

T.C.
Mersin Üniversitesi
Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eđitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
İngiliz Dili Eđitimi Bilim Dalı

AN ANALYSIS OF VERB+NOUN
COLLOCATIONAL ERROR TYPES AND ERROR
SOURCES IN WRITTEN NARRATIVE TEXTS OF
STUDENTS MAJORING IN ENGLISH

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

İbrahim ÜSTÜNALP

Mersin, 2013

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Danışman
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Elçin ESMER

İbrahim ÜSTÜNALP

Mersin, 2013

Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü M¼d¼rl¼ę¼'ne,

Bu alıřma j¼rimiz tarafındanAnabilim
Dalında Y¼KSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiřtir.

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Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geen ¼retim ¼yelerine ait olduęunu
onaylarım.

13.12/2013

Mersin



Prof. Dr. Y. Kemal KELES

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BÖLÜMÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCE YAZILI ANLATI METİNLERİNDE KULLANDIKLARI FİİL VE İSİMDEN OLUŞAN EŞDİZİMLİ SÖZCÜKLERİN HATA TÜRLERİ VE KAYNAKLARININ ANALİZİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı öğrencilerinin yazılı anlatı metinlerindeki fiil ve isimden oluşan eşdizimli sözcüklerin hata türlerini ve bu hatalarının kaynaklarını saptamaktır. Araştırmaya 2012-2013 akademik yılı bahar döneminde Mersin Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programında öğrenim gören 234 öğrenci katılmıştır. Fiil ve isimden oluşan eşdizimli sözcüklerin hata türleri ve kaynaklarını incelemek üzerine öğrencilerden yazılı anlatı metinleri toplanmıştır. Bu veriler bilgisayar ortamına aktarılıp bir öğrenci derlemi oluşturulmuştur. Elde edilen derlem NooJ ve Antconc derlem analiz programları ile analiz edilmiştir. Eşdizimli sözcüklerin hatalı olup olmadığı İngiliz Ulusal Derlemi ve Oxford Eşdizimlilik Sözlüğüne (2009) başvurularak belirlenmiştir. Elde edilen hatalı fiil ve isimden oluşan eşdizimli sözcükler Nesselhauf'un (2005) tasarladığı sınıflandırmaya göre sınıflandırılmıştır. Ayrıca

bu hatalı eşdizimli sözcükler daha sonra Hong ve diğerleri (2011) ve de Richards'dan (1974) uyarlanan sınıflandırmaya göre hata kaynakları belirlenmiştir. Araştırmada 335 hata fiil ve isimden oluşan eşdizimli sözcük bulunmuştur. Yapılan analiz sonucu tüm hata türlerinde hata bulunmasıyla birlikte en fazla hatanın *fiil* türünde olduğu belirlenmiştir. Hata kaynaklarında ise en çok hatanın *diller arası aktarımdan* kaynaklandığı bulunup, *aşırı genelleme* kategorisine rastlanmamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Eşdizimli sözcükler, hata analizi, hata türleri, hata kaynakları, öğrenci derlemi, aradil kuramı.

ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF VERB+NOUN COLLOCATIONAL ERROR TYPES AND ERROR SOURCES IN WRITTEN NARRATIVE TEXTS OF STUDENTS MAJORING IN ENGLISH

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This study aims to determine the verb+noun collocational errors and their error sources in written narrative texts of students majoring in English. Two hundred thirty four students enrolled on English Language Teaching Department of Mersin University in 2012-2013 academic year in spring term participate in the present study. In order to investigate verb+noun collocational error types and their error sources, written narrative texts produced by the students are collected. Further, these texts are computerized and a learner corpus is designed. This corpus is then analyzed with corpus analysis software NooJ and Antconc. In order to determine whether these verb+noun collocations are erroneous, British National Corpus and Oxford Collocation Dictionary (2009) are consulted. Erroneous verb+noun collocations are classified into error types according to the framework designed by Nesselhauf (2005). These deviant verb+noun collocations are further categorized into their error sources according to the framework adapted from Hong et al.'s (2011) and Richards' (1974) works. The analysis finds three hundred thirty five verb+noun collocational errors. The results show that the

most frequent error type is *verb category* followed by *determiners*. *Intralingual transfer* is found to be the prominent error source among others, while influence of *overgeneralization* is not found in any of the errors.

Keywords: Collocations, error analysis, error types, error sources, learner corpus, interlanguage theory.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (In Alphabetical Order)

BNC	: British National Corpus
CL	: Corpus Linguistics
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ESL	: English as a Second Language
LC	: Learner corpus
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
 OCD	: Oxford Collocations Dictionary
SL	: Second Language
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
TL	: Target Language
VN	: Verb+Noun

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INTRODUCTION

“You shall know a word by the company it keeps” states Firth (in Kennedy, 2003, p. 467) while Mel’cuk says “People speak in set phrases- rather than separate words; hence the crucial importance of set phrases” (1998, p.1) In addition to Mel’cuk and Firth’s stress on the significance of set phrases, Nation (2000, p. 523) claims that “By having chunks of language in long term memory, language reception and language production are made more effective”. Formulaic sequences fulfill a key function in discourse and are predominant in language (Conklin & Schmitt, 2008).

These remarks on the importance of vocabulary as units rather than isolated items have changed the direction of methodologies for vocabulary development with the emphasize by the communicative and natural approach arousing more interest in vocabulary teaching (Deveci, 2004), thus in vocabulary learning which, since, is indisputably at the core of Second Language Acquisition (henceforth SLA) (Hong, Rahim, Hua, & Salehuddin, 2011). Consequently, this shift has also influenced the areas of research both in linguistics and applied linguistics.

Variously called as “prefabricated units, prefabs, phraseological units, (lexical) chunks, multi-word units, or formulaic sequences, collocations, i.e. arbitrarily restricted lexeme combinations such as *make a decision* or *fully aware*, are one type of a group of expressions whose importance in language has been increasingly recognized in recent years” (Nesselhauf, 2005, p.1). The concept of collocations has drawn attention as a research field in second language learning

(Chang, Chang J., Chen, Liou, 2008; Zinkgräf, 2008); and, since 1990s, become a major issue in second language vocabulary acquisition (Wang & Shih, 2011).

Knowledge of collocation is very crucial for second/ foreign language learners in terms of different important aspects of language. Nation puts it as “language knowledge is collocational knowledge” (2000, p. 522). Durrant (2009) emphasizes that focusing on this knowledge provides considerable benefit to learners; because ability to communicate in a foreign language necessitates more than solely its grammar and semantic knowledge (Sadeghi & Panahifar, 2013). It helps learners to attain fluency and proficiency in the target language (henceforth TL) (Hill, 2000; Nation, 2000; Kennedy, 2003; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Hong et. al., 2011). In addition, it also contributes to the successful performance of second language learners in the TL production (Muller, 2011); as a result, second language learners clearly need collocational knowledge to establish effective communication (Granger, 1998; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Akıncı 2009). Moreover, Nation (2001) also suggests that native-like fluency can best be attained by the improvement in collocational competence since “all fluent and appropriate language use required collocational knowledge” (p. 318). Shei and Pain (2000) state that one of the things that attribute to the difference between native speakers and second language learners is collocational knowledge. It provides students with the benefit of being toward native-like (Hashemi, Azizinezhad, & Dravishi, 2011).

Collocational deficiency is a pervasive phenomenon in learner English. Language learners often have difficulty in choosing the correct combination of two or more words as native speakers naturally do (Shih, 2000; Phoocharoensil, 2011). Çelik states that “one of the most frequent mistakes in language learning appears through the use of collocation” (2011, p. 275). Also, Wang and Shih (2011) claim that foreign language learners of English experience great difficulty

in producing correct English collocations. Asserting the challenge learners face to identify the collocations, Bahardoust (2012), and Naderishahab and Tahririan (2013) claim that collocations have always been problematic parts of second language learning.

The advantages and importance of collocational knowledge to the foreign language learners to gain native-like fluency and accuracy as well as the problematic nature of collocational knowledge and production have started to catch researchers' attention and make it a fundamental area of research, although there is still deficiency (Shie & Pain, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2005). Previous studies have tried to describe the nature of collocational errors by identifying and classifying them, and they have also investigated the sources of these errors (e.g. Shih, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003; Sun, 2010; Hong et. al., 2011). Carried out by error analysis (henceforth EA) methodology, this growing body of research has mostly used computer aided error analysis in learner corpus (henceforth LC; pl. *corpora*, a new source of data for SLA research, which is a collection of written and spoken texts produced by language learners) under the field of corpus linguistics (henceforth CL). Cheng, Warren and Xun-feng (2003, p.174) mention CL "[...] as an established field with a growing body of research [...]" while Granger (2002) stresses the important role of LC research in building a link between CL and foreign/ second language research, both of which has been disparate; in addition, she adds that CL show the potential to change perspectives on language.

