
2. How did the students react to the tasks in this treatment session?
3. Were the tasks performed as we planned in the training session?

Based on the notes, the responses to the first question were mostly negative, in other words, most of the respondents reported that they experienced nothing interfering with the treatments. The only possible factor that was mentioned was that eight students in the first treatment, three in the second treatment and two in the third treatment were absent from school in control group while six students in the first, five in the second and three in the third treatments were absent in the experimental group. However, this factor was not taken into consideration as one interfering with the treatments since the total number of absent students was not significantly different.

The responses to the second question showed that the tasks used by the collocation group all involved most students and they were reported to have enjoyed the techniques used by their teachers. Most of the students, those who had internet access

were also reported to have been interested in the concordancing extracts, thinking that they could run the program when studying on their own or doing their assignments. On the other hand, the teachers in the control group complained about the dictionaries their students brought for the second treatment. They stated that some students could not perform well enough since they did not have sophisticated dictionaries.

As for the last question, most teachers complained that the time allotted to the first treatment was too short; thus, it was extended to the next class hour with the permission of the administration. The instructors reported that they all conducted the treatments the way they were trained.

In summary, the tasks were all performed in the desired way and the techniques used in the treatments were liked by the participant students.

The Analysis of the Verbal Processes of the Participants in all the Treatment Sessions

In order to explore whether students developed awareness towards collocations in the course of treatments, one of the classrooms assigned to treatment conditions was observed and the group work and pair work processes were audiotaped. Some of the extracts of these verbal processes will be presented and interpreted in this part of the data analysis.

Transcription of one of the groups for the first treatment session and its interpretation (Anorexia Nervosa- translation):

In the first treatment session, the experimental group participants were asked to translate 12 sentences from Turkish into English in groups of four. In these sentences 15 collocations from an article were included. All group work processes were audiotaped and some parts were transcribed. Several pieces of transcriptions will be presented in

order to reveal current collocational competence of the participants, and how they developed better during the course of treatment.

In the transcribed versions, the statements of the participants were mostly in Turkish. They were translated into English and the translated English versions were italicized. The Turkish sentences, to be translated into English as a part of the task, were first written in Turkish with bold characters and then the literal translations were provided in the parentheses immediately after each statement. Times New Roman letters were used for the statements which were already uttered in English by the participants.

Overlaps were represented with //.

[The participants worked on the translation task in groups of four.]

- 1- S1: she or he gave weight
- 2- S2: she started losing weight yes
- 3- S1: to be an example
- 4- S3: *how can we translate **artan bir hevesle**(with growing enthusiasm)*
- 5- S4: with getting bigger attitude
- 6- S1: *what is **heves** (enthusiasm) ambition?*
- 7- S2: yes ambition
- 8- S4: get bigger bigger ambition
- 9- S2: with ambition with a growing ambition//
- 10-S3: *can growing be used there?*
- 11-S2: yes write with a growing ambition
- 12-S1: to be an example *we have learned something like **çıkık kemik** (protruding*
- 13- bone)
- 14-S2: *Is it bare bones? ... or counting bones//*
- 15-S3: *yes probably it was bare bones but here we can also use bags of bones*
- 16-S4: *let's try the second sentence*
- 17-S3: he tried no she tried hmm *what is **gizlemek** (to hide) in English*
- 18-S1: to hide
- 19-S3: yes she tried to hide her bare bones write with large clothes right?
- 20- *how can we say **bol giysi** (loose clothes)?*
- 21-S1: okay with large clothes
- 22-T: A bit FASTER
- 23-S4: *let's try the fourth one he did nothing to control of her appetite*
- 24-S3: nothing to or nothing for?
- 25-S1: *We can deal with the grammar later //*

26-S2: to take control of her appetite //
 27-S3: *does appetite mean diet?*
 28-S4: *they say good appetite it is **iştah** (appetite) in Turkish*
 29-S2: of his appetite... and... **yeme alışkanlıkları** (eating habits) //
 30-S4: behaviours of food... his behaviours of food
 31-S2: his eating... NO
 32-S3: habits habits of eating //
 33-S2: eating habits getting hmmm *what is **tuhaflaşmak** (grow bizarre) in English?*
 34-S1: has got has been unusual
 35-S3: *isn't getting better*
 36-S4: **yıkıcı tıbbi sonuçlar**... (disastrous medical consequences) results of what?
 37-S1: **yeme düzensizlikleri** (eating disorders)...
 38-S4: arrangements? not arrangements?
 39-S3: his eating chaos
 40-S4: chaos? tidy? tidiness? untidiness?
 41-S1: *I know we can't use those words that way but...*
 42-S4: *it is untidy eating habits*
 43-S3: *no untidy can't be used that way give me the dictionary*
 44-S2: *you hope you will find it in the dictionary? I don't think so... we can't say*
 45- untidy *yes write bad*
 46-S3: *yes bad let's work on the fifth one*
 47-S1: bad eating habits... *but we need to know what **yıkıcı tıbbi sonuçlar***
 48- (disastrous medical consequences) *is as well*
 49-S4: disrupt? destroy? or destroyable
 50-S3: no no destructive *there is no adjective like destroyable //*
 51-S2: yes yes destructive... cause destructive //
 52-S4: destructive medical results //
 53-S1: *write consequences it is better*
 54-S3: Mary has been //
 55-S4: *what is **takıntı** (obsession)?*
 56-S1: obsessive hmmm obsessed
 57-S2: Mary has been obsessed to her...
 58-T: okay listen to ME just drop what you are doing
 59-Ss: but we haven't finished yet
 60-T: I know you haven't finished but this is just the general idea what we are doing
 61- okay first of all which part did you find most difficult when you tried to
 62- translate
 63-Ss: but we haven't finished//

Before the teacher instructed about collocations, as can be seen in the transcriptions, mostly participants had problems with collocations, not grammar or single words, and failed to provide the appropriate collocations in the translation task.

(See lines 5, 9, 14, 15, 25, 26, 30, 32, 38, 39, 40, 42, 57.) For example, in line 5, one of the students came up with “with getting bigger attitude” rather than “with growing zeal or enthusiasm”, another with “bigger and bigger” rather than “growing” in line 8, and another, in line 42, with “untidy eating habits” rather than “eating habits grew more bizarre”. The students relied on various strategies, such as overgeneralization and analogy (e.g., lines 14, 38, 57), assumed synonymity (e.g., lines 30, 38, 40, 42), derivativeness (e.g., line 49), literal translation (e.g., lines 1, 3, 39), and paraphrasing (e.g., lines 26, 47, 52) mostly under the influence of their L1. As a result, they created odd combinations, for example, in line 14, one of the students attempted to use “counting bones” or “bare bones” rather than “protruding bones”. Although there is no combination like “counting bones” in English, as it is used in Turkish for skinny people, the student suggested using it. Among other odd combinations were “his eating chaos”, “untidy eating habits”, and “behaviors of food”. In addition to these deviant phrases, they made grammatical mistakes since they did not know the collocates of the targeted words and some of the strategies they employed led to failure (see lines 5, 8, 32). Nevertheless, there was evidence that some students implicitly developed collocational knowledge, based on their level of proficiency. In line 2, for example, although one of the group members came up with the literal translation of “lose weight” as “give weight”, another student supplied the correct collocation “lose weight”. Similarly, in line 53, one of the students found “medical results” odd and suggested using “consequences”. Additionally, a lot of negotiations of form, where the participants worked in cooperation to find the appropriate collocations, were observed, and the

participants were all involved, which indicates that translation task is an effective way of directing students' attention to collocations.

[In the following section the participants discussed what was the most problematic and all groups read their versions for each sentence.]

- 64-T: I know in the first six or seven sentences for example what was the most
65- difficult?
66-Ss: 4 5 4 5
67-T: okay I am not asking you the sentences exactly I am asking you the grammar 68-
words or phrases
69-Ss: the ones underlined **örnek olmak** (to set an example for) **yeme**
70- **düzensizlikleri** (eating disorders)
71-T: **yeme düzensizlikleri örnek olmak** whatelse?
72-Ss: **çıkık kemikler** (protruding bones)
73-T: **çıkık kemikler** anything else?
74-S: teacher okay we know **yeme** (eating) and **düzensizlik** (disorder) irregularity 75-
but we are not sure whether it is okay we have the sense hmmm as if hmm as 76-
if they don't//
77-T: match okay that is the problem maybe you know what **kemik** (bone) is maybe
78- you know what **çıkık** (protruding) is but you are not sure whether they should
79- be used by this or not this is our topic let's hear some of your translations
80- from this group for example what did you say for the first one?
81-S: he started to lose weight with an increasing desire to be a model for his
82- brothers
83-T: okay GOOD
84-S: she started to lose weight with an increasing eager for being a model for her 85-
siblings
86-T: okay alright COOL and that group what did you say?
87-S: she started losing weight with a growing ambition for being an example to her
88- siblings
89-T: alright and this group what did you say?
90-S: first one?
91-T: yes first one
92-S: she started to lose weight due to being an example for her sisters
93-T: okay right? another example... for example the third one okay this group
94-S: he didn't do anything to control her appetite and her eating habits have been 95-
unusual
96-T: okay that group
97-S: she did nothing in order to control of her appetite and her eating habits became
98- stranger
99-T: stranger okay this group

100-S: he did nothing to take control of his appetite and his eating habits have been 101-
unusual

When all group translations are examined, it is clear that since the participants had not developed collocational awareness, their outputs were acceptable but odd in terms of word combinations. Some participants had the tendency to use the synonyms of the collocates again although they could not be used interchangeably. In line 74, for example, one of the students stated his choice of words “eating irregularities” rather than “eating disorders”. The literal equivalents of “irregularity” and “disorder” may be the same in Turkish and they can be used interchangeably in some occasions, but here “eating” collocates only with “disorder”. This example can also serve as an indication that students relied on their L1 and made negative L1 transfer. In some other statements there were again indications that students made grammatical mistakes while paraphrasing to convey the desired message (see lines 84, 97). Additionally, when asked what was most difficult, all of the participants complained about the underlined ones- collocations- not grammar or single words.

