

**T. C.
SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANA BİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BİLİM DALI**

**TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH COLLOCATIONS
AND CLICHES IN EFL CLASSES**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

**DANIŞMAN
YRD. DOÇ. DR. ABDÜLKADİR ÇAKIR**

**HAZIRLAYAN
ÖZGÜL BALCI**

KONYA 2006

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ÖZET	iii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the Study.....	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	3
1.3. Goal and Scope of the Study	4
1.4. Significance of the Study	5
1.5. Research Questions.....	6
1.6. Limitations	6
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
2.1. Introduction	8
2.2. Vocabulary Teaching.....	10
2.3. Collocations and Cliches.....	17
2.4. Other Studies on Collocation	31
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY.....	35
3.1. Introduction	35
3.2. Participants.....	35
3.3. Materials and Procedure	35
3.4. Statistical Analysis.....	39
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS	40
CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION.....	47
5.1. Conclusions and Discussion.....	47
5.2. Suggestions.....	51
6. BIBLIOGRAPHY	53

APPENDICES	58
APPENDIX A	58
APPENDIX B	60
APPENDIX C	61
APPENDIX D	62
APPENDIX E	63
APPENDIX F	64
APPENDIX G	65
APPENDIX H	66
APPENDIX I	67
APPENDIX J	68
APPENDIX K	69
APPENDIX L	70
APPENDIX M	71
APPENDIX N	72
APPENDIX O	73
APPENDIX P	74
APPENDIX R	75
APPENDIX S	76
APPENDIX T	77
APPENDIX U	78

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4. 1 Proficiency Level 1 Test Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation.....	41
Table 4. 2 Vocabulary Test 1 Results of Independent-Samples T Test , Mean and Standard Deviation.....	41
Table 4. 3 Vocabulary Test 2 Results of Independent-Samples T Test , Mean and Standard Deviation.....	42
Table 4. 4 Vocabulary Test 3 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation.....	42
Table 4. 5 Vocabulary Test 4 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation.....	43
Table 4. 6 Vocabulary Test 5 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation.....	43
Table 4. 7 Vocabulary Test 6 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation.....	44
Table 4. 8 Retention Test Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation	44
Table 4. 9 Proficiency Level 2 Test Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation.....	45
Table 4. 10 Proficiency Level Tests Results of Experimental Dependent (Paired) T Test.....	45
Table 4. 11 Proficiency Level Tests Results of Control Dependent (Paired) T Test...	46

ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English Foreign Language
L2	Second Language
NL	Native Language
TL	Target Language
FL	Foreign Language
LSP	Language for Special Proposes
YADAM	Selçuk University School of Foreign Languages

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my special thanks and respect to my thesis advisor, Assist. Prof. Dr. Abdülkadir ÇAKIR for his guidance and valuable suggestions.

I would also like to express my best wishes to my dearest students for their contributions and enthusiasm.

I am also thankful to my mother and father for their endless help , patience and encouragement.

Finally, I would like to thank my husband Şükrü Serdar BALCI, who has faith in me and has been a great support to me throughout this study especially for his invaluable contributions, suggestions and comments related to the statistical analysis.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether teaching vocabulary through collocations will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as using definition, synonym, antonym, and mother tongue translations.

The study was conducted at Hacıvevîszade Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School. The participants were 59 seventh grade students. Twelve small reading passages were used. The control group was presented the new vocabulary through classical techniques and the experimental group was presented the new vocabulary through their collocations.

All the results have shown that teaching vocabulary through collocations and clichés results in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques and enhances retention of new vocabulary items. The result of the experimental study has confirmed the validity of the researcher's assumptions that learning vocabulary through collocations is an effective strategy which positively contributes to the development and retention of vocabulary.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı kelimelerin birlikte kullanıldığı kelimelerle öğretiminin zıt anlam, eş anlam, açıklama, tanımlama gibi klasik yöntemlerle öğretiminden daha iyi sonuç verip vermeyeceğini araştırmaktır.

Araştırma Konya Karatay Hacıveyiszade Ahmet Haşhaş İlköğretim Okulu'nda toplam 59 yedinci sınıf öğrencisi üzerinde yapılmıştır. Oniki kısa okuma parçası kullanılmıştır. Bilinmeyen kelimeler kontrol gruba klasik kelime öğretim teknikleriyle, deney grubuna da kelimelerin birlikte kullanıldığı diğer kelimelerle öğretilmiştir.

Çalışmanın sonunda kelimelerin birlikte kullanıldığı kelimelerle öğretiminin klasik tekniklerle öğretimden daha iyi sonuç verdiği ve yeni kelimelerin hatırlanmasına yardımcı olduğu görülmüştür. Bu deneysel çalışmanın sonucu araştırmacının kelimelerin birlikte kullanıldığı kelimelerle öğretimi tekniğinin kelime hazinesinin gelişimine ve sözcüklerin hatırlanmasına olumlu katkı sağlayan etkili bir strateji olduğuna dair düşüncesinin geçerliliğini doğrulamıştır.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

In foreign language teaching, vocabulary has not received the value it deserves, and for a long time it has been a neglected area. Carter&McCarty (1988) stresses that this negligence of vocabulary has produced both students with vocabulary learning problems and teachers incapable of providing students with meaningful learning. Scientific interest in this topic has developed only over the past thirty years.

Nunan (1991) states that before 1970s, there wasn't much concentration on vocabulary teaching and it was not regarded and treated as a concept separate from grammar or the other skills. Because of this indifference towards vocabulary acquisition, there was not much research on it. Since 1970s , the perspective on vocabulary teaching has changed because of the effect of the communicative approach and the natural approach in teaching, which emphasized the importance of receptive vocabulary growth during the early stages of language learning.

It must be stressed that as far as communication is concerned, vocabulary is just one of the components in the whole system. That is, grammar or the structures and these functions also play a vital role in communication. Yet Wallace (1982:3) claims that;

No matter how good a language learner is at grammar, he might still have difficulty in communicating, however; he will be able to communicate to a certain extent provided that he knows the necessary vocabulary. In other words; communication could be achieved with a relative degree of success by means of an adequate knowledge of vocabulary alone. Thus, vocabulary should be viewed as an integral part of learning a foreign language since it leads the way to communication.

Celce–Murcia and Rosensweig (1989:242) agree that vocabulary should be recognized as a central element in language instruction from the beginning stages. They further state that according to their own experience, having an adequate stock of vocabulary—with a minimum number of structures—often helps the learner more not only in reading comprehension, but also in achieving more efficient survival communication than having a perfect command of structures with an inadequate amount of vocabulary.

With the recognition of the importance of vocabulary, many techniques and approaches to teaching and learning vocabulary have emerged. One of these is teaching vocabulary through collocation.

Collocations are words that occur together with high frequency and refer to the combination of words that have a certain mutual expectancy. “The combination is not a fixed expression but there is a greater than chance likelihood that the words will co-occur” (Jackson, 1988: 96).

Nattinger (1988) was one of the first researchers to discuss collocations. He states that the meaning of a word mostly depends on the other words that it collocates with; by the help of these collocates the learner keeps the words in memory and can easily infer the meaning from the context. He also argued that the notion of collocations is extremely important for acquiring vocabulary but its potential has not been fully exploited.

Biskup (1992) states that among all the errors L2 learners make, collocational errors form a high percentage: it is difficult for most learners to find the right collocates of a word because of the differences between L1 and L2.

According to Bahns (1993), there are two types of collocations. Lexical collocations and Grammatical collocations. Lexical collocations are combinations of nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs such as Verb+Noun, Adjective+Noun, Noun+Noun, Verb+Adverb. Grammatical collocations are combinations of content words (nouns, adjectives or verbs) and a grammatical word such as a preposition or certain structural patterns. For example, account for, by accident, to be afraid that.

The aim of this study is to find out whether teaching vocabulary by using collocations will make any difference in learning new vocabulary items in comparison to teaching vocabulary via classical techniques.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this experimental study is to investigate whether teaching vocabulary through collocations will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as definition, synonym, explanation, antonym, and mother tongue translation.

It has been accepted that vocabulary learning is an important skill in language learning. However, until recently, there has been little emphasis placed on the acquisition of vocabulary. Although the lexicon is arguably in control of language acquisition and use, vocabulary instruction has not been a priority in second language acquisition research or methodology (Coady and Huckin, 1997).

Vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. Nevertheless, the teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) throughout its varying stages and up to the present day. SLA researchers and teachers have typically prioritized syntax and phonology as more central to linguistic theory, and more critical to language pedagogy .
(Zimmerman, 1997:5)

There are a lot of vocabulary teaching techniques that teachers can use and collocation is just one of those techniques. Nattinger (1988) states that the whole notion of collocations is extremely important for acquiring vocabulary and has yet to be exploited to its full potential.

In Turkey, most of the teachers still give more importance to grammar, the structure of the language. And when the teaching of vocabulary items is taken into account, teachers prefer to use classical vocabulary teaching techniques. As a result, students do not make any effort to reach the meaning and they forget the meaning of words easily. And even if the students remember the meaning of a word, they can not use it because they don't know the suitable collocates. Therefore, the problem this study deals with is that new words are not generally taught with their collocates but it is believed that they need to be taught with their collocates so that students will be able to use these words later in their own performance. So the purpose of this study is to find out the effect of a new vocabulary teaching technique, teaching vocabulary through collocations.

1.3. Goal and Scope of the Study

The goal of this study is to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as definition, synonym, antonym, and mother tongue translation. Our purpose is to show the contribution of collocations and cliches to vocabulary learning of students in English Foreign Language(EFL) classes.

Our suggested hypothesis is that learning vocabulary through collocations and cliches is an effective strategy that positively contributes to the development of vocabulary learning.

If it could be shown that teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches improves the vocabulary learning more than classical techniques, teachers of English could be encouraged to spare some more classroom time for this type of training in their classes and to assign more importance to the application of certain learning strategies in vocabulary development.

Sheehan (2004:5) states that;

Most English language teachers know and use the metalanguage of grammar, such as past perfect, first and second conditional, past participle, and irregular verb. But few English language teachers are familiar with and understand the essential terms and concepts associated with corpus linguistics and lexis, such as collocation, chunks of language, fixed expressions, sentence heads. These concepts need to be as familiar to English language teachers as grammar is now.

The scope of this study is to discuss the vocabulary teaching techniques that the teachers use and to discuss a relatively new technique in order to make this process more effective and more meaningful.

1.4. Significance of the Study

Vocabulary plays an important role in communication as well as the other components of language. Of course the lack of needed vocabulary is the most common cause of students' inability to say whatever they want during communication activities. In order to prevent this and to have an effective recall, collocational vocabulary learning can be an effective factor by the help of which students can remember and use the words easily.

Lewis (1997) states that any language consists of chunks of words either fixed or freer chunks. Therefore, it is useful for students to learn new words in chunks. When presenting new words, teachers tend to use classical techniques such as definition, synonym, antonym or mother tongue translation. And both teachers and students are not aware of other vocabulary learning techniques. Collocation is one of these less used techniques. As a teacher of English in a state school, I have experienced students complaining about the difficulty of learning new words and remembering them. Also, they have serious problems in finding suitable collocates of words mostly because of the differences between the word order in Turkish and English. We believe that this study may be helpful for teachers and students in terms of becoming familiarized with a comparatively new technique which will be helpful in their vocabulary development.

1.5. Research Questions

This study intends to find answers to the following questions:

- 1) Does presenting new words through collocations and cliches result in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques?
- 2) Does presenting new words through collocations and cliches enhance retention of new vocabulary items?