Although being one of the most difficult and valuable aspects of second language learning, collocations 'have been neglected by the researchers' (Shei & Pain, 2000, p. 167) and have not been 'a frequent focus of attention in analysis of learner English so far' (Nesselhauf, 2005, p.3). With the absolute requirement for collocational knowledge in foreign language competence, and the new phenomenal methodology of CL using LC; research into collocation production

of language learners is simply needed to identify the problems encountered so as to overcome difficulties through the mastery of TL. The scarcity of research into this field both in global linguistics and applied linguistics literature, especially in Turkey's, arises the necessity for a study of collocations in a LC via computer aided error analysis methodology.

The problem that the present study is trying to deal with relates to English Language Teaching Department students in Mersin University, Turkey. Even though these participants of the study are advance learners of English, Nesselhauf's study has revealed the fact that advance learners also have problems with producing proper collocations, which is in parallel with Altenberg and Granger's findings (2001); therefore Nesselhauf notes that "advance learners' difficulties with collocations have not been investigated in much detail so far" (2003, p. 223). Moreover, Koç (2006) has also observed that during the learning process, one of the main problems Turkish students dealing with has been English collocational incompetency. Previous studies on collocations have found that most of the errors learners make have been particularly Verb + Noun collocations (Chang et al., 2008; Nesselhauf, 2003; Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010). Nesselhauf (2005) also states that "VN collocations in particular are significant, because they make up the communicative core of utterances that has the important information" (in Akıncı, 2009, p. 39). Research also puts forward that collocational errors of foreign language learners stem from various sources. Of them, first language (henceforth L1) is found to be the most prevailing one (Shih, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003; Sun, 2010).

Problem Statement

Collocational deficiency is a pervasive phenomenon in learner English. Research findings have revealed that language learners often have difficulty in choosing the correct combination of two or more words as native speakers naturally do (Shih, 2000; Phoocharoensil, 2011), and also in producing correct English collocations (Wang & Shih, 2011). Studies have shown that even advance learners also have problems dealing with collocations (Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005). In such studies, lexical collocations have found to be more problematic than grammatical ones (Gitsaki, 1996; Nesselhauf, 2003; Wang & Shih, 2011); and within lexical collocations VN collocations especially have attracted the most attention as they are shown to pose the greatest difficulty to learners (Gitsaki, 1996; Howarth, 1998; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Chan & Liou, 2005; Lee, 2005; Chang et al., 2008; Kuo, 2009; Dan-ting, 2010; Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010; Darvishi, 2011). In studies exploring the sources of collocational difficulty, some contradictory results have emerged. While L1 influence has appeared to be strong in some cases (Granger, 1998a; Hama, 2010; Nesselhauf, 2003; Eker, 2001; Bıçkı, 2012); and relatively weak in others where L2 influence has appeared to be stronger (Hong et al, 2011; Laufer & Waldman, 2011). However, as suggested by Nesselhauf (2005, p. 8) “questions such as which collocations or types of collocations are most difficult for certain groups of learners, what kinds of mistakes occur and why, have received little attention so far”.

Aim of the Study

This present study aims to investigate the use of collocations by advance learners. More precisely, there two aims of the study. The first one is to identify VN collocational errors in participants’ writings by categorizing them according

to the collocational error classification so as to define most difficult types. The second one is to explore the sources of VN collocational errors according to the VN collocational error source classification to reveal the reasons of erroneous occurrences.

The Significance of the Study

This present study is significant with regards to its focus, methodology and possible results. First of all, this study aims to analyze advance learners' VN collocational errors and the sources of these errors. The studies on collocations conducted in Turkey so far have mostly focused on the effects of teaching collocations through various techniques, vocabulary acquisition and retention (e.g. Gençer, 2004; Avcı, 2006; Balcı, 2006; Akıncı, 2009; Çelik, 2011); only a few have tried to examine the collocational errors (e.g. Eker, 2001; Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010; Bıçkılı, 2012). These studies investigating collocational errors of advance EFL /ESL learners with Turkish L1 background have focused on VN collocational errors and L1 influence on them. However, this present study also focuses on L2 influence and influence of communicative strategies on erroneous VN collocation production.

Secondly, this study is important because of its methodology. It uses a LC to analyze the erroneous VN collocations learners produce. Noting the criticism leveled at previous data collection techniques such as elicitation tasks (Nesselhauf, 2005), the study favors naturally occurring data with both erroneous and correct use of collocations in a meaningful context, where learners' actual productions are presented. Benefiting the computerized data, the study also employs computer software to analyze it.

Finally, results of this study can be beneficial to learners, instructors and researchers. This study attempts to examine collocational production of Mersin University students majoring in English. With the findings of the current study, learners' problems regarding collocations can be identified, and an awareness of their deficiencies in terms of collocational production can be raised by also providing information about the sources of their misuse of collocations. Taking the findings of the study into consideration, instructors can develop materials, remedial tasks to recover the deficiencies of learners to help them achieve native-like soundness in their communications, and become more fluent and accurate in their language production. Another significance of the study is that it may attract future researchers' attention to the problematic nature of collocations worthy of investigation. This study can represent a model for further studies.

Research Questions

With respect to the aims, this study intends to answer the following research questions:

1. What types of verb-noun collocational errors are found in Mersin University ELT students' narrative texts?
2. What sources of verb-noun collocational errors are found in Mersin University ELT students' narrative texts?

Definitions of Terms

Collocation: In this study, the term collocation is considered in the phraseological approach as a type of word combination in a certain grammatical

pattern. Also, the term combination (if not stated otherwise) is used interchangeably with the term collocation.

VN Collocation: A verb + noun collocation will be considered not only a combination of two lexical elements but also other elements closely associated with them will also be included in collocation. For example, *spend money on something* (not only *spend + money*) will be considered as a collocation. The elements involved in collocations are assumed to be lexemes, therefore collocations such as *make a mistake, makes a mistake, made a mistake, making a mistake* will be considered as instances of the same collocation.

Corpus: In this study, corpus means a computerized collection of texts which is produced by language learners in narrative type and in a limited time in classroom settings without any help of a dictionary or peer consultancy; and a corpus which can also be analyzed by corpus analysis software.

Error: The term ‘error’ means a form or usage that is unlike the norm. In this study, related terms such as mistake, unacceptable, deviation as well as deviant, incorrect and wrong will be used interchangeably to refer to the same concept ‘error’.

CHAPTER I: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents related literature on collocations. First of all, definitions and approaches to define collocations are given together with classification of collocations in order to gain insight into the notion of collocations. Significance of collocations and collocational difficulty are also handled so as to highlight the importance of collocations for language learners and provide a background for such research. Further, the notion of collocation in this present study is provided in order to clearly present how this study deals with collocations. VN collocational error types and error sources are also presented with their frameworks. Related studies are also summarized.

In the following sections in this chapter, corpus linguistics together with learner corpora is discussed in accordance with the present study. Moreover, interlanguage theory is also given as the present study relies on this theory of second language acquisition. Finally, as this present study analyzes learners' errors on VN collocations in a learner corpus, error analysis in a learner corpus is provided.

I.1. Definition of Collocations

Various called as “prefabricated units, prefabs, phraseological units, (lexical) chunks, multi-word units, or formulaic sequences, collocations do not have a clear-cut definition. In literature, there exist different definitions of collocation by numerous scholars. Nesselhauf (2005, p. 11) proposes that “the term collocation is used in widely different and often rather vague senses in linguistics and language teaching”. So far, researchers (e.g. Nesselhauf, 2003,

2005; Sinclair, 1991) have used various definitions of collocations depending on their perspectives. Besides, previous studies have failed to formulate a precise and simple definition of collocations.

The introduction of collocations in the literature goes back to Firth with his remark: “Words should be known by the company they keep” (1957, in Eryıldırım, 2002, p. 84). Sinclair has taken this term further and developed a definition. Sinclair (1991) defines collocation as “the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text”. Lewis defines it as “the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency” (1997; in Phoocharoensil, 2011, p. 103). According to Nattinger and DeCarrio (1997) collocation is “strings of specific lexical items that co-occur with a mutual expectancy greater than a chance” (in Boonyasaquan, 2006, p. 100). Nesselhauf, on the other hand, considers collocations to be “a type of word combination in a certain grammatical pattern referring to both an abstract unit of language and its instantiations in text” (2005, p. 25).

