

**Teaching New English Vocabulary Items by Using
Collocations in English as a Second Language classes at a
Private University.**

تدريس مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية الجديدة باستخدام خاصية تجميع المفردات في
فصول اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة ثانية في جامعة خاصة.

by

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ABSTRACT

Teaching English vocabulary has not been given a sufficient attention in English as a second language classes. The perspectives on how to teach English words have altered since 1970s. As far as learning a second language is concerned, vocabulary is an essential component that helps learners to master the language. Thus, English vocabulary items must be treated as one of the main constituents of the English language and they should be taught intensively at the first levels. Several techniques, methods and approaches to teach vocabulary have appeared. One of these techniques is to teach words by using collocations. To teach vocabulary by using collocations is regarded as a comparatively new method. This research aims to test the effectiveness of teaching vocabulary by using collocations. This technique would lead to better results than introducing words by using the ordinary approaches like definitions, synonyms, antonyms and translation to the mother tongue. The research was done at a private university at the foundation department. The participants were 76 intermediate level students.

The first chapter of this research includes a brief background about this research, problem statement, study's goal, scope, importance of the investigation and research questions. The following chapter contains the review of the literature that discusses vocabulary in second language teaching, definitions and types of collocations. Chapter three includes the methodology of the research, materials, the chosen participants, the implemented procedures and the explanation of the statistical analysis. Theorists, teachers, researchers, and others involved in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) did not realize the role and significance of vocabulary in the acquisition of the English language. However, some scholars in linguistics have conducted some pedagogical materials and experimental studies that show the significance of vocabulary teaching and since then vocabulary teaching has been a valued issue in the field of teaching English.

Most English language teachers think that the number of English words that learners know represents the knowledge of their vocabulary skills. However, some scholars indicate that the vocabulary knowledge includes other abilities. It refers to the student's knowledge of the possible relation of words in a sentence, which word is convenient with which word. Combinability is a

term that should be granted a special interest as it is a subject that English learners do not know how to deal with and they constantly produce incorrect collocational uses.

Keywords: collocations, teaching vocabulary, experimental group, control group, retention

ملخص هذه الدراسة

لم يحظ تدريس مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية بالاهتمام الكافي في اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة ثانية. تغيرت وجهات النظر حول كيفية تدريس الكلمات الإنجليزية منذ السبعينيات. بقدر ما يتعلق الأمر بتعلم لغة ثانية ، تعد المفردات مكونًا أساسيًا يساعد المتعلمين على إتقان اللغة. وبالتالي ، يجب التعامل مع مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية كأحد المكونات الرئيسية للغة الإنجليزية ويجب تدريسها بشكل مكثف في المستويات الأولى. ظهرت عدة تقنيات وطرق وأساليب لتعليم المفردات. إحدى هذه التقنيات هي تعليم الكلمات باستخدام التجميعات.

يعتبر تعليم المفردات باستخدام التجميع طريقة جديدة نسبيًا. يهدف هذا البحث إلى اختبار فاعلية مفردات التدريس باستخدام التجميعات. ستؤدي هذه التقنية إلى نتائج أفضل من تدريس الكلمات باستخدام الأساليب العادية مثل التعريفات والمرادفات والمتضادات والترجمة إلى اللغة الأم. تم البحث في جامعة خاصة في قسم التأسيس. كان المشاركون 76 طالبًا في المستوى المتوسط.

يتضمن الفصل الأول من هذا البحث خلفية موجزة عن هذا البحث ، وبيان المشكلة ، وهدف الدراسة ، ونطاقها ، وأهمية التحقيق وأسئلة البحث. يحتوي الفصل التالي على مراجعة الأدبيات التي تناقش المفردات في تدريس اللغة الثانية والتعاريف وأنواع التجميعات. الفصل الثالث يتضمن منهجية البحث والمواد والمشاركين المختارين والإجراءات المنفذة وشرح التحليل الإحصائي.

لم يدرك المنظرون والمعلمون والباحثون وغيرهم من المشاركين في اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية (EFL) دور وأهمية المفردات في اكتساب اللغة الإنجليزية. ومع ذلك ، فقد أجرى بعض الباحثين في علم اللغة بعض المواد التربوية والدراسات التجريبية التي تظهر أهمية تدريس المفردات ومنذ ذلك الحين أصبح تدريس المفردات قضية ذات قيمة في مجال تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية.

يشير بعض العلماء إلى أن معرفة المفردات تتضمن قدرات أخرى. حيث يجب على الطالب معرفة نوعية العلاقة بين الكلمات في الجملة ، أي كلمة ملائمة مع أي كلمة. الجمع هو مصطلح يجب أن يُمنح اهتمامًا خاصًا لأنه موضوع جديد لا يدرك الطلاب كيفية التعامل معه.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Sharp reaction, cause damage and scream silently are some examples of word combinations that are called collocations. They were firstly discussed by Firth who explained this phenomenon in detail, but the significance of collocation has been realized after the increasing number of contributions that has been made by some scholars such as Sinclair, 1991, Nattinger, 1992 and Lewis, 2000. They have conducted some significant pedagogical and theoretical works that emphasize the importance of collocations. Thus, today foreign language teachers consider collocations as an essential element of second and foreign language teaching.

There are several studies and researches that have been done on collocation up until now. Lewis (2000), Sinclair (1991) and Nattinger (1992) are scholars who firstly tried to classify collocations. They also presented important contributions regarding collocations. Further, other scholars like Nesselhauf (2003) Carter (1987) and Meara (1984) concentrate on how learners comprehend the meanings of the words (receptive) and how words relate to each other, i.e. collocations (productive). The vocabulary ability of the English learners do not merely show the deficiency of the learners in producing words but it offers several possible ways to overcome the collocational issues.

A dictionary is a vital source which students and teachers can apply to gain and access lexical information. Almost each English learner manages to have a dictionary. This ordinary dictionary does not contain much useful information about the application of collocations. It only helps make the unknown word known by providing its definition. However, when collocations have been recognized, more dictionaries that concentrate on collocations have appeared and have been used by all students interested in their more advanced and complex phraseological structure.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The goal of the current research is to investigate if the usage of collocations has any positive impact on the retention of words. Words are regarded as the smallest meaningful part of any language; therefore, collocations are an essential element of language teaching and should be handled with a great deal of care. There are several linguists such as Lewis (2000) and Nation (2001) who are aware of the importance of collocations. They emphasize that collocations are directly linked to the language knowledge.

It has been agreed that vocabulary learning is one of the vital skills in language acquisition. However, according to Zemmerman (2000), vocabulary teaching has not been paid enough attention in English classes. Within several schools many teachers are not familiar with the various techniques of vocabulary teaching. It is the responsibility of the teacher to provide students with efficacious opportunities that will pave the way for them to learn more words and be able to keep them in their minds. There are some traditional methods that teachers use to teach new English words items. For example, some teachers tend to incorporate the target words into reading the classes and they are introduced through their synonyms, antonyms and definitions. Guessing the words' meanings from a context is a technique that has been used frequently. However, teachers can use other vocabulary teaching methods such as collocations and formal groupings. Nattinger (1992) says that the effectiveness of these methods should be empirically investigated.

Learners still make mistakes when they use collocations. This is mostly because of the influence of their mother tongue. Almost all learners make use of their vocabulary knowledge of the first language (L1) to learn the second language (L2). The linguistic term of this phenomenon is called “the interference of mother tongue” which leads to some odd and strange sentences. Thus, it is essential that learners should be granted the opportunity to enhance their collocations knowledge.

1.3. Aim

The purpose of this research is to investigate the effectiveness of teaching vocabulary by using collocations. This study will find out whether using collocations in teaching vocabulary will lead to better results than using the ordinary methods such as synonyms, antonyms, definitions and translations. The goal is to show how collocations will help students learn vocabulary in English classes. The researcher's hypothesis is that the technique of collocations is an efficient method that effectively develops vocabulary learning. In case this research proves that this technique enhances the learning process of vocabulary, English teachers will be recommended to use it in their classes. The study's scope is to come up with a new strategy that can make the vocabulary learning process more meaningful and effective.

1.4. Significance of the Study

A language learner must know thousands of words to be proficient in that language. That is, the learner should understand its aspects in order to use it efficiently. Therefore, it is the teacher's responsibility to come up with appropriate techniques that provide students with solutions for the problems they face in learning vocabulary. Unfortunately, in spite of their great efforts, most teachers who are aware of this responsibility fail to let their learners restore the amount of words they desire. The crucial point is that knowing the definition of a certain word does not necessarily mean knowing the word. The word's various usages in context and its connotational aspects can lead to a much more successful result. English teachers are advised to use more effective and productive methods to enable their learners to retain more vocabulary in less time. Therefore, teaching words by using collocations could be of great help to EFL learners. There are a lot of English language teachers and linguists who emphasize that collocations are significant for the improvement of the second language vocabulary and communicative competence. Brown (1984) is among the early linguists who say that collocations are important in second language learning and teaching. He proposes that the increase of the learners' awareness on collocations will lead them to develop their listening and oral comprehension and will enhance their reading speed. In order to make the advanced learners have a good feel of what are acceptable collocations and what

are not, Brown provides a number of tasks and exercises that deal with collocations and recommends language teachers to use them in their classes.

Deveki (2007) states that in recent years, the English instructors, language specialists and researchers insist that grammar will not have any positive impact on language learners unless they are provided with a wide range of vocabulary. Therefore, vocabulary teaching has been given more attention and interest. However, having a wide range of vocabulary is not sufficient since a single word cannot stand alone. As a result, English teachers should make sure that their students are aware of the words that always collocate together. In this respect, teaching collocations is significant and will assist the students to learn the language more efficiently.

Collocations have been regarded as another level of words acquisition. Bolinger (1976) argues that students memorize and learn vocabulary in chunks. He also explains that the students' manipulative grasp of vocabulary depends on collocations. The effectiveness of learning the language within collocational segments is confirmed by the notion that little kids produce collocates when they are asked for a definition. For example, if they are asked about the definition of the word *hole*, they would most likely say *a hole in the ground*. Bolinger also claims that language learning is regarded as a continuum that starts at the morpheme stage with rules of vocabulary formation, moves to the word level and activates rules of phrase formation. The final stage is the stage in which vocabulary enters into collocations and then they are stored into memory. In language learning, students might or might not store morphemes as such; however, they tend to store phrases. For example, the students will learn the combination "*indelible ink*" as a phrase, but there are some students who will analyze the word "*indelible*" as containing a morpheme which is "*in*".