[In this section, the teacher introduced collocations and asked students to refine their first versions after reading the article.]

102-T: have been unusual okay cool... okay SO then as we see language
103- seems simple but when they... you have to use groups of words... whether 104-
they are right or wrong now I'll give you a passage and just read the text NO
105- TALKING shhh no comment just read the text

[Students read the text.]

106-T: collocation means that words that attract each other okay they're somehow 107-
used together in Turkish we have lots of collocations too for example these on
108- the board... **çıkık kemik** okay maybe **çıkık** can be used for other purposes too
109- it doesn't matter but when we talk about this... you should kind of use them 110-
together they... as we said this relationship is called attraction of words

- 111- they're kind of pulled together... they 're used together and there are
 112- different types of them... for example **çıkık kemik**(protruding bones) an
 113- adjective and a noun type... OR... obsessed with an adjective and a
 114- preposition... now let's see ... this time you 'll try to correct your
 115- translations okay by just having a look at these phrases written in the passage
 116- because they are the same actually... let's try to correct them or reshape them
 117- I'll give you a little bit more time instead of lose weight what else is used for
 118- example?
 119-Ss: shed weight shall we correct the whole sentence? what shall we
 120- correct?
 121-T: especially the most problematic ones
 122-S2: *it is* set an example *not* to be a model for //
 123-S4: protruding bones *look it says* wearing extra layers
 124-S1: *what* bones?
 125-S4: protruding bones *what is* four?
 126-S3: keep her appetite in check
 127-S2: **kilo verme** (shed weight) shed weight **çıkık kemik** (protruding bone)
 128- protruding bone //
 129-S1: I have found medical consequences you see it is correct not results
 130-S2: to fit the profile *not* suit the profile *you see? Turkish*
 131- *English...otherwise it is Turkish English*
 132-S3: became obsessed with... *but where is* **sayısı giderek artan** (growing
 133- number)

The participants were told to correct their first versions focusing on the most problematic parts, and in all groups, they merely dealt with word combinations. After they were instructed, they easily corrected their sentences, focusing on the related collocations in the text. In line 130, students reshaped their previous versions using “fit” rather than “suit”, which are synonymous but cannot be used interchangeably in this sentence, or in line 126, they corrected their old version replacing “take her appetite under control” with “keep her appetite in check”.

[In the following stage of the lesson, the students were asked to underline all the collocations in the text and classify them as verb + noun, adverb + adjective, adjective + noun, and the like.]

- 134-T: Okay let's put the collocations you've underlined in this table noun +
 135- noun can you give an example?
 136-Ss: heart failure drug abuse food disorder
 137-T: okay for this column? adverb + adjective
 138-Ss: slightly plump
 139-T: okay let's see some noun + verb
 140-S: noun + verb? isn't it adverb + verb? is it possible that way?
 141-S: yes shed weight for example verb + noun
 142-T: okay it is this column perhaps there is no example in the text the gap 143
 widens for example
 144-S: so it is the subject of the sentence
 145-T: yeah here it is verb + adverb?
 146-Ss: feel good work hard
 147-T: let's have a look at adjective + noun type
 148-Ss: grisly way protruding bones medical consequences extraordinary zeal
 149- traditional profile psychiatric help disastrous drop low-income
 150- victims //
 151-T: okay GOOD there are many in the text that's enough verb + noun 152-
 ones?
 153-Ss: shed weight fit the profile set an example//
 154-T: okay we should put it here since it is not a two word combination set 155-
 an example for
 156-Ss: gorge on food gain respectability battle with anorexia
 157-T: good for this column more than two word combinations...
 158-Ss set an example for brought out of the closet keep appetite in check

[After completing the table the students summarized the text using
 the collocations they learned.]

In this stage, as can be inferred from the transcription extract, students were able to complete the table even using the collocations they did not focus on. From this set of data, it can be concluded that students developed awareness to the extent that they could categorize the collocations. For example, in lines 148 and 149, when asked to find collocations for the adjective + noun column, most students came up with the collocations such as “grisly way, protruding bones, medical consequences, extraordinary zeal, traditional profile, psychiatric help, disastrous drop, low-income victims”, although most of these collocations were not highlighted before as adjective + noun collocations.

To sum up, in this treatment session, students learned what collocation means, how important collocations are in language production, and types of lexical collocations and they worked cooperatively on the task. At the end of the class, they were able to recognize and categorize the collocations in the article.

Transcription of one of the groups for the second treatment session and its interpretation

(pollution passage-dictaglossing):

In the second treatment session, dictaglossing technique was used to direct students' attention to collocations. They were asked to compile words while their teacher was reading a passage on pollution and write a paragraph very similar to the pollution passage. After reading their first versions aloud, they were asked to reshape them, compiling word combinations in the second round of reading.

- 1-T : what comes to your mind when we say pollution?
2-Ss: air pollution soil pollution water pollution voice pollution
3-T: voice pollution? Okay we say noise pollution not voice pollution these are all 4-
types of pollution okay SO okay I am going to read an extract a small
5- paragraph about pollution what you are going to do is take your pencils and
6- paper you try to collect words in groups of four again in order to reconstruct 7-
this paragraph okay ? clear?
8-Ss: yes
9-T: you try to take out words to write the paragraph especially the words
10-S1: what have you collected?
11-S2: attitude, threaten, pattern, environment, solution //
12-S3: western countries, attitude towards, developing solutions, output of carbon 13-
monoxide,
14- weather patterns //
15-S1: *did you write the paragraph? we were supposed to collect words*
16-S3: *yes but we are going to write a similar one it is better this way we won't need 17-
to think a lot practically form our passage*
18-S4: *yes I collected phrases as well governments combat problems, noise*
19- pollution, scientific research, regulating industry//
20-S2: *what is it? I collected it but I don't know what it means*
[a student explains it]
21-S3: ozone layer is being threatened by the //
22-S4: output of carbon monoxide *yes who is writing ?*

23-S3: *okay you write* western countries are rethinking their attitudes towards
 24- environment and nature moreover//
 25-S4: *there was something like* play havoc with it or...
 26-S1: *okay that is enough*
 27-S3: ozone layer is being threatened by output of carbon monoxide //
 28-S4: increasing increasing output
 29-S3: El nino is an example of this problem //
 30-S4: here there was hmmm governments dis...combat to discussing this problem //
 31-S3: they combat this governments combat combatted these problems
 32-S4: yes they are working on new scientific research...

Although the students were told to compile single words, in all groups there were several students who collected not only words but also word combinations to reconstruct the paragraph, which can serve as evidence that some students realized the significance of word combinations in the language production due to the treatment in the previous session. For example, in lines 12 and 13, one of the students stated that he collected “western countries, attitude towards, developing solutions, output of carbon monoxide, weather patterns” and another student, in line 18, stated that he also collected the phrases rather than single words. (See also lines 15, 17, 20, 21, 27.)

[In the following stage, students read aloud their passages and the teacher read the passage for the second time instructing them to collect the words before and after the ones they had compiled to reshape their first versions.]

33-T: now what we are going to do is revise our versions all were good but this
 34- time I'll read it one last time and you'll try to notice and collect the word
 35- before and after the ones you've already collected ... what happens this way? 36-
 You kind of collect phrases to write a better paragraph okay it is clear?
 37-Ss: clear clear
 38-T: the words before and after okay so one last time...
 [the teacher reads the passage]
 39-S: what does play havoc with mean?
 40-T: means to destroy okay have you been able to add more to your versions?
 41-Ss: YES

42-T: okay let's see what you have collected this word for example conference what
 43- word has been used with it?
 44-Ss: make commit have hold
 45-T: yeah hold what else can be used what else can we hold for example?
 46-Ss: hold position hold dictionary hold parties hold concerts
 47-T: okay cool
 48-S: teacher attitude for example //
 49-T: yes what was used with attitude?
 50-Ss: rethinking about the attitudes towards
 51-T: okay good any alternatives for attitude have a good attitude toward someone 52-
 for example maybe you can develop an attitude toward someone OKAY
 53- evidence for example yes?
 54-Ss: increasing evidence
 55-T: okay it is in the text for example you have lots of evidence
 56-Ss: great evidence a great deal of evidence it is uncountable right? yes a great it 57-
 says
 58-T: yes weather for example
 59-Ss: weather forecast world weather patterns
 60-T: yes GOOD let's have a look at another one this is used many times
 61-Ss: combat the problems
 62-T: combat the problems GOOD what else can go with this word?
 63-Ss: mortal combat
 64-T: mortal combat COOL is it game or //
 65-Ss: game poem book movie everything face to face combat
 66-T: okay good if you are stressed for example you combat stress another one //
 67-Ss: sophisticated scientific research
 68-T: okay COOL
 69-Ss: sophisticated employers, sophisticated girls advanced more detailed
 70- sophisticated weapons
 71-T: sophisticated weapons very good
 72-S: is sophisticated ideas possible //
 73-Ss: sophisticated appearance sophisticated findings
 74-T: OKAY solutions?
 75-Ss: find solutions develop solutions
 76-T: to bring a solution for example

[Then the teacher had the students reshape their paragraphs.]

After being read the passage, students were able to collect the collocates of the headwords. In lines 61 and 67, for example, they collected “combat” as the collocate of “the problem”, and “sophisticated” as the collocate of “scientific research “. (See also lines 39, 44, 50, 59, and 75.) Furthermore, they were able to retrieve a number of

different collocates from their lexicons in the word expansion stage, which again serves as evidence that they learned what collocation is. It also indicates that learners at upper levels acquire some collocations and when they are in need of these collocations, they can recall them. As in lines 62, 63, 64 and 69, 70, 71, 73, they provided “mortal, face to face” as collocates of “combat” and “employers, girls, weapons, appearance” as the collocates of “sophisticated”.