To define collocations, many different definitions have been provided. Martelli (2006) claims that “It is clear that not all scholars use the term to designate the same phenomenon” (p. 1006). Likewise, Darabi (2012) underlines the non-existence of an absolutely and unanimously agreed definition of collocation. While some of them focus on frequency (e.g. Sinclair, 1991), some focus on syntactical relation among the elements of a collocation (e.g. Nesselhauf, 2003). Bahns points out (1993, p. 57) “regrettably, collocation is a term which is used and understood in many different ways”. This relates to how collocations are defined.

I.1.1. Approaches to Define Collocations

The complexity and variety of definitions are due to the approaches trying to define collocations. There have been two main approaches to collocations. The first one is frequency-based or statistically-oriented approach, and the second one is phraseological approach or significance oriented approach (Nesselhauf, 2005; Akıncı, 2009).

The frequency-based approach supports the view that “a collocation is considered as the co-occurrence of words at a certain distance, and a distinction is usually made between co-occurrences that are frequent (or more precisely, more frequent than could be expected if words combined randomly in a language) and those that are not.” (Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 11-12). This view goes back to Firth, and has been developed by Sinclair; to whom “a collocation is the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text, in which short space is regarded as a distance of relevant lexical items (collocates) of the node word (which is under investigation)” (in Hong et al, 2011). Nesselhauf exemplifies this as:

... in a given amount of text, the word *house* is analysed, and the word occurs in an environment such as *He went back to the house. When he opened the door, the dog barked*, the words *went, back, to, the, when, he, opened, the* are all considered to form collocations with the node *house*; these words are then called ‘collocates’. (2005, p. 12).

The fact that frequency-based approach does not regard collocations as belonging to a distinct linguistic element, but rather sees them more in terms of probability implies that there are essentially no impossible collocations but some collocations are much more likely to occur than others (Walker, 2011, p. 102). Likewise, Ahmed (2005) mentions Sinclair’s definition to be a textual one, which

does not consider the existence of any syntactic link between the words, and maintains that “It is not useful and can result in a woolly confusion of single instances of co-occurrence with repeated patterns of co-occurrence” (p. 7-8).

This ‘woolly confusion’ appears especially in Sinclair’s (1991) categorization of collocations, which consists of significant and casual collocations. Significant collocations are co-occurrences of words “such that they co-occur more often than their respective frequencies and the length of text in which they appear would predict (Sinclair, 1974; in Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 12). Considering the definition with focus on the frequency, when it is applied to the example above, the *and house* would probably not be in the significant collocation category even though these words possibly co-occur frequently; while *barked* and *dog* would presumably create a significant collocation as *barked* is not usually very frequent and, if it occurs, is likely to be found near the word *dog* (Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 12). Therefore, it is clear that the frequency-based approach has the deficiency of semantic relationship between the elements of a collocation, which play a significant role determining whether they constitute a collocation or not (Akıncı, 2009).

Phraseological approach, on the other hand, unfailingly obliges the syntactic relation among the elements of collocation, as oppose to the frequency-based approach. Among the scholars supporting this view are Cowie, Mel’cuk, and Hausmann (Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010). One of the distinctive representative of the phraseological approach Cowie “considers collocations a type of word combination defining them by delimiting them from other types of word combinations, most importantly from idioms on the one side and from what he sometimes calls ‘free combinations’ on the other” (in Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 14). Cowie (1994; in Akıncı, 2009) categorizes combinations in two types; formulae (having a primarily pragmatic function such as *How are you?* or *Good morning*)

and composites (having a primarily syntactic function, to which collocations belong); on the basis of two criteria: transparency and commutability, both of which interact closely (Nesselhauf, 2005). Transparency points to whether the elements of the combination and the combination itself have a literal or a non-literal meaning, and commutability mean whether and to what degree the substitution of the elements of the combination is restricted (Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 14; Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010, p. 42).

Considering two main approaches defining collocations, Altıkulaçoğlu (2010, p. 43) summarizes the notion of collocation especially depending more on the phraseological approach:

- Collocations consist of more than one (at least two) elements.
- Elements of a collocation can either consist of all lexical items, or one lexical and another one grammatical.
- There is a certain relationship among the elements of a collocation, which means that the elements are interdependent.
- Usage of one collocational element in a combination is restricted, and cannot be substituted.
- The relationship among the elements of a collocation, and the restriction on the selection of at least one item depend on the principle of arbitrariness.
- The relationship among the elements of a collocation is freer and the meaning of the collocational combination is more transparent when compared to the one of an idiom's
- Free combinations can also be included into collocational category, however the relationship among the elements of a free combination is freer than that of a collocation's; also free

combinations is the most transparent category of word combinations in terms of meaning.

I.2. Classifications of Collocations

In general, taking their syntactic characteristics into consideration, collocations can be divided into two groups. One of them is called lexical collocations which refer to co-occurrences of two lexical elements. The other one is called grammatical collocations which denote to co-occurrences of a lexical and a more grammatical element (such as a preposition) (Nesselhauf, 2005). Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1997; in Phoocharoensil, 2011, p. 104) propose the following classification:

As shown in Table 1 lexical collocations are combinations of two or more content words such as nouns, verbs, adjective, and adverbs. On the other hand, grammatical collocations are combinations of a content word and a function word, which is usually a preposition. Benson et al.'s classification provides the essential basis to draw a clear distinction between lexical and grammatical collocations and may be one of the most commonly used taxonomies to classify different types of collocations in empirical research (e.g. Hsu, 2007) (Wang & Shih, 2011, p. 400).

Previous research indicates that, when compared to grammatical ones, lexical collocations cause more difficulty for language learners (Gitsaki, 1996; Nesselhauf, 2003; Wang & Shih, 2011). In addition, more specifically, verb+noun collocations are considered the most important one by Gitsaki (1996), Howarth (1998), Nesselhauf (2003, 2005), Chan & Liou (2005), Chang et al. (2008), Kuo (2009), Dan-ting (2010), and Altıkulaçoğlu (2010) because “they make up the communicative core of utterances by representing the propositional

core of the fully formed clause; and they constitute dominant EFL weaknesses” (Akıncı, 2009, p. 32).

Table 1

Benson, Benson, and Ilson’s (1997) Classification of Lexical and Grammatical Collocations

Lexical Collocations	Example
Adjective + noun	<i>Sour milk</i>
Verb + noun	<i>Conduct research</i>
Noun + verb	<i>Dust accumulates</i>
Adverb + adjective	<i>Mentally disabled</i>
Verb + adverb	<i>Move freely</i>
Adverb + verb	<i>Proudly present</i>
Grammatical Collocations	
Noun + prepositions	<i>An increase in</i>
Verb + preposition	<i>Elaborate on</i>
Adjective + preposition	<i>Familiar with</i>
Preposition + noun	<i>On probation</i>

I.3. Significance of Collocations

According to Nation (2000) collocational knowledge is essential because the sequential probabilities of language items are the basis of learning, knowledge, and use. Hill (2000, in Altıkulaçoğlu) states that the seventy per cent of the language use consist of collocations. In line with Hill, Nation says that “language knowledge is collocational knowledge” (2000, p. 522). Therefore,

knowledge of collocation is very crucial for second/ foreign language learners in terms of different important aspects of language.

Collocational knowledge plays a significant role for learners to be competent in basic language skills, reading, writing, listening, and speaking; as a result, also to be competent in using the TL for communicative purposes (Granger, 1998a; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005). To achieve proficiency in TL, Boonyasquan (2006) stresses that it is vital to raise collocational awareness while teaching a foreign language. Brown (1974, in Al-halalmah, 2011) highlights that learning collocations not only increases ESL/EFL learners' knowledge of collocation but also improves learners' oral fluency, listening comprehension, and reading speed. Additionally, she (1974; in Li, 2005) points out that learning collocation enables learners gradually to realize language chunks used by native speakers in speech and writing and to get the sense of words in natural combinations with other words as well. In accordance with Brown (1974), Hill (2000) considers recognizing chunks as one of the necessary steps for acquisition because incorrectly chunked input cannot be available for retrieval and use (2000).