Twaddell (1979) claims that it is essential to teach phrase and sentence patterns from the early learning stages of the second language because doing so could lead to vocabulary expansion. Twaddell emphasizes that vocabulary expansion must occur in the intermediate stages of second language learning and onwards. This should take place within the condition that the most habitual phrase-patterns and sentence patterns of language should be established and practiced the earliest

possible. After establishing these habits adequately, the new words will be taken into the second language patterns. Gorasadowicz (2010) proposes that it is important to introduce collocations to the beginner students in order to avoid the remedial classes in the future when the lexical errors are fossilized.

This research is conducted to add and create new viewpoints about collocations that could support English teachers to use this vocabulary teaching technique. Students should build awareness towards collocations and know that this technique will enhance their vocabulary level.

1.5. Questions of the research

The research will answer to the next questions:

1. Does teaching vocabulary using collocations lead to more preferable results?
2. Does teaching vocabulary using collocations make students retain the new words effectively?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Learning words is an essential aspect in second language acquisition. Although words have not always been regarded as an important aspect in teaching a language, its significance has increased dramatically within the last years. Nowadays language researchers insist that there should be a principled and systematic approach to English words both by the teachers and the students. There is a rapidly expanding body of pedagogical material and experimental studies most of which provide language teachers with answers for many key questions about teaching vocabulary.

As mentioned before, a lot of scholars have conducted a number of studies to understand the complicated process of vocabulary acquisition and come up with some methods to speed it up. One of these methods is to introduce the words along with collocations and see how this will influence the retention of vocabulary.

This chapter consists of seven main parts. Part one contains some previous studies on collocations. Part two simply talks about teaching vocabulary within English settings. Part three gives the definitions and categorizations of collocations. In addition, part four discusses the types of collocations and part five explains the approaches to the study of collocations. Further, part six sheds some light on some pedagogical aspects of collocations. Last part includes some issues that affect English students' performance while they are using collocations.

2.2. Previous Studies on Collocations.

Learning vocabulary paves the way for the individual to acquire a second language. Teaching vocabulary was not regarded as a significant aspect in language instruction; however, in

recent years many researchers have shown an interest in the role that vocabulary plays in learning the second language. As a result of this interest, there have been a lot of researches and pedagogical materials most of which include many central questions of teaching vocabulary items. Furthermore, many language specialists insist that there must be systematic and comprehensive approach to English words by the instructors and the learners.

So far the impact of collocations has not been paid a sufficient attention in the analyses of the English learners. One common problem in several studies of collocations is the term itself as it is hazy and vague. Further, collocations have not been differentiated accurately from the other kinds of word combinations. The definition of collocations adopted in this research is quite similar to the definition in many other studies.

Most of the former researches on collocations do not concentrate on the comprehension of collocations. They only focus more on the production. This is due to the nature of collocation which has been examined by two researchers Marton 1977 and Biskup 1990. Those researchers have used a translation quiz in order to investigate the collocations production and comprehension abilities of intermediate Russian students learning English language. The results of this study reveal that it was difficult for the students to translate collocations from their first language to the second language whereas their translation of the same collocations from the second language to first language is proximately always accurate. Both researches have examined the learners' knowledge to decide whether certain words combinations exist in English language or not. The intermediate learners were asked to circle the right answer out of a number of given words that collocate with particular words from different word class. The main result of these two researches is that the learners failed to circle a lot of combinations that are acceptable in English. Further, the two studies are centered on small data and both researchers do not analyze their results in detail. However, they consistently think that collocations are not easy for the learners as they are not aware of them. That is, they do not know that collocations exist and they do not know what they really are.

As stated above, there are many researchers who have conducted several studies in an attempt to find more about the complex process of vocabulary learning and to come up with some techniques to enhance it and speed it up. Teaching vocabulary by using collocations is one technique that can help students learn and retain the new vocabulary. For example, Nettinger (1999) is a remarkable researcher who has investigated the impact of collocations on learning new words. He claims that the word's meaning directly relies on the other word which collocates with it. Thus, collocations can be regarded as an effective educational tool that assists the students to understand the new words. That is, collocations are also significant when the students want to infer the meanings of the words from the context. However, this educational tool has not been given the priority in the field of teaching methodology because the effectiveness of collocations has not been proven yet. Thus, the English learners are not completely familiar with the importance and the usage of collocations. Scatt (2016) claims that teaching a new word as one lexical item will not lead students to lexical incompetence; therefore, it is highly recommended to familiarize the English learners with the usage of collocations.

Fagih and Sharafe (2015) have conducted a study to investigate the role of collocations on intermediate Iranians learning English. They conclude that most of students' production errors were due to lack of proficiency in collocations. Further, they found that among the different kinds of collocations the adjective + noun collocation was the most difficult word combination for the Iranian students. Their research reveals that there is a strong correlation between collocations knowledge and English language proficiency. In another research, Jeafarpour and Kousha (2011) conclude that "the concordance materials introduced through data driven learning" can have a significant impact on learning collocations of prepositions. They find that if a teacher introduces prepositions through the students' consultation of concordances in addition to their course books, the students will be able to learn them more easily. They also concluded that students' problems in spoken and written tasks are not related to their lexical and grammatical ability, but they are due to the lack of knowledge of the words that can collocate with the collocation.

Taylor (2002) has conducted an informative research on collocations. He stated that language specialists, English teachers and researchers have agreed and emphasized that collocations are so

significant to learn the English language. T aylor says that collocations are hard to learn because it is not always possible to produce correct words combinations that are compatible semantically. Further, there is not any rule or standard for word combinations; therefore, English learners will find it difficult to know which words collocate with which ones. The knowledge of collocations necessitates the pragmatic knowledge. The major aim of T aylor's study is to investigate the acquisition patterns within the English collocations. The 286 participants of this study are Turkish students learning English at the junior high school. The researcher has used three essential measures which are a translation, gap-filling and writing tasks. He claims that the English collocations knowledge occurs gradually. That is, the students in the lower levels were less successful than the students in the higher levels. In addition, Gitsaky (2007) finds that the lexical collocations are harder to translate than the grammatical collocations and students in the higher levels were more accurate in translation. Another remarkable finding of this study is that the acquisition of certain collocations depends on the amount of exposure of those collocations. The most significant finding within this research was that learners had some difficulties dealing with the arbitrary and fixed lexical collocations. Thus, the researcher looks at collocations as language specific. He also stated that direct translation leads to inaccuracy. Thus, it is recommended that teacher should present the lexical collocations separately in order to prevent students from translating them. The translation of collocations would lead to wrong uses.

Another research on collocations was done by Biskap (1995). He claims that idioms and collocations are completely different from each other as collocations are more obvious than idioms. That is, collocations are not idiomatic. In his study, Biskap wants to find out if lexical collocations would lead to any problems for the second language learners and figure out the subtypes that are difficult for them. The quizzes of this research show that the students faced no difficulties in perception, but they encountered some troubles in translation and production of the collocations. In addition, they had some issues in the category of verb + noun. The results showed that the students' mother tongue had a significant influence on the usage of the second language. He also claims that verbs play a key role with most collocations and they do determine the system of collocations within the language. He also found that non-natives tend to face difficulties in

determining the collocates of a particular word. Thus, collocations should be given the priority in language teaching. He also found that when learners faced a new collocation along with a single vocabulary item, they did not put any effort to learn it. As a result, students' mental process would not be ignited.

Biskup (1999) has also carried out another study in order to investigate the type of errors that students' first language can cause while they are learning collocations. This research includes two groups Russian and German learners who were provided with a nine-year instruction of English language. They took a task in which they were asked to give the equivalents of certain lexical collocations. The findings of this study reveal that the German learners put an effort to get the meanings of the given collocations whereas the Russian learners were quite hesitant to provide the answers. The central conclusion of this research is that students will tend to make errors in case the semantic field of a particular word is wide. That is, if a collocation item includes a word of more than one synonym, it is expected to be less produced.

Paoblo's research (1998) includes 31 Greek and 33 Polish advance level students who were asked to take a task in which they had to translate 26 collocations to English language. There were some important results within these groups. The Greek group gave fewer collocations than the Polish group. The Greek students were paraphrasing the meanings without using the collocations and they have made many mistakes. Paolo also notices that the impact of the mother tongue on the non-native forms was higher within the Polish group than it is within the Greek group and that various kinds of transfer were used by each group. According to Eldaw & Bahns (1993), there are many studies that have indicated that learners feel insecure when they are asked to produce collocations and that the collocations issues are more critical than the issues of the general vocabulary.

Altanok (2007) also has done a research on collocations. The central goal of his study was to investigate whether teaching new English words by using collocations is more effective than using

words' definitions only. There were 55 Hungarians who took part in this research and they were divided into two groups. The results of this research indicate that using collocations to teach new words does not lead to any significant statistical impact on learning new vocabulary. However, the researcher still supports the idea that collocations should be used to teach new English vocabulary. He attributed the unexpected findings of his research to the Hungarians learners in particular. He said that they could not deal with collocations and found it difficult to find appropriate collocates for the words.

Bohns (1996) investigated the Turkish students' knowledge of verb + noun collocations in advanced English class. The researcher concludes that translating the given verbs of the collocations makes more troubles than translating the rest of the lexical items. Mortan (1988) claims that long time classes on collocations will not necessary result in their acquisition. Moreover, Sabilis and Bohns (1998) also find that reading could slightly raise the learners' knowledge of collocations.

In relation to the all mentioned studies, the use of collocations to teach vocabulary is still a subject that needs to be investigated carefully in relation to learner needs because several scholars have discussed this matter from other point of views. The concentration of this research is to fill at least some part of this gap by making learners aware of collocations that could assist them to learn new words effectively. This research will find out how the known collocates would help these students to comprehend the meaning of the unfamiliar words and will present an insight about teaching and learning collocations.

2.3. Teaching Vocabulary within English language settings.

In vocabulary classes, the teacher needs to present and select certain words for students. Vocabulary teaching was neglected within the twentieth century and in this era there was more focus on grammar and pronunciation. However, it has reemerged after 1980 as an essential element

of teaching English. Vocabulary has a significant role within the early direct method and grammar-translation approaches, but the structural syllabus and audiolingulism have looked at vocabulary as requirement for pattern practices. The communicative methodology and the notional / functional syllabuses had no interest to vocabulary. After 1980, there have been several researches into discourse analysis and lexis along with some arguments derived from psycho-linguistics researches. These researches reasserted the significance of vocabulary in language learning. Willis (1990) conducted some proposals for a lexical syllabus and he assumed that language is made up of grammaticalised lexis and not lexicalized grammar. Therefore, some scholars who support grammar has refuted Willis' assumption and said that language proficiency directly depend on grammar.