1.6. Limitations

This study which aims to find out the effect of a relatively new vocabulary teaching technique named collocation on learning new words has been carried out with the seventh grade students only in Hacıveyiszade Ahmet Haşhaş Primary School.

Two groups, including nearly equal number of subjects are formed. One, as an experimental group and the other as a control group. Only one group of subjects is taught the vocabulary through collocations and cliches. So the level of the students is one of the limitations of this study. The study is limited to only seventh grade students.

The number of students is another limitation. As this is a small study, the number of the students is quite limited.

One of the limitations is the strict curriculum which has to be followed. And when grammar is taken into account, vocabulary teaching is latent. Time for vocabulary teaching is restricted in our curriculum. Thus, limited time for vocabulary teaching and learning can be seen as a limitation, because extended exposure to the collocations is an important factor and this requires a longer time period.

Also, some students' attitudes towards vocabulary learning can be seen as another limitation. The curriculum is based on the grammar mostly, so students are not aware of the importance of vocabulary learning in language learning. They expect the teacher to give them the mother tongue equivalents of the new foreign words. Or they expect the teacher to give the definition, synonyms or antonyms; that is, they expect to learn the new vocabulary using only classical techniques.

Financial and official obstacles have also been another limitation throughout this study. Since there is no material except the course book, the writer of this study has to provide the necessary materials for all of the students.

Furthermore, students are not familiar with the word collocations. This is a new technique for them.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

Vocabulary teaching and learning has not received enough attention in English language teaching contexts. Carter (1989) indicated that for many years vocabulary has been the victim of discrimination by researchers who claimed syntax to be a more significant issue in the language development process.

Nunan (1991) states that before 1970s, there wasn't much concentration on vocabulary teaching and it was not regarded and treated as a concept separate from grammar or the other skills. Because of this indifference towards vocabulary acquisitions there was not much research on it. Since 1970s, the perspective on vocabulary teaching has changed because of the effect of the communicative approach and the natural approach in teaching, which emphasized the importance of receptive vocabulary growth during the early stages of language learning. The lack of attention to vocabulary has been also attributed to the dominant influence of audio-linguism and the direct method during that period.

According to the Audio-Lingual Method, it was essential to keep vocabulary teaching at minimum in the first stages of the learning of an L2 (Celce-Murcia & Rosensweigh, 1979).

Zimmerman (1997) states that in the Audio-Lingual Method vocabulary did not have the priority. Teaching structural patterns and drills had priority. The vocabulary items used in the drills were selected according to their appropriateness to the topic and according to their simplicity in understanding the patterns and drills to be taught.

The Direct Method, on the other hand, was indeed in favour of teaching vocabulary, but it believed that it should be learnt in context and without much explanation or translation (Celce-Murcia & Rosenweigh, 1979).

During the 1970s, however, because of the influence of communicative language teaching, the importance of vocabulary was recognized again because researchers started to point out the importance of vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary instruction (Carter & McCarty, 1988).

Ellis (1999) states that there are two good reasons for focusing on vocabulary acquisition. The first is that vocabulary development is now recognized by researchers, as well as learners, as a major aspect of learning a new language. Learners have long recognized the importance of vocabulary learning. Applied linguists, particularly second language acquisition researchers, have traditionally been more concerned with grammar than with lexis but in the last decade they have increasingly paid attention to vocabulary learning. According to him, the second reason is that vocabulary acquisition is, in one important respect, easier to investigate than the acquisition of grammatical or pragmatic knowledge.

The lexical approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar-based approaches.

The lexical approach concentrates on developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar.

(Lewis, 1993:95)

Michael Lewis (1993), who coined the term lexical approach, suggests the following:

-Lexis is the fundamental part of language.

-Lexis is misunderstood in language teaching because it is assumed that grammar is the basis of language and mastery of the grammatical system is the first thing that is required beforehand.

-The key principle of a lexical approach is that "language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar."

-One of the central organizing principles of any meaning-centered syllabus should be lexis.

The lexical approach makes a distinction between vocabulary-traditionally understood as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings-and lexis, which includes not only the single words but also the word combinations that we store in our mental lexicons. Lexical approach advocates argue that language consists of meaningful chunks that, when combined, produce continuous coherent text, and only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel creations.

Within the lexical approach, special attention is directed to collocations and expressions that include institutionalized utterances and sentence frames and heads. As Lewis maintains, "instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic, ways" (Lewis,1997:204).

2.2. Vocabulary Teaching

It has often been remarked it is very strange that comparatively little has been written on the teaching and learning of foreign language vocabulary, because

there is a sense in which learning a foreign language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Wallace (1982:9) states that;

Not being able to find the words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Of course vocabulary is not the whole story: the system of language is also important. Nevertheless, it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the vocabulary we need it is usually possible to communicate, after a fashion (Wallace,1982:9).

Today, it is accepted that learning word meanings can not be achieved only through the use of a dictionary, and that vocabulary acquisition is a complex process. This understanding has led to a considerable emphasis on vocabulary. The principal reasons for the present focus on vocabulary, according to Allen (1983:5), are these:

First, many ESL and EFL classes have revealed disappointing results although a great deal of time has been devoted to vocabulary teaching by teachers; second, recent research into word meanings which has dealt with lexical problems, indicates that these lexical problems frequently interfere with communication and that not using the right words results in a communication breakdown.

Nation (1990:1-2) supports the idea that vocabulary should be taught in a systematic and principled approach due to the following reasons:

1. Because of the considerable research on vocabulary we have good information about what to do about vocabulary and about what vocabulary to focus on.
2. There is a wide variety of ways for dealing with vocabulary in foreign or second language learning.
3. Both learners and researchers see vocabulary as a very important if not the most important element in language learning. Learners feel that many of their difficulties in both receptive and productive language use, result from an inadequate vocabulary.

He also argues that the language tasks in which students with inadequate vocabulary will be involved will cause them to suffer from frustration, and concludes that vocabulary has vital importance in reading and, therefore, giving attention to vocabulary is unavoidable.

Nattinger (1988) states that comprehension requires understanding the words and storing them and also committing them to memory whereas production requires retrieving them from memory and using them in appropriate situations. Hence, our aim in teaching vocabulary should be to strengthen this memory storage.

Learning vocabulary is something more than memorizing lists of words. To know a word in a target language as well as the native speaker knows it may mean the ability to:

- a) recognize it in its spoken or written form;
- b) recall it at will;
- c) relate it to an appropriate object or concept;
- d) use it in the appropriate grammatical form;
- e) pronounce it in a recognizable way in speech;
- f) spell it correctly in writing;
- g) use it with the words it correctly goes with, in the correct collocation;
- h) use it at the appropriate level of formality;
- i) be aware of its connotations and associations

(Wallace 1982:27)

Taylor (1990:1-2) puts forward the following criteria concerning the knowledge of a word:

1. Knowledge of frequency of the word in the language, i.e. knowing the degree of probability of encountering the word in speech or in print,

2. Knowledge of the register of the word, i.e. knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation,
3. Knowledge of collocation, both semantic, and syntactic (sometimes termed 'colligation'), i.e. knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word and also knowing the network of associations between that word and other words in the language. This is to ensure that vocabulary items are not taught in isolation but in a meaningful context with examples related to their uses.
4. Knowledge of morphology, i.e. knowing the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it,
5. Knowledge of semantics, i.e. knowing firstly what the word means or denotes. It is relatively easy to teach denotation of concrete items like plate, ruler or banana by simply bringing these objects (relia), or pictures of these objects, into the classroom. For more abstract concepts synonyms, paraphrases or definitions may be useful,
6. Knowledge of polysemy, i.e. knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.
7. Knowledge of the equivalent of the word in the mother tongue.

Carter and McCarty (1988) states that the period 1945-1970 was a limbo for vocabulary as an aspect of language teaching in its own right. It is in the 1970s that we begin to hear rumblings of discontent.

Wilkins lamented the neglect of vocabulary in the audio-lingual years. While it is true that to learn nothing but words and little or no structure would be useless to the learner, it would also be useless to learn all the structure and no vocabulary: "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary *nothing* can be conveyed"(Carter and McCarty 1988:42).

According to Carter and McCarty what Wilkins's work is significant for his desire to bring to vocabulary teaching the insights of lexical semantics, which have become a major feeding ground for vocabulary practitioners in the 1970s and 1980s. Also they state that Twaddell's arguments around the same time that it is impossible

to teach learners all the words they need to know , and so it is important to teach them guessing strategies that will enable them to tackle unknown words and lose their reliance on dictionaries is the beginning of viewing vocabulary learning as a language skill, of shifting the responsibility to the learner. By the mid 1970s, we have a picture of a growing concern with vocabulary teaching and learning. What is more, we have the beginnings of the view of the vocabulary as a skill in which the learner is actively involved, and a concern with what and how the learner might learn.

The move away from seeing vocabulary as lists of items to be learnt raises the question of precisely what it means to learn vocabulary. Richards tries to tackle this issue, considering some of the knowledge that is assumed by lexical competence.(Carter&McCarty 1988)

As Carter & McCarty (1988:44) explains that Richards brings the characterization of lexical competence down to eight broad assumptions:

1. Native speakers continue to expand their vocabulary in adulthood. Little is known about the average language-user's vocabulary but anything from 20,000-100,000 words could be within a person's receptive vocabulary.
2. Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering it and the sorts of words most likely to be found associated with it (frequency and collocability).
3. Knowing a word means knowing its limitations of use according to function and situation.
4. Knowing a word means knowing its syntactic behaviour.
5. Knowing a word means knowing its underlying forms and derivations.
6. Knowing a word means knowing its place in a network of associations with other words in the language.
7. Knowing a word means knowing its semantic value.
8. Knowing a word means knowing its different meanings.

Carter and McCarty (1988) state that by the end of the 1970s, vocabulary teaching gained importance. Its place within language teaching had been reasserted, insights from lexical semantics had been brought to bear in the incorporation of notions such as sense-relations and collocation into teaching materials, the learner had been brought to the centre stage, and the lexicon was beginning to be seen as a resource for the needs of the learner and for strategic use in the gaining of communicative objectives.

Nation (2005) points out that the main problem with vocabulary teaching is that only a few words and a small part of what is required to know of a word can be dealt with at any one time. He also adds as follows:

The first decision to make when teaching a word is to decide whether the word is worth spending time on or not. When deciding how to spend time on a word, it is useful to consider the learning burden of the word. Part of effective vocabulary teaching involves working out what needs to be taught about a word. This is called the learning burden of a word

(Nation,2005:2-3)

Learning Burden of a Word

Meaning	Form and meaning Concept and referents Associations
Form	Spoken form Written form Word parts
Use	Grammatical functions Collocation Constraints on use

McCarty (1984) points out that attention has recently been turned to the problems of vocabulary in foreign-language teaching, and a steadily growing amount

of work is beginning to challenge assumptions that have relegated vocabulary teaching to a secondary position in the priorities of language teaching. At the beginner or lower intermediate level, the treatment of vocabulary as a teaching area in itself is sadly lacking. Beginner courses do present many new orthographic words in a carefully controlled way, but do not generally deal with words lexically, and they view vocabulary acquisition as a cumulative by-product of the teaching of structures or the communicative functions of sentences.

Deveci (2004) states that the importance of vocabulary acquisition has always been recognized, although, at times, vocabulary was treated as separate from grammar and other skills. However, the communicative and natural approach emphasized the importance of vocabulary development, which resulted in more interest in vocabulary teaching. He also points out that we can not use structures correctly if we do not have enough vocabulary knowledge.