To sum up, the goal of this session was to have students notice the word combinations in a text they heard and write a similar one using these combinations. Some of the participants already collected word combinations without being told, presumably because they realized the significance of collocations in producing the target language from the first treatment and had the more dominant role in reconstructing the pollution passage than the others, who collected single vocabulary items. The participants easily collected the required collocates to enhance their first version and worked enthusiastically to perform the task. Additionally, their appropriate examples of the collocations in the word-expansion activity revealed that they learned what collocation means.

Transcription of one of the groups for the third treatment session and its interpretation (verb + preposition, noun + preposition, adjective + preposition – correcting the mistakes via concordancing extracts):

In the last treatment session, the participants in the experimental group were divided into two groups. The participants in the first group were delivered handouts consisting of sets of sentences, in which one or two sentences contained deviant usages of some very common words. These words were deliberately chosen because most

students at this level fail to produce them in the appropriate way. The other group were provided with sheets containing concordancing extracts of the target words with their frequent collocates. The students were told to work in twos or threes on the sentences, mark the mistakes and correct them examining the examples in the concordancing extracts. The following set of data will be presented to show to what extent the participants were aware of the adjective + preposition, verb + preposition and noun + preposition type collocations and how they utilized the previous treatments while performing the current task.

[The teacher started the treatment giving brief information about grammatical collocations.]

- 1-T: now listen to me please carefully there are also grammatical collocations what 2-
do we mean by grammatical collocations... grammatically they are used
3- together and you are misunderstood if you do not use the right collocation
4- actually you are familiar with these because you've been learning them for a
5- long time verb + preposition type for example what does it mean? You
6- learned many of them earlier for example phrasal verbs here the verb and
7- another word preposition [writes put on] if you use accidentally another
8- preposition instead of ON the meaning changes completely it means... it
9- leads to misunderstanding you've got to be very careful for example what
10- does it mean?
11-Ss: wear
12-T: put out?
13-Ss: not wear opposite of wear
14-T: the cigarette you put it out so as you see the meaning is completely different 15-
SO you shouldn't be misunderstood in the first collocation lesson remember 16-
some of you used put off weight instead of lose weight perhaps you thought
17- it works because it is the opposite of put on but be careful most of the time 18-
opposite prepositions don't work that way... for example adjective +
19- preposition combination familiar with
20-Ss: interested in obsessed with bored with
21-T: okay GOOD and another group is noun + preposition reason for for example
22- there is no reason for being late this time you use noun + preposition

[the teacher gave the instructions for the following stage and the students

started to work in pairs or in threes to find the mistakes and correct them]

- 23-S1: *where is the mistake okay//*
24-S2: *here it says comment there is nothing like comment with*
25-S3: *in the second sentence it is used as a noun*
26-S2: *it is again noun in the third one abusing comments look there is comment*
27- column *here it is again noun and comment on or about but not with*
28-S1: *okay let's deal with the second one the first one is okay don't we say discuss 29-*
about
30-S3: *yes but there is no about here //*
31-S2: *okay but if we use an object immediately after discuss there must be about I 32-*
am sure about it discuss about the problems right? yes look at the sheet
33-S3: *you are wrong because there isn't a phrase like discuss about either a noun 34-*
clause or a noun
35-S1: *a is wrong then discuss something it must be either a or b if we cannot use 36-*
about with discuss then we will erase this about in the first sentence
37-S2: *yes you are right the third one as she has done everything before I took her*
38- advice [reads the first sentence of the third exercise]
39-S3: *took her advice NO he gave us advice okay here the examples... okay okay b*
40- *is correct advice on on is used with advice*
41-S1: *then c is correct too a must be wrong //*
42-S2: *take advice is possible look there are many... give advice*
43-S1: *okay it is possible as well then all are correct let's have a look at the next one*
44- attitude ... *we already learned it towards is used*
45-S3: *yes brotherly attitude positive attitude all are possible //*
46-S1: *then a and b are correct... here... the examples... attitude to is also possible*
47-S2: *okay how about on is on used //*
48-S3: *yes it is wrong erase on and write towards or to both are okay*
49-S1: *okay absent absent from it says here // isn't it absent at work?*
50-S3: *absent from work it sounds strange yes and absent in school a or c*
51- *is wrong or both //*
52-S2: *but both are possible look absent nephews is also possible it says absent*
53- parent *here*
54-S1: *okay then all are correct*
55-S2: *but absent from is more common it seems... as if from is used for house*
56- school *and in...*
57-S3: *absent in almost all Scottish monarchs yes you are right it is not a place or*
58- *something*
59-S1: *okay let's skip it we have little time*
60-S2: *consider consider of ourselves...sounds strange consider about ourselves*
61- sounds better
62-S3: *consider staying it is okay after consider we use gerund form*
63-S2: *consider your verdict it says here ... and consider the question...hmmm and*
64- noun clauses *no of is used here*
65-S1 *a is wrong then //*

66-S3: interfere in to and with *I am sure about in and with but not to*
67-S2: *right with and in interfere in her life something like get involved and*
68- interfere with her plans *something like disturbing...*
69-S3: *but in c it is something hmmm sexual hmmm*
70-S2: *yes something you don't want but someone hmm disturbing*
71-S1: *okay then b is wrong interfering with or in which one shall we write?*
72-S2: with *I guess it seems to prevent anxiety*

[In the following stages, the students checked their answers with the teacher and they were asked to find the most common collocates of each word in the sets.]

When the performances of the students in this section are examined, it is clear that most students failed to mark the mistakes at once as can be seen in lines 28, 29, 31 and 32 students claimed that “discuss” collocates with “about” and insisted on it. In line 35, it is obvious from their negotiation that they resolved the problem, by looking at concordancing extracts. Similarly, in line 60, one of the students stated that “consider” collocates with “about “ although it does not, which are instances of negative L1 transfer, because in Turkish these two verbs are preceded by a preposition, ”hakkında”, the literal equivalent of which is “about” in English. (See also lines 50 and 61.) Furthermore, although students receive more explicit instruction on verb +preposition, adjective + preposition and noun + preposition when compared to lexical collocations (see lines, 4, 5, 67 and 68) as it was clear in lines 12 and 13 most students still think that opposites of such prepositional phrases have the opposite meaning. For example, here, when the teacher asked the meaning of “put out”, the students thinking that it is the opposite of “put on”, came up with responses “not wear” and “ the opposite of wear “. Nevertheless, they were all good at correcting the mistakes looking at the concordancing sheets. Additionally, some students did not neglect lexical collocations while working on grammatical type: they tried to find collocates which were not prepositions even before

they were asked to do so by their teacher. For example, in lines 26 and 27, one of the students informed her friends about the lexical collocates of “comment” such as “abusing” and “column”. (See lines 45, 52, 57, 62, 63, 67 and 68 also.)

In summary, in this part of the qualitative data analysis, verbal processes of the participants were interpreted to see whether they developed any awareness towards collocations. Although there was no conclusive evidence, there were indications that they developed awareness to an extent that they could recognize and categorize the collocations they dealt with during the treatments.

The Analysis of Interviews Held with the Experimental Group Instructors

As the last step of the qualitative data analysis, with the purpose of discovering whether students developed awareness towards collocations, three interviews were held with the experimental group instructors two months following the post-test. (Although there were four teachers in this group, one of them could not be interviewed since she was absent from school because of her health problems.)

The questions explored in the interviews were:

1. Did you use to teach vocabulary in collocations before the treatments?
2. How have the treatments affected your attitudes towards collocations?
3. Based on your observation, are there any indications that students recognize collocations in the texts they deal with in classroom or do they show any tendency to use the words with their collocates?
4. Have you done anything additional to help students cope with collocations?

Additional questions were asked to the participants according to their responses to interview questions as the interview progressed.

The first question was asked to discover whether the experimental group instructors were already aware of the significance of collocations in teaching vocabulary and their attitudes towards collocations before the treatments, if any, changed, and whether it was due to the treatment or not. The purpose of the second question was to learn in what way the treatments were utilized by the instructors. The third question was asked to discover whether the treatments affected learners' attitudes toward vocabulary learning. The last question was asked to see whether teachers who taught vocabulary in collocations in the treatments found it useful and developed their own techniques.

Interview Findings:

The first question directed to the participant teachers and their responses were as follows:

1. Dear colleague, did you use to teach vocabulary in collocations before the treatments ?

P1: Well, I always highlight fixed ones but not teach words in phrases. I draw students attention, for example, to the difference between have and make breakfast or those... hmmm get, make, do, or have phrases but not as in the treatments you prepared.

P2: Actually, until last year I did not even know what collocation meant. But last year there was a conference in METU. I attended one of the sessions on collocations. It was striking. We were also given collocation dictionaries. Since then, I have been trying to highlight important collocations but without mentioning the types. Yours was more systematic.

P3: I used to teach grammatical collocations phrasal verbs without knowing that they are grammatical collocations. But as to the lexical collocations, both yes and no.

I: how, for example?

P3: In the syllabus, there are weeks allotted to make and do collocations, for example, I have always supported my students with more examples or prepared extra- handouts.

The responses to the first question revealed that the second participant seemed to be more familiar with teaching vocabulary in collocations and dealing with collocation aspect of vocabulary more intensively in his classes while the other two did not do much explicit teaching on lexical collocations before the treatments, merely focusing on phrasal verbs, some fixed forms and make, do, get and have collocations in the framework of the syllabus they were provided with or the coursebook they followed.

The second interview question and responses to the question were as follows:

2. How have the treatments affected your attitudes towards collocations?

I: Then you mean the treatments have not affected your attitudes towards collocations?

P1: NO no, of course they have affected my attitudes. After the treatments there was a chapter in the book, which focused on collocations. I wish there were more about collocations in the course book I know they are really very important our students are not good enough at speaking or writing. I liked all the activities in the treatments, sometimes I use some of them in reading classes. And the administration invited a guy he taught some activities as well. They are also useful I think.

P2: My attitudes did not change any since I already had positive attitudes. Actually, I had more positive attitudes... I had the chance to add some more activities to my repertoire. The concordancing activity was interesting for example, students do not have sophisticated dictionaries, some of them asked me the site they can find the program I would like to use it to prepare my own materials, in fact...