Many attempts have been conducted in order to define a common core vocabulary for nonnative students. It has been rated that the native English speaker has got almost 40,000 words. In their basic English project Richard and Ogden (1935) have listed 3000 fundamental words that could allow students to express complex thoughts. Further, 70% of the words in this list can be found in any written text. It was calculated that within this list there are 12,426 meanings. Further, each single word of the 3000 words contains 22 meanings. This leads to the question: what are the meanings that need to be taught and in what order? Learnability also should be taken into consideration. There are many factors that can make a word difficult to learn. These factors could be spelling, syntactic or phonological difficulties. Familiarity is considered as another essential issue. It is to bring together the concepts of concreteness, meaningfulness and frequency. Furthermore, words that are not frequent are words used for very specific topics to express particular meanings. It is quite not possible to come up with a general core vocabulary for the whole students. Certain core can be useful for the general English learners, but learners of specific needs will need various requirements.

Teachers cannot teach students all the English words. Thus, students should come up techniques in order to deal with the unfamiliar vocabulary. Carter (1987) suggests an inferential technique which is providing students with tasks that include English words in context. He states that excellent students will benefit most from this technique

Some linguists consider lexical relations such as cohesion and coherence as a crucial area in teaching vocabulary. Further, appropriate and meaningful context is significant as it helps students to be familiar with lexical patterns like collocations. Furthermore, according to Salah (2020), word sets can be better for learners in higher levels and according to his research the recall of words relies on the conceptual mapping of the semantic fields. Sassi (2004) says that lower-level learners might get confused when they deal with lexical relations. He argues against the idea of teaching pairs of opposites together because within his study students tended to retain only one item. However, he concludes that organizing words in topics and teaching word formation could enhance the vocabulary level of the student. Further, within the early stages the inter-language associations are also beneficial. Traditionally, learners were being taught the L2 words along with L1 words. The recall of target words can be enhanced by associating them with the native words supported by mnemonic or graphic representations. When a teacher analyzes or enriches more words by association, students will be more able to remember them for a longer time. Words analysis could be developed by using dictionaries effectively. There are specific dictionaries for L2 learners. For example, the bilingual dictionary is recommended for learners in the first levels in order to check the uses of the words. The monolingual dictionary presents lots of explanations about the words; therefore, students should be trained on how to make use of these dictionaries.

2.4. The Definitions and Categorization of Collocations.

Many researchers have come with a number of criteria in an attempt to decide whether a chain of words could be considered as a collocation or not. Some strings of words frequently come together and the other strings of words include a degree of semantic opaqueness. Cowie (2013) points out that some strings of words carry a figurative meaning. This figurative feature draws the line between idioms and collocations. The idiom's components include some degree of restriction or figurativeness whereas according to Benna (2012) only one component of a collocation has a figurative sense. Schmit (2010) also says that in addition to items co-occurring together, some collocations also include an aspect of exclusiveness. He provides the example of the word *blonde* that is restricted to certain nouns such as, *woman*, *lady*, *hair* while the word *nice* can collocate with

any noun that is related to pleasantness. Thus, the former example is regarded as a strong collocation, while the latter forms are weak collocations.

The notion of collocations was first presented by Firth in 1959. Even though the term is used widely, language specialists have different perspectives when it comes to define collocations. Robin (2002) emphasizes that collocations are the habitual combination of a single word in a language with other different words in sentences. Haliday and Hassan (2013) say that collocations are a mean of cohesion and the co-occurrence of words which are in some way or another typically collocate with each other as they often occur within similar environments. For instance, the word *hospital* implies words such as *medicine, nurse, symptom, doctor, etc.* The word *night* is very closely connected with the word *darkness*. In this regard, the semantic field explains how words in a collocation are related in meaning. According to Shilpa (20018) words that occur in collocations or within the same semantic field are regarded as a group of lexemes that fit in a given situation; however, the presence of a certain word does not necessarily evoke the presence of the other words of the same group.

Manik (2003) says that a collocation is simply a combination of vocabulary items that more often go together and sound natural. The collocation is treated as a noun whereas collocate is a verb. Collocate appears with other words frequently and very often than by chance. For example, the word *watch* is often used with the word *a movie* and the word *cloudy* often goes with the word *sky*. According to Firth (1960), learning about collocations assists students to speak English naturally and more fluently. He also indicates that some collocations are natural combinations that make students who use them sound like native English speakers. In contrast, there are some collocations that are not natural and sound incorrect combinations.

According to Aroghi and Onkuee (2013) collocations can be defined in so many ways. They state that collocations are words that permanently come together. They also present another definition which is collocations are a lexical set that always occurs simultaneously. Balci & Çukir (2012) say that a collocation comprises of two major parts which are the pivot word and its collocate. They also introduce two types of collocations. The first type is called the grammatical

collocation which combines content words such as adjectives, nouns and verbs with a particle (a preposition, an adverb, a grammatical structure). The other type is called the lexical collocation that involves multiword units which comprises of more than one word to constitute a unit of meaning. However, the lexical collocation does not include prepositions, infinitives or clauses. It only involves adverbs, adjectives nouns and verbs.

Klotz (2000) defines collocations as pairs of words that regularly come together. He adds that collocations are not necessarily used next to each other. They are just need to be in the same environment. He also states that collocations are not the same as the grammatical rules and they rely on probability instead of being fixed and absolute. They are regarded as examples of how a language normally puts words together. Lewis (1998) defines collocations as two words strongly associated with each other. Williams (2003) states that collocations are two or three word clusters that occur with a high degree of probability. In addition, Bahns and Eldaw (1998) suggest a linguistic definition. They say that collocations are word combinations which exist between the free expressions and idioms. It is clear that language specialists have proposed different definitions of collocations; however, the co-occurrence of words is the central notion included in all of them.

There are several classifications of collocations. There are some researchers who divide collocations into two categories. The first is the grammatical category and the second is the lexical category. The Lexical collocation includes a free word whether it is a noun, a verb, an adverb or an adjective associated with a different free word. On the other hand, the grammatical collocation consists of one free word associated with a clause, infinitive, preposition, or gerund.

According to Benson (2001), the grammatical collocations such as *in advance* and *rely on* are phrases comprising of a dominant word (noun, verb or adjective) and a grammatical structure or a preposition such as a clause or an infinitive. However, the lexical collocations do not contain infinitives, prepositions or clauses. A typical lexical collocation comprises of a verb, a noun, an adjective, and an adverb. Conzt (2005) claims that the whole types of collocations are essential to produce native like language. In contrast, some collocations are more probable and frequent than

the others. Hill (1999) lists the most significant and most frequent collocations in his dictionary of selected collocations (Table 1). This dictionary focuses on three types of collocations which are adjective + noun, verb + noun, and verb + preposition. The reason for choosing these collocations is that they are used frequently in English language production.

Table 1: The most significant and frequent collocations according to Hill (2000)

| Collocation Types | Examples |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| A verb + an adverb | discuss calmly |
| A noun + a verb | bombs explode |
| A verb + a noun | accept responsibility |
| An adverb + an adjective | highly desirable |
| An adjective + a noun | fatal accident |

The strength of a collocation is different from the frequency of a collocation. The Frequency of a collocation means the degree of use. It indicates how often a certain collocation is used by the native speakers. A collocation can be strong and infrequent, strong and frequent or frequent and weak. There is also another category which is infrequent and weak; however, Lewis (2000) states that this category has a little value to the teacher. He adds that the frequent collocations must be included in the English lessons; however, the strong collocations are the ones which deserve more attention. A different aspect of a collocation is the word's collocational range. This aspect refers to the number of different words that can associate with a particular word. Further, some combinations are not native-like or impossible. The word *pay* can associate with several words like *debt*, *bill*, *cost*; however, it cannot be collocated with *discount*. Thus, it is of a great importance for learners to know the non-collocates in their second language.

2.5. Types of Collocations.

Collocations are regarded as an essential idea in the lexical approach. They can be restricted, semi-restricted or unrestricted and they have particular characteristics that make them different from the free word combinations. Collocations are either open or restricted. Collocations are considered as open in case they collocate freely with several other words within the semantics and syntax of the language. For example, the word *nice* can collocate with so many words like *nice house*, *nice car*, *nice perfume* or *nice weather*. According to Gabrys (1993), word choice cannot be always open and free as in some cases it is severely restricted to what goes before and after. That is, the restricted collocations are different from the open collocations since they only can collocate with very limited words. For example, the term *fortune* often comes after certain verbs like *inherit*, *squander* or *amass*. Moreover, for the word *shrug* there is only one noun combination which is *shoulders*. The word *heavy* can associate with *burden and rain*; however, it cannot collocate with *achievement*. Someone could be *bitterly disappointed* or it could be *a bitterly cold night*; however, a native English speaker does not say *bitterly shocked* or *bitterly sad*. Thombuvi (2003) described this behavior of words by using the expression “*hunting in packs*”. Being aware of all these combinations is a feature of the native speakers. Thus, the learner of the second language should have a feel for collocations and know which words go together.

Yamaseki (2009) says that the unrestricted collocation is able to be engaged with any lexical item in any circumstances. For example, the word *fat* can collocate with a lot of different words as long as it makes meanings like *fat boys*, *fat women* and *fat dogs*. On the other hand, the Semi-restricted collocations are characterized by several determinable patterns in which the lexical items are substituted in various syntactic slots. Within the semi-restricted collocations, the number of substitutes that are able to replace the components of the collocations is more restricted like *harbor grudges/ doubt/ suspicion/ uncertainty*. In the restricted collocations, the components of the collocations are restricted and fixed like *dead drunk*. The main idea is that the learners must not generalize the rules of the unrestricted collocations to restricted and semi-restricted collocations. Yamaseki (2009) says that one of the students in his study used the word *under* instead of *below* in the phrase “*under the poverty level*” and another student used the phrase *fighting sports* are

dangerous instead of *combat sports* are dangerous. This reveals the students' lack of awareness about restricted and semi-restricted collocations.

Aisentedt (1999) says that restricted collocations are one type of word combinations that comprises of two or more words that are unidiomatic in meaning and follow particular structural patterns that are restricted in commutability not merely by semantics, but also by use. Aisentedt points out three aspects of interest for the restricted collocations. These aspects are the collocations' structural pattern, the meanings of components and the commutability restrictions.