Sheehan (2004:3) points out that;

Vocabulary has been the neglected Cinderella of language teaching; preference has always been, and still is, given to the two sisters Grammar and More Grammar. Many English language teachers like to stress grammar over vocabulary because grammar is a finite system, whereas vocabulary is not. However, the argument in favor of placing greater weight on vocabulary is strong. Evidence from the field of corpus linguistics shows clearly that it is lexical competence, not the learning of grammatical structures, that must be the priority for language learners because lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence.

Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) state that the development of word lists for English based on frequency distribution directed the attention of teachers, ELT practitioners and curriculum specialists. Mastering the upper ends would be adequate for the development of a good measure of proficiency in English. Besides, the upper

ends would be efficiently exploited for learning English phonology and syntax. This restricted view of vocabulary, beside its notional falseness from a statistical point of view, has caused learner lexical deficiency and incapability to function adequately in real life situations. Work in the area of corpus linguistics (e.g. Twadell 1973; Kucera and Francis 1967) has convincingly triggered the urge for a reconsideration of the role of vocabulary in FL instruction. It has indicated beyond doubt that language pedagogues have been on the wrong track in their assumptions about the role of vocabulary frequency distribution. The counter argument has led to the recognition of a fundamental role for lexical learning. The area of collocation within the realm of lexis is of prime importance and forms a serious problem for language learners.

2.3. Collocations and Cliches

Brinton and Akimoto (1999) argues that the term “collocation” seems to date back to Firth, who discusses the collocation of ass with silly, obstinate, stupid, and awful; in defining the term, Crystal refers to the habitual cooccurrence of auspicious with occasion, event, sign, an so on, while Carter contrasts the collocation {have, get} pins and needles, which is always plural and nonreversible, with the free combination pin and needle. Like idioms, collocations are groups of lexical items which repeatedly or typically cooccur, but unlike idioms, their meanings can usually be deduced from the meanings of their parts. Collocations are predictable to a greater or lesser degree, with some words having a very narrow collocational range and others having a very wide collocational range.

Partington (1988) states that the term “collocation”, as is well known, was first coined in its modern linguistic sense by the British linguist J. R. Firth, along with the famous explanatory slogan: “you shall judge a word by the company it keeps”. Later writers on collocation have picked up different aspects of Firth’s ideas.

Sinclair, who was a student of Firth's at London University, sees it as follows: Collocation is the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. Leech in his discussion of "Seven Types of Meaning", one of which is "collocative meaning": Collocative meaning consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. The contribution of collocation, in psychological terms, to meaning is also emphasised by Aitchison, who says that "humans learn word-meaning from what occurs alongside". The learner, child or adult, faced with an unknown word looks to the co-text to gain clues as to what the unfamiliar item might mean. Meaning is function in context, as Firth used to say. Finally, Hoey highlights another aspect of the concept: collocation has long been the name given to the relationship a lexical item has with items that appear with greater than random probability in its context.

Hall (2006:1) states that collocation is the tendency of words to co-exist. He also adds as follows:

At its simplest it is a predictable association of words that naturally fall together in certain contexts such as 'cup of tea' or 'bread and butter'. However, on a more deeply erratic and idiomatic level, it demands that one word is used rather than another in particular contexts and this idiomaticity often defies any obvious logic and is thus very difficult for non-native speakers to predict. Learners need to be aware: a) that it is not denotative meaning alone which determines the way we select words to form sentences; b) of the need to record collocations as discrete lexical items and not try to learn vocabulary word by word. This can be done from the very start of their language learning when they meet such collocations as a loaf of bread, a packet of cigarettes, a bar of soap, a pair of socks.; c) authentic texts are more likely to contain useful collocations than specially constructed texts; d) training is needed on how to spot a collocation or a cluster and determine its boundaries.

Carter (1998) states that collocation is a term used to describe a group of words which occur repeatedly in a language. These patterns of co-occurrence can be grammatical in that they result primarily from syntactic dependencies or they can be lexical in that, although syntactic relationships are involved, the patterns result from the fact that in a given linguistic environment certain lexical items will co-occur. Theoretically, it is possible for any lexical item of English to co-occur or 'keep company' with any other lexical item. However, for any particular lexical item X there are certain other items which have a high probability of being found near X. For instance, we might expect snow to have a high probability of co-occurrence with block, road, fall, winter, cold. But a low probability of co-occurrence with cider, apple, dog.

Simpson (1996:78-79) defines the collocation as follows:

Significant chunk of the meaning of a word will be derived from the syntagmatic relationships into which it conventionally enters. This principle of lexical combination is known as collocation. Collocation refers broadly to the grammatical combination of lexemes, while the term collocates is used to describe any word which exhibits a standard pattern of co-occurrence with another word. The principle of collocation helps explain why words occur in the sequences they do. Given that the syntagmatic axis sets up strong structural constraints, collocates are often easily predicted. Collocation is a probabilistic phenomenon: it is a question of whether this or that item is more likely to occur than another.

Van der Wouden (1997) argues that in order to speak natural English, you need to be familiar with collocations. If you do not choose the right collocation, you will probably be understood but you will not sound natural. Collocation is a term that refers to the mechanism, or fact, that certain words are regularly found in the company of other words. Collocations abound in language, and they are extremely

important for the language user. The lexicographers distinguish between lexical and grammatical collocations. A grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause. Lexical collocations, in contrast to grammatical collocations, normally do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses. Typical lexical collocations consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Collocation is a phenomenon found almost everywhere in language; for every language user it is of vital importance to master his or her collocations. This fact notwithstanding, collocation is mostly neglected by language theoreticians.

Jackson (2002) states that the meaning of a word is also determined by its 'syntagmatic' relations, specifically by its collocation, the other words that typically accompany it in the structure of sentences and discourses. The word 'typically' occurs in all these statements about collocation, because collocation is a matter of the statistical probability or likelihood that two words will co-occur. One of a pair may exercise a stronger attraction than the other; for example, wine is more likely to co-occur with red than red is with wine, because red can co-occur with many nouns, while wine occurs with only a small number of adjectives.

Baker (1992) states that words rarely occur on their own; they almost always occur in the company of other words. But words are not strung together at random in any language; there are always restrictions on the way they can be combined to convey meaning. Language is not made up of a large number of words which can be used together in free variation. Like individual words, collocational patterns carry meaning and can be culture-specific. This suggests that what a word means often depends on its association with certain collocates. A way of looking at collocation would be to think of it in terms of the tendency of certain words to co-

occur regularly in a given language. English speakers typically break rules but they do not break regulations; they typically talk of wasting time but not of squandering time. When two words collocate, the relationship can hold between all or several of their various forms, combined in any grammatically acceptable order. For example, achieving aims, aims having been achieved, achievable aims, and the achievement of an aim are all equally acceptable and typical in English. It would seem, then, that the patterns of collocation are largely arbitrary and independent of meaning. Every word in a language can be said to have a range of items with which it is compatible, to a greater or lesser degree. Some words have a much broader collocational range than others. Unlike grammatical statements, statements about collocation are made in terms of what is typical or untypical rather than what is admissible or inadmissible. This means that there is no such thing as an impossible collocation. New and unusual combinations of words occur frequently and we do not necessarily dismiss them as unacceptable. The reason for this is that collocational ranges are not fixed. Words attract new collocates all the time; they do so naturally, through processes of analogy, or because speakers create unusual collocations on purpose.

Lewis (1997) argues that language consists of chunks that produce coherent texts when they are combined. In his approach to teaching vocabulary, Lewis puts heavy emphasis on collocations. Collocation describes the relationship between words that often appear together.

Collocations fall into different categories. Lewis (1997) proposes the following categories for collocations:

1. Strong: A large number of collocations are strong or very strong. For example, we most commonly talk of *rancid butter*, but that does not mean that other things can not be rancid.

2. Weak: These are words which co-occur with a greater than random frequency. Many things can be long or short, cheap or expensive, good or bad. However, some things are more predictable, which could be called collocation; for example, *white wine* or *red wine*.
3. Medium strength: These are words that go together with a greater frequency than weak collocations. Some examples are: *hold a meeting*; *carry out a study*.

Hill (2000) states that a collocation can consist of two or more words and contain the following elements (In Deveci,2004: 17)

1. adjective + noun

a huge profit

2. noun + noun

a pocket calculator

3. verb + adjective + noun

learn a foreign language

4. verb + adverb

live dangerously

5. adverb + verb

half understand

6. adverb + adjective

completely soaked

7. verb + preposition + noun

Speak through an interpreter

Deveci (2004) claims that collocations are important to language learners. When learners use collocations, they will be better understood. Native speakers unconsciously predict what is going to be said based on the use of phrases. If a non-native speaker uses frequently-used patterns (collocations), it will be easier for native speakers to guess what the non-native speaker is saying and may help compensate for other language issues, such as pronunciation. When learners write and speak, if they use collocations central to their topic, their readers are more likely to understand their message better. When teaching collocations, we cannot ignore reading and listening skills, which help learners notice collocations. Writing and speaking skills, on the other hand, give them the opportunity to practice collocations. One can easily resort to teaching collocations in isolation as well. However, this kind of teaching is no better than teaching single words in isolation. Unless students are taught in context-based classes, collocations will not make sense to learners, and meaningful learning will probably not take place. Deveci (2004:17-18) points out the collocation-related problems such as the following:

1. Learners may have intralingual problems. For example, instead of many thanks, they might incorrectly use several thanks.

2. Learners may make negative transfer from their mother tongue. For example, some Turkish learners tend to say 'become lovers' instead of 'fall in love'.

3. Learners may look for general rules for collocations that do not work for all collocations. For example, they might over-generalize rules of collocation, for example, the use of prepositions in phrasal verbs. They could think that put off your coat is the opposite of put on your coat.

4. When students learn words through definitions or in isolation, their chances of using appropriate collocations or remembering the words decrease.

5. Students may fail to make sense of an idiom. To illustrate, the English idiom 'It is raining cats and dogs' does not make sense to Turkish learners of English because this

idiom does not exist in their culture. To communicate the same idea, Turkish learners would say It is pouring out of the glass, which does not make sense in English.

6. When students read texts, they may not recognize collocations as meaningful phrases, which would inhibit their understanding of the text.

Gairns and Redman (1986) state that when two items co-occur, or are used together frequently, they are called collocates. Items may co-occur simply because the combination reflects a common real world state of affairs. For instance, 'pass' and 'salt' collocate because people often want other people to pass them the salt. However, the collocations listed below have an added element of linguistic convention; English speakers have chosen to say, for example, that lions 'roar' rather than 'bellow'.

The most common types of collocation are as follows:

a) *subject noun+verb* For example;

The *earth revolves* around the sun.

The *lion roared*.

When we want to describe the movement of the earth in relation to the sun, then 'earth'+ 'revolve' is a likely combination. It would be less common, for example, to use 'circulate' instead of 'revolve'.

b) *verb+object noun* For example;

She *bites* her *nails*.

On the whole, we would not use 'eat' in the given sentence, though many other languages would.

c) *Adjective+noun* For example;

a loud noise, heavy traffic

Notice how a different collocation (e.g. for 'noise', 'a big noise') would give an entirely different meaning.

d) adverb+past participle used adjectivally For example;

badly dressed, fully insured.

They also claim that since there are no 'rules' of collocation, it is difficult to group items by their collocational properties, so teachers and learners are generally more successful when they deal with common collocational problems in isolation or as they arise. Nevertheless, collocation can provide a useful framework for revising items which are partially known and for expanding the learner's knowledge of them. We need to be ready to teach the types of collocations with which the learners have the greatest difficulties; those which are the source of the first language interference, for instance, and those which have restricted collocations for the average learner.