P3: First of all, I have learned that we should teach words in collocations as much as possible. Our students' main problem is not grammar they can live on grammar until the end of their lives. Their main problem is vocabulary and to express themselves using the right words. But in their compositions, there are lots of mistakes what I noticed in the last writing exam is most of their errors were collocational.

Based on the responses to the second question, it can be inferred that all the teachers had a gain from the treatments. The second participant, who already was conscious about the significance of collocations in teaching vocabulary, reported that he had the opportunity to expand his repertoire in terms of collocation teaching activities. In the same line, the other two respondents also seemed to have been using the techniques employed to teach collocations in the treatments. All the three reported on the significance of collocations and how they developed awareness either after the current experiment or a conference held in a state university one year before the experiment. Consequently, the treatments affected all the participants' attitudes positively and enhanced their teaching in terms of collocations.

The third question and the responses from the participants were as follows:

3. Based on your observation, are there any indications that students recognize collocations in the texts they deal with in classroom or do they show any tendency to use the words with their collocates?

P1: My students, this year, are not so eager to learn but there are a few students I can say that they benefited from the treatments they direct questions about collocations or when I ask them to find two or more common words used with those key words in reading passages they don't skip it. But your treatments worked I did not need to introduce any more in the collocation chapter they already knew more than the book provided them.

P2: Sure they do. We do that vocabulary expansion activity very often and they seem to be interested in collocations in all classes even in grammar classes.

P3: Yes, I hear questions about collocations, sometimes some students are more curious than you desire them to be. I like enthusiastic students of course. Anyway, I always make them work on collocations don't worry and they are aware of the importance of collocations. Even their questions show how conscious they are. We play vocabulary games at the end of each week, they themselves already added the collocation category for example.

It is evident from the responses to the third question that all participant students dealt with collocations or received further treatments, but those who were taught by the second interviewee were reported to have developed more awareness towards collocations either because of the treatments or because they had a more conscious teacher while mostly more enthusiastic students were reported willing to work on collocations and developed awareness towards collocations by the first and third

participants. To sum up, two of the respondents attributed the interest of their students in collocations to their willingness and enthusiasm. In all groups teachers more or less integrated collocations into their classes having their students work on them and most students were reported to have developed awareness towards collocations.

The last question and the responses from the participants were as follows:

4. Have you done anything additional to help students cope with collocations?

P1: Right, well, I am trying to use the activities I have learned from you and the guy they invited but just for a minority in my classroom! Perhaps next year, with more eager students, I can do much more...

P2: We attended a workshop last month, I learned two new activities, I have already adapted one of them to a reading text it worked. The students enjoyed it and learned the collocations easily.

P3: For the time being, I am using the activities you prepared and two more we learned in the workshop last month. It is difficult to create such activities. Thanks to you.

The responses to the last questions indicate that all the three participant instructors as well as employing the activities introduced in the treatment sessions, have been using additional activities, adapting them to their teaching. They also seemed to be eager to learn new techniques and activities.

In summary, based on the overall responses of the participants, it can be deduced that most participant students who are eager to learn have developed awareness to some extent, that is, they are reported to have been asking questions, finding collocates of the headwords in their courses and playing games incorporating collocation

aspect of vocabulary. Additionally, the participant teachers have reported that they are teaching vocabulary employing the techniques they have learned before.

Conclusion

This study was designed to investigate whether explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations with different techniques develops awareness in students towards collocations and whether it has any enhancing effects on retention of vocabulary.

To answer the first question qualitative data collected through interviews and transcriptions of verbal processes of the participants in one classroom in the experimental group were relied on. The first set of interview data revealed that all the treatments were conducted in the desired way and nothing interfering with the processes happened. The second set of data, gathered from the verbal processes of the participants, although not conclusive enough, served as indirect evidence that students developed awareness to the extent that they were able to recognize, categorize collocations, and use them in summarizing a text in the course of treatments. The third set of data, collected via three interviews with three experimental group instructors two months after the treatments, also served as indirect evidence that most participant students assigned to the treatment conditions developed awareness towards collocations in that they were able to ask questions about collocations, find collocates of the words they dealt with in their usual courses or integrate collocation aspect of vocabulary into the word games. Additionally, the interviews revealed that the participant teachers developed positive attitudes towards teaching vocabulary in collocations and continued to deal with collocations employing the techniques they learned.

To answer the second question, whether explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations enhances retention, quantitative data gathered from the vocabulary retention test results were relied on. The scores from the pre-test for the experimental and control group were compared, which indicated that the groups were equal before the treatments. As a next step, within group vocabulary gains based on the pre-test and post-test results were evaluated and it was found out that both groups were affected positively from the corresponding treatments they received. The between group vocabulary gains were also compared, indicating that the experimental group, which received explicit instruction in collocations, retained far more words than the control group, which received traditional vocabulary treatment. In addition, the effectiveness of the techniques employed in the three treatments were assessed comparing the scores gathered from the corresponding subtests and the translation technique found to be more effective than the other two, dictaglossing technique and using concordancing extracts to correct mistakes.

To sum up, in this chapter, data gathered from the pre- and post-test, interviews and some segments of verbal processes of the participants were analyzed and presented. In the next chapter, the findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, suggestions for further studies and overall conclusions will be presented.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, develops awareness in students towards collocations and whether it has any enhancing effects on retention of vocabulary when compared with teaching vocabulary with traditional techniques. Additionally, this study explored which of the three techniques used in teaching collocations generated better results.

With the purpose to provide answers for the research questions, the required data were gathered through a vocabulary retention test, interviews, and analysis of verbal processes of the participants throughout the three treatment sessions.

In the following sections of this chapter, the findings, pedagogical implications, and limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, suggestions for further studies and overall conclusions are presented.

Discussion of the Findings

The findings from the data analysis in Chapter 4 are discussed in two subsequent sections in terms of the research questions to be answered. To answer the first question, to what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations raises students' awareness towards collocations, the interviews with participant teachers and verbal processes of the participant students throughout the treatments were relied on. The findings of the verbal processes of the learners did not provide conclusive answers;

however, they were interesting in terms of their consistency with the findings of previous collocation studies, which will be discussed in the following section. All the tasks for the treatments were designed to develop awareness in students towards some types of grammatical and lexical collocations, and the analysis of verbal processes showed that the participants developed awareness to the extent that they could recognize and categorize collocations, and find collocates for the targeted words. The interviews revealed that learners, when introduced to vocabulary with more emphasis on collocations, developed awareness towards collocations to the extent that they were able to ask or come up with collocates of the key words they encounter in reading passages, and deal with collocations in the usual course of their English classes. Additionally, although not directly related to the purpose of the study, some of the interview questions explored whether the treatments developed any awareness in teachers as well. As teachers play the most significant role in developing consciousness, those who already know the significance of collocations need to know various techniques to draw their students' attention to collocations, or those who have limited knowledge need to be enlightened about collocations. The responses of three experimental group instructors revealed that they have developed more positive attitudes towards teaching vocabulary in collocations and have been dealing with collocation aspect of vocabulary more than they did before using the techniques introduced in this study or adapting other techniques.

As for the second research question, whether teaching vocabulary in collocations enhances retention of vocabulary, it was answered satisfactorily in the light of quantitative data gathered from the vocabulary retention test, which was administered

one week before and after the treatment sessions. The vocabulary gains of both experimental and control groups were calculated and compared with each other to see which treatment type yielded better results. The analysis of quantitative data revealed that participants who received vocabulary instruction in collocations with different techniques retained more words than those who received traditional instruction of vocabulary as isolated items, which can be interpreted in two ways. It may either support the claims of scholars who believe that collocation serves as memory aid, or variously the actual finding may be ascribed to the techniques used in the experimental classes, which provided more repetition for the target items.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The findings of this study indicate that students have difficulty in dealing with collocations, which shows consistency with a great body of research conducted previously. As revealed by other studies (e.g., Martin, 1984; Farghal and Obiedat, 1995; Gitsaki, 1996; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Bonk, 2000; Conzett, 2000; Huang, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003), although learners develop knowledge of collocations to some extent, and it increases steadily as the level of proficiency increases, it lags far behind their knowledge of single vocabulary items. In this study, the analysis of some segments from the verbal processes of the participants has shown that although the students have a good stock of words, since their attention has not been directed to collocations, they have mostly failed to re-combine elements to produce the targeted collocations, and they produced combinations such as, “eating irregularities” instead of “eating disorders”. Therefore, for teachers of EFL the highlighting of collocations should be as important as teaching vocabulary individually.

It seems to be the only way to enhance the active use of language, and to help the learners construct lexically acceptable sentences rather than making sentences full of unnatural-sounding elements or grammatical mistakes with simple vocabulary.

In a number of previous studies, researchers have investigated and identified the strategies used by the learners of EFL. The analyses of the responses of the participants on the pre-test and the transcriptions of the verbal processes have revealed that similar strategies were employed by the participants of this study. The students either on the pre-test or during the treatments resorted to overgeneralization and analogy, expanding a feature or form to a different contextual use in the target language with phrases such as, “put off weight” “obsessed to” rather than “lose weight”, and “obsessed with”. Literal translation was another mostly relied on strategy, which led to errors of L1 interference. Along this line, most participants used phrases such as “destroy/ damage her body”, “heart crisis”, “drink a drink”, “give weight” instead of “abuse her body” “heart failure”, “take a drink”, and “lose weight”. There were traces of derivativeness as well. The use of “destroyable eating habits” and “seeming bones” instead of “disastrous eating habits” and “protruding bones” may serve as examples of this strategy. Assumed synonymity and paraphrase and circumlocution were the other two most commonly used strategies. Although the participants knew many synonymous words, they looked for a synonym or a near-synonym, which resulted in production of odd phrases, such as “voice pollution”, “battle problems”, “suit the profile”, “earn respectability” instead of “noise pollution “, “combat problems”, “fit the profile “, and “gain respectability”. This can be attributed to the fact that they were not fully aware of the selectional restrictions of these words because of the type of instructional input they had and bilingual or less sophisticated

monolingual dictionaries with limited contextual distinctions they relied on. Similarly, most participants in this study widely employed paraphrasing while performing the translation task to convey the intended message with phrases such as “treat her body badly”, “ with a bigger and bigger ambition“, “ to take control of her appetite ” rather than “ abuse her body“, “ with growing enthusiasm” and “to keep her appetite in check”, which resulted in grammatical mistakes. Taking into consideration these strategies employed by learners would be beneficial for instructors, textbook developers, and course designers in providing solutions for learners’ problems and facilitating teaching collocations in EFL settings.