In relation to commutability restriction within the restricted collocations, Aisentedt (1999) indicates two types of restricted collocations. The first type is restricted collocations in which both constituents are highly restricted in their commutability and the other type of restricted collocations includes one restricted constituent and one free constituent. Aisentedt gives some examples of restricted collocations whose both components are restricted like *attract attention*, *pay attention*, *shrug his shoulder* and *shrug something off*. However, the examples *have a smoke*, *have a walk*, *take a glance*, *give a laugh* or *make a move* are regarded as restricted collocations that contain one restricted constituent and one free constituent that follow the structural pattern of verb + (art) + N. Aisentedt also points out that the nominal constituent is not constantly restricted to only one verb as in *have/take a look* and *make/take a move*. Furthermore, restricted collocations such as *hazel eyes* and *auburn hair* are examples in which one constituent is restricted whereas the other one is free in commutability. Aisentedt indicates that the word *auburn* is restricted to the word *hair* and the word *hazel* is restricted to the word *eyes*. On the other hand, *hair* and *eyes* are nouns that can commute freely with several adjectives.

Regarding the meaning of the constituents, Aisentedt points out three kinds of meanings. They are very specific and narrow meanings, secondary meanings and vague and grammaticalized meanings. In the example *shrug his shoulders* the main meaning of the word *shrug* is that a person moves his shoulders. In this case the verb *shrug* commutes only with the word *shoulders*. Therefore, this example includes a meaning that is very narrow and specific. Aisentedt presents some examples of restricted collocations that carry secondary and abstract meanings:

- command attention/ respect.
- carry persuasion/ conviction.
- pay heed/ attention/a visit/ a call/homage.

Aisentadt says that the main meaning of the verbs *command*, *carry* and *pay* indicate concrete actions and can commute freely with several words. In contrast, in the above examples they indicate abstract and secondary meanings; therefore, they are restricted in their commutability by the use. Accordingly, one can *pay respect*, but one does not *pay greetings*. Regarding the restricted collocations that include grammaticalised and vague meanings, Aisentadt accurately presents examples of “have a fall type” of meaning. This particular type of meaning involves a nominal component that can commute with one or more verbs that are used in such a vague meaning and they sometimes become synonymous. For instance, *grit his teeth*, *shrug his shoulders* or *grind his teeth* reveals that the verbs *grit*, *shrug*, and *grind* are only restricted to one particular noun. However, the nouns *teeth* and *shoulders* can commute with many verbs.

It can be clearly seen that restricted collocations are regarded as an integral part in collocations and Aisentadt’s study reveals that the restricted collocation does not collocate in the same way as the open collocation. In fact, the importance of this research is that it concentrates on the syntactic structures of the restricted collocations and the semantic feature they have. According to the all given examples along with their structures reveal that the restricted collocations are so complex. They indicate the whole various structural patterns of the restricted collocations, the places of restriction in the constituents of the collocation, and the meanings’ types of restricted collocations.

Benson (2001)) says that collocations can be split into two groups. The first is the grammatical group and the second is lexical group. He describes the grammatical collocations as recurrent combinations that usually consist of one dominant word that could be a verb, a noun, or an adjective followed by a grammatical word that is typically a preposition. Benson provides eight kinds of grammatical collocations in his dictionary of English combinatory along with examples for each kind:

1-a Noun + to+ infinitive

e.g. an attempt to do something, a pleasure to do something

2- a Noun + that + a clause

e.g. they reached an agreement that they can ...

3-a Noun +a preposition

e.g. apathy towards, blockade against

4-a Preposition + a noun

e.g. in advance, by accident

5- a Predicate adjective + to + infinitive

e.g. he was difficult to persuade , it is very necessary to work

6- an Adjective + a preposition

e.g. she was fond of kids, he was ashamed of them

7- an Adjective + that+ clause

e.g. they were afraid that...., it is great that

8-English verbs patterns

e.g. he started to speak, she kept walking

Benson (2000) indicates that there are two kinds of verb + noun combinations. The first one is the CA (creation, activation) collocations and the second one is the EN (eradication, nullification) collocations. The former one comprises of a verb that denotes a creation and/or an activation + a noun, whereas the latter comprises of a verb that denotes an eradication and/or a nullification + a noun; for example, *reverse a decision*, *reject an appeal*. Benson says that CA collocations are arbitrary and non-predictable. For example, *hold a funeral* and *make a mistake* can be said in English; however, one cannot say *hold a burial* or *make a misprint*.

1- CA (creation, activation) collocations

Verb + noun

e.g. to launch a missile, to reach a verdict.

2- EN (eradication, nullification) collocations

Verb + noun

e.g. to revoke a license, to lift a blockade

The EN and CA collocations are regarded as the first type of the lexical collocations and the remaining types are within the following examples:

3- an Adjective + a noun

e.g. sweeping generalization, reckless abandon

4- a Noun + a verb (an action characteristic of a thing or a person)

e.g. alarm goes off.

5- a Noun + of + a noun

e.g. a bouquet of roses, a piece of advice

6- an Adverb + an adjective

e.g. closely acquainted, deeply absorbed,

7- a Verb + an adverb

e.g. to affect deeply, to apologize humbly.

All the above examples reveal that CA and EN collocations are written in the structure of verb + noun. However, the other lexical collocations are not written in this syntactic structure since some include a verb + an adverb form whereas others include an adjective + a noun form. Benson's research is considered as a significant research of English collocations because it concentrates on the two kinds of collocations (lexical and grammatical). It explains the various structures of the two types of collocations. All of them are cited in Benson's dictionary of collocations. In relation to the significance of the study, the citations of the all different syntactic forms of lexical and

grammatical collocations along with their examples assist to present the syntactic and semantic manner of these collocations. Thus, it helps the language learners know how these collocational combinations behave according to their form. For example, *revoke a license* is an EN collocation that includes a verb + noun structure and indicates nullification based on the semantic meaning of the verb *revoke*. Thus, the all mentioned classifications help the language learners understand and be aware of collocations.

The restricted collocations are regarded as fixed collocations whose constituents cannot be combined freely with other words. They seem to be like idioms. According to Firth (1960), collocational restriction is a term that refers to the fact that in some two word phrases the meaning of a single word depends on that particular phrase. For example, the word *dry* can mean *not sweet* only if it is combined with the word *wine*.

It has been noted that some collocation phrases are regarded as fixed and some other collocation phrases allow certain variations. The fixed phrases do not allow internal lexical variation and syntactic transformation. Sinclair (1993) gives the example of a fixed phrase whose constituent items cannot be added to other items, shifted around or changed in any way. It is treated as a single unit and it merely belongs to the English orthography that does not allow it to be spelt as one single word. It is a stable phrase whose constituents are written as one single item. Further, proverbs, idioms and quotations are regarded as fixed phrases and they also involve the category of completely restricted collocations. That is, in some phrases the appearance of a word implies the appearance of another. For instance, the only adjective that can follow the word *stinking* is normally *rich*.

Similarly, it is quite certain that the word *blithering* is followed by the word *idiot*. Variations within phraseology occur in several ways. Sinclair says that there are several phrases that have an indeterminate extent. Sinclair gives “*set eyes on*” as an example. It is a phrase that attracts a pronoun subject in addition to words like *the moment*, *the first time*, *never*, and *has* as an auxiliary. The extent of this phrase is not determinate since there is not an obvious distinction between what is within the nature of the collocation attraction and what is considered as integral to the phrase.

Thus, it is sometimes difficult to determine accurately the proper part of a phrase and the optional addition. Several phrases do allow what Sinclair describes as “internal lexical variation”. Some phrases allow a degree of variation within words’ order. That is some phrases can be susceptible to some lexical insertions.

Other language specialists shed some light on the continuum of collocations which is the amount of fixedness. They discuss when a collocate can be altered by some other word. Some items are not changeable such as “*chip off the old block*”. However, some words can produce a lot of possible combinations such as the word *green* can collocate with many objects. There are also the semi-fixed combinations such as *ham* and *eggs*. In this example, it is possible to reverse the two words. Further, the word *bacon* can substitute *ham*. Some scholars think that collocations include the all mentioned types; however, other scholars insist that the term collocations should be used only for the highly fixed collocates.

Some workers consider phrasal verbs and idioms as collocations. There are many differences between idioms and collocations. Idioms are more ambiguous than collocations. Collocations depend on the meaning of their constituent items while phrasal verbs and idioms are often metaphorical. Hill (2000) differentiates between weak, strong and unique collocations. The combination *duckbilled* + *platypus* is regarded as a unique collocation. The association between *world* and *war* is regarded as a strong association. That is, when introducing one of them, the chances to find the other one in close proximity are very high. A weak association can be found in the collocates *war* and *long*. In addition, a number of other adjectives can associate with *war*. *rancid* + *butter* is considered as a strong association with one direction. When giving the word *rancid*, the word *butter* is almost the only probable noun that can be combined with it. On the contrary, when the word *butter* comes first, *rancid* is not the only option because there are so many other possibilities.

Joshi (2008) explains that there are two different kinds of collocations. The first kind is the strong collocations in which the link between the words is restricted and fixed. That is, a word can only be collocated with a few words. *Carnival* is considered as a strong collocator as it collocates

with a few words such as *local carnival* and *carnival atmosphere*. The second type is the weak collocations in which the link between words is not restricted or fixed. The word can be collocated with several other words. For instance, *high* is a word that collocates with a lot of other words. Thus, it is treated as a weak collocator.

2.6. Approaches to the Study of Collocations.

There are three essential approaches to the study of collocations. These approaches concentrate on various features of the phenomenon of collocations. They are the semantic approach, the structural approach and the lexical composition approach. The lexical composition approach regards collocations as another level of lexical meanings. The semantic approach is used to find out collocates of the lexical unit according to its semantic features. The structural approach is used to examine collocations by using the grammatical patterns. Each approach is elaborated more within the following sections.

2.7. The Lexical Composition Approach.

The approach of the lexical composition assumes that a word gets its meaning from the word it collocates with. This approach indicates that the lexical analysis is autonomous from the grammatical rules. Further, it regards lexis as an independent entity that chooses its own collocates that could be classified and enumerated in lexical sets. Firth (1960) says that collocations are a lexical phenomenon that is independent from grammar. He also describes collocations as a "mode of meaning" and he says that the lexical meanings of the words are achieved by several statements of meaning at various levels such as the grammatical, orthographic, and phonological and collocational levels. For instance, Firth describes the word *peer* in four ways. Firstly, in relation to the orthographic level the word *peer* is different from the word *pier*. Then, he states the pronunciation. Next, regarding the grammatical level he decides whether the word *peer* is a verb or a noun. Firth explains that having such statements within the grammatical level, one can make a further component of meaning. Finally, within the collocational level, the word *peer* can collocates with the word *school* as in *school peer* which is one of its meanings. He also indicates

that every word that enters a new context is regarded as a new word. He also differentiates between the contextual meanings and collocation meanings and classifies collocations into usual or general collocations and personal or more restricted technical collocations. Unfortunately, he does not provide any further elaboration on this classification.