Nattinger (1988) states that to know the meaning of a word becomes the task of knowing its associations with other words: therefore, to teach it most effectively, we must present it in this network of associations. Whether defined broadly or narrowly, collocation entails two of the characteristics important for comprehension. One is that the meaning of a word has a great deal to do with the words with which it commonly associates. Not only do these associations assist the learner in committing these words to memory, they also aid in defining the semantic area of a word, and in helping the student infer meaning from context. A second characteristic is that collocations permit people to know what kinds of words they can expect to find together. We have certain expectations about what sorts of information can follow from what has preceded, and so often are able to guess the

meaning after hearing only the first part of familiar collocations. This is another demonstration of the fact that we understand in 'chunks'. The whole notion of collocations is extremely important for acquiring vocabulary and has yet to be exploited to its full potential.

He also states that collocations are as useful for teaching production as they are for teaching comprehension. First of all, by memorizing collocational groups, students will already be somewhat aware of certain lexical restrictions. By being familiar with collocations like a *convenient situation* and a *convenient time* but not with ones like a *convenient person* or a *convenient cat*, they will realize, however subconsciously, that the adjective *convenient* is only used with inanimate nouns. For the same reasons, they will be less likely to make mistakes in register. The most important, however, is the fact that collocations teach students expectations about what sorts of language can follow from what has preceded. Students will not have to go about reconstructing the language each time they want to say something but instead can use these collocations as pre-packaged building blocks.

Wallace (1982) points out that words very seldom occur in isolation. It is very important for the learner to know the usual collocations that the word occurs in. So from the very beginning the word must appear in its natural environment as it were, among the words it normally collocates with.

The reorientation in language description has led many to rethink the nature of language and the role played by vocabulary. Work in corpus, analysis and computational linguistics has led to considerable interest in the importance of large chunks of language, variously known as *lexical items*, *lexical phrases*, and *prefabricated units*. For example, in *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*, Nattinger and DeCarrco have systematically analyzed extensive samples of actual

language to demonstrate a central role for multiword chunks (1992). They use lexicogrammatical units called *lexical phrases* as the basis for analysis, asserting that pragmatic competence is determined by a learner's ability to access and adapt prefabricated "chunks" of language. Similarly, Michael Lewis refers to corpus lexicography along with other documentation of actual language use as the basis for his claim that lexical items are central to language use and should be central to language teaching. Lewis challenges the validity of a grammar-vocabulary dichotomy, demonstrating instead that language consists of multiword chunks; his pedagogical suggestions include an integration of the communicative approach with a focus on naturally occurring lexis. The work of Sinclair, Nattinger, DeCarrico, and Lewis represents a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past. First, their claims have revived an interest in a central role of accurate language description. Second, they challenge a traditional view of word boundaries, emphasizing the language learner's need to perceive and use patterns of lexis and collocation. Most significant is the underlying claim that language production is not a syntactic rule-governed process but is instead the retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory (Zimmerman, 1997).

Williams (2006) states that learners need to be aware of the fact that words, that is to say, all words have their own, unique collocational fields. Collocations can be defined in numerous ways, but for pedagogical purposes it is more practical to restrict the term to the following: two or three word clusters which occur with a more than chance regularity throughout spoken and written English. Below are the most easily distinguishable types:

Verb + noun	throw a party / accept responsibility
Adjective + noun	square meal / grim determination
Verb + adjective + noun	take vigorous exercise / make steady progress
Adverb + verb	strongly suggest / barely see
Adverb + adjective	utterly amazed / completely useless
Adverb + adjective + noun	totally unacceptable behaviour
Adjective + preposition	guilty of / blamed for / happy about
Noun + noun	pay packet / window frame

The very concept of collocations is often not easy for learners. Once grasped, however, this new focus can re-awaken their interest and enthusiasm in the language. An understanding of collocation is vital for all learners. Learning collocations, apart from increasing the mental lexicon, leads to an increase in written and spoken fluency. Moreover, stress and intonation also improve if language is met, learnt and acquired in chunks.

Leech (1981) discusses seven categories of meaning including what he terms “collocative meaning” which consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment. Pretty and handsome share common ground in the meaning ‘good-looking’, but may be distinguished by the range of nouns with which they are likely to co-occur or collocate:

	girl		boy
	boy		man
pretty →	woman	handsome →	car
	flower		vessel
	garden		overcoat
	colour		airliner
	village		typewriter

According to Palmer (1981) , Firth argues that ‘You shall know a word by the company it keeps.’ For Firth this keeping company, which he calls COLLOCATION, is part of the meaning of a word. He exemplifies this by the English word *ass* which occurs in a limited set of contexts (You silly; Don’t be such an) and in the company of a limited set of adjectives (*silly, obstinate, stupid, and awful*).

Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) state that the area of collocation within the realm of lexis is of prime importance and forms a serious problem for language learners. The more the learner is capable of producing the correct collocations, the fewer hesitations or pauses he makes in long chunks of discourse and consequently, the more competent in the foreign language he becomes. One peculiarity of the learners of English is their failure to produce collocations in the proper order. These linguistic sequences do not follow a prescribed pattern as they are not rule-governed. While native language speakers acquire them throughout the natural acquisition process, foreign language learners need to be instructed and trained in producing them in the proper context.

Stubbs (2002:215) defines collocation as the habitual cooccurrence of two unordered content words, or of a content word and a lexical set. He adds as follows:

Although the phraseological nature of language has been thoroughly documented by corpus studies, there is still a tendency, following hundreds of years of lexicographic tradition, to think of individual words, rather than phrases, as the basic units of language.

Williams (2005) states that collocation has come of age. From its earlier usage as restricted collocations recorded in learner's dictionaries, it has come to be a central element in corpus linguistics, a research paradigm that has largely changed our view of language. From corpus linguistics, collocation has become a central issue in Natural Language Processing as the previous atomistic models prevalent in early generative linguistics-inspired artificial intelligence have proven themselves to be totally inadequate.

McCarty (1984:12) points out that:

The more the learner can see the practical applications in language comprehension and production of notions such as collocation, the practical ways in which set relations can be applied in speech and writing and, from the very outset, that our fundamental access to meaning is the relations between words in contexts, than the more vocabulary learning will move away from its hidebound entrenchment in word-and-definition and the receptacle of sentence.

Lewis states that emphasis on the teaching of collocating words with the dictionary as a learning resource, and the identification of lexical chunks as a basic classroom activity, is novel and deserves our entire attention. Children use unanalyzed chunks of language in appropriate contexts before the emergence of a grammatical system. Also, native speakers rely on many thousands of ready-made chunks of language in addition to discrete vocabulary items. And a second language learner faces with a huge task of learning close to 40,000 words and an almost equal number of prefabricated chunks of varying lengths. Such a life-long task can hardly

be accomplished in a haphazard way, by incidental learning of vocabulary. (Nemoianu, 1994).

2.4. Other Studies on Collocation

Nist & Simpson (1993) states that knowing the definition of a word is important and may be sufficient in many situations. However, memorizing and connecting a definition to a targeted word is just a beginning point. According to them a memorized definition is often the tip of the iceberg, the part mistakenly believed to be the total iceberg because it is so visible and obvious. Beneath the surface of the water is a much larger mass of ice which is far more important.

Deveci (2004) states that over the last few years, vocabulary teaching has gained more interest from English teachers and theorists who argue that, without a wide range of vocabulary, grammar does not help learners much. Having a wide range of vocabulary is not adequate because a single word rarely stands alone. Therefore, language teachers need to make sure that their students know which word goes with other word(s), and that necessitates teaching collocations. Doing so will help learners acquire the language more quickly and efficiently.

Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) states that Arab learners of English, even at advanced levels of proficiency, still have difficulty with English collocational sequences. The competence of seventy undergraduate and graduate English major students was explored on 16 Arabic *kasara*-collocations. The students' overall proficiency in this linguistic area was found to be inadequate. The study aimed at probing any discrepancy in the learners' competence on the set tasks attributed to task type or to their academic levels. As expected, students' proficiency in the recognition, receptive task was significantly better than in the productive task, and

graduates surpassed the undergraduates quite remarkably on both the receptive and productive tasks. The study also investigated the communicative collocational strategies employed by the learners when translating from the NL to the TL. Twelve such strategies have been identified, exemplified, and described. The findings of the study have subscribed to the role of the NL in FL acquisition, suggesting that NL transfer is a creative cognitive process. And finally, the findings raise the need for a more constructive instructional focus on the phenomenon of collocation in English at both school and university levels.

In his paper Khuwaileh (2000) aims at exploring some of the conditions and ways in which Language for Special Purposes (LSP) adult learners perceive misleading vocabulary. Specifically, the paper represents an attempt to find out whether adult learners of English who know the meaning of certain words can or cannot work out the new meaning of phrases or collocations which would result from the combination of two or more words. They try to give reasons for the learners' inaccurate guesses. The phrases and/or collocations used in this study were contextualised in sentences to show or mirror their learners' ability in working out their collocational new meanings. To achieve this objective, two methods were followed. First, individual general words were taught and then a combination of two or more of these words (to give specific meanings) was worked out by 80 LSP learners through context. Second, after testing the same learners on these words and grading their responses, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to indicate both frequencies and statistical significance levels. The samples and teaching situation were taken from the Jordan University of Science and Technology. The study showed that JUST learners found difficulties in working out or guessing the specific meanings of phrases and collocations when combined to form new

meanings though they knew the meaning of each word individually. These phrases look deceptively easy to our Arabic speaking LSP learners at first sight, but their meanings can be radically different from what our learners might expect. The study ends up with a number of practical teaching implications including paraphrasing and idiomaticity in the first place.

Antia (2000) explains Kjellmer's attempts to correlate patterns of speech with knowledge of what he refers to as collocations. As basis for the correlation, he cites research evidence comparing the speech output of moderately fluent native speakers of a language (group A) and moderately fluent learners of the same language (group B). The typical group A subject would normally make hesitation pauses between considerably long stretches of words, whereas the typical group B subject would pause after every two or three words. From these observations, Antia explains Kjellmer's inference: It seems reasonable to believe that the difference between them in this regard can be ascribed largely to a difference in the automation of collocations. The native speaker has acquired an automatic command of substantial portions of speech and uses his pauses to plan one or more thought units ahead. In building his utterances, he makes use of large prefabricated sections. The learner, on the other hand, having automated few collocations, continually has to create structures that he can only hope will be acceptable to native speakers he, too, will of course have to plan his thought units, but we can assume that his pauses are, to a great extent, used for decision-making at this fairly trivial word-structure level.

Altınok (2000) conducted a study on collocation. The purpose of her study was to investigate whether teaching vocabulary in collocations will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using definitions alone. The participants were from Çukurova University, Center of Foreign Languages

Department. In the study, there were 65 students participating, one control and two experimental groups. According to the results of her study, teaching words in collocations did not result in better learning for the collocation group. Although in her study, teaching words in collocations did not produce any statistically significant difference in learning new vocabulary items, she still suggests that the idea that collocates of words should be taught when presenting new vocabulary, because students particularly Turkish students have difficulty in finding appropriate collocates for words.

Biskup (1992) conducted a study on collocation. He tried to find the collocational errors and the role of the first language in committing these errors. In his study there were two groups, Polish and German students who received ten years of English language instruction. They were asked to provide the equivalents of lexical collocations. According to the results, Polish students were doubtful about giving answers but German students were trying to render the meanings of collocations. According to this study if the semantic field of a given item is wide, the possibility of the errors increases.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The goal of this study is to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques.