Shei and Pain (2000) state that one of the things that attribute to the difference between native speakers and second language learners is collocational knowledge. When compared to non-native speakers, native speakers show differences because they have met far more English to enable them recognize and produce the ready-made chunks, as a result they can process and produce language at a much faster rate, that is to say they think more quickly and communicate more efficiently (Hill, 2000). According to Lewis (2002; in Öztuna, 2009), being consciously aware of collocations allows learners to take advantage of language they already partly know and encourage learners to explore them. In addition to this, their communicative power; that is, the ability to say more of

what they want to say with the limited language resources at their disposal, may increase (p. 18). In addition to developing accuracy abilities, collocations prove highly motivating by developing fluency.

Wray (2000; in Akinçi, 2009) suggests that most of natural language consists of collocations; hence, so as to communicate successfully; and produce and comprehend ideas accurately and fluently, second language learners should acquire a large number of collocations. Nation (2001, p. 318) claims that the improvement in collocational competence plays a crucial role in native-like fluency since “all fluent and appropriate language use requires collocational knowledge”. As native speakers need less processing effort than non-native ones to produce sentences, they produce language fluently because of collocations being retrieved from their memory as whole units (Nesselhauf, 2005). In accordance with this view of Nesselhauf’s, Hill (2000) adds that collocations enable speakers to name complex ideas quickly so that they can continue to manipulate the ideas without using all their brain space to focus on the form of words.

Nesselhauf (2005, p. 2) identifies the important functions of collocations as follows:

- Collocations constitute the basis for the development of creative language in L1 and childhood SLA.
- Collocations are essential for fluency in both spoken and written language. Psycholinguistic evidence indicates that the human brain is much better equipped for memorizing than for processing, and that the availability of large numbers of collocations reduces the processing effort and thus makes fluent language possible.

- The use of collocations reinforces comprehension, as the recipient can understand the meaning of a passage of text without having to attend to every word.
- Collocations serve to indicate membership of a certain linguistic group; they achieve the desire to sound and write like others.

Knowledge of collocation is very crucial for second/ foreign language learners in terms of different important aspects of language. Nation puts it as “language knowledge is collocational knowledge” (2000, p. 522). It helps learners to attain fluency and proficiency in the TL (Hill, 2000; Nation, 2000; Kennedy, 2003; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Hong et al., 2011). In addition, it also contributes to the successful performance of second language learners in the TL production (Muller, 2011). As a result, second language learners clearly need collocational knowledge to establish effective communication (Granger, 1998a; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Akıncı 2009). Moreover, Nation (2000) also suggests that native-like fluency can best be attained by the improvement in collocational competence since “all fluent and appropriate language use required collocational knowledge” (p. 318).

I.4. Collocational Difficulty

As mentioned above, a number of scholars agree that collocational knowledge is central to the success of different aspects of TL. During the learning and production process of the TL, learners inevitably come across with collocations. However, in this unavoidable situation of knowing and producing collocations, learners, regardless of their proficiency level, run into problems due to several factors.

Smadja (1989; in Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 3) states that “Language learners often stumble across co-occurrence relations”. This is most probably due to lack of collocational knowledge as Tylor (1990; in Öztuna, 2009, p.20-21) defines it having “both semantic, and syntactic [knowledge] i.e. knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word and also knowing the network of associations between that word and other words in the language...”. As long as vocabulary items are taught in isolation, without in a meaningful context with examples related to their uses, learners continue to have difficulty in combining words together appropriately, and make more use of the vocabulary items they already know. For example, a learner may know the words *hold* and *conversation*, or *make* and *mistake*, but he/she may not know that it is possible to say *hold a conversation*, or *make a mistake* (Öztuna, 2009). Therefore, collocations are pointed out to be one of the main obstacles and challenges for any second language learner (Wanner, Ramos, Vincze, Nazar, Ferraro, Mosqueira & Prieto, 2011).

In accordance with the statements above, Altıkulaçoğlu (2010) claims that not teaching collocations implicitly in the classroom poses problems for learners. However, the high number of collocations, and the question of which should be taught is another problem. Here, Nation (2000) suggests that considering the limited time allowed in the classroom, most common collocations should be taught; while Bahns (1993) proposes to neglect the ones which are equal in learners’ L1.

While some of collocational difficulties arise from lack of collocational knowledge due to instructional deficiencies, some occur because of various other reasons. To name one, cultural differences can be considered. Because speakers' mentality, knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, law, customs, habits and other things effect collocational patters of each language (Farghal and Shannaq, 1999; in

Mashharawi, 2008, p. 25). Cultural factors make collocations different in each language because every language is founded upon its culture. The lack cultural competency of the TL causes learners to fail to notice and acquire culturally marked collocations (Koç, 2006).

Correspondingly, the fact that collocations are uneasy to predict and they cannot be generalized in most situations, along with its arbitrary nature bring problems to learners (Koç, 2006). Arbitrary nature of collocations makes them restricted and not generalizable. Therefore, substituting collocational items pave the way to collocational errors. For example, instead of saying commit suicide, it is not possible to substitute commit with its synonyms perform, do, or execute.

Collocational difficulty springs from various factors. However, the strategies learners apply to overcome difficulties are among the topmost factors that affect learners' performance in producing collocations. They adopt different strategies to produce collocations as a result of inadequate collocational knowledge of theirs. Thus, learners make certain types of collocational errors (Ridha & Al-Riyahi, 2011).

I.5. The Notion of Collocation in This Study

Adopting earlier phraseologists' approaches and developing them, Nesselhauf (2005) has conducted the most extensive study on collocations up to now (Laufer & Waldman, 2011). Consequently, the present study is constructed on Nesselhauf's approach followed in her own study. Therefore her definition, classification and criterion for defining collocations are of crucial importance to mention here.

Nesselhauf (2003) stresses the importance of delimitation collocations from other word combination in order to determine the collocational problems students face, even though delimiting word combinations is not simple, but rather theoretically and practically problematic. She states that the most widely accepted defining criterion for collocation is arbitrary restriction on substitutability. This refers to a distinction “between combinations in which a possible restriction on the substitutability of the elements is due to their semantic properties (namely, free combinations) and combinations in which this restriction is to some degree arbitrary (namely, collocations)” (p. 225). This ‘restricted sense’ she calls forms the basis of criterion to delimit verb-object-noun collocations from other combination, for which she has also developed a syntactic categorization of VN collocations and a three-major class categorization of word combinations.

Nesselhauf (2005) categorizes VN collocations in nine groups according to their syntactic patterns. VO combinations include a verb and an object such as *wage war* or *do harm*. VPO includes a verb followed by a preposition and an object such as *cope with a problem*. VOO consists of a verb and an object followed by another object such as *do somebody harm*. Another category of VN patterns, VOPO contains a verb and an object followed by preposition and an object such as *take something into consideration*. Combinations such as *keep something under control* are considered as VOC, a verb followed by an object, and a complement. VOA combinations such as *put somebody in prison* consists of a verb and an object followed by an adverbial phrase; while VA only consists of a verb and an adverbial phrase as in the example of *go to prison*. VC category includes a verb and a compliment such as *come into existence*. The final category of the syntactic patterns is VCPO which is a combination of a verb, a complement followed by a preposition and an object as in the example of *fall in love with somebody*.

The criterion delimiting the verb- (object) noun combinations has two conditions. First one is: the sense of the verb (noun) is so specific that it only allows its combination with a small set of nouns (verbs). The second one is: the verb (noun) cannot be used in this sense with all nouns (verbs) that are syntactically and semantically possible. If at least one of the criteria above applies, a sense of a verb (noun) is considered ‘restricted’ (Nesselhauf, 2003, p. 225).

Based on the notion of restricted sense, Nesselhauf (2003) develops a categorization to distinguish three major classes of word combinations (p. 226):

Free combinations (*e.g. want a car*): there is no restriction on the senses in which the verb and the noun are used, enabling them to combine freely according to these senses.

Collocations (*e.g. take a picture*): there is no restriction on the sense in which the noun is used, but on the sense in which the verb is used, allowing the verb in the sense used within to make combinations with certain nouns (*take a picture/photograph*; but *e.g. *take a film/movie*).

Idioms (*e.g. sweeten the pill*): there is restriction on the sense in which both the verb and the noun are used, allowing no substitution for the verb or the noun, or allowing some to an extremely limited degree.

In this categorization, collocations fit between the idioms and free combinations, because the elements of an idiom cannot be replaced by similar word, while the elements in a free combination can be replaced by similar words. However, in the case of collocations, only one of the elements forming the collocation can be replaced by a substitute word, while the other one has to be fixed, which depends on arbitrariness (Nesselhauf, 2003).