Sinclair (1968) emphasizes on Firth's theory of meaning and he takes it one step forward. He points out that grammar and lexis are two interpenetrating ways to look at language form. Halliday (2002) argues and indicates that the lexical theory is complementary to the grammatical theory, but not part of it. The role of grammar in a language is to organize that language as one system of choices.

2.8. The Semantic Approach.

The semantic approach tries to find out the semantic features based on the meanings of the lexical units which could lead to predict their collocates. There are several researches that point out that collocations are a linguistic phenomenon that is associated with lexical semantics. Robins (1969) refuses the idea that each word includes one meaning. He also sheds some light on a significant feature of the semantic structure of language. He indicates that a word's meanings do not occur in isolation. They depend on the collocation in which they occur. In parallel to the approach of lexical composition in which linguists regarded lexis as a level of analysis of a language that is separate from grammatical rules, the linguists in the semantic approach tried to study collocations within a semantic framework that is also separate from the grammatical rules. Chomsky is one of the first linguists who proposed the treatment of collocations through semantics. Although Chomsky does not discuss collocations, he differentiates between two kinds of rules. The first kind is the strict sub-categorization rules which analyze symbols in relation to their categorical context. The second type is the selectional rules which analyze symbols according to the syntactic characteristics of the frames where they appear. These rules help generate the grammatical strings. Chomsky (1965) says that the breaking of the strict sub-categorization rules leads to strings as in the examples *he found sad* and *he became Bill to leave* whereas the failure in observing the selectional rules results in examples such as "*Colorless black ideas sleep furiously*". He then

concludes that the selectional rules are of a marginal role in the grammar; therefore, he proposes that they better to be dropped from the syntax and they should be taken over through semantics.

2.9. The structural approach.

The structural approach is used to set patterns of collocations which involve the lexical and grammatical items alike. Mitchell (1988) says that collocations are affected by structure and they occur in patterns. He indicates that collocations consist of roots rather than words and they should be investigated within grammatical matrices. For example, the word forms such as *drinker*, *drinks* and *drinking*, Mitchell identifies the common components of every word form and classifies it as a root. The word *drink* can be associated with various roots as in the roots *heav-* and *drink-*. The collocations could be *drink heavily* or *heavy drinker*. On the other hand, Mitchell's notion that collocations are combinations of roots instead of words is not applicable for every roots combination. For instance, the collocation *faint praise* is accepted in English; however, not the whole associations of the two roots *faint-* and *praise-* are accepted as collocations. Mitchell provides the example “*they were damned by faint praise*” in which the collocation is acceptable, but in the example “*they praise him faintly*” is not.

Grenbaum (1977) also investigates the impact of grammar on collocations. He indicates that particular instances of collocations include syntactic information. For instance, he points out that the word *much* can collocate with the word *prefer* when it is in a position of a pre-verb as in the example *he much prefer black coffee* ; however, it cannot collocate with the word *prefer* in the position of post-object as in the example **he prefers black coffee much*. He also proposes that words’ potential to collocate with the other lexical items should be restricted to syntax. He also emphasizes that some particular lexical items can only occur within certain syntactic relations as in *her sincerity scares him* but not *he frightens her sincerity*. Without syntax, the idea of collocability is regarded as vacuous where any two words will be able to co-occur at any given arbitrary distance. For instance, the word *sincerity* can collocate with the word *frighten*, but only syntax can judge the acceptability of the collocations produced by these two words.

The lexical composition and the semantic approaches are limited to the investigation of a few numbers of collocations that are usually adjective+ noun and verb + noun collocations. Further, the grammatical words are excluded from the scope of these two approaches. As a result, they obtained very limited results. However, the structural approach investigates more collocational patterns. It contains the grammatical words in the investigation of collocations. It also presents a framework for the research of collocations which is systematic and feasible.

2.10. Pedagogical aspects.

Collocations are given increasing prominence in the field of learning vocabulary. Both Thornbuiy (2003) and Nation (2003) allocate a great deal of their time and attention to focus on this area. Thornbuiy (2003) urges that teaching vocabulary within a lexical context is more efficient than teaching words individually. Further, in order to enlarge the collocation range, it is significant to have learners review words that students already know especially at the intermediate and advanced levels. Bliss (2004) adds that the proficiency in collocations usage is regarded as “native-like”. He says that to be native-like is the utmost aim of language instruction especially within the ESL field where the major goal is to mainstream the learners.

Lewis (2000) says that learners can acquire collocations from rich input, either from reading classes or listening classes. Stockdale (2005) suggests that the best way to learn collocations is the continuous recycling of vocabulary through broader and more collocates. The editors of collocation dictionaries say that a collocation is learned by need. That is, when learners express ideas in their speech or writing, they need to consult a dictionary to find out the possible combinations of words.

There are a lot of collocations dictionaries that have been published within the recent years. The regular dictionaries concentrate on definitions whereas the dictionaries of collocations concentrate on words that often accompany the headword. The word *sun* has many typical entries such as *sunshine*, *sunstroke*, *sunbathing*, *midday sun*, *sun lotion*, *sunrise*, and so on. Stockdale (2005) advises learners to use both a collocations dictionary and a standard bilingual dictionary as

they will get both meaning and use of the headword. However, he states that the two dictionaries are not equal. That is, most of the classroom time should be allocated in favor of collocations.

Wolord (2005) has written some books that train learners how to use collocations. He believes that most of the available textbooks are not effective to handle collocations. These text books series are considered as self- study texts rather than as classroom texts. They are based on Woolard's Key Word approach where nouns are taught along with their left and right co-texts. Opponents of collocations state that there are so many collocations within a language. As a result, a learner will have to more memorize and learn whereas within the traditional vocabulary classes there are less memorizing and less learning. Many scholars refute this complaint. Nation (2002) recommends focusing on the most frequent collocations. Bahns and Eldaw (1995) suggest to concentrate on collocates that are difficult to paraphrase. Howarth (1998) recommends focusing on collocations that are regarded as semi-fixed because he thinks that they are the most difficult collocations. Porto (2000) concentrates on the less-fixed ones since he believes that these collocations have useful classroom analysis. Hill (2002) focuses on collocations of medium strength such as *meeting* or *mistake* that collocate with simple words learners already know such as *make* and *hold*. There are some vital reasons to include collocations in the curriculum. The first reason is to eliminate the difficulty encountered by the non-native speakers in producing accurate combinations of words. Collocations are still problematic even though the student knows the individual words. The second reason is that students should be able to go beyond the "intermediate plateau". Lewis (1995) says that learners have the ability to cope in most situations; however, they would rather avoid the more difficult and advanced activities while learning a language. Williams (2003) believes that collocations instruction is an effective tool that motivates learners especially those in upper level. Hill (2000) mentions that several complicated ideas such as the advanced academic concepts are presented lexically. The third reason is that being aware of the most frequent collocates can deepen the learners' vocabulary knowledge and enhance fluency and intonation (Williams, 2003). According to Kavaliauskiene (2006), collocations are vital for natural and accurate sounding. The last reason is that in communication, the errors of using collocations are more disruptive than most of the grammatical errors. Collocation errors could lead to unnatural sounding expressions or archaic or quaint phrasing. Williams (2003) says that non-native speakers with several collocation

errors will confuse the listeners or readers. Again, collocations determine if a speaker is accepted as native-like or not.

2.11. Measuring collocations.

The fill in blanks format tasks are often used to measure the productive knowledge of collocations. Within these tasks, the learners have to give the right collocate for the given words. They are regarded as de-contextualized sentence-based tasks. The receptive knowledge of collocations is often measured by using a matched items task. A different aspect of the receptive collocation knowledge is to identify the collocations which do not work. A typical task for this is the “odd man out task” in which the learner chooses from a group of possible options the word that cannot collocate with the key word. Bonk’s quiz (2002) contains a section of receptive collocation knowledge in which the learners have to select the one collocation out of three that does not sound natural English. This quiz also has three sections of productive fill in the blanks. According to Thombuay (2003), most of collocation tests are created by teachers to assess classroom learning. Gitsaki (2000) creates and publishes collocations tests. His tests are regarded as normative tests. Each quiz has three sections which are cloze style verb + preposition, cloze style noun + verb production (phrasal verbs), and multiple choice selection of improper collocation. All the tests were based on native speaker validation. Bonk (2002) presents some technical details of validity and reliability. Gitsaki (2007) has also created a quiz for her study that was based on the grammatical and lexical collocations occurring in the learners’ English textbooks. She only notes that the textbooks were circulated widely and she does not introduce any technical details.

2.12 Students’ performance of collocations.

Within the literature, collocation is considered as a hard skill for the non-native speakers. Many researches which measured collocation skill in second language used the native speakers’ performance as a standard against which the non-native students were compared. Both Bonk (2002) and Gitsaki (2007) use educated native speakers responses in order to develop their quizzes.

Hasselgren (2001) compares French learners in advanced EFL classes and British learners. Granger (1998) has compared written work by native and non-native speakers of Russian. It is not surprising that the collocations performance of the native speakers is far beyond the non-native's performance in both quantity and quality. Scholars such as Selinker (1988) and Terrell (1975), who support the naturalistic opinion of language acquisition, did not consider this as an issue. They claim that the errors of collocations should be treated as a sign of progress within the target language. Such errors are not regarded as a deficiency in second language performance; however, they could be examples of creative inter-language. Thus, these errors lead to utterances that are not what native speakers would use. Teachers must keep in mind where their learners are headed especially learners in the elementary ESL classrooms. Other researches have revealed that collocation skill is low related to a learner's other measures of language proficiency. That is, the learners are being compared to themselves. Buhns and Eldew (1997) say that within the vocabulary level, the collocation skill has been revealed to lag behind the general vocabulary measures. Further, they conclude that although students know the individual words of the items, they still face difficulties with the collocations. Abdul-Fattah (2004) and Fargal (1996) conclude that collocation deficiencies can be found even in cases of learners with large English vocabularies. According to Zughouli (2002), learners with excellent syntactic abilities could poorly perform in collocation skill. Moreover, he adds that learners with advanced skills in writing could also be deficient in collocations. Granger (1999) and Howerth (1999) used corpora data in order to conduct their research. They find that the non-native speakers produced fewer collocations in comparison to the native speakers. They also find that the collocations used by the non-natives were less successful as combinations which they described as the unnaturalness of non-natives language.

2.13. Collocations and Language Proficiency.

There has been a debate whether or not the collocation skill is independent from the overall level of language proficiency. Bonk (2001) concludes that the collocation ability correlates moderately highly ($r=0.74$) with ESL proficiency. Gitsaki (2000) concludes that collocation skill goes up alongside the general level of English proficiency. Other researchers find a lack of

correlation. Boanci (2003) concludes that collocation ability level varies dramatically amongst learners of a given proficiency level. Hawarth (1999) also demonstrates that there is a wide range of collocation skill within learners of a given proficiency level, as did, Zoghoul & Abdul-Fattah (2004), Bohns & Eldow (1994) and Fargol & Obiedat (1996). In order to avoid this issue, proficiency should be measured in ways in which collocations are not included; for example, using a single word vocabulary quiz. Whether or not this quiz would be an effective measure of proficiency is of course another issue.