In this chapter, the aim is to describe the methodological procedure of the study. First, the participants who contributed to the study are described. Then, the materials to collect data, the way the data were collected and also how the scores were given are explained and presented.

3.2. Participants

After getting the necessary permission from the Ministry of Education, the participants were chosen from Konya Karatay Haciveyiszade Ahmet Haşhaş Pimary School. Before the study, a proficiency test was carried out by the researcher. The result of the test was evaluated by the researcher using Independent Samples T Test. According to the results of the statistical analysis, it was seen that the proficiency level of the classes was the same. 7A and 7B classes participated in the study, one as the control group and the other as the experimental group. Totally there were 59 students participating.

In the experimental group (7A) there were 30 students and in the control group (7B) there were 29 students. Their age ranges from 12 to 14. The researcher is the only English teacher in the mentioned school.

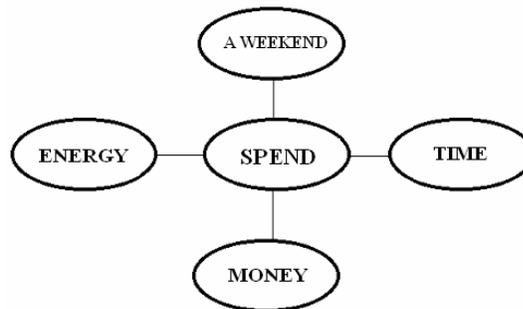
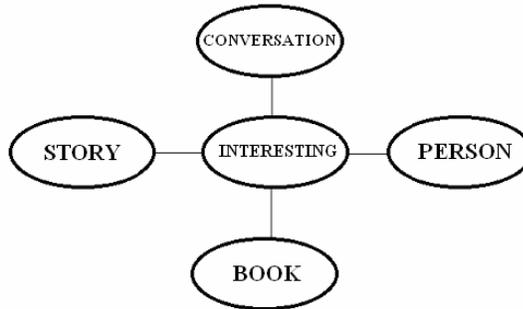
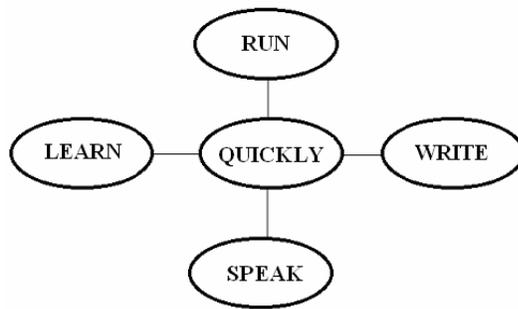
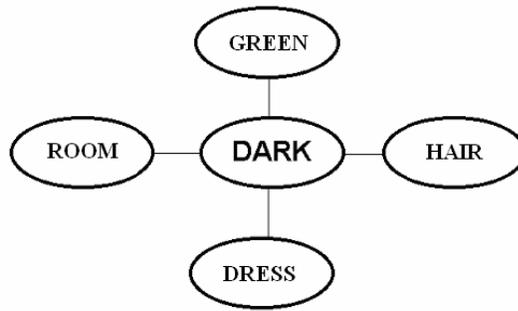
3.3. Materials and Procedure

The purpose of this study was to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches would help students to learn and remember the new words better than traditional ones.

Twelve small reading passages were chosen from the C-level book of Selçuk University School of Foreign Languages (YADAM). These passages were chosen as their level were appropriate for the students and there were very useful new words for the students. Also, the passages were really interesting. In order to select the words that students do not know a list of words was given to students for each of the two passages (see appendices I,J,K,L,M,N). The aim of these tests was to find out the words that the students did not know because these words were to be taught during the treatment. The two classes had to indicate their knowledge of the words by circling one of the two options: 'I know the word' , 'I dont know the word'. And in order to get a realistic result the students had to write the meaning of the word if they had circled the 'I know the word' option. Only those words they indicated they did not know were selected for further use. Two passages were presented in a week and this application was repeated for two passages each week. Then for those unknown words, multiple appropriate collocates were found by using Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary and Oxford Wordpower Dictionary. And the study lasted for six weeks until twelve reading passages were presented.

The new vocabulary was presented to the control group through classical techniques such as synonym, antonym, explanation, definition and mother tongue equivalence. The experimental group was presented the new vocabulary through their collocations which were thought to be the cliché ones or the most frequent ones. The unknown word was written in a circle in the centre of the board. Then, collocates especially which were thought to be the cliché ones or the most frequent ones were written around that word. Some presented examples are below:

Some Examples of the Presented Words to the Experimental Group Through Collocation



The researcher was teaching both groups during the treatment. In fact, the researcher is the only English teacher in the school.

For the experimental group, the collocation technique was used. The students first read the passage and then the teacher presented the new vocabulary items and explained their meanings. She presented multiple suitable collocates for each word, in this way, students were learning a new word through collocations. After presenting the words and their collocates, five comprehension questions related to the passage were asked and answered to make the task more meaningful. Two reading passages were presented in a week. This study continued six weeks until twelve reading passages were presented. A test containing gap-filling exercises was practiced for newly learned vocabulary at the end of each week. In these tests, there were thirty words to choose and fill in the blanks but there were twenty questions. Then, a mixed test containing the gap-filling exercises used in the previous tests was practiced to determine the retention. Finally, the same proficiency test was practiced to see whether there was a progress between the immediate and delayed proficiency levels of the groups. The participants were instructed that each gap should be filled in with only one word. The participants were allowed to guess if they were unsure and they were asked to fill in every gap if they could. Instructions were given orally in Turkish to avoid any misunderstanding of the participants. Each test contains twenty questions and five points are given for each correct answer. So the maximum score a student could get was 100.

The control group received the same reading passages and followed the same procedures. But for this group while the teacher was presenting the new vocabulary, only classical techniques (definition, synonym, antonym, mother tongue translation) were used as it had been before. That is, the words were presented to this

group as it was done in the previous reading classes before the study, nothing new was applied.

3.4. Statistical Analysis

For the evaluation of the differences between the groups Independent Samples T Test was used at the end of the tests. For the evaluation of the differences between the immediate and delayed proficiency tests Dependent T Test was used in SPSS 11.0 for Windows.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The goal of this study is to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as definition, synonym, antonym, and mother tongue translation. My purpose is to show the contribution of collocations and cliches to vocabulary learning of students in English Foreign Language (EFL) classes. Our suggested hypothesis is that learning vocabulary through collocations and cliches is an effective strategy that positively contributes to the development of vocabulary learning. Before the study, a proficiency test was carried out by the researcher. Two groups, an experimental group and a control group, participated in this study. In the experimental group, there were 30 students and the new words were presented with their collocations. In the the control group, there were 29 students and only the classical vocabulary teaching techniques were used. In total, 59 students participated in this study.

Twelve small reading passages, two each week, were presented to the students during six weeks. A test containing gap-filling exercises was practiced for newly learned vocabulary at the end of each week. Then, a mixed test containing the gap-filling exercises in the previous tests was practiced to determine the retention. Finally, the same proficiency test was practiced to see whether there was a progress between the immediate and delayed proficiency levels of the groups.

After all the tests were practiced, the means of the two groups for each test were compared with Independent Samples T Test. Also, the difference between the immediate and delayed proficiency tests was compared with Dependent T Test for the experimental and control group. All the results were presented in the tables below.

Table 4. 1 Proficiency Level 1 Test Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Proficiency Level 1	Experimental	30	30,67	12,44	-0,46	0,64	-1,57
	Control	29	32,24	13,60			

Proficiency Level 1 Test results show that in the experimental group the mean was 30,67 and the standard deviation was 12,44. The mean for the control group was 32,24 and the standard deviation was 13,60. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4. 2 Vocabulary Test 1 Results of Independent-Samples T Test , Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Vocabulary Test 1	Experimetal	30	23,17	23,62	1,68	0,10	8,51
	Control	29	14,66	14,39			

Vocabulary Test 1 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 23,17 and the standard deviation was 23,62. The mean for the control group was 14,66 and the standard deviation was 13,60. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4. 3 Vocabulary Test 2 Results of Independent-Samples T Test , Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Vocabulary Test 2	Experimetal	30	22,50	26,45	0,74	0,47	4,91
	Control	29	17,59	24,88			

Vocabulary Test 2 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 22,50 and the standard deviation was 26,45. The mean for the control group was 17,59 and the standard deviation was 24,88. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4. 4 Vocabulary Test 3 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Vocabulary Test 3	Experimetal	30	25,17	20,11	1,10	0,28	6,55
	Control	29	18,62	25,25			

Vocabulary Test 3 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 25,17 and the standard deviation was 20,11. The mean for the control group was 18,62 and the standard deviation was 25,25. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4. 5 Vocabulary Test 4 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Vocabulary Test 4	Experimetal	30	25,67	26,02	1,61	0,11	9,80
	Control	29	15,86	20,53			

Vocabulary Test 4 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 25,67 and the standard deviation was 26,02. The mean for the control group was 15,86 and the standard deviation was 20,53. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4. 6 Vocabulary Test 5 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Vocabulary Test 5	Experimetal	30	29,33	26,15	0,24	0,81	1,57
	Control	29	27,76	23,25			

Vocabulary Test 5 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 29,33 and the standard deviation was 26,15. The mean for the control group was 27,76 and the standard deviation was 23,25. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4. 7 Vocabulary Test 6 Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Vocabulary Test 6	Experimetal	30	51,67	30,30	3,33*	0,00	24,25
	Control	29	27,41	25,45			

* P<0,05

Vocabulary Test 6 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 51,67 and the standard deviation was 30,30. The mean for the control group was 27,41 and the standard deviation was 25,45. It shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups statistically (P<0,05).

Table 4. 8 Retention Test Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Retention Test	Experimetal	30	31,20	26,89	3,00*	0,00	17,82
	Control	29	13,38	18,02			

* P<0,05

Retention Test results show that in the experimental group the mean was 31,20 and the standard deviation was 26,89. The mean for the control group was 13,38 and the standard deviation was 18,02. It shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups statistically (P<0,05).

Table 4. 9 Proficiency Level 2 Test Results of Independent-Samples T Test, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Mean Differences
Proficiency Level 2	Experimental	30	43,00	12,36	4,48*	0,00	13,52
	Control	29	29,48	10,80			

* P<0,05

Proficiency Level 2 Test results show that in the experimental group the mean was 43,00 and the standard deviation was 12,36. The mean for the control group was 29,48 and the standard deviation was 10,80. It shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups statistically (P<0,05).

Table 4. 10 Proficiency Level Tests Results of Experimental Dependent (Paired) T Test

Groups		Mean	SD	t	P
Experimental N=30	Proficiency Level 1	30,67	12,44	-4,59*	0,00
	Proficiency Level 2	43,00	12,36		

* P<0,05

In Experimental Group Immediate Proficiency Level Test Results show that the mean was 30,67 and the standard deviation was 12,44. In Delayed Proficiency Level Test results show that the was 43,00 and the standard deviation was 12,36. It shows that for the experimental group there is a significant difference between the Immediate and Delayed Proficiency Tests statistically.