To conclude, the definition of collocations varies depending on the approach adopted. There are two main approaches to define collocations: frequency-based and phraseological approach. While the former depends generally on the frequency of word occurrences, the latter takes syntactic construction of occurrences by applying arbitrary restriction rule. Adopting the latter approach tries to delimit the word combinations and categorizes them in three groups namely idioms, collocations, and free combinations. In this study, the latter approach, with the definition and classification of word combinations and VN collocations proposed by Nesselhauf is adopted. The following part mentions VN collocational error types and sources of such errors.

I.5.1. VN Collocational Error Types

Due to the factors mentioned above, learners make certain types or collocational errors. As the current study focuses on VN collocations, this part accounts for only this category of errors. In order to classify the types of VN collocational errors Nesselhauf (2003) proposes the framework given below in Table 2.

Nesselhauf (2003) identifies nine categories of VN collocation error types. According to Nesselhauf, these errors may stem from either wrong usage or non-existence of verb, noun, preposition, or article making up a collocation. In addition, the errors may result from wrong syntactic structure. There are also errors which cannot be corrected by exchanging simple elements in a collocation. Finally, using numbers in a wrong way resulting in a singular-plural disagreement also causes collocational errors.

Table 2

Nesselhauf's (2003) Framework for Classifying Types of VN Collocational Errors

Type of errors	Definition of errors	Example
Verb	Wrong choice of verb (or non-existent verb)	*carry out races / hold races
Noun	Wrong choice of noun (or non-existent noun)	*close lacks / close gaps
Usage 1	Combination exist but is not used correctly	*take notice / notice
Usage 2	Combination does not exist and cannot be corrected by exchanging single elements	*hold children within bounds / show children where the boundaries lie
Preposition (verb)	Preposition of a prepositional verb missing, present though unacceptable, or wrong	*fail in one's exam / fail one's exam
Preposition (noun)	Preposition of a noun missing, present though unacceptable, or wrong	*raise the question about / raise the question of
Determiner	Article or noun missing, present though unacceptable, or wrong	*get the permission / get permission
Number	Noun used in singular instead of plural or vice versa	*pass one's judgements / pass judgement
Structure	Syntactic structure wrong	*Make sb. friends / make friends with sb.

*collocational error

In 2005; nevertheless; in her latter study which is the most extensive one to date (Laufer & Waldman, 2011), Nesselhauf employs another framework to categorize the types of VN collocational errors. Even though the latter framework includes fewer categories compared to the former one, it is more detailed and more precise in determining the error types because of its more definite subcategories. This framework consists of seven main categories presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Framework for Classifying VN Collocational Error Types (Adapted from Nesselhauf, 2005)

Type of Error
Verb
Noun
Determiner
Structure
Whole collocation inappropriate
Stretched verb construction instead of the corresponding verb

With its twenty-two subcategories, the first category considers the errors concerning the verb. Under this category, misuses of verbs that exist in the combination are examined. Not only simple verbs; but also phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs, phrasal prepositional verbs along with multi-word verbs and verb + verb combinations are studied. Interchangeably usages of these kinds of verbs as well as superfluous verbs resulting in collocational errors are taken into consideration. In addition, preposition categories (concerning both verbs and

nouns) in the former framework are included in the verb category within the latter one; and their inappropriate applications are also considered.

Second category views only the errors caused by deviant nouns collocating with the verb of a VN collocation. While in the former framework noun category only includes wrong choice of noun or non-existence of a noun in a combination; the latter one comprises six more categories in addition to these two. These new categories include misuse, inappropriate use and non-existence of a compound, superfluous noun and part of a compound. The number category in the former framework considering the appropriateness of the singularity and plurality of the noun is given in the latter framework.

In the new framework, determiners constitute the third category. This part examines the articles and pronouns creating the deviation in VN combinations. Articles are investigated in terms of being superfluous, inappropriate type of article, missing article and using an article instead of a pronoun. Likewise, pronouns are also taken into consideration according to the same terms. This category consists of seven subcategories while the former equivalent consists of only three.

In its fourth category, the framework looks at the errors caused by the deviations in the structure of the collocations. Along with missing and superfluous constituents; deviations in the structure are also shown to stem from inappropriate mapping of nouns into structure and order of the constituents. Moreover, inappropriate mapping of nouns onto constituents with missing or superfluous constituents is also considered as another factor creating the erroneous use of collocations.

The fifth category deals with the stretched verb constructions. The use of existing or invented, namely stretched verb construction can also create deviant

collocations where using a simple verb is more appropriate. The final category is the one which finds the whole collocation inappropriate. In occurrences where identifying individual erroneous elements is not possible, and where the relation between the collocation and the correction does not concern the stretched verb construction; those occurrences are labeled as whole collocation inappropriate.

VN errors are particularly pointed out in previous studies as the most frequent ones. Altıkulaçoğlu (2010) states that most errors are found in VN category in her study. Phoocharoensil's (2011) study of all collocational errors also has echoed the same result of Altıkulaçoğlu's. Phoocharoensil's findings have shown that the errors most frequently occurred are in VN category. Furthermore, considering the categories of errors above, research findings have produced various results. Nesselhauf (2003) has found that the most frequently occurring type is wrong choice of verb, which she accepts not surprisingly according to her definition stating the verb in a collocation has a restricted sense making the use of verb correctly difficult. The results shows that the second frequently occurring type is wrong choice of noun followed by usage 2 in Table 2, which means production of totally wrong combinations. Another study, by Hong et al. (2011) shows that of all types of collocational errors, the most frequent one is the prepositional errors, followed by wrong choice of verbs under the verb category, and errors related with nouns.

VN collocations are the focus of the current study. This is because previous research findings investigating error types of collocations have revealed that the most erroneous collocations are found in VN category (Chang et al., 2008; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010; Phoocharoensil, 2011). Nesselhauf (2005) states that "VN collocations in particular are significant, because they make up the communicative core of utterances that has the important information" (in Akıncı, 2009, p. 39). Bahns (1993) emphasizes that

VN collocations are frequent; while they are also shown among the most difficult for the learner (Lombard, 1997; Biskup 1992; Howarth 1996; in Nesselhauf, 2005; Kuo, 2009). They occur often and a great deal of collocation errors occur within these types of collocations (Lee & Choi, 2007; in Kim, 2009). This study follows the same way as Nesselhauf (2005) and adopts her framework. The framework is given in Methodology Section in more detail.

I.5.2. Sources of Errors

The previous studies have confirmed that EFL learners are inadequate in producing correct collocations. While trying to overcome the difficulties of collocations, these learners adopt various strategies, which lead to certain types of collocational errors. Thus, it can be said that these errors are due to some sources, among which L1 interference, overgeneralization, paraphrasing, and TL interference can be listed.

Hong et al. (2011, p.37) has developed a framework based on Richards' (1974) and Tarone's (1981). This framework basically categorizes collocational errors on the fundamental concepts of cognitive and communicative strategies. Cognitive strategies are divided in two major classification namely interlingual and intralingual transfer. These major categories are also divided into five sub-categories. In terms of communicative strategies, there is only one major classification namely paraphrase, which is then sub-categorized into approximation including two components.

Table 4

Framework for Classifying the Sources of VN Collocational Errors (Adapted from Hong et al.'s, 2011 and Richards' 1974)

Strategies	Major categorization of sources of errors	Sub-categorization of sources of errors	Examples
Cognitive strategies	Interlingual transfer	a) L1 Transliteration / L1 literal translation	*story about the tragedy / tell the story about the tragedy
		b) Language switch	*has olta çubuğu/ has fishing rod
	Intralingual transfer	a) False concept hypothesized	*dropped into the river / fell into the river
		b) Overgeneralization	*heard the shouted / heard the shout
Communicative strategies	Paraphrase	c) Ignorance of rule restriction	*go for fishing / go fishing
		d) Incomplete application of rules	*start second paragraph / start the second paragraph
		Approximation -semantic affinity	*cutting come flowers / picking some flowers
		-morphological and phonological affinities	*safe my friend / save my friend

*collocational error

The framework given above in Table 4 categorizes the sources of collocational errors. The major categories of collocational error sources are presented in two essential concepts of cognitive and communicative strategies. Into this framework, another subcategory of intralingual transfer, namely incomplete application of rules, is added from Richard's (1974) work.