Students from several various language backgrounds tend to be deficient in collocations knowledge. Most researches on collocations examined monolingual groups where whole the learners had the same first language. Further, collocation studies have included so many different native languages that are different from English. Therefore, making comparisons is quite impossible making as each one of the experimenters has used a completely different instrument to measure collocations.

There are a few researches that dealt with more than one language group simultaneously. For example, Birkap (1993) has conducted a research on collocation within two language groups, German speakers and French speakers learning English. She concludes that the lower French scores were due to the cultural differences rather than the big linguistic difference of the French language to English. Bunk (2002) also have a multilingual group in his research; the learners were from South East Asian groups. However, he does not provide any specific comparison across these language groups.

It is not proved whether there is correlation between the collocation improvement and the amount of time or exposure to the second language. Getsaki (2000) thinks that length of time in English class directly correlated with the development of collocation skill. Bunk (2001) suggests that the quality of exposure to the second language is more significant than quantity. This point on inquiry needs to be investigated. The current study aims to obtain further information on this matter.

2.14. Development of L2 Collocations.

Getsaki's(1997) study does not longitudinally follow the students through collocational development. This study compares collocation ability at three different age levels: first year students learning English (12-13 year olds), second-year students (13-14 year olds) and third-year students (14-15 year olds). In order to investigate the development of collocation ability, this study compares the performance of the first year students with that of the second-years which in turn is compared to the third-year students' performance. The findings of this study reveal that there is a developmental aspect to collocations, that it is not linear, with a wide range in a given level of proficiency. It is important to mention that Getsaki claims that the nature of the mastered collocations at each stage was not the same. That is, the grammatical collocations were acquired more easily than the lexical collocations. Getsaki was especially interested in the type of collocations that were mastered by his different levels. He provided each of the three levels with a different quiz that makes the comparisons between the three levels invalid. Getsaki concludes that the three levels of learners have represented various proficiency levels. Although he has collected some samples of students' written work to check the overall differences in proficiency, he did not place learners in groups according to this assessed proficiency level. They were actually grouped by age/grade in school. His research provides a great deal of data on collocations and it also provides ways to develop this aspect of a language. His usage of the sample of Greek students learning English at a middle school is another good contribution to the research literature.

2.15. Collocation Errors.

Some of L2 learners encounter difficulties to produce natural and fluent combinations. Therefore, to find out the reason for this issue, researchers should investigate the learner's head as he/she attempts a collocation and explain why errors are there. Several researches state that the interference of the students' native language is the major reason of these errors. The interference of the student's mother tongue can lead to such errors. That is, the learner tends to translate what he/she would have said in the native language into the target language. Hasselgren (2001) describes

this as transliteration. This could be unconscious. The learner simply does not recognize that L2 deals with instances differently. Hasselgren (2001) also says that an incorrect selection of words could be made when a word's range within the native language is wider or narrower than the equivalent word's range within the target language. He also claims that the cognate words, especially wrong cognates, and the misleadingly expressions can likely lead to interference.

Another different reason is that learners like to be safe. That is, they like to use the words that they already know. Toiwo (2005) realizes most learners tend to make use of the familiar and easy words, although there could be other words that are more accurate. Hasselgren (2001) also notices a high use of what she describes as "lexical Teddy Bears" that are regarded as core words. They are frequent words that learners learn in the beginning of their studying (do, get, have, make, put, be). He explains that learners tend to use and stick with the easy and familiar words when they formulate collocations. Gronger and Hawarth (1999) also mention that learners select easier items but they produce less effective combinations. Another reason is that some learners do not like to use collocations. This has been found within some productive quizzes in which some students did not answer the tasks. Biskup (1993) finds that the French learners avoided the collocations task and left it blank.

Another reason is that some students do not like to take risks. When they do not know a collocation, they tend to take risk and manage by paraphrasing the collocation. Some other students tend to act the collocation out for the teacher. Biskap's (2008) says that Russian students came up with innovative paraphrasing. The learners used the words that they already know in order to come up with a meaning that is approximately similar to the target collocation. This innovative paraphrasing could be a short or a long explanation of the collocation. Within these cases, the learners are trying to get at the spirit of the collocation.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This research aims to test the effectiveness of collocations technique in teaching words. Within this section, the goal is to discuss the methodology of this research. Firstly, there is a description of the participants who contributed to the research. Next, there is an explanation on how the data of the study were collected and also how the results were presented and discussed.

3.2. Subjects

This research has been conducted at a private university in Muscat, Oman. The learners were from the department of English language. Intermediate level learners have participated in this study. They were divided into two groups. Group one was the control group and group two was the experimental group. In total, there were 76 participants. The experimental group contained 38 participants and 38 participants were also in the control group. Most of the students were 18 years old.

3.3. The Procedure and Materials used in the study.

The major goal of this research was to determine the effect of using collocations on teaching new words. The first step of data collection was to choose some words that students were not familiar with. In order to choose these vocabulary items, an 80 word list was structured and distributed to the all learners as a pre-quiz (Appendix 1). The main purpose of the pre-quiz was to detect the vocabulary items which learners were not familiar with and these vocabulary items were introduced within the treatment session. The 80 words, especially the difficult ones, were taken from three intermediate level course books because the level of the learners was intermediate. The students of the two classes were asked to indicate their own knowledge of the given words by highlighting one of the three options: I know this word, I do not know this word or I am not sure.

Only the words that students pointed out they did not know were chosen for further usage. Next, convenient collocates were found for each one of these words by using Co-build Collins Corpora.

There was another pre-quiz that investigated the learners' knowledge of collocates to identify the words which the learners knew. This other pre-quiz helped the researcher to choose the items which the learners already familiar with because throughout the treatment session these familiar collocates would pave the way for them to better learn and understand the new items. This quiz consisted of gap-filling tasks that included 22 questions. This quiz assisted the researcher to determine the familiar words and he used them as collocates. These collocates were introduced to the learners along with the unfamiliar words. Doing so would show the impact of the known collocates whether they assist the learners to understand and remember the new introduced vocabulary items. For this step, the researcher chose 11 collocates from the right responses. He chose the familiar vocabulary and he placed the familiar and the unfamiliar vocabulary together. Then, he classified these words into groups: a noun + a noun, a verb + a noun, an adjective + a noun, a verb + an adverb. (Appendix 3)

There are two groups that took part in this study. The first group was regarded as the experimental group and the second group was treated as the control group. The students' level in each group was intermediate. In each group the words were introduced with examples (appendix 4) as it was almost not possible to structure cohesive and meaningful reading texts that include all these collocates and words. During the first session, the collocation strategy was applied for the collocation group. The learners were first asked to silently read the examples. After that, the teacher introduced the words and demonstrated the meaning of each word. Then, he gave an appropriate collocate for every single word. The learners were already familiar with the meaning of the given collocates. That is, while the student was learning new words, he was learning them with collocations. Finally, the teacher provided the students with a gap filling task to practice the new learned items (appendix 5). This gap filling task included the target vocabulary and the collocates. In this task, the teacher presented two words together and the learners had to use them to complete the task. The control group only included the words' definitions in dictionary. The sample sentences that the learners read were the same. However, within the control group, the teacher did

not introduce the collocates of the words while he was introducing the vocabulary. He only gave the dictionary definitions. The gap-filling tasks of this group only included single words. In order to make students of each group spend the same period of time during the presentation session, the teacher asked his students to practice the word formation of the new vocabulary.

When the treatment sessions were done, the two groups were instantly given two post-quizzes, (appendix 6 and appendix 8). Within post quiz one, the learners were asked to answer multiple choice items and in the post quiz two the learners were provided with 11 items and the teacher asked them to write their meanings in English. Then, they used these items to produce meaningful sentences. To counterbalance the impact of these quizzes, the teacher has divided every single group into two sections. The students in the first section were given the multiple-choice quiz while the students of the second section were given the quiz of definition sentence. After that, the teacher asked them to do the reverse. After two weeks, the students took the postponed post-quizzes that contained exactly the same task but the questions were ordered differently (appendix 9 and appendix 10).

3.4. Reliability and Validity

Consistency is a key factor that this study should maintain over time in order to ensure reliability. Thus, in order to confirm the reliability of this research, it should be repeated again with different settings and participants within the same conditions. Moreover, this study is regarded as a valid research as its findings measure efficiently the objectives that need to be measured and the results of this research correspond well to the previous theories.

3.5. Ethics

Within this study the research ethics were taken into account and the researcher was completely aware of the ethical considerations and approvals. The all ethical requirements were applied to the participants, teachers, and setting. That is, the all participants were given the consent forms in which they were informed that the findings of this research would result in better leaning experiences. These forms also explained the conditions and strategies of this research. Further, the

participants were told that their identity is confidential and information confidentiality is also ensured. Pseudonyms were also used in order to maintain the privacy of the participants.

3.6. Feasibility

This research was feasible and the researcher was able to conduct it at the chosen university. The all considerations of this research were evaluated and discussed before conducting the study. The discussed considerations included the scheduling and ethical issues of the study. Thus, it was certain that this research could be conducted successfully.

3.7. Accessibility

This research could be influenced in case the participants would not be available. They could probably be busy doing other activities. Thus, a time plan was disrupted to the all participants.

Time plan

| Months | Tasks | Durations |
|--------|--|-----------|
| May | The first pre-quiz and Second pre-quiz | 4 weeks |
| May | The gap-filling task | 3weeks |
| June | The two post-quizzes | 4 weeks |

CHAPTER 4

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction.

The experimental group and control group were given two separate pre-quizzes before the experiments. Quiz 1 was conducted in order to confirm that the students were unfamiliar with the meanings of the target vocabulary items that would be introduced to them. The other pre-quiz included collocates that students knew the meanings of introduced together with new words. The treatment occurred within two consecutive classroom hours. Students were given postponed post-quizzes a week later.

Within the presentation stage some of the learners had some issues and they did not attend. Therefore, the number of students decreased during the treatment stage. The instant multiple-choice quiz included 32 learners within the collocation group and 23 learners within the control group. The instant definition sentence quiz included 28 learners in the collocation group and 23 learners in the control group. Within the postponed-post quizzes the numbers of the students decreased. In the postponed multiple choice quiz there were 21 learners in the experimental group and the control group included 27 students. The postponed definition sentence quiz included 20 participants in the collocation group and there were 21 in the control group. T-tests were used to differentiate between the instant post quizzes and the postponed post-quizzes.