Table 4. 11 Proficiency Level Tests Results of Control Dependent (Paired) T Test

Groups			Mean	SD	t	P
Control N=29	Pair 1	Proficiency Level 1	32,24	13,60	1,01	0,32
		Proficiency Level 2	29,48	10,80		

In Control Group Immediate Proficiency Level Test Results show that the mean was 32,24 and the standard deviation was 13,60. In Delayed Proficiency Level Test results show that the mean was 29,48 and the standard deviation was 10,80. It shows that for the Control Group there is not a significant difference between the Immediate and Delayed Proficiency Tests statistically.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION

5.1. Conclusions and Discussion

In this part of the study, the results of the experimental study will be analysed and interpreted in detail for each table.

Table 4.1 shows that the mean for the experimental group was 30,67 and the standard deviation was 12,44. The mean for the control group was 32,24 and the standard deviation was 13,60. The mean of the one group is a little bit higher from the other group. But our p value is not lower than 0,05 so there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P > 0,05$). This means that the proficiency levels of the two classes were almost the same. As a result, we made up our experimental and control group, 7A as the experimental group and 7B as the control group.

Table 4.2 shows that in the experimental group the mean was 23,17 and the standard deviation was 23,62. The mean for the control group was 14,66 and the standard deviation was 13,60. The mean of the experimental group was higher than the control group, that is the experimental group is more successful than the control group. But this difference is not meaningful statistically because our p value is higher than 0,05. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the control and experimental groups statistically ($P > 0,05$).

In table 4.3 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 22,50 and the standard deviation was 26,45. The mean for the control group was 17,59 and the standard deviation was 24,88. In this test the experimental group is again more successful but this difference is not significant statistically ($P > 0,05$).

As we see in table 4.4 in the experimental group, the mean was 25,17 and the standard deviation was 20,11. The mean for the control group was 18,62 and the standard deviation was 25,25. The experimental group is more successful in this test as in the previous tests but p value shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4.5 shows that in the experimental group the mean was 25,67 and the standard deviation was 26,02. The mean for the control group was 15,86 and the standard deviation was 20,53. The experimental group is more successful than the control group as in the previous tables but this is not significant statistically ($P>0,05$).

In table 4.6 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 29,33 and the standard deviation was 26,15. The mean for the control group was 27,76 and the standard deviation was 23,25. It shows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P>0,05$).

Table 4.7 results show that in the experimental group the mean was 51,67 and the standard deviation was 30,30. The mean for the control group was 27,41 and the standard deviation was 25,45. In this table p value is not higher than 0,05. It means that in this test there is a significant difference between the experimental and control group. ($P<0,05$).

As mentioned before six vocabulary tests were practiced. Although the experimental group is more successful in all of these vocabulary tests, only the difference in the last vocabulary test is significant statistically. This might be because the collocation technique is a very new technique for the learners. Before the study, they have never heard a vocabulary learning technique like that. So may be they need

some more time to adapt the new technique to their own learning habits. It is believed that if they had more time, they would get used to learning the new words through their collocations and get higher scores than the control group as in this last vocabulary test.

Table 4.8 shows that in the experimental group, the mean was 31,20 and the standard deviation was 26,89. The mean for the control group was 13,38 and the standard deviation was 18,02. It shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P < 0,05$). This might indicate that collocations helped learners to remember the vocabulary items better than the classical techniques did.

As table 4.9 shows in the experimental group, the mean was 43,00 and the standard deviation was 12,36. The mean for the control group was 29,48 and the standard deviation was 10,80. As mentioned before, the same proficiency test was practiced again after the vocabulary tests. The experimental group is more successful than the control group in this delayed proficiency test. Also, it shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups statistically ($P < 0,05$). It might suggest that teaching vocabulary through collocations improved students' proficiency levels in the experimental group.

As we see in table 4.10 in Experimental Group Immediate Proficiency Level Test results show that the mean was 30,67 and the standard deviation was 12,44. In Delayed Proficiency Level Test results show that the mean was 43,00 and the standard deviation was 12,36. The p value is not higher than 0,05. It shows that for the experimental group, there is a significant difference between the Immediate and Delayed Proficiency Tests statistically. That is, the proficiency level of the experimental group improved during the vocabulary teaching period. As a result, we

might suggest that collocational vocabulary teaching is an effective technique for the learners' proficiency development.

Lastly, as we see in table 4.11 in Control Group Immediate Proficiency Level Test results show that the mean was 32,24 and the standard deviation was 13,60. In Delayed Proficiency Level Test results show that the mean was 29,48 and the standard deviation was 10,80. It shows that in the Control Group there is not a significant difference between the Immediate and Delayed Proficiency Test results statistically. As it is clear in the table, the proficiency level of the control group remained stable. This might suggest that classical vocabulary teaching techniques did not do the same positive effect on the students' proficiency levels.

The first research question was as follows: "Does presenting new words through collocations and cliches result in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques?". The results of the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth vocabulary tests showed no significant difference between the experimental group and control group statistically. But the results of the sixth vocabulary test showed a significant difference between the groups. That is, the experimental group is more successful in this test statistically. The experimental group scored higher than the control group but only in the last test there was a significant difference statistically. In fact, the experimental group was expected to score higher than the control group in the other vocabulary tests. This result indicates that teaching vocabulary through collocations may help learners with vocabulary learning. But the experimental group was not as successful as they were expected. It is believed that if more time was given to students during the learning process, they could be more successful.

The second research question was: “Does presenting new words through collocations and cliches enhance retention of new vocabulary items?”. As Table 8 shows the result of the retention test, the mean of the experimental group was higher than the control group. And as p value shows, this is also a significant difference statistically. This suggests that teaching vocabulary through collocations may enhance retention of new vocabulary items.

Consequently, when the results of the delayed proficiency tests are compared, it is seen that there is a significant difference between the groups and the experimental group has made an improvement.

To sum up; all the results have shown that teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches results in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques and enhances retention of new vocabulary items. The researcher believes that students need training about collocational vocabulary learning. The result of the experimental study has confirmed the validity of the researcher’s assumptions that learning vocabulary through collocations is an effective strategy which positively contributes to the development and retention of vocabulary.

5.2. Suggestions

In the light of the conducted study, it will be proper to summarize the above given suggestions as in the following:

In the past there was a period of time when vocabulary was neglected. With the current trends vocabulary began to gain importance. So students should be aware of the different vocabulary learning strategies. The traditional memorization techniques, preparing bilingual word lists or other classical vocabulary learning

techniques should be given up since they create a kind of unwillingness on the part of the students. Teachers should be familiarized with the current vocabulary teaching techniques and apply them in the class. Since collocational vocabulary learning is a kind of widely-accepted modern technique, it can be used in the classroom safely.

As language teachers, we should keep in mind the fact that students have to be aware of what “knowing a word” means. They should know that just knowing the definition or mother tongue equivalent of a word does not mean that they know that word. For using a word in a context, they should know the collocations of that word. Students should be encouraged to develop a system of vocabulary learning which will lead them to be independent vocabulary learners.

Teachers should not stick to certain vocabulary teaching techniques and activities. They should be open to innovations in the field and encourage students to develop strategies for handling new vocabulary. They should tolerate any type of prejudgement towards vocabulary learning and try to make the students like vocabulary learning and vocabulary studies.

Another suggestion to other researchers is to study with a wider group of students in a longer time period. Because extended exposure to the collocations is an important factor. It is believed that longer time period will help a lot to have a better result especially for the younger learners.

A lot of different collocation exercises can be used for the students who have different proficiency levels. Some suggested examples of collocation exercises for upper level students: (see appendices O, P, R, S,T, U)

6. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Allen, V. F. (1983). *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Altınok, Ş. İ. (2000). *Teaching Vocabulary Using Collocations Versus Using Definitions in EFL Classes*

Antia, Bassegy Edem. (2000). *Terminology and Language Planning. An Alternative Framework of Practice and Discourse*. Philadelphia, PA, USA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Bahns, J. (1993). *Lexical Collocation: A Contrastive View*. *ELT Journal*, (pp.47-63)

Baker, M. (1992). *In other Words: A Coursebook on Translation*. Florence, KY, USA: Routledge.

Biskup, D. (1992). *L1 Influence on Learners' Renderings of English Collocations: A Polish/German Study*. In P.J. L. Arnaut & H. Bejoint (eds.), *Vocabulary and Applied Linguistics*. Basingstoke: Macmillan

Brinton, L. J. & Akimoto, M. (1999). *Definition of "idiom" and "collocation"*. In L. Brinton (eds.) *Collocational and Idiomatic Aspects of Composite Predicates in the History of English*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company

Carter, R. & McCarty, M. (1988). *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. London: Longman Group Limited

Carter, Ronald. (1998). *Vocabulary : Applied Linguistic Perspectives*. London, UK: Routledge.

Celce-Murcia, M. & Rosensweig, F. (1989). *Teaching Vocabulary in the ESL Classroom*, in M. Celce-Murcia & L. Mc Intosh (eds.). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Celce-Murcia, M., & McIntosh, L. (1979). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Coady, J. & Huckin, T. (1997). *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Deveci, T. (2004). Why and How to Teach Collocations. *English Teaching Forum*, Vol.42, Number.2, pp16-20.

Ellis, Rod. (1999). *Learning a Second Language through Interaction*. Philadelphia, PA, USA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Gairns, R. & Redman, S. (1986). *Working with Words: A guide to teaching and learning vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Hall, B. T. (2006). TESOL Language Training - How Words Work: 3. Collocation available on:
(15/04/2006),<http://www.suite101.com/article.cfm/tesol/23603>

Jackson, H. (1988). *Words and their Meaning*. London: Longman Group UK Limited

Jackson, Howard. (2002). *Lexicography: An Introduction*. Florence, KY, USA: Routledge.

Khuwaileh, A. A. (2000). *Vocabulary in LSP: A Case Study of Phrases and Collocations*. Babel, Vol.46, No.2 (pp.97-111)

Leech, G. (1982). *Semantics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Nemoianu (1994) *The Lexical Approach*. (Lewis, M. 1993). reviewed by Nemoianu, A. M. TESL-EJ Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. Vol.3, No.1, R.3

Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and the way forward*. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.

Lewis, M.(1997). *Implementing the Lexical Approach*. London: Language Teaching Publication.

McCarty, M. J. (1984). *A new look at vocabulary in EFL*. Applied Linguistics, Vol.5 No.1(p.12)

Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Nation, P. (2005). *Teaching Vocabulary*. Asian EFL Journal. Vol. 7, Issue 3. pp1-9.

Nattinger, J. (1980). *A lexical phrase grammar for ESL*. TESOL Quarterly, 14, 337-344.

Nattinger, J. R. (1988). *Some Current Trends in Vocabulary Teaching*. In R. Carter & M. McCarty (eds.), *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. New York: Longman

Nist, S. L. & Simpson, M. L. (1993). *Developing Vocabulary Concept for College Thinking*. Lexington:D. C. Heath and Company

Nunan, D. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology*. New York:Prentice Hall Macmillian

Palmer, F. R. (1981). *Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Pres.

Partington, Alan. (1988). *Patterns and Meanings*. Philadelphia, PA, USA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Sheehan, A. (2004). *Making Sense of Words*. English Teaching Forum, Vol. 42, Number.1, pp 1-11. <http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol42/no1/p02.pdf>

Simpson, Paul. (1996). *Language Through Literature : An Introduction*. London, UK:Routledge

Stubbs, M. (2002). *Two Quantitative Methods of Studying phraseology in English*, International Journal of Corpus Linguistics. Vol.7, Number.2 (pp.215-244)

Taylor, L. (1990). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. London:Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd.

Van der Wouden, Ton. (1997). *Negative Contexts : Collocation, Polarity and Multiple Negation*. London, UK: Routledge.