Interlingual transfer: Interlingual transfer refers the transferring syntactic and semantic structures, and also cultural characteristics of learners' native language to the TL (Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010). Interlingual transfer can occur in two ways: L1 transliteration/ L1 literal translation, and language switch. L1 transliteration and L1 literal translation account for word-for-word translation from L1 as well as L1 characteristics (Hong et al. 2011, p. 41). Language switch, instead, involves the direct use of the learners' native language without translation. For example *to live difficult days (zor günler yaşamak)* is the literal translation of *to have difficult days (Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010)*.

Intralingual transfer: Intralingual transfer refers to transferring L2 characteristics. Intralingual transfer includes false concept hypothesized, overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, and ignorance of rule restriction. *False concept hypothesized* means learners' faulty comprehension of distinction in the TL (Al-halalmah, 2011). For example, using de-lexical verbs such as make, do, go, take, etc. interchangeably (e.g. *make homework*) can result in errors of false concept hypothesized (Ridha & Al-Riyahi, 2011). *Overgeneralization* includes the creation of deviant structures on the basis of learners' previous experiences of the structures. For example learners can produce *He can sings* where English allows the production of *He can sing* or *He sings* (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012). *Incomplete application or rules*, on the other hand, refers to the failure of developing a complete structure (Eun-pyo, 2002). For example, omission or addition of articles within the structures, such as

omitting the definite article *the* in *second paragraph*, of which correct form is *the second paragraph* (Tram, 2010). Finally, *ignorance of rule restriction* is the use of the same linguistic elements of a particular structure acquired previously on the similar structures without considering their collocational and grammatical restriction (Hong et al. 2011); in other words the application of rules to context where they do not apply (Hasyim, 2002). For example, using inappropriate propositions (e.g. *look forward of*), or excluding propositions (e.g. *go the course*) may result from ignorance of rule restriction (Li, 2005; Mashharawi, 2008).

Paraphrasing: The final category refers to the strategies learners apply to communicate. It includes *paraphrasing* which is expressing something in a different way. This category includes approximation which is applying an incorrect vocabulary item or structure sharing enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (Tarone, 1981, in Al-halalmah, 2011). Approximation in this framework is divided in two: semantic affinity, and morphological / phonological affinities. These sub-categories refer to similarities in terms of meaning, and morphological or phonological similarities with the equivalent form in L2. Examples are *to entrance the house* instead of *to enter the house*; *to note him* instead of *to notice him* (Ridha & Al-Riyahi, 2011).

Studies investigating the sources of collocation errors have come to suggest that learners' use of strategies effect their production of correct collocations (e.g. Ahmadi, 2011; Sadeghi & Panahifar, 2013). The sources are related to interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, paraphrase, overgeneralization, etc. However, a great deal of study findings has discovered that many collocation errors are interlingual, which are induced by L1 influence (Dahlmeier & Ng, 2011; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Chang et al., 2008; Koç, 2006;). A number of previous studies, in which collocational deficiencies of

learners are identified, have revealed that most errors committed by learners are due to their heavy reliance on L1 (Biskup, 1992; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Farghal and Obiedat, 1995; Huang; 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003, in Koç, 2006, p. 26). Hong et al. (2011), on the other hand, has notified that intralingual transfer, mostly ignorance of rule restriction, is the most influential factor affecting the learners' production of appropriate collocations in English. This difference regarding the source of collocation errors can be explained by the similarity of L1 to the TL (Laufer & Waldman, 2011, p. 654). Learners with similar L1 with the TL (e.g. German, Swedish) may be more risk-taking in creating collocations, while learners with a distant L1 to the TL (e.g. Chinese) may be more conservative in creating collocations. This situation can both result in different frequencies of collocation errors in different types, and consequently in different types of error sources. The following part summarizes the related studies investigating collocational errors and their sources.

1.6. Related Studies

There are various studies with different settings investigation collocational errors and the sources causing these errors. Here, only the VN collocation investigations with errors sources are mentioned with respect to the focus of the current study. These related studies can be categorized in two main classes: the ones conducted with using elicitation test; and others using natural occurring data of learners, namely learner corpora.

In 2011, Al-halalmeh examined the 50 Jordanian foreign language learners of English who were 4th grade university students majoring in English. The focus of the study was grammatical collocations. He collected data through the use of fill-in-the-blank test and a multiple choice test. Items in the data

collection tools were selected from Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English and in previous collocational studies. The findings of his study presented that the participants were not familiar enough with the grammatical collocations, which they attributed to the lack of courses in the department they studied in. The most problematic categories found in the study were noun + that clause and adjective + that clause. Results also showed that the learners' competence of grammatical collocations was better than their performance. This finding implies that learners mostly have problems in production of appropriate collocations.

Noor & Adubaib (2011) investigated the strategies used in producing English lexical collocations by Saudi learners of English as a foreign language, also majoring in English. The number of the participants was thirty chosen from two distinct proficiency levels. To collect data, they employed a fill-in-the-blank test which was accompanied by a self-checklist, and a translation test. Moreover, retrospective data was also collected from the participants to elicit their reflections on their written production. To ensure the judgement of the collocations, they consulted three main references. Firstly they used a collocation of dictionaries, namely The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English, LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations, DAR El-ILM'S Dictionary of Collocations. Secondly, they consulted to native speakers. Finally, they applied Cobuild Concordance Sampler.

They categorized the strategies found in the data into five major categories, namely retrieval, L1 based strategies, L2 based strategies, reduction strategies, and test- taking strategies. The participants' overall use of strategies in producing unacceptable collocations outnumbered their use of the strategies in producing acceptable collocations. The results also exposed that the participants applied L2 based strategies more often than other strategies in producing both

acceptable and unacceptable collocations. The results also showed that the two different proficiency groups appeared to have chosen the same strategies and have not differed much in their total number of use. They found a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their use of strategies in producing acceptable collocations, especially with regard to the retrieval strategy, L2 based strategies and L1 based strategies favouring the high proficiency group. In the production of unacceptable collocations, on the other hand, low proficiency group significantly differed from the high one especially with reference to using more of the reduction strategies and L2 based strategies.

Hama (2010) examined the main sources of collocational errors made by Kurdish speaking English majoring university students. The participants consisted of forty seniors. To collect data, the researcher both applied a collocation completion test for quantitative data, and think-aloud protocols for qualitative data. The researcher used Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003), Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English, and Dictionary of Selected Collocations as sources of extracting the intended collocations for the completion test. After the consultancy of these dictionaries, the researcher checked the intended collocations' appropriateness in the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) website. The analysis showed that the participants' collocational errors resulted from two major sources, namely, low frequency of collocations and the influence of L1.

Anwar & Khan (2012) studied collocational errors made by advance learners in Pakistan. They checked 50 advanced English as second language learners' receptive errors of collocations and productive errors of collocations. They applied a multiple choice test to check students' level of collocation competence. 30 students who scored best in this test, then, wrote an essay to test their productive knowledge of collocations. The results confirmed the

researchers' assumption that learners' lack of collocational patterns of lexical items made them to be inclined to all sorts of collocational errors. The results showed that students at an advanced level were somehow able to exhibit an adequate understanding of collocations in receptive task, but they remained impotent to use that collocation knowledge in actual practical and written task in the activity based on the receptive knowledge, students faced major problems in choosing between the prepositions. The number of collocations found in their writings was far less than the estimated one. Most of the collocated items they had used in essays were wrong. The result showed that students encountered a problem in using accurate collocations.

These studies mentioned above were conducted by using elicitation tasks such as multiple choice tests, fill-in-the-blank exercises, think aloud protocols, translation tasks, and check-lists. Only one study combined multiple choice tests with students' writings (Anwar & Khan, 2012). To summarize the studies, all of them used several dictionaries to ensure the accuracy of collocations, commonly Oxford Dictionary of Collocations. While all studies suggest that learners clearly have problems with collocations, some of them also note that the receptive skills of learners regarding collocational knowledge is satisfactory, however, they have problems with producing appropriate collocations. In terms of error sources, no unique strategy is found. One has found L2, and the other one L1 as the main source of error. The studies below analyse natural occurring data, namely a LC. This kind of data is important especially to identify the error productions.

Hong et al. (2011) conducted a study to investigate Malaysian English learners' writings in terms of types and sources of VN collocational errors. They analysed a corpus consisting of 130 picture-based essays. To determine the accuracy of the collocations, they used Oxford Collocations Dictionary and the

online British National Corpus (BNC); and to generate the data, they used Wordsmith Tools for their study. They classified various types and sources of collocational errors and explained them accordingly. Their study found that of all the types of collocational error category, preposition-related collocational errors were the ones occurring most frequently. With regards to the sources of collocational error sources, the study showed that intralingual transfer was the most prominent among the interlingual transfer and paraphrase.