Some researchers who hold the belief that collocations are of great significance for both learners and instructors of EFL find instructors helpless in developing materials and techniques to teach collocations and encouraging student autonomy, and as a result, some have focused on development of dictionaries (e.g., Benson et al., 1997) while others have designed concordancer programs (e.g., Sinclair, 1991). One of the findings related to the use of concordancing extracts and dictionaries in teaching collocations generated consistent results with their beliefs. In the last treatment session of this study, the instructors confronted the experimental group participants with more naturally occurring contexts of the targeted collocations in concordancing extracts. As a result, these students could easily find the frequent collocates of those words and practically corrected the mis-collocations. However, the participants in the control group, having less sophisticated monolingual dictionaries, could find only a few collocates of the targeted words, had to rely solely on their teachers explanations, and could not achieve so well as the experimental group on the post-test. Therefore, teachers of EFL can guide

their students to own dictionaries which present more naturally occurring data or make use of available concordancing extracts.

Most researchers who have conducted studies on collocations have labeled grammatical collocations less problematic than lexical collocations, since they have been mostly focused on by instructors. However, the findings of this study have revealed that there is no superiority between these two types in terms of difficulty. On the contrary, when explicitly taught, although grammatical collocations are easily learned, they are not as retainable as lexical collocations, presumably because grammatical collocations require more recycling for long-term retention. Therefore, both types should be treated equally in EFL settings but providing students with more recycling exercises or tasks.

Limitations of the Study

The study was conducted with 160 students of upper intermediate proficiency level, enrolled in the preparatory program at Ankara University School of Foreign Languages under the supervision of their regular course teachers. The students who were in other two classrooms at upper intermediate level participated in the process of piloting the vocabulary retention test; hence, this study engaged only one fifth of the total population of the students enrolled in the program, excluding intermediate and low intermediate classes with only three techniques in a short period. However, collocations are not only problematic for upper level students. On the other hand, more time is required for the implementation of a more detailed research design, which incorporates more techniques in a longer period. Therefore, this study would have yielded better results if it had been applied to students of varying proficiencies, that is, involving all the students in the study to set a holistic picture of collocational problems of each level

students and raise their awareness towards collocation in the early stages. Thus, it would also enlighten course designers in that they could develop courses incorporating collocation aspect of vocabulary based on the findings of the study, taking into consideration collocational problems and requirements of all the learners.

Another limitation of the study is that the interviews were conducted only with participant instructors after each treatment session and two months after the treatments with experimental group instructors, and they were solely relied on to answer the first research question. However, the participant students in the experimental group could have been interviewed after each treatment session and two months following the last treatment to discover to what extent they utilized what they learned in the treatments, and whether any change occurred in their attitudes towards new vocabulary.

Additionally, one last consideration in terms of the limitation of this study is that the vocabulary retention test was administered following the last treatment session. It could have been given immediately after the last treatment session and the same test could have been administered as the delayed post-test two weeks later, which would generate a clearer picture of how this type of instruction affects both short-term and long-term retention of vocabulary.

Implications for Further Research

This study investigated whether explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocation with different techniques develops awareness in students towards collocations and whether it has any enhancing effects on the retention of vocabulary. The results of this research may be validated with longitudinal research procedures, involving more students of varying proficiency levels and with a wide range of techniques. In this study,

the effectiveness of three techniques were also compared and translation technique was found to be more effective than the other two. With such a research design, the appropriateness and effectiveness of various techniques for teaching grammatical and lexical collocations can also be investigated. For example, semantic mapping can be used as a technique in pre-reading, pre-writing, and pre-listening stages to draw learners' attention to lexical collocations, on the other hand, grammatical collocations can be taught with a grammatical approach, and the effectiveness of both instruction types can be compared.

Although several strategies used by the participants have been elicited in this study, more can be explored by further research and those which are found useful can be taught in EFL settings to learners who do not use them. Additionally, future research may concentrate on the errors produced by Turkish learners of English as a foreign language. An analysis of their collocational errors would not only reveal their weaknesses in acquiring and learning English collocations but also shed light on what strategies they use to overcome this problem. Thus, it would provide insights for determining the approaches and methods for teaching collocations.

Several research studies have indicated that there are different acquisitional stages for word order, morphemes, and syntactic rules among learners from different language backgrounds. There may be similar acquisitional sequences for different types of grammatical and lexical collocations. For example, Gitsaki (1996) found that Greek students from different proficiency levels revealed strong differences in the development of collocational knowledge. Similarly, future researchers may work on what stages are more appropriate for Turkish students of EFL to learn or acquire particular types of

collocations, which would help course book and syllabus designers to determine what types of collocations to be focused on at specific proficiency levels.

Additionally, it is obvious that there are dialectical differences between American English and British English, and this issue can be tackled by future researchers. They may explore these differences for very frequent collocations of frequent words, which may be useful for coursebook developers as well as instructors to develop an awareness in students that there are dialectical differences not only with single words but also with the collocates of these words.

Conclusion

This study has revealed that explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations with different techniques develops awareness in students towards collocations to the extent that they can recognize collocations and categorize them, ask questions related to collocations, find collocates for the headwords in the texts they encounter in their actual courses, as well as finding collocates for the headwords in these texts to expand their vocabulary. It has also showed that students, when taught vocabulary in collocations, retain more words than they do when they are taught vocabulary as isolated items. Additionally, in this study, the three techniques used in the treatment session were compared and the translation technique was found more effective that is, the words taught with translation technique were retained better than those taught with dictaglossing and error correction with concordancing extracts.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

VOCABULARY RETENTION TEST

Name & Number:

Class & Age:

Subtest 1:

Choose the best alternative for the blanks. Some of the blanks do not require a preposition, for those you may mark the blank choice.

1-He refused to comment ----- the problem.

- a) on b)for c)--- d)to e)at

2-What is the reason ----- Hong Kong's air pollution?

- a)of b)for c)off d)to e)on

3-Can we meet to discuss ----- the policy changes?

- a)about b)on c)--- d)to e)for

4-Graduates should consider ----- their career goals.

- a)about b)for c)on d)of e)---

5- She doesn't let anything interfere ----- her child's education.

- a)with b) against c)----- d)in e)of

6- The new design is far superior ----- the old one.

- a)than b)with c)--- d)for e)to

7- I was annoyed ----- John because of his recent behavior.

- a)about b)for c)with d)of e)to

8- He raised ----- a question interrupting the spokesperson's talk.

- a)up b)at c)on d)----- e)with

9- He entered ----- the opposite lane by mistake.

- a)in b)into c)at d)of e)---

10- Anyone absent ----- work has to get a medical certificate.

- a)from b)at c)of d)---- e)with

11- I would like your advice ----- how to keep fit.

a)for b)on c)with d)----- e)in

12- Some people have a very poor attitude ----- work.

a)towards b)of c)for d)on e)with

13-In some universities more than 2000 students are enrolled ----- the same course.

a)at b)----- c)in d) with e)to

14- They want to get a job ----- the earliest possible opportunity.

a)at b)in c)on d)with e)----

15-24% of the subjects claimed that they needed help ----- the English speaking skill.

a)on b)with c)for d)at e)about

Subtest 2

Read the article and fill in the blank spaces with a suitable word.

Deadly Feast and Famine (Newsweek/ March 7, 1983)

Part1

In a grisly way, Americans are by now almost accustomed to the deaths of their best-loved rock stars and entertainers from **drug**-----.(1). Hendrix. Joplin. Presley. Belushi. But when pop singer Karen Carpenter, 32, died suddenly last month of unexplained **heart** ----- (2), the reaction was stunned disbelief. By most accounts, Carpenter seldom even ----- (3) a drink. But like a -----(4) **number of** other seemingly wholesome young women, she had been -----(5) **her body** in a different way. Her addiction: the bizarre, self-imposed form of starvation called an anorexia nervosa.

Carpenter, who **became obsessed** ----- (6) her weight at least 12 years ago, ----- (7) **the traditional profile** of an anorexic: a talented and ambitious young white woman from a middle-class home. But doctors report they are now also seeing other kinds of patients with food disorder, including a scattering of men, blacks and young children, and many more low-income victims. Anorexia isn't the only such illness. Almost as devastating is bulimia, whose victims gorge on food and then violently purge themselves. Indeed, the diseases- which are closely related - can have disastrous **medical** ----- (8) And the latest research indicates that physiology, as well as psychology, may cause the problem.

abuse

Part 2:

Attention: For years anorexia and bulimia were secrets that few victims -----(9) **out of the closet**, but lately the diseases have ----- (10) **a certain respectability** that leads more people to seek treatment. Jane Fonda admitted to having forced herself to vomit after meals during the early days of her career. And Pat Boone's oldest daughter, Cherry O'Neill, 28, has just written a book, "Starving for Attention," about her grim, 10-year battle with both anorexia and bulimia.

At 16, O'Neill was slightly plump, weighing about 140 pounds. Eager to please her parents and ----- (11) **an example for** her three younger sisters, she began to -----

(12) **weight** with extraordinary zeal-and found she couldn't stop. Wearing extra layers of clothing to hide her -----(13) **bones**, Cherry exercised six hours a day and stole her mother's diet pills to **keep her appetite** ----- (14) **check**. Eventually, she got down to 90 pounds.