Wallace, M. J. (1982). *Teaching Vocabulary*. London: Heinemann Educational Books Limited

Williams, B. (2006). *Collocation With Advanced Levels I-not entirely proper/appropriate/good?*. Available on: (10/01/2006),
<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/vocabulary/collocation1.shtml#one>

Williams, G. (2005). *English Collocation Studies: The OSTI report*, Sinclair, J. M., Jones, S., Daley, R. ed. by Ramesh K. (2004). *English Collocation Studies: The OSTI report*. Reviewed by Geoffrey Williams, *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 10:2, 257-276

Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). *Historical Trends in Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. In J. Coady and T. Huckin (eds.), *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Zughoul, M. R. & Abdul-Fattah, H. (2003). *Translational Collocational Strategies of Arab Learners of English : A Study in Lexical Semantics*. *Babel*, Vol. 49, Number.1(pp.59-81).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PROFICIENCY TEST

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Questions from 1 to 5 are about the passage.

Brad's Saturday

Today is Saturday. It is sunny and warm outside. Brad usually gets up at 10:00 a.m. on Saturdays. After his breakfast he goes out and plays with his friends. He sometimes helps his father to wash their car in the afternoons or he goes to a football match with him. In the evenings he watches TV or plays games on his computer. He never does his homework or never studies his lessons on Saturdays. He always goes to bed at 10:00 p.m.

1. At what time does Brad usually get up on Saturdays ?
a) At ten o'clock at nights b) At ten o'clock in the morning
c) In the afternoons d) At noon
2. What does he do after his breakfast?
a) Washes their car b) Goes to a match
c) Plays with his dad d) Meets his friends
3. His dad sometimes washes their car in the _____ .
a) afternoons b) weekend c) mornings d) evenings
4. In the evenings Brad _____ TV or _____ on his computer.
a) watch/play b) watches/plays
c) watch/plays d) is watch/ is play
5. At ten o'clock at night he always _____ .
a) watches TV b) gets up c) has breakfast d) goes to bed
6. _____ picture is on the wall? Atatürk's.
a) Who b) What c) Where d) Whose
7. I am _____. Give me a glass of water please
a) thirsty b) young c) hungry d) heavy
8. His brothers _____ like playing football.
a) doesn't b) are c) don't d) is

9. Fish _____ swim but _____ walk.
 a) can/can't b) do/don't c) are/aren't d) is/isn't
10. _____ your sister coming Benan?
 a) Are b) Do c) Does d) Is
11. How many _____ are there in the garden? There _____ one.
 a) child / is b) children / is c) children / are d) childs / is
12. Where _____ his parents go every Sunday?
 a) does b) do c) are d) is
13. What _____ they doing? They are _____ TV.
 a) are/watch b) do/watching c) is/watches d) are/watching
14. They come _____ school _____ foot.
 a) to/on b) to/in c) on/at d) at/in
15. August _____ the third month of _____
 a) is/year b) is/Summer c) is/Autumn d) is/Winter
16. A holiday by the sea is-----than a holiday in the mountains.
 a) good b) gooder c) better d) goodest
17. I have got _____ exercise-book.
 a) a b) an c) any d) some
18. Yesterday, he..... all day at the office.
 a) Works b) worked c) is working d) work
19. My father _____ to Los Angeles last weekend.
 a) driven b) drove c) drive d) drived
20. What did you eat last night?
 a. At six. b. Spaghetti. c. With my family. d. At home.

APPENDIX B

VOCABULARY TEST 1

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

seat – then – interesting – last – enjoy – behind – loud – angry – actor – round –
attention – end – bear – again – rudely – private – conversation – stay – until –
outside – still – dear – repeat – lunch – out – breakfast – play – dark – ring – aunt

1. I bought a new book. It is the mostbook I have ever read.
2. I would like ainterview with the school manager.
3. I in bed until 11 o'clock every Sunday.
4. I had awith her about her plans for the future.
5. Please payto what I am saying.
6. Could youwhat you said? I didn't quite understand it.
7. Can you turn the television down, it is a bit
8. The back of the car is wide enough for three people.
9. My parents will be with me if I get home late.
10. Our house looks plain. We decided to paint theof our house.
11. When I was a child I wanted to be an
12. He is afraid of the
13. Would you like to go to a while you are in London?
14. She turnedso that she could see out of the window.
15. "Shut up!" he shouted me
16. I reallylistening to music while I am driving.
17. Do youlive in London?
18. She is out. I will phone later.
19. December is the month of the year.
20. In the he could reach the top of the mountain.

APPENDIX C

VOCABULARY TEST 2

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

spoil – send – museum – waiter- work – visit – public – letter - whole - quickly –
decision – friendly – teach – lend – understand – line – pass – spend – single – receive
– firm – already – great – different – town – soon – abroad – find – before – centre

1. There was a vase of flowers in theof the table.
2. The bad weather will our holiday.
3. Tomundressed and got into bed.
4. The two houses are veryin style.
5. ‘Have you made ayet?’ ‘No, I am still thinking about it!’
6. Everyone here is verytowards us.
7. Could you me \$5 until Friday?
8. I a letter from one of my old friends every week.
9. The airpollution is a.danger to health.
10. The time willvery quickly and we will meet here again next year.
11. Which do you work for?
12. Please speak more slowly. I can’t you.
13. Let’s go home! It will be dark.
14. We drank a bottle of orange juice.
15. I have never been I want to go to England.
16. Akşehir is a very modern
17. There were a number of people in the concert hall.
18. Don’t forget to me a postcard.
19. On Sundays I all my day studying.
20. He gave her a red rose.

APPENDIX D

VOCABULARY TEST 3

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

lift - detective – wait – same – experience - expect – valuable – during - apart –
parcel – journey – amusing - diamond – hour – thief – village - try – steal – inside
– reply - building – carry - reach - guard – soon - surprise – precious – full – stone

1. On the way home a man stopped me and asked for a
2. We all learn by
3. He is a very person and he makes me laugh a lot.
4. Gold and silver aremetals.
5. Did you have a good
6. I can't get anything else in my suitcase-it's
7. I that it will rain this afternoon.
8. 'What is my present?' 'It's a
9. the summer holidays we went swimming everyday.
10. My brother and I had the teacher at school.
11. We live in a small
12. There is a very old near our house.
13. The letter will you on Wednesday.
14. Is there anything the box?
15. is a hard, bright precious stone which is very expensive.
16. It will be dark.
17. here. I'll be back in a few minutes.
18. Could youthis bag for me? It's terribly heavy.
19. When we go on holiday, all we want is sun, sea and
20. I'm going shopping now. I'll be back in about an

APPENDIX E

VOCABULARY TEST 4

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

nearly – last - enter – crowd - competition – gather - each – strike - hard – pass -
grow – minute - vegetable – move - neat – suddenly - path – shout - wooden – true -
bridge – refuse - pool – prize – moment – laugh - best – welcome - worst - win

1. Is itthat Adam is leaving?
2. He won the first in the 100 metres race.
3. He entered a in the newspaper and won a car.
4. Our house was too small so we decided to a bigger house.
5., it started to rain.
6. ‘What’s the time?’ ‘It’s five o’clock’.
7. I always ask you to come but you always
8. Rice doesn’t in a cold climate.
9. Eric is the student in the class. All his marks are over 80.
10. There are a lot of houses in this village.
11. It will five in twenty minutes’ time.
12. Just at that my mother arrived.
13. His jokes always make me
14. There was a largeof students in the school garden.
15. We had to use theover the river.
16. The children went to the door to their father.
17. The students all stand up when the teachers the class.
18. Don’t! I can hear you.
19. Please keep your room and tidy.
20. After the rainstorm, there was a on the road.

APPENDIX F

VOCABULARY TEST 5

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

news – let – nervous – business – afford – pay – without – salary – turn – weak – request
– voice – interrupt – smile – extra – polite – park – lucky – ticket – note – area – sign –
fail – reminder – obey – wrong – stay – year – office – desk

1. I am very to have such good friends.
2. I get my on the 15th day of each month.
3. I am a bit about travelling on my own.
4. I receive a for help from Mary.
5. ‘Have you heard the latest? Mary and Joe are getting married!’
6. They walked because they couldn’t a taxi.
7. If you don’t work hard, you may
8. The assistants in that shop are always very helpful and
9. I’m sorry to but there is a phone call for you.
10. We don’t do muchwith foreign companies.
11. You must stop at the red light. You must the traffic rules.
12. Please speak in a loud I can’t hear you.
13. What does that road say?
14. I wrote him a to say his books are in my schoolbag.
15. I have got a for the concert. Would you like to go?
16. Do you want to by cheque or by credit card?
17. He answered the question but it was
18. ‘What size is this pullover?’ ‘..... large’.
19. The child has a beautiful on his face.
20. I usually get to the at about 9 o’clock.

APPENDIX G

VOCABULARY TEST 6

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

manager – upset – feel – sympathetic – complain – wicked – knock – envelope – contain – gentleman – honesty – still – last – station – railway – dark – way – porter – carefully – clearly – several – foreigner – wonder – languages – repeat – however – slowly – worse – world – enter

1. She answered the questions with
2. When Sandra was ill, everyone was very
3. I thought I heard a at the door.
4. ‘What was the weather like on your holiday?’ ‘Oh, I can’t.....’
5. She was looking very about something.
6. Please listen It is important that you remember all this.
7. I am from Turkey but I live in England. I am a in this country.
8. He walked along the street all night.
9. I what the new teacher will be like.
10. My suitcases were very heavy. So I asked the hotel for help.
11. Our school explained the school rules clearly.
12. We stayed in England days.
13. I got to the two minutes before my train left.
14. He is always very kind. He is a real
15. ‘Could you what you said? I didn’t understand you’.
16. I can speak two, English and Turkish.
17. There is an for you on the table.
18. December is the month of the year.
19. Can you tell me the to the post office?
20. I think İstanbul is the most beautiful city in the

APPENDIX H

RETENTION TEST

Name/Surname:

Class/Number:

Fill in the blanks. Use one of the words in the box.

dark – conversation - repeat – rude - lend – moment - public – knock - angry - shout – journey - understand – crowd - amusing – pay - village – prize – steal - laugh - lucky - obey – actor – visit - porter - station - last – pass – full – carry – neat - competition – salary – manager - centre - inside

1. He is afraid of the
2. I had awith her about her plans for the future.
3. December is the month of the year.
4. Could youwhat you said? I didn't quite understand it.
5. Could you me \$5 until Friday?
6. The airpollution is a.danger to health.
7. The time will very quickly and we will meet here again next year.
8. Please speak more slowly. I can't you.
9. He is a very person and he makes me laugh a lot.
10. I can't get anything else in my suitcase-it's
11. We live in a small
12. Could youthis bag for me? It's terribly heavy.
13. He won the first in the 100 metres race.
14. He entered a in the newspaper and won a car.
15. His jokes always make me
16. Don't! I can hear you.
17. I am very to have such good friends.
18. I get my on the 15th day of each month.
19. You must stop at the red light. You must the traffic rules.
20. Do you want to by cheque or by credit card?
21. I thought I heard a at the door.
22. My suitcases were very heavy. So I asked the hotel for help.
23. Our school explained the school rules clearly.
24. I got to the two minutes before my train left.
25. My parents will be with me if I get home late.