4.2. Analysis of the information

The instant and postponed multiple-choice quizzes were corrected carefully and every right answer was given one mark. The standard deviations and means of both groups were calculated for all these quizzes. Next, the researcher compared both groups to find out the differences in both the groups. Thus, the differences between the instant and postponed post-quizzes were identified within the next stage. Firstly, the researcher calculated the mean and the standard deviation of each quiz for all groups. The findings of these analyses are shown in the tables below.

Table 1

Standard Deviations and Means of the Instant Multiple Choice Quiz

| Groups | Number of the learners | Means | Standard deviations |
|--------------|------------------------|-------|---------------------|
| collocations | 32 | 22.81 | 6.67 |
| Definitions | 23 | 21.67 | 6.99 |

Table 1 includes the findings of the instant multiple-choice quizzes. That is, the mean of the collocations group was 22.81 and the standard deviation was 6.67. The mean of the control (definitions) group was 21.67 and the standard deviation was 6.99. It is clear that there are not any significant differences between the two groups in relation to learning words either in collocations or definitions. This could mean that collocations did not effectively assist students to acquire and learn new vocabulary; otherwise the collocation group's mean would be higher.

Table 2

The Postponed Multiple Choice Post Quizzes (Means and Standard Deviations)

| Groups | Number of the learners | Means | Standard Deviations |
|--------------|------------------------|-------|---------------------|
| Collocations | 21 | 32.51 | 8.40 |
| Definitions | 27 | 26.76 | 6.69 |

Table 2 shows that in the postponed multiple-choice post-quiz the collocations group had a mean of 32.51 and a standard deviation of 8.40. Further, the definitions group's mean was 26.76 and its standard deviation was 6.69. The collocations group's mean is higher than the mean of the

definitions group. This could reveal that collocations helped students retain the vocabulary items in the postponed quiz.

In order to find out the differences of the sentence post-quizzes in both groups, the researcher has calculated the means and standard deviations of these quizzes. Table three includes the details.

Table three

The Instant Definition Sentence Post-Quizzes (Means / Standard Deviations)

| Groups | Number of the learners | Means | Standard Deviations |
|--------------|------------------------|-------|---------------------|
| Collocations | 28 | 26.36 | 7.68 |
| Definitions | 23 | 20.26 | 5.92 |

Table three shows that the collocations group's mean was 26. 36. Further, the standard deviation of the same group was 7.68. Regarding the definitions group, it had a mean of 20.26. In addition, it had a standard deviation of 5.92. Thus, it is clear that the mean in the experimental group was more than the mean in the control group. This may indicate that the treatment is effective.

Table four

The Postponed Definition Sentence Post-Quizzes (Means / Standard Deviations)

| Groups | Number of the learners | Means | Standard Deviations |
|--------------|------------------------|-------|---------------------|
| Collocations | 20 | 19.67 | 2.98 |
| Definitions | 21 | 18.51 | 2.72 |

Table four shows the details of the postponed definition-sentence post-quizzes in relation to means and standard deviations. The collocations group's mean was 19.67. Furthermore, it had a

standard deviation of 2.98. On the other hand, in the definitions group the mean was 18.51 and the standard deviation was 2.72. It is clear that the mean of the collocations group was a little higher than the mean of definitions group. Thus, this could indicate that the collocations did not really have an effective impact on the students in the experimental group.

Many t-tests were calculated to indicate the main differences that could be found in the instant and the postponed post quizzes within the groups. The findings are shown in table five.

Table five

Differences found in the Instant Multiple Choice Post Quizzes and the Postponed Multiple Choice Quizzes

| Groups | Instant | | Postponed | | T-values |
|--------------|---------|------|-----------|------|----------|
| | M | S | M | S | |
| Collocations | 22,81 | 6.67 | 32.51 | 8.40 | 0.495 |
| Definitions | 21.67 | 6.99 | 26.76 | 6.69 | 0.094 |

Within table five, it is obvious that there is not any significant difference within the instant and the postponed post-quizzes in both groups; however, it can be clearly seen that the collocations group's mean in the postponed post-quiz is a higher mean which indicates that collocations had a positive impact on the learners to retain the target vocabulary. On the other hand, the control group's mean went down in the postponed post-quiz.

Then, the researcher calculated the t-tests for the instant and postponed definition-sentence post-quizzes for each group. Table six reveals the findings of t-tests for each group in the instant and postponed post-quizzes.

Table Six

Differences found in the Instant Definition Sentence Post Quizzes and the Postponed Definition Sentence Post Quizzes

| Groups | Instant | | Postponed | | T-values |
|--------------|---------|------|-----------|------|----------|
| | M | S | M | S | |
| Collocations | 26.36 | 7.68 | 19.67 | 2.98 | 3.61 |
| Definitions | 20.26 | 5.92 | 18.51 | 2.72 | 2.24 |

One remarkable difference in the definition sentence post-quizzes is within the collocations group. That is, in the collocations group the mean dropped dramatically within the postponed post-quiz. This can indicate that collocations did not assist the learners to understand new vocabulary.

CHAPTER 5

THE DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION OF THIS STUDY.

The purpose of this current research was to find out whether or not teaching new English words by using collocations was an efficient technique. Particularly, it was conducted to investigate whether using collocations in teaching new vocabulary is better than the traditional techniques.

Question one of this research is “Does teaching new vocabulary using collocations lead to more preferable results?” The findings obtained from the multiple choice post quizzes revealed that there is not any remarkable difference within all groups. Almost all the figures of the control group were lower than the figures of the treatment group within the all instant post-quizzes. In relation to the instant multiple choice post quiz, the results of the collocations group were a little higher than the results of the definition group. On the other hand, within the instant definition sentence post-quiz the results of the collocations group were much better than the results of the definition group. The researcher used the analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to analyze the differences in the results of the groups. It revealed that there was not any remarkable difference in the results of the quizzes. The researcher did not expect this result as he thought that the collocations group would get better marks than the control group. He thought that using the technique of collocations could assist students to understand the new English. This finding suggests that the technique of collocations might not effectively assist students to learn new words.

Question two of this study was to investigate if teaching new vocabulary using collocations would enhance the retention of new words. The findings of the postponed post-quizzes that were given after one week revealed that means were not the same. Although the researcher concluded that using collocations were not efficient in learning new words, the situation was different in the retention of the new words. The group that included the collocations strategy was more successful in learning the new vocabulary.

5.2. Limitations of the study

There were many reasons why the findings of this research did not reveal any significant differences among the groups in relation to learning new words. One vital reason could be the amount of time. Within this study, the time that the teacher allocated to teach his students the target words along with their collocations was very short. It was one hour and half every week. Gitsaky's study (2007) concludes that students acquire collocations slowly and this process needs a long time. Another reason is that learning collocations involves some pragmatic knowledge and English language has not any standard grammatical rules that explain how to combine words. Further, the negative interference of first language affected the results of the study.

Another possible reason is that learners did not pay very much attention while they were learning new the new vocabulary in the treatment. Biskup (1990) points this out in his research. He concludes that it is not easy for students to learn the collocates of the words because it was difficult for them to produce collocations. Further, when students face new words, they do not concentrate on the collocates of these words. Their negligence can be attributed to the reason that students are not aware of the idea of collocations. Elkhatib (2002) analyzes some writing samples of five Egyptian students in elementary level and he finds nine lexical errors of different kinds. Unawareness of collocations was one of these kinds. This finding could mean that learners must be aware of the idea of collocations. In addition, the findings of the research that was conducted by Farghal and Obiedat (2003) reveal that students cannot learn collocations as they are not aware of them. Thus, the learners who took part in this research may not have been aware of collocations. Actually, it was their first time to be taught collocations. This could be another reason why they did not succeed. The solution that this study suggests is that students should be more exposed to the target collocations and these items must be presented as a vital element in English lessons.

In this current research, not all the participants attended the quizzes. This could be another reason why the researcher could not be able to get any significant differences among the groups. The findings of this research cannot be generalized since the number of the students was low. Thus, this limitation must be considered if there will be any further study on collocations. The learners'

level is another limitation of this research. It was only restricted to intermediate level learners. The findings could be different in case other levels were included. Gitsaky (2007) says that learners from different levels of language proficiency tended to respond differently to collocations.

As stated above the most significant limitation within this research was the amount of time. Students should be provided with a great deal of exposure to the target collocations. Doing so will need a lot of time. Therefore, this study might have obtained different findings if the time span of the treatment was longer. In this way, learners would have the opportunity to be more exposed to collocations; as a result, the findings might have been more precise. It can be concluded that researchers should deal with collocations more carefully and more time should be allocated for teaching collocations. In this research, although teaching new words using collocations was not an effective technique and it did not lead to any remarkable statistical differences in acquiring new English words, the notion of teaching new words by using their collocates is still a topic that worth to be investigated.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix 1

Dear student,

Please tick the column "I know this word", "I do not know this word", "I am not sure" which best indicates your knowledge of each word.

A: I know this word

B: I do not know this word

C: I am not sure

| | A | B | C |
|-------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1. attend | | | |
| 2. scar | | | |
| 3. fortune | | | |
| 4. casualty | | | |
| 5. aspect | | | |
| 6. unlikely | | | |
| 7. expand | | | |
| 8. accurate | | | |
| 9. bizarre | | | |
| 10. blame | | | |
| 11. flaw | | | |
| 12. perceive | | | |
| 13. vigorous | | | |
| 14. comparatively | | | |
| 15. ambitious | | | |
| 16. identical | | | |
| 17. royal | | | |
| 18. scale | | | |
| 19. indispensable | | | |
| 20. mature | | | |
| 21. fame | | | |
| 22. impact | | | |
| 23. manipulation | | | |
| 24. review | | | |
| 25. severe | | | |
| 26. trace | | | |
| 27. indifference | | | |
| 28. vary | | | |
| 29. vital | | | |
| 30. wisdom | | | |
| 31. agony | | | |
| 32. appeal | | | |
| 33. figure | | | |

| | | | |
|-------------------|--|--|--|
| 34. challenge | | | |
| 35. deficit | | | |
| 36. deceive | | | |
| 37. haste | | | |
| 38. hazardous | | | |
| 39. inclination | | | |
| 40. unity | | | |
| 41. inspection | | | |
| 42. likelihood | | | |
| 43. postpone | | | |
| 44. merit | | | |
| 45. mild | | | |
| 46. velocity | | | |
| 47. notion | | | |
| 48. undermine | | | |
| 49. nod | | | |
| 50. occasion | | | |
| 51. dominance | | | |
| 52. poverty | | | |
| 53. rage | | | |
| 54. mislead | | | |
| 55. redundancy | | | |
| 56. scatter | | | |
| 57. shift | | | |
| 58. sequence | | | |
| 59. talent | | | |
| 60. trace | | | |
| 61. defeat | | | |
| 62. neighbourhood | | | |
| 63. urgency | | | |
| 64. rational | | | |
| 65. virtue | | | |
| 66. wage | | | |
| 67. welfare | | | |
| 68. absence | | | |
| 69. asset | | | |
| 70. corruption | | | |
| 71. transition | | | |
| 72. policy | | | |
| 73. exploit | | | |
| 74. catastrophe | | | |
| 75. ambiguity | | | |
| 76. dominance | | | |
| 77. likelihood | | | |
| 78. wage | | | |
| 79. delay | | | |
| 80. trace | | | |

Appendix 2

Read the following sentences and choose the right answer.