Then Cherry's eating habits ----- (15) **more bizarre**. Bingeing followed by massive -doses of laxatives became a relentless pattern, culminating in what she considers her most humiliating moment: Dan O'Neill (now her husband) found her devouring scraps from her family's dinner that had been left in the dog's dish. After 10 years of suffering and another disastrous drop to 80 pounds, Cherry finally got psychiatric help and has been able to stabilize her life-and diet. She now weighs 114 pounds. As for her eight-month-old daughter, Brittany, Cherry says:"I want her to feel good about herself as she gets older because of who she is and not how she looks."

Grisly: adv. horrible, dreadful / **Bizarre**:adj. strange, unusual / **Gorge on**: v. eat piggyishly/

Seemingly:adv. according to outward appearance / **Zeal**: n. Passion / **Grim**: adj. horrible, merciless / **Wholesome**: adj. healthy; improving the moral or physical well-being

Anorexia nervosa: mental disorder characterized by avoidance of food and compulsive weight control that sometimes leads to self-starvation / **Relentless**: adj. severe /

Purge:v.defecate, empty the bowels

Subtest 3

Fill in the blanks with synonyms of the words in parentheses

POLLUTION

1-Some countries are currently rethinking their ----- **towards** the environment. (policy)

2-Governments are now beginning to ----- **these problems**. (fight /struggle)

3- Air, ----- and ----- **pollution** are continually becoming more of a ----- to the environment. (two other types of pollution / danger)

4-There is increasing evidence that the **ozone** ----- is slowly being endangered by the ever-growing ----- **of carbon monoxide**, which, in turn has begun to ----- havoc with world weather patterns. (growing/covering/ product/ ----- havoc with = destroy)

5-Researchers should immediately ----- **solutions** to this problem. (find /come up with /supply/discover)

6-There are also **conferences** being ----- on a **world** ----- . (conduct/ base, plane)

7-The issue requires more ----- **scientific research**. (intricate, complicated)

8-Some authorities believe that even the burning of wood and charcoal in fireplaces and barbeques can ----- significant quantities of **soot** into the air.(let/give out , release /allow to go)

9-What pollutants ----- most **harm**? (cause)

10-We have organized to ----- **awareness** of pollution and help communities take back the commons from those acting like bullies. (cause to increase)

Appendix B

Sample Lesson Plans

TASK 1

Activity: Translation & reading focusing on collocations

Duration of the lesson: 90 minutes

Level of the students: Intermediate to advanced

Number of students: 20- 25

Objectives of the lesson: Learn in collaboration with others, to identify collocations in the given text, categorize them and summarize the article using the newly learned collocations

Materials: An article on anorexia nervosa, handouts for translation, dictionaries

Procedures to be followed

*To introduce collocations, a reading text is used. Before having the students read the text, deliver the handouts containing Turkish sentences focusing on the targeted collocations.

*Ask students to work in groups of four and try to translate the Turkish sentences into English.

*Allow them to work on it for ten minutes, when they finish, call students from different groups to write on the board their group versions.

*Deliver the article, and assign them to read it and with their peers in their groups reshape their translations. 5 minutes later call three or more students from different groups and have them compare their first versions with the current ones orally or writing on the board.

*Direct their attention how important to notice word combinations or collocations while speaking, writing even while reading. Teach them what collocation is giving examples:

Collocation or word combinability is common in all languages. Some words conventionally attract others. There are several types of word combinations ranging from phrasal verbs to idioms. They do not need to occur in just two words, more than two words can go with each other as well.

*Draw a table on the board with categories of N+N, Adv. + Adj, N+V, V+N, Adj.+N, V+Adv, Adv+V and add an extra column for more than two word combinations and write your examples in the required column.

N+N-information gap, diet pills, drug abuse, food disorder

Adv+Adj-bitterly disappointed, slightly plump, closely related

N+V-the gap widens

V+N- commit suicide, shed weight, gain respectability, seek treatment, abuse one's body

Adj+N-high temperature, extraordinary zeal, protruding bones, deadly feast, growing number, medical consequences

Adv+ Verb-to wound somebody deeply, to be deeply wounded

Combinations with more than two words: pose a threat to world, bring out of the closet, set an example for someone, starve for attention

- *Ask them to find combinations from the text and complete the table together.
- Have the students summarize the text orally using some of these word combinations.
- *Ask them to summarize the article using the newly learned collocations.

TASK:2

Objectives: This upper level listening and writing task is provided as a means for students to learn and notice collocations in a text they hear.

Activity: Listening- dictaglossing with chunking exercise

Level: Upper Intermediate

Duration of the lesson: 45 minutes

Materials: A text on pollution

Procedures:

- Start off the lesson by having students talk about pollution, ask them what words they expect to find in a passage about pollution. Write some of them on the board. Divide the class into groups of four. Before starting to read the passage, instruct them to concentrate on the words and compile them for later use in reconstructing the text as groups.
- Read the extract about pollution aloud. If you think it is necessary, read it one more time.
- Give them 7 minutes to work in collaboration with their peers in their groups to reconstruct the passage with the words they have compiled.
- Have them read their versions aloud.
- Quickly discuss the idea of language chunks and how useful learning or noticing these combinations can be especially when writing.

- Tell them that they are going to retry to construct their passages or reshape them compiling the words that are used before and after the words they have written down while listening the passage for the last time, you can also guide them writing some of the words they have collected. For example:
- Ask them what word they have heard before or after “conference “

hold , attend or have ?

Similarly,

What words have you heard before and after “havoc” ?

create, play, cause / **havoc** / with, on something? Probably they will not be able to respond well enough since they have just concentrated on the single words.

Therefore, assign them to focus on the collocates of the words they have compiled this way.

And read the passage one more time.

- Alternatively, you can direct learners’ attention to collocations by writing some questions on the board. Thus, they can focus on some key collocations while listening to the passage for the last time and in the light of these newly collected combinations they can reshape their passages. For example:

1-Which word combinations express the idea that there are problems with our world?

Possible answers:

Water, air and noise pollution /ozone layer is being slowly threatened / increasing output of carbon monoxide

2-Which word combinations express governments' reaction to these problems?

Possible answers:

beginning to combat these problems /increasingly regulating industry / develop new solutions / employ sophisticated research / hold conferences

3- What words indicate that output of carbon monoxide destroy weather patterns?

...play havoc with...

After reading the passage , give them 7 more minutes to work on their second versions.

- Ask them to read their new versions aloud. Draw their attention to the chunks and write on the board the chunks they have compiled.
- Expand vocabulary providing one or two collocates of the head words or you may also encourage them to find alternative collocates.

Examples:

to hold conferences / meetings / seminars / parties

to hold / attend / have **conferences**

develop / **an attitude** towards / to have a positive/ friendly **attitude**

increasing / growing / a great body of / a great deal of **evidence**

play havoc with sth : destroy (Rain has continued to play havoc with sporting events.)

create / cause **havoc** (Strikes will cause havoc on the countries economy.)

weather patterns (what the weather is usually like in a particular area)/ forecast / conditions / map

combat problems / inflation / crime / racism / mortal **combat** / unarmed **combat** / to be in **combat**

sophisticated scientific research / dictionary/ equipment / weapons /style / American / person

do / a great deal of / a growing body of / **research**

develop solutions / habits come up with/ find/ **solutions**

become threat **to environment** / **crops** / **make a** threat **agaist somebody** / **death** / **bomb** threat

TASK:3

Activity: correcting mistakes via concordancing extracts and expanding vocabulary providing the head words with other possible collocates

Procedures:

*Talk about grammatical collocations: *Some nouns, adjectives, verbs attract particular prepositions in English, which are called grammatical collocations, and when you use inappropriate prepositions with them you may lead to misunderstandings or your utterances sound odd. Therefore to avoid this, it is important to notice such collocations:*

Verb + preposition combination (e.g. put forward, put on, come up with, starve for)

Adjective + preposition combination (e.g. interested in, bored with, excellent at, familiar with)

Noun + preposition combination (e. g. interest in, reason for, reliance on)

*Have the students work in pairs.

*Give each pair the worksheet and the sheet of concordance extracts.

*Assign them to work on the sets of sentences to mark the mistakes and correct them looking at the extracts.

*Inform them that some sets do not contain any wrong usage.

*Additionally, have them find two similar or parallel sentences to those in their sheets.

*Check their answers orally, write on the board the head words and two more collocates they have found.

For example,

Comment **on/ about** sth to **make** comments **on/ about** sth comment **column** in a newspaper **harsh/ fair** comments.

*Have them think about one very funny example for each set focusing on those which they have corrected.

*Call someone's name and ask him / her to utter his / her example, and when he/ she succeeds he/ she calls someone else's name. It goes on without repeating the same collocation until they use all the newly learned collocations in sentences.

Appendix C

Materials Used in the Treatment Sessions

Materials used in the first treatment session

- 1- Kardeşlerine örnek olabilmek için artan bir hevesle kilo vermeye başladı.
- 2- Bol giysilerle çıkık kemiklerini gizlemeye çalışırdı.
- 3- İştahını kontrol altında tutabilmek için herhangi birşey yapmadı ve yeme alışkanlıkları giderek tuhaflaştı.
- 4- Yeme düzensizlikleri yıkıcı tıbbi sonuçlara neden olabilir.
- 5- Sayıtı giderek artan birçok ev hanımı gibi Mary de kilosuyla ilgili takıntılı hale gelmişti.
- 6- Ünlü manken formda kalabilmek için vücudunu farklı bir şekilde kötüye kullanıyordu.
- 7- Neredeyse hepimiz bir çok gencin uygunsuz madde kullanımına bağlı ölümlerine alışmışız.
- 8- Brad nadiren içki içerdi.
- 9- Başbakanın geçen hafta kalp yetmezliğinden ölmesinin ardından bir seçim düzenlendi.
- 10- Eşleri tarafından uygunsuz davranışlara maruz kalan birçok kadın sırlarını ortalığa döktü.

Deadly Feast and Famine (Newsweek/ March 7, 1983)

Part1

In a grisly way, Americans are by now almost accustomed to the deaths of their best-loved rock stars and entertainers from drug abuse. Hendrix. Joplin. Presley. Belushi. But when pop singer Karen Carpenter, 32, died suddenly last month of unexplained heart failure, the reaction was stunned disbelief. By most accounts, Carpenter seldom even took a drink. But like a growing number of other seemingly wholesome young women, she had been abusing her body in a different way. Her addiction: the bizarre, self-imposed form of starvation called an anorexia nervosa.