APPENDIX I

	Words	I know the word	I don't know the word	Meaning
1	private			
2	conversation			
3	seat			
4	play			
5	interesting			
6	enjoy			
7	behind			
8	loudly			
9	angry			
10	actor			
11	turn			
12	round			
13	attention			
14	bear			
15	again			
16	rude			
17	theatre			
18	talk			
19	end			
20	hear			
21	breakfast			
22	lunch			
23	never			
24	early			
25	sometimes			
26	stay			
27	until			
28	late			
29	out			
30	dark			
31	outside			
32	rain			
33	then			
34	ring			
35	repeat			
36	arrive			
37	say			
38	still			
39	have			
40	ask			
41	aunt			
42	theatre			
43	man			
44	woman			
45	pay			
46	week			
47	go			
48	telephone			
49	young			
50	good			

APPENDIX J

	Words	I know the word	I don't know the word	Meaning
1	send			
2	card			
3	spoil			
4	summer			
5	visit			
6	museum			
7	public			
8	friendly			
9	garden			
10	lend			
11	word			
12	understand			
13	line			
14	postcard			
15	pass			
16	quickly			
17	friend			
18	make			
19	decision			
20	buy			
21	whole			
22	day			
23	room			
24	single			
25	write			
26	exciting			
27	trip			
28	receive			
29	letter			
30	work			
31	firm			
32	already			
33	great			
34	different			
35	place			
36	number			
37	just			
38	town			
39	centre			
40	soon			
41	fly			
42	abroad			
43	before			
44	find			
45	visit			
46	always			
47	holiday			
48	big			
49	teach			
50	month			

APPENDIX K

	Words	I know the word	I don't know the word	Meaning
1	too			
2	detective			
3	wait			
4	late			
5	expect			
6	valuable			
7	parcel			
8	airport			
9	tell			
10	police			
11	hour			
12	try			
13	main			
14	diamond			
15	airfield			
16	thief			
17	carry			
18	customs house			
19	steal			
20	inside			
21	building			
22	into			
23	surprise			
24	keep			
25	open			
26	suddenly			
27	precious			
28	guard			
29	full			
30	sand			
31	reach			
32	stone			
33	speak			
34	amusing			
35	leave			
36	village			
37	lift			
38	experience			
39	wave			
40	south			
41	same			
42	reply			
43	soon			
44	journey			
45	apart			
46	plane			
47	year			
48	someone			
49	small			
50	drive			

APPENDIX L

	Words	I know the word	I don't know the word	Meaning
1	best			
2	beautiful			
3	town			
4	enter			
5	garden			
6	everybody			
7	worst			
8	nearly			
9	garden			
10	each			
11	nice			
12	large			
13	neat			
14	grow			
15	competition			
16	path			
17	win			
18	vegetable			
19	over			
20	build			
21	wooden			
22	pool			
23	hard			
24	bridge			
25	prize			
26	cold			
27	evening			
28	crowd			
29	welcome			
30	under			
31	clock			
32	strike			
33	gather			
34	move			
35	minute			
36	hand			
37	stop			
38	shout			
39	refuse			
40	moment			
41	true			
42	new			
43	watch			
44	time			
45	flower			
46	look			
47	sing			
48	past			
49	laugh			
50	like			

APPENDIX M

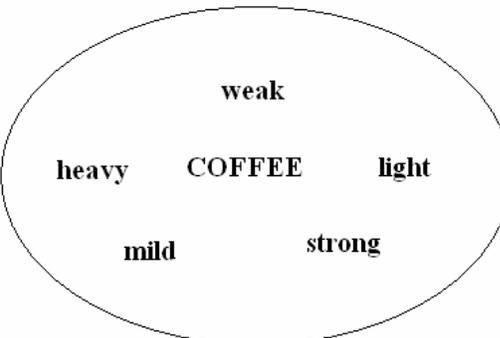
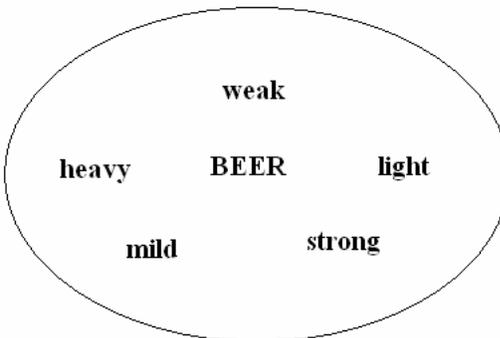
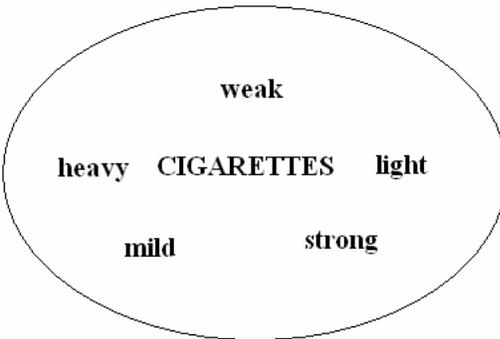
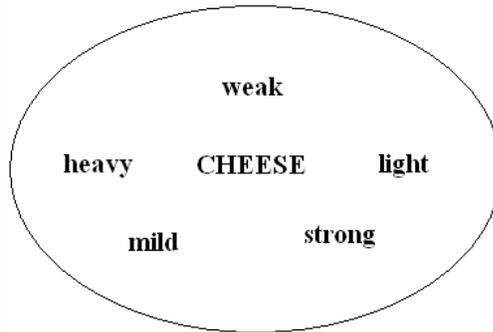
	Words	I know the word	I don't know the word	Meaning
1	secretary			
2	feel			
3	enter			
4	business			
5	nervous			
6	large			
7	afford			
8	know			
9	weak			
10	pay			
11	turn			
12	interrupt			
13	salary			
14	receive			
15	year			
16	smile			
17	voice			
18	extra			
19	news			
20	plite			
21	park			
22	place			
23	request			
24	find			
25	lucky			
26	wrong			
27	traffic			
28	ticket			
29	during			
30	let			
31	happen			
32	holiday			
33	city			
34	welcome			
35	enjoy			
36	area			
37	attention			
38	stay			
39	note			
40	street			
41	remind			
42	policeman			
43	soon			
44	fail			
45	car			
46	sign			
47	desk			
48	obey			
49	leave			
50	person			

APPENDIX N

	Words	I know the word	I don't know the word	Meaning
1	be			
2	enter			
3	office			
4	lose			
5	money			
6	hotel			
7	sympathetic			
8	upset			
9	wicked			
10	complain			
11	put			
12	manager			
13	envelope			
14	world			
15	gentleman			
16	knock			
17	still			
18	contain			
19	honesty			
20	last			
21	some			
22	railway			
23	dark			
24	station			
25	big			
26	way			
27	speak			
28	carefully			
29	clearly			
30	repeat			
31	several			
32	porter			
33	answer			
34	understand			
35	question			
36	foreign			
37	slowly			
38	smile			
39	each			
40	language			
41	learn			
42	man			
43	wonder			
44	black			
45	arrive			
46	teacher			
47	only			
48	down			
49	ask			
50	sit			

APPENDIX O

Look at the circles below. Do you know which adjectives you can use with the nouns in the boxes? Cross out the ones which you think are not correct: (Gairns and Redman 1986:39).



APPENDIX P

You will need to be able to identify common collocations, that is words that go together.

Available on: <http://www.flo-joe.co.uk/fce/students/strategy/mcclze/collocbc.htm>

Choose the answer A, B, C or D that completes each sentence.

1. He tried to her some advice but she wouldn't listen.
 - a) give
 - b) suggest
 - c) recommend
 - d) take
2. Have you out the invitations to the party yet?
 - a) posted
 - b) sent
 - c) dispatched
 - d) delivered
3. I wonder if you could me a favour and carry this box for me.
 - a) make
 - b) do
 - c) give
 - d) hold
4. Could you just stand there quietly without a sound?
 - a) creating
 - b) doing
 - c) causing
 - d) making
5. She's slowly getting after the accident.
 - a) better
 - b) over
 - c) well
 - d) improved
6. Your father looks really different in this picture but I can it's him.
 - a) know
 - b) identify
 - c) tell
 - d) choose
7. The recipe for vegetable soup has a number of different
 - a) parts
 - b) components
 - c) ingredients
 - d) elements
8. Guess who I into in the supermarket today?
 - a) knocked
 - b) bumped
 - c) hit
 - d) banged

APPENDIX R

Here are some examples of sentences written by students on the course. Identify any odd or unacceptable collocations and suggest alternatives: (Available on: <http://people.lett.unitn.it/riley/Word%20and%20sound%20Files/Collocation.doc>)

1. That is the reason that pushed Mr Hirst, an ex-inmate, to begin a campaign....
2. but the appeal was refused...
3. Mr Hirst reported it to the European Court of Human Rights.
4. the jail must forfeit the inmate's liberty, not the vote/ As UK laws forfeit convicted prisoners right to vote
5. The issue was risen by David Hendon / although the output is raising in the next two years
6. the unknown outcome of the European integration process lets people feel uncertain about the stability of the EU
7. measures such as euthenasia can generate scorching ethical problems
8. the article arguments more than one point of view
9. if it is right or not to resign the right of information to defend a national interest
10. She was fighting a battle for the funding right to the freedom of the press
11. I usually make my homework
12. the best instrument to make "justice" and avoid impunity
13. the essay analyses the up to date issue of the global environment's tutelage (2 problems)

APPENDIX S

Give the opposites of the words written in *italics*.

1) a *light* bag

2) a light wind

3) light blue ..

4) a poor family

5) a poor exam

6) Poor John!

7) a hard exam

8) a hard chair

9) a hard journey

10) rough skin

11) rough calculation

12) rough sea

13) In the following pairs of phrases the words in italics have the same antonym, what is it?

14) a *mild* curry / a *cold* meal

15) *ugly* house / *awful* song

16) *long* journey / *tall* man

APPENDIX T

Choose words from the list to complete the sentences. You will need certain words more than once, and some words you will not need at all. Invent a sentence for the word(s) not used.

travel cruise trip voyage journey tour
excursion expedition holiday crossing drive flight

- 1) We went on a sightseeing of London.
- 2) We're going on a day to the country.
- 3) The return from Spain took 35 hours.
- 4) We won the raffle and the prize was a 2-week along the coast of Turkey and round the Greek islands. It's a pity I suffered so much from seasickness on the from Dover to Calais that I caught the first back from Paris and decided to spend my in England.
- 5) At the moment he's away on a business
- 6) We had a great holiday in Scotland but the home was horrendous: traffic jams virtually all the way.
- 7) The Titanic sunk on its maiden from Liverpool to New York.
- 8) He took me out for a in his new sports car but it rained and I got absolutely drenched and ended up with flu! It's a I won't forget in a long time.

APPENDIX U

Here are some examples of sentences written by students on the course.
Identify any odd or unacceptable collocations and suggest alternatives:

Available on
<http://people.lett.unitn.it/riley/Word%20and%20sound%20Files/Collocation.doc>

1. That is the reason that pushed Mr Hirst, an ex-inmate, to begin a campaign....
2. but the appeal was refused...
3. Mr Hirst reported it to the European Court of Human Rights.
4. the jail must forfeit the inmate's liberty, not the vote/ As UK laws forfeit convicted prisoners right to vote
5. The issue was risen by David Hendon / although the output is raising in the next two years
6. the unknown outcome of the European integration process lets people feel uncertain about the stability of the EU
7. measures such as euthenasia can generate scorching ethical problems
8. the article arguments more than one point of view
9. if it is right or not to resign the right of information to defend a national interest
10. She was fighting a battle for the funding right to the freedom of the press
11. I usually make my homework
12. the best instrument to make "justice" and avoid impunity
13. the essay analyses the up to date issue of the global environment's tutelage (2 problems)