Nesselhauf (2003) investigated advance-German speaking learners of English in free written production. The corpus she investigated consisted of 32 essays from the German sub-corpus of the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE). She focused on VN collocations, preceding the influence of the degree of restriction of a combination and learners' L1 on the production of collocations. After she manually extracted the verb-object-noun combinations, she used Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary and the Collins COBUILD English Dictionary to verify the accuracy of the collocational combinations. Along with the two dictionaries, she also utilized some corpus analysis (BNC) and native speaker judgement. The study revealed that the most frequent collocational error category was the wrong choice of mistake. In terms of error sources, she found that L1 had certainly a great influence on wrong collocations in each types of errors category, especially in verb. Her study is not only important regarding its findings, but also represent a model with its methodology to identify collocations from free combinations and idioms precisely.

Phoocharoensil (2011) investigated the grammatical and lexical collocational errors and their sources in Thai learners of English. The study examined 90 first-year undergraduate students divided in two equal groups as high and low according to their English proficiency. The researcher elicited authentic interlanguage data from the participants by descriptive essay writings.

To determine the accuracy of collocations, the researcher employed four collocation dictionaries, namely The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, The LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations, Oxford Collocations Dictionary, and Macmillan Collocations Dictionary; in addition to the BNC. The data from both high and low proficiency learners showed that lexical collocational errors outnumbered the grammatical ones. In particular, both groups appeared to have difficulties most with VN combinations. Regarding the sources of collocational errors, both groups depended on their native language, making L1 transfer the most prominent strategy.

In another study, Altıkulaçoğlu (2010) investigated lexical collocational errors induced by L1. She analysed 128 paragraphs of same numbered Turkish speaking students in university English language preparation class. She used BNC to determine the accuracy of the collocations. She found 38 lexical collocational errors, seven of which were influenced by L1. Almost all the lexical collocational errors were VN combinations. The study showed that L1 had very little effect on erroneous collocation use. To the notice of the researcher of the current study, Altıkulaçoğlu's study is the only one investigating collocational errors of Turkish learners of English.

Li (2005) explored 38 Taiwanese second grade university students' collocational errors. The researcher collected 38 in class practices and 38 assignments as the data. In addition to a questionnaire exploring participants' perceptions of difficulty in collocations, the researcher employed the BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, BNC, and TANGO (a national e-learning project) to examine the collocational errors and to provide corrections. The analyses found 188 collocational errors, 121 grammatical and 67 lexical collocational errors. In participants' writing, the most frequently occurring lexical error category was NV. Also, the study showed that students' perceived difficulty

of collocational types differed from the collocational error types in their writings. In terms of error sources, intralingual, ignorance of rule restriction in particular, was the major source of collocational errors. L1 influence was ranked second as an error source.

Namvar, Nor, Ibrahim and Mustafa (2012) investigated the influence of L1 and cultural background of the EFL learners on the production of collocations. In addition, this study investigated the EFL learners' use of collocations by analysing the learners' written work. The participants were thirty Iranian postgraduate students. Using content analysis, they extracted both grammatical and lexical collations in the data gathered. Using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), the researchers counted the frequencies of occurrences of both kinds of collocations. With respect to the current study's focus, analysis found that learners produced the highest number of collocations in VN group. This study also showed that learners produced congruent collocations appropriately; however they had difficulty in producing non-congruent collocations. This finding implied that the culture and the background of the participants influenced the collocation production.

Nesselhauf (2005) conducted an investigation of collocational errors in German sub-corpus of the ICLE. She extracted two thousand VN collocations the sub-corpus. In addition to BNC, he employed several dictionaries to judge the acceptability of the collocations: the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the Collins COBUILD English Dictionary, The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, and the Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms. The investigation found out that a quarter of these contained errors and another third of the collocations were judged by some of her judges as erroneous as well (Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Pei, 2008). The highest error frequency occurred by inappropriate choice of verb. This study is particularly important for its detailed

approach to define, delimit and categorize the collocations from other word combinations.

Laufer and Waldman (2011) analysed the use of English VN collocations in the writing of native speakers of Hebrew at three proficiency level. For this purpose, they compiled a LC of nearly 300,000 words; and for comparison selected a corpus of young adult native speakers of English (LOCNESS). They scanned the corpus to create a frequency list of nouns via WordSmith Tools, and to verify the collocations they used The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations and The LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations. The study revealed that at all three proficiency levels produced far fewer collocations than native speakers; nonetheless, the number of collocations increased only at the advance level. Moreover, L1 influence appeared in about half of the erroneous collocations at three levels of proficiency. Interlingual errors seemed to be the most frequent which especially persisted even at advance proficiency levels.

In 2001, Eker investigated the development of collocational competence in the second language. The participants were 43 Turkish EFL learners at a university in Turkey. The data on this study was the compositions written by students during the sit-in exams for the writing course over two years, which were analysed for lexical collocation types. The lexical collocations were analysed on coding sheets, according to type, native language influence, and the transparency. The results showed that participants produced fewer collocations over time. Also, the study found that L1 interference was more influential on VN collocations than other types. Moreover, the results also pointed out that as the production of transparent collocations decreased with time, the production of non-transparent collocations increased.

Bıçkılı (2012) studied the common mistakes in academic writing of Turkish adult advanced EFL learners. He aimed to display these common errors focusing on VN collocations to determine the influence of L1 Turkish on these errors, and to identify possible problems involving the components of collocations. Data in this study was from Turkish sub-corpus (corpus of Çukurova University) of ICLE consisting of 177 essays scanned for errors. For the judgement of the collocations, the researcher employed Oxford Collocations Dictionary, WordNet 2.0, Babylon English Dictionary, Webster's Revised Unabridged Dictionary, and various other online sources such as BNC. Using various criteria, he classified the data normatively for felicity and grammatical accuracy. He coded the data into an Excel workbook in a certain format, then applied analysis through SPSS. The results showed that learners had problems with semi-restricted collocations, occurrence, existence/relationship and aspectual verbs and their collocations. Also, learners tended to have creative constructions, and redundant and infelicitous passives due to semantic and discourse transfer. In terms of L1 influence, it showed significant influence on the construction of erroneous collocations which occurred with the verbs rather than nominals.

These studies using learners' writings as authentic, natural occurring data focus on the collocational errors and their sources while producing them. All the participants in these studies are advanced adult learners of English as a second language. To summarize, most of the studies employ Oxford Collocations Dictionary and BNC to verify the accuracy of collocations. These studies point out that the most frequent errors come from VN collocations; and while seven of these studies clearly indicate L1 influence as the major error source, only two studies show L2 influence as the major.

Over all, studies point to some necessities both in research field, and also methodologies of such research. For research field, it is clear that VN collocations should be investigated with their possible sources. There is not an agreement among the research findings in terms of sources of errors. Moreover, methodologically, advance learners should be the participants for further studies. In such studies, Oxford Collocations Dictionary along with BNC should be applied for the accuracy of defined collocations. Also, the data to be analyzed should be chosen from naturally occurring data, namely learner corpora, to clearly detect learners' collocational error production as the knowledge and the application of that knowledge operates differently. This can be achieved with the help of CL and learner corpora, which have become new trends in SLA research and SL/FL teaching.

1.7. Corpus Linguistics and Learner Corpus

Granger (2002) states that LC research, existing only since the late eighties, has created an important link between the fields of CL and foreign/second language research, which was separate before. She explains that the aim of LC research is to provide descriptions of learner language by employing the main principles, tools, and methods from CL, which yields such results that can be used for a wide range of purposes in foreign and second language acquisition research.

Granger (2002, p.4) defines CL as “a linguistic methodology which is founded on the use of electronic collocations of naturally occurring text”. It examines authentic language use on the basis of a corpus, which is a body of carefully sampled texts to represent a language or language variety (Pollach,

2012, p. 263). Lopez (2009) finds CL revolutionary as it deals not with linguist's intuition but with real language data.

Corpus (plural corpora) refers to a database of language production produced by native speakers of that language (e.g. BNC) (Ishikawa, 2011). Nesselhauf (2004) underlines that corpora can reveal what actually native speakers of the language in question typically write or say, which replaces the native speaker intuition (p. 125). While corpora contain native speakers' production; LC, on the other hand, refers to language production of non-native speakers, in other words foreign or second language learners. It should be noted that LC should not include isolated sentences or words. According to Granger (2002, p. 9) LC consists of nonstop sections of discourse containing both erroneous and correct use of language. Authenticity is one of the key features of LC; nonetheless, this data of learners compared to natives' is to some degree artificial (Granger, 2002). However, she suggests that essays written in classroom can be considered as authentic written data.