Carpenter, who became obsessed with her weight at least 12 years ago, fits the traditional profile of an anorexic: a talented and ambitious young white woman from a middle-class home. But doctors report they are now also seeing other kinds of patients with food disorder, including a scattering of men, blacks and young children, and many more low-income victims. Anorexia isn't the only such illness. Almost as devastating is bulimia, whose victims gorge on food and then violently purge themselves. Indeed, the diseases- which are closely related - can have disastrous medical consequences. And the latest research indicates that physiology, as well as psychology, may cause the problem.

Part 2:

Attention: For years anorexia and bulimia were secrets that few victims brought out of the closet, but lately the diseases have gained a certain respectability that leads

more people to seek treatment. Jane Fonda admitted to having forced herself to vomit after meals during the early days of her career. And Pat Boone's oldest daughter, Cherry O'Neill, 28, has just written a book, "Starving for Attention," about her grim, 10-year battle with both anorexia and bulimia.

At 16, O'Neill was slightly plump, weighing about 140 pounds. Eager to please her parents and set an example for her three younger sisters, she began to shed weight with extraordinary zeal-and found she couldn't stop. Wearing extra layers of clothing to hide her protruding bones, Cherry exercised six hours a day and stole her mother's diet pills to keep her appetite in check. Eventually, she got down to 90 pounds.

Then Cherry's eating habits grew more bizarre. Bingeing followed by massive doses of laxatives became a relentless pattern, culminating in what she considers her most humiliating moment: Dan O'Neill (now her husband) found her devouring scraps from her family's dinner that had been left in the dog's dish. After 10 years of suffering and another disastrous drop to 80 pounds, Cherry finally got psychiatric help and has been able to stabilize her life-and diet. She now weighs 114 pounds. As for her eight-month-old daughter, Brittany, Cherry says:"I want her to feel good about herself as she gets older because of who she is and not how she looks."

Materials used in the second treatment session:

Pollution

Western countries are currently rethinking their attitudes towards the environment. Water, air and noise pollution are continually becoming more of a threat to the environment. Further, there is increasing evidence that the ozone layer is being slowly threatened by the ever-increasing output of carbon monoxide which, in turn, has begun to play havoc with world weather patterns. El Nino is just one example of these changes to our environment.

Governments are now beginning to combat these problems with a series of different measures. They are increasingly regulating industry and employing sophisticated scientific research to develop new solutions to the threat of pollutants. Recently, noise pollution has also begun to be noticed, as it has become increasingly difficult to escape the noise of the city. There are also conferences being held on a world level to combat these serious problems. Working together, governments hope to soon find solutions.

The pollution passage and some of the questions were retrieved from the internet site (by Kenneth Beara), <http://esl.about.com/od/vocabularylessonplans/a/chunk.htm>,

and have been adjusted to dictaglossing technique by me.

Materials used in the third treatment session:

One sentence in each set contains a mistake find it and supply the correct one.

- 1-
 - a) White House officials declined to **comment** with the report.
 - b) Casey made some **comments**, but his mind was busy as he considered the matter.
 - c) He was fined for making abusive **comments** to the referee.

- 2-
 - a) We wanted to **discuss** about the fate of the nation's homeless.
 - b) They don't want to **discuss** our athletic failures. Don't mention.
 - c) Police yesterday refused to **discuss** how detectives failed to recognise Abbie.

- 3-
 - a) As she's done everything before, I took her **advice**
 - b) He gave us **advice** on improving our eye co-ordination
 - c) Large numbers of adolescent mothers are seeking **advice** on caregiving skills.

- 4-
 - a) With what **attitude** toward the gods does the play leave you?
 - b) And this was the brotherly **attitude** which I thought was very nice.
 - c) You could call them ancestor spirits. Their **attitude** on humans is friendly and fatherly.

- 5-
 - a) Outline your proposal at the **earliest** possible time.
 - b) Please try to call us on the **earliest** convenient time,
 - c) She rose from her sickbed on the very **earliest** opportunity and struggled to join him,

- 6-
 - a) You should have called in before being **absent** from work on March 22.
 - b) She invited the **absent** nephews to the coming family reunion.
 - c) Students who are continually **absent** in school will be recorded.

- 7-
 - a) We cannot **consider** of ourselves educated if we do not read.
 - b) He would never **consider** staying home for long.
 - c) I don't **consider** that he was prejudged.

- 8-
 - a) It is not the church's job to **interfere** in politics.
 - b) Anxiety can **interfere** to child's performance at school.
 - c) He was arrested for **interefering** with young boys.

- 9-
 - a) Dr Willis has declared flatly that women are "sexually **superior**" than men.
 - b) I should have accepted the **Superior** Court decisions as conclusive
 - c) Our footballers were technically **superior** to those of the other team.

- 10- a) He grew **annoyed** and at the same time surprised at that emotion.
 b) I couldn't keep being **annoyed** to him.
 c) The chief, **annoyed** by these questions, knocks Voltaire down.
- 11- a) In these cases a graduate may **enter** directly into an apprentice program.
 b) I had permission to **enter** Germany.
 c) Silence fell as I **entered** to the room.
- 12- a) The girl still did not **raise** up her eyes, but she added simply, "I'm pregnant."
 b) They are constantly encouraging the department members to **raise** their standards of performance.
 c) I am happy because I have received a salary **raise**.

Answers:

- 1- comment on / about (a is wrong)
 2- discuss (a is wrong)
 3- all are correct
 4- attitude toward/ towards/ to (c is wrong)
 5- at the very earliest opportunity
 6- absent father/ parent (someone who is not in the place where they are expected to be)
 absent from school
 7- consider sth. / (a is wrong)
 8- interfere in = to deliberately get involved in a situation where you are not wanted
 interfere with = to prevent something from happening / to touch someone sexually (b is wrong)
 9- superior to (a is wrong)
 10- annoyed with / at somebody (b is wrong)
 annoyed about / by sth
 annoyed that....
 11- enter into = take part in
 (c is wrong) enter = to go or come into a place
 12- raise without up (a is wrong)

Samples of the concordancing extracts: (Web Concordancer and The Collins Wordbanks Online English Corpus)

mind. [p] Speaking of open minds, we have to **discuss** sex. It's at the bottom of the Nineties

[p] Bree's frequent visits to her analyst to **discuss** the nature of her lifestyle are the only
 some sort of payment for their services: **discuss** this matter well in advance with your vicar.
 it intends to hold regular summit meetings to **discuss** important issues facing the developing world

matters, with agreement on a conference to **discuss** political union. From Dublin, here's Leo
ministers have met opposition parties to **discuss** the plight of civilians in the war zone.
emergency meeting of Arab Foreign Ministers to **discuss** yesterday's violence in Jerusalem.
PLO
a commission of experts will fly to Moscow to **discuss** the practicalities of transporting such
to promote trade, traffic and contacts and to **discuss** the status of Macedonian minorities living
Council to be called on an ad hoc basis to **discuss** a specific world problem. The call for arms
wants the United Nations Security Council to **discuss** the crisis. However a spokesman for the UN
top of my head, Dad, I can't answer that. I'll **discuss** it with Frank when I get home."
[p] Howard
lifestyle. I urged him that it was vital to **discuss** the situation with his wife as in such cases
said Wallace. `In fact, I don't even want to **discuss** the matter of race really, because the most
have done. There will be plenty of time to **discuss** what has happened later. The most important
the day after the vote, at which they would **discuss** the approach to the minister and Porter's
the 28-year-old former futures dealer to **discuss** the chances of having his sentence transfer fee. When Mr Saxon arrives we **discuss** why Britain remained outside the European

this stage, I've been asked by the promoter to **comment** on five of the incidents that we've received
by Vanity Fair last year. While prone to harsh **comment** and a marked intolerance for fools, Courtney
trying to play down the impact of Mr Ridley's **comment** about the West Germans and the French. He
in the attack on those who told her to go. A **comment** column in the SUN says that the backstabbers
time in their marriage he might have made some **comment** on this change. In those days he and Rose
three nebulae would surely call for further **comment**. [p] There remains Gustave Schlegel's
described it as `a mixture of humour, people, **comment** and entertainment". No satire, we added.
When it became apparent that Olly intended no **comment**, she went on. `The shuttle is virtually
becomes a matter of national interest on which **comment** and reporting are legitimate and predictable
for the new authority. [p] He declined to **comment** yesterday. [p] [h] Agent Keynes smuggled
taken up over the past five years. None would **comment** on their business success. [p] Presiding
in the normal way. `We would not make any **comment** about its merits under the code until there
original piece that ran in Film **Comment**. Pondiscio said that Time lawyers had
anymore. He loved to repeat Delmore Schwartz's **comment** `After six months, Israel will change its
Delta Pride officials were unavailable for **comment**. For National Public Radio, I'm Kevin
Kevin
Then more confusion over the president's **comment** regarding credit card interest rates. It
and White House officials declined to **comment** on the report. Kosovo is widely viewed as a
you'll have to do some replacing. Is that fair **comment**? [M03] I would say erm that is a fair
or it's sometimes metaphoric there should be a **comment** there of some kind sometimes really common

her s words to me were I'm not asking you to **comment** on it I'm asking you if you want to come on situations were open for discussion and **comment** on how we could deal with problems. Some of [ZG0] Er [tc text=pause] [F01] Could you **comment** on whether this [ZF1] exten [ZF0]

these countries being the least willing to **consider** an international carbon reduction target.