1. The child suffered _____ injuries in the car accident and has been leading a vegetative life since then.

- a) massive b) ridiculous c) rapid d) random

2. The water closet had been patented in 1775 but the _____ use of water carriage for sewage needed abundant water supply and good leakproof drains.

- a) intense b) widespread c) principal d) massive

3. There was _____ competition between the rival companies to get the contract.

- a) petty b) gradual c) exceptional d) intense

4. The _____ climate of the region and the many different habitats support a wide variety of birds and flowers, butterflies.

- a) random b) mild c) logical d) conventional

5. The experience of older people is not only a(n) _____ source of history, it is an essential element of counselling empathy.

- a) outstanding b) average c) random d) invaluable

6. He regarded his _____ problem as lack of time since he was working for nearly 15 hours a day.

- a) gradual b) principal c) petty d) invaluable

7. As far as the _____ criminal is concerned, it was afternoon when the incident happened.

- a) alleged b) massive c) rapid d) logical

8. Our problems seem _____ when compared to those of people who never get enough to eat.

- a) random b) principal c) petty d) widespread

9. Jumping off a bridge with a specially equipped rope around your feet and body was really a(n) _____ experience.

- a) gradual b) mild c) outstanding d) ridiculous

10. Other areas, those of _____ aesthetic, historic or scientific interest, are regarded as entirely unsuitable for housing developments of any sort.

- a) principal b) average c) gradual d) random

11. More recently the _____ increase in the wealth of the Japanese, their greater consumption of diamonds have led to a sharp increase in their use of platinum for jewellery.

- a) conventional b) intense c) enormous d) mild

12. It was accepted from the outset of the study that it would be unrealistic to expect changes to be made overnight, and that a(n) _____ ~~modification~~ to the desired state would be

- a) alleged b) logical c) invaluable d) petty

13. A(n) _____ computer is turned into a 'thinking machine'; by programming it to behave as if it consisted of a collection of brain cells --; neurons --; which will respond to a stimulus.

- a) conventional b) exceptional c) logical d) petty

14. He had a way of dealing with objections which, even if he didn't face them, made it appear absolutely _____ to maintain the opposite position.

- a) principal b) mild c) rapid d) alleged

15. Although most psychologists attach _____ importance to early experience, there is no agreement concerning the factors.

- a) random b) logical c) enormous d) average

16. Most top managers are above _____ in intelligence (numeric and verbal reasoning) but are not in the genius class.

- a) gradual b) mild c) average d) outstanding

17. In most cases the infected cells eventually disintegrate and die, their own metabolism _____ disrupted by the presence of the virus.

- a) mildly b) gradually c) fatally d) allegedly

Appendix 3

| | |
|-------------------------|-------------|
| 1. invaluable + asset | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 2. massive + redundancy | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 3. mild + agony | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 4. petty + corruption | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 5. exceptional + merit | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 6. ridiculous + notion | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 7. rapid + transition | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 8. enormous + velocity | ADJ. + NOUN |
| 9. fatally + undermine | ADV. + VERB |
| 10. logical + sequence | ADJ. + NOUN |

Appendix 4

Redundancy: The state of not or no longer being needed or wanted especially as a worker.

- The value of **redundancy** payments increases with a worker's length of service and any break deprives workers of their rights to payments.

Agony: Very great pain or suffering of mind or body.

- He screamed in **agony** and fell to his knees, cradling his broken nose between his bloodied hands.

Asset: somebody or something that is useful and contributes to the success of something

- Although many people overlook the fact with worldly things in their minds a good health is the best **asset**.

Corruption: dishonest exploitation of power for personal gain

- The regime is blamed for a rise in **corruption**, mafia crime, public debt and a lack of public responsibility.

Merit: value that deserves respect and acknowledgment

- There is little **merit** in passing the test if you cheated.

Transition: a process or period in which something undergoes a change and passes from one state, stage, form, or activity to another

- A peaceful **transition** from colonial rule to self-government

Notion: An idea, belief or opinion in someone's mind, concept.

- An education system based on the old-fashioned **notion** of women as home-makers

Velocity: Speed in a certain direction; rate of movement.

- Obviously the most important quantity to be measured in most flows is the fluid **velocity**.

Undermine: To weaken or destroy gradually.

- These incidents could seriously **undermine** support for the police.

Sequence: A group of things that are arranged in or happen in an order; especially following one another in time.

- A **sequence** of bad accidents has prompted the council to put up warning signs.

Appendix 5

B- Gap filling exercise

- 1) The economic downfall of the 1930s triggered a(n)_____causing tens of thousands of people around the world divorce, commit suicide and so on.
- 2) He didn't have even a(n)_____for the loss of lives he had caused so far as a high-rank officer in war.
- 3) As English is increasingly becoming very familiar as a lingua franca throughout the world and loses its value, speaking some other foreign languages is considered a(n)_____by some.
- 4) The CEO of the huge Ltd. company couldn't get away with the _____unlike he had planned since the Treasury inspectors were very conscientious.
- 5) This year's award was given to a deaf person of _____who showed great resolution, leadership and general achievement.
- 6) Those who fail to keep up with the _____in the technological field in a highly globalized world will also, without a doubt, not succeed to keep their relationships with people updated and fresh.
- 7) His old mind was playing tricks and he always started to keep his mind stuffed with _____like he'd be murdered by his old wife while he is asleep.
- 8) One can say from the scene of the car accident that the car crashed the tree head-on with a(n)_____.
- 9) Years of heavy smoking along with high blood-pressure_____his health and physicians have nothing to do but slow down the deterioration.
- 10) They play a fairly passive role, though the taking of notes involves the student actively in the learning process, particularly if an attempt is made to record the main points of the lecture in a(n)_____.

Appendix 6

Instant Post Quiz

1. The value of _____ payments increases with a worker's length of service and any break deprives workers of their rights to payments.
a) redundancy b) reputation c) reproduction d) reduction
2. He screamed in _____ and fell to his knees, cradling his broken nose between his bloodied hands.
a) agony b) argue c) ailment d) alert
3. Although many people overlook the fact with worldly things in their minds a good health is the best _____.
a) asset b) alloy c) allowance d) allusion
4. The regime is blamed for a rise in _____, mafia crime, public debt and a lack of public responsibility.
a) corruption b) contraction c) contamination d) contortion
5. There is little _____ in passing the test if you cheated.
a) merit b) medium c) maze d) memory
6. A peaceful _____ from colonial rule to self-government
a) transition b) transportation c) trauma d) treachery
7. An education system based on the old-fashioned _____ of women as home-makers
a) notion b) nation c) negotiation d) notorious
8. Obviously the most important quantity to be measured in most flows is the fluid _____.
a) velocity b) vaccinate c) vascular d) vapor
9. These incidents could seriously _____ support for the police.
a) undermine b) determine c) underlie d) unambiguous
10. A _____ of bad accidents has prompted the council to put up warning signs.
a) sequence c) sentry d) sentinel d) serpent

- 1) The closure of the export department led to a lot of_____.
- 2) The_____he felt deep down inside was so intense that he couldn't bear it and ended his life.
- 3) A sense of humour is a great_____when your job requires communicating with people.
- 4) The government immediately terminated the ministry official whose name was mentioned in a(n)_____.
- 5) The teacher tried to convince his students that there is little_____in passing exams by cheating.
- 6) No one can say the_____from tyrannic rule to democracy will be smooth and easy.
- 7) Almost everyone in Turkey abandoned the old-fashioned_____that women are to be housewives.
- 8) The car came round the corner at such a_____that the driver was unable to keep it on the road.
- 9) The house is unsafe and must be evacuated immediately since the foundations were _____by floods.
- 10) The_____of events on the night of the murder still isn't known by the police.

Appendix 8

Instant Post Quiz

C- Definition-Sentence Test

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

Fame

- a) the condition of being very well known
- b) She won overnight **fame** with her first novel.

Redundancy

- a)
- b)

Agony

- a)
- b)

Asset

- a)
- b)

Corruption

- a)
- b)

Merit

- a)
- b)

Transition

a)

b)

Notion

a)

b)

Velocity

a)

b)

Undermine

a)

b)

Sequence

a)

b)

Appendix 9 (postponed post Quiz)

1. A peaceful_____from colonial rule to self-government
a) transition b) transportation c) trauma d) treachery
2. He screamed in_____and fell to his knees, cradling his broken nose between his bloodied hands.
a) agony b) argue c) ailment d) alert
3. The regime is blamed for a rise in_____, mafia crime, public debt and a lack of public responsibility.
a) corruption b) contraction c) contamination d) contortion
4. There is little_____in passing the test if you cheated.
a) merit b) medium c) maze d) memory
5. Although many people overlook the fact with worldly things in their minds a good health is the best_____.
a) asset b) alloy c) allowance d) allusion
6. An education system based on the old-fashioned_____of women as home-makers
a) notion b) nation c) negotiation d) notorious
7. A_____of bad accidents has prompted the council to put up warning signs.
a) sequence c) sentry d) sentinel d) serpent
8. The value of_____payments increases with a worker's length of service and any break deprives workers of their rights to payments.
a) redundancy b) reputation c) reproduction d) reduction
9. These incidents could seriously_____support for the police.
a) undermine b) determine c) underlie d) unambiguous
10. Obviously the most important quantity to be measured in most flows is the fluid_____.
a) velocity b) vaccinate c) vascular d) vapor

Appendix 10 (postponed post quiz)

C- Definition-Sentence Test

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

Fame

- a) the condition of being very well known
- b) She won overnight **fame** with her first novel.

Sequence

- a)
- b)

Asset

- a)
- b)

Agony

- a)
- b)

Redundancy

- a)
- b)

Corruption

- a)
- b)

Notion

a)

b)

Merit

a)

b)

Transition

a)

b)

Undermine

a)

b)

Velocity

a)

b)