Learner corpora include data from hundreds (sometimes thousands) of learners; as a result they can be greater representatives than previous SLA research (Granger, 2009). They provide a new type of data trying to understand the mechanism of foreign and second language acquisition, and foreign language teaching research; also aim to learning and teaching of foreign and second languages. (Granger, 2002, p. 5) They originally serve as resources for SLA researchers and teaching professionals with their research (Izumi, Uchimoto, & Isahara, 2005). SLA data collections can be improved by the features of learner corpora. Negrillo and Dominguez (2006, p. 85) list these features as follows:

- Learner corpora provide a comprehensible picture of learner language performance.

- Learner corpora are computerized, which is essential in the use of the extensive collections of data.
- Results obtained from LC research are considered more reliable than those obtained in previous SLA practices.
- Learner corpora contain data in context, which leads to a better understanding of learner material, contributes to the production of refined results, while it also answers to criticism leveled against the restricted scope of EA to errors.

Learner corpora are one of the data sources complementing other sources such as introspection and elicitation; however they are agreed upon to be the only reliable source of evidence for such features as frequency (McEnergy & Wilson, 1996; in Granger, 2002, p. 4). When frequency and related features are considered; nevertheless, Nesselhauf (2004) claims that many corpus studies have been skin-deep and either very general (e.g. by defining the most frequent words) or very specific (e.g. by examining a few single items). Therefore, she proposes that corpus studies from now on should investigate certain areas of grammar, lexis or discourse and rise above single words (p. 136).

Learner corpora can be very useful data while investigating collocations. Granger (1996; in Dan-ting, 2010, p. 58) expresses the main objectives of ICLE as to “uncover the factors of non-nativeness or foreign-soundingness in advanced learner writing” and “to distinguish between L1- dependent features... and crosslinguistic variants”. With respect to this statement, Dan-ting (2010), by noting that advanced learners have more problems with the choice of words in their writings including collocations, sees corpora beneficial to diagnose collocational errors and to suggest solutions to them. Moreover, Tekingül (2013) states the findings of corpus studies on written and spoken language including various frequent word combinations; while Luzón-Marco (2011) addresses them

to be pointers of the pervasiveness of collocation as they have revealed learners' problems with L2 collocational use. In addition, Kennedy (2003) says that with the help of sophisticated software built to analyze the corpora has enabled researchers to discover more profoundly the nature of collocations whose true complexity, nature and extend of use were hidden (p. 468). Pollach (2012) also suggests making use of corpus linguistic analysis techniques as they can identify and quantify recurring patterns in textual data in addition to stressing the significance of examining collocations and multiword expressions rather than looking at isolated words only.

There is consensus among scholars that learner corpora and CL are important for analyzing interlanguage of students, which is a special type of language between one's L1 and second language (Ishikawa, 2011). Lu (2010) proposes that the very first way to use a corpus as a database is to describe the characteristics of the interlanguage of learners at known proficiency levels in terms of revealing second language development. In addition, Ishikawa (2011) says that CL is requisite for interlanguage research. Moreover, Granger (1998b) suggests that not only errors but also the total interlanguage of learners is accessible via computer learner corpora. On the other hand, Milton (1998) also states that realization of EFL learners' production and their communicative needs requires the collocations and study of interlanguage corpora. Last but not least, Aston (2000; in Marco, 2010) maintains that related information on interlanguage development can be obtained by using learner corpora.

I.8. Interlanguage Theory

Trying to explain the SLA, interlanguage is the first significant theory developed by Selinker in 1972 (Santiago, 2010, p. 1). Gass and Selinker (2008, p.

14) claims that SLA research basically assumes that language learners create a language system, known as interlanguage. According to Selinker (1972; in Patten & Benatti, 2010, p. 3), interlanguage is an internal linguistics system worthy of study in its own right, is not some damaged variety of the L2; and it rests between L1 and L2.

Lopez (2009, p. 678) states that this learner language, namely interlanguage, has a specific system with its own code and its own rules with a dynamic process, which causes its unstable nature. Selinker (1972; in Santiago, 2010, p. 2) proposes that adult language learners' attempted production of a TL creating observable output results in a distinct linguistic system on which it is based; also, it differs systematically from both the NL and TL. While differing from NL and TL, interlanguage might still show influences from both (Patten & Benatti, 2010).

Santiago (2010) states that interlanguage has four basic characteristics; it can be systematic, permeable, transitional and discrete. Santiago (2010, p. 2) goes on to describe them as follows:

- IL grammar is systematic because it shows internal consistency. Systematically, it has its own rights and forms that neither belong to L1 nor L2. Therefore, IL is assumed to be a natural language.
- Although IL is systematic, it is permeable to some degree. It allows either for the adoption or transfer of rules, or forms from native language to the IL grammar, as well as overgeneralizations of an improper IL rule in SL context (Adjemian, 1976; Ellis, 1986; in Santiago, 2010, p. 3).

- IL is transitional as it can change over time. As learners keep on learning more, which makes interlanguage a dynamic and progressive, their competences change over time.
- IL is discrete. There are differences between an IL grammar and the subsequent ILs, which can be developmental stages.

Lopez (2009) maintains that when describing learner language, certain generalizations explaining in what way a second language is learned are obtained by observing the learner output; however, researchers focus on the reasons for the facts observed. From this viewpoint, according to Selinker (1972) there five main cognitive processes responsible for shaping IL (in Phoocharoensil, 2011, p. 109), which are also the reasons attributed to the process of learning a second language (in Lopez, 2009, p. 628). They are as follows:

- Transferring native language: learners' TL production is explained as a result of interaction with the native language. Because learners' L1s have some influence on the development of IL.
- Overgeneralization of TL rules: learners' TL production is explained by the syntactic and semantic overgeneralizations of the TL by learners. Because learners master a general rule, but they may not know all the exceptions of that rule.
- Transferring training: learners' TL production is explained in terms of the type of training to learn the language the learner has had. Because incorrect information provided by the instructors or text books can cause erroneous use.
- L2 learning strategies: learners' TL production is explained by the association the learner makes with the material to learn. Because learners sometimes create their own strategies such as

mnemonics to master TL; however when they are confused over those strategies, they can make errors.

- L2 communication strategies: learners' TL production by the association the learner makes while communicating with native speakers of the TL. Because when learners cannot find a necessary linguistic item to continue their communication, they may resort to some strategies (e.g. paraphrasing); as a result, this linguistic item produced in such attempts may become permanent in the learners' IL.

The factors mentioned above explain how learners construct their ILs. Consequently, interlanguage theory describes learners' TL production with respect to these aspects. In addition; the nature and the origin of learner errors are also explained by these factors when analyzing learner language (Lopez, 2009). Therefore, Lopez (2009) notes that as errors reflect the internal constructs of learners as well as the amount of language knowledge, analysis of those errors provide information about how a language is learned while Higuchi (1999) adds that collocational problems, like many other aspects of EFL learning, can be seen as revealing of interlanguage.

I.9. Error Analysis in a Learner Corpus

EA is one of the first methods used to investigate language (Sun & Shang, 2010). Analyzing interlanguage for errors has much to contribute to SLA and ELT in the following way. Corder (1982; in Izumi et al., 2005, p. 72) states that first of all teachers can have clues about the amount of TL system acquired by the learner and the deficient areas of that system. Likewise, Johansson (2009) suggests that errors open into the learner's mind and help researchers uncover the

process of language learning. Secondly, by analyzing learners' errors, SLA researchers can gain insight into the process of L2 acquisition and the kinds of strategies or methodology the learners use in that process. Accordingly, Ellis (2003; in Lopez, 2009) finds EA important for researchers as it provides them with a methodology to examine learner language. Finally, learners themselves can test interlanguage hypothesis as making errors in one of the most important learning strategies to do so. Correspondingly, Gass and Selinker (2008) note that errors are evidence of learners' TL knowledge.

Even though EA is referred to be very fundamental; unfortunately, it has been objected to criticism and found weak in several aspects (Granger, 2002; Phoocharoensil, 2011). Dagneaux, Denness, and Granger (1998, p. 164) describe five limitations traditional EA has suffered:