Course Selectors are looking for when they **consider** applications is evidence of intellectual villages. [p] Clearly, no tour operator would **consider** using campsites at the poorer end of this

of schools run by local councils must now **consider** each year whether to hold a ballot and

Hipwood, Julian's American wife, who might **consider** herself to be the first lady of Polo. `The

noticed or they're not interested or don't **consider** it to be relevant or money-making. We're the of time for lawn construction. [p] Let's just **consider** for a moment what it is about grass that

[p] The other Premier League chairmen **consider** him too aggressive says a close colleague

due to be held late next month in Geneva to **consider** yet again the problem of Vietnamese

meeting in the morning (later today) to **consider** how to respond to Saudi Arabia's decision to

officials say the Community will on Monday **consider** a proposal to offer Algeria a five-hundred-

you can tell me how you would fit in, I will **consider** it." That, he thought, should clinch it. [p]

[p] [f] Arthur Ellison [f] Most people **consider** the question of reincarnation relatively

two muscles work very similarly, so I'll **consider** them as one here. The muscles are found at

such as the Channel Tunnel. This would **consider**, among other things, the costs of building

trumpets and harps, all that. But if you **consider** what an angel really might be, you get a

Westminster Cathedral ironic when you **consider** that in 1992 the Pope described the reading

cent interest in the prestige Savoy group and **consider** offers for `trophy hotels such as Grosvenor

had been sold for $ 200,000. [p] [h] **Consider** your verdict;Law [/h] [b] Derek Edmonds [/b]

on the list of priorities, but they should **consider** what the consequences would be if someone

magistrate to who they applied had also to **consider**, whether it was appropriate to proceed in

role, Pagels points out, inviting us to **consider** Satan as a reflection of how we see

suggested the alternative was ominous. `Consider what might happen if the United States were

him [p] John, of Newcastle, said he might **consider** letting Doris keep Robbie if she handed over

care about them but in making the calls they **consider** only their own needs

attempts by the United States to **interfere** with their country's economy, have come up respected international law and would not **interfere** in the internal affairs of another country.

Kolimba, has said that in future it will not **interfere** in the decisions reached by the country's

engines, power tools and fluorescent lights **interfere** with reception just as surely as the

Daddy and I have an understanding. I don't **interfere** in his life, and he doesn't interfere in

the corridor, wood underfoot, no carpets to **interfere** with a wheelchair, and he opened doors with
Personal and family stresses will inevitably **interfere** with work at times and to assume this will

I said: Peter, you're team manager, I don't **interfere** in those things but I'll talk to Ayrton and
speech and believed that the state should not **interfere** [212] too much in human relationships.

Ellel mightily. Oh, my dear, they won't **interfere**. They'll simply be sure our guest doesn't

his own terms. He wouldn't let sentimentality **interfere** with his decision. He was far too electromagnetically shielded so they do not **interfere** with other electronic equipment.
This

37, that she refused to let the lengthy trial **interfere** with her plans for a bigger family.

want of employment. The Government could not **interfere** with the hours of labour in the case of

live in the countries in which they sought to **interfere**. Goldsmith doesn't." [p] The Referendum

is an excellent arrangement that does not **interfere** with their holiday plans. [p] Depending on

majority view seems to be science should not **interfere** with nature. [p] [h] After

boat which will have the advantage of a **superior** waterline length over Nicolette.

Ingvall, a

a great leveller, to daunt the players from a **superior** league. The Cup, of course, is meant to whet

event") is no prig. `He does not feel morally **superior** to those who choose to live their lives

Boy's Own) [p] 6 Expecting to Fly Bluetones (**Superior** Quality [p] 7 The Best Of Small Faces (

Venus Peter. But thankfully this is a far **superior** film. [p] Alexander - a lovely performance

void 1993 National. [p] Peter Niven partners **Superior** Finish and Brendan Powell, successful aboard

HPR. Of the two, approximate yield is a far **superior** measure of return and should be used

Negroes and it helped them to feel racially **superior**. They were pretending, just as he had been

to receive such individual attention, such **superior** training in the arts and sciences. Students

any argument that either was genetically **superior** to the other, even though differences in

irritated with him, why did he feel so smugly **superior**? Dwight returned to the old battleground of

those of his own species. The circumstance of **superior** beauty, is thought worthy

arrived, the director got in touch with his **superior**. The letters kept coming 3,000 of them and

slow, which is good for starting out. [p] Its **superior** construction allows us to give it a 6 months

chino trousers, carefully microsanded for a **superior** finish and drape. Finishing off the look are

journey/holiday (if available) of similar or **superior** quality or of lower quality (with an

being impolite, doubtless **annoyed** at having to break off his story.

still hope we may do so, but naturally I feel **annoyed** at the lost opportunity. It was an argument

husband, Emily began to hit Albert when he **annoyed** her. This was only discovered when their

of the storeroom. Hey, Mr. Davis," Bob said, **annoyed**, `it's just us again The Purple Pirate said

in the Liverpool Daily Post, and had often **annoyed** Welsh mps by his strong resistance to Welsh

her arms. You're clean, again," she said in an **annoyed** voice. `Drowned Woman has a fire. She has

to take part in the conclave. This compromise **annoyed** just about everyone, `progressives' because

he has to be tough and he can also get very **annoyed** when he has something to get annoyed about.
to only in `a public relations sense It **annoyed** him. But with membership of almost 110,000,
It was a great match for me [p] Courier was **annoyed** with himself for converting only four of 20
m daft but I want that buzz again. She's very **annoyed** but she knows I couldn't say no. She told
catalogue;Letter [/h] [p] WE were upset and **annoyed** by Jaci Stephen's condemnations of our Lady
his spiritual home and is becoming vaguely **annoyed** at suggestions he will take up and roam once
Sinton. [p] The England Under-21 star was **annoyed** at being ditched recently and demanded a
The British just then were particularly **annoyed** with the Japanese, for at least three were
heard her. Ordinarily, she might have been **annoyed**, or faintly jealous. Prue resented people -

supporters go to great lengths to **raise** money for Feed the Children's work. Here are
Christie's King Street, sw1 from 6.30-8.30pm to **raise** funds for Help the Aged. Tickets pound; 25 (
If you sow the seed early in heat, you will **raise** strong plants that will produce well over
football skills, the scheme enables schools to **raise** valuable funds `The Fun Way'. [p] An
27 August), where she misquoted every point I **raise** on AIDS and fast lane lifestyles. [p] I never
August 1988, George Bush promised he would not **raise** taxes if he got into office. My opponent won'
of Clyde on Thursday want the Royal Navy to **raise** the boat. The three candidates hoping to lead
of Britain and France being requested to **raise** the Yugoslav issue in the UN Security
surprisingly, sympathised and promised to **raise** the matter with Robertson. He was obviously
General Fergus Ling, who had lately helped to **raise** funds for quite different purposes. In the
financial grants and thus we also needed to **raise** money for them. Although immediate results
One important effect of makeovers is that they **raise** beauty standards. When more and more people
But I like it." [p] Did seeing Daddy **raise** the ante?" [p] It made me wonder about how
to my will? For example, if my mind wants me to **raise** my arm, how is it that it manages to trigger
1890s was the Pullman strike. Not only did it **raise** disconcerting questions about the beneficence
we said we won't have a debate. No one will **raise** any issues about the current policy so as to
[p] Lekisha: Finally, the man who helped **raise** the consciousness of a nation gets a day in
responsibility. [M08] We must **raise** standards. We must roll the frontiers of the name [ZZ0] [ZF1] to [ZF0] to [tc text=pause] **raise** an official objection [ZZ1] telephone rings

Christ did not include in his humanity did not **enter** into the salvation process and that which was
the narrow Caprivi Strip to Popa Falls, we **enter** the shimmering desert and grasslands of the
If a condom splits or breaks, sperm can **enter** the vagina and fertilise an egg. [h] Can it
failure of Carmen, which took years to re-**enter** the repertoires of European opera companies.
feature has over 270,000 synonyms, e.g. **enter** FASCINATING and you are offered a host of
of popular cartoon personalities. So hurry, **enter** our Disney Mini Classics competition now and

the mountainside. [p] It was costly to actually **enter** the site and we realised we hadn't brought for this kind of formation being permitted to **enter** the Tour-it occurred in 1965 and 1980, when

[/c] We regret our experts are unable to **enter** into personal correspondence, although we with comfort and a sporty personality. [p] **Enter** the new Audi 80 TDI: the Estate tourer that were inviolable. He said the Iraqis could not **enter** them without the ambassador's explicit in the first hours of next week when the talks **enter** their final round in Brussels. He added that natural and enables the person to **enter** into the material world of the flesh; the Stein, 1980, p. 140). A non-historian should **enter** this quarrel with caution. However, given the wall. Sometimes the walkers stop us as we **enter** or leave Gaddi House. Sometimes they ask us to quieten her howling, Edwin did indeed **enter** Anthea, not in the marital bed but in the decided on which network they want before they **enter** the shops to buy their mobile phones. [p] out in the first round. Asked why she wanted to **enter** politics at her age, she replied simply: `To money lasts, there's no reason why she can't **enter** the RAC at the end of the year." [p] After a THE Rugby Football League (RFL) is prepared to **enter** the court battle over the sport's future in

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If you arrive late, or are **absent** during your course, no refunds will be courteous, qualities that have been notably **absent** in almost all Scottish monarchs. Although he they feel that there is no way to get the **absent** parent to cooperate If you want to push for quicker not only to find the scoops (curiously **absent** in the Telegraph today) but to make them: the to women, proceed. [p] Women are largely **absent** from all forums where policy decisions that she earned the money during time she was **absent** from the Arkansas post. [p] Arkansas state and pay tribute to old sparring partners and **absent** friends. And when you do drop your guard, origins. [p] While a piano is noticeably **absent** form Lynsey's home, her artistic nature Ukrainian leaders, but they were pointedly **absent** from the joint news conference and President varied business interests, frequently being **absent** from the estate for weeks at a time. [p] white man's burden" motif had never been **absent** from the literature of colonialism. In one at certain times of the year. This feature is **absent** from other astrological systems, which deal discharge the Section; or f) the patient goes **absent** without leave and remains absent up to the cats in his lap as well, stroking the animal **absent**-mindedly while he chatted with the boy. Good They may be pale and sleepy, inattentive and **absent**-minded. They have a poor body image and tend Pope's man. But he was gravely ill and often **absent**. That made his appearances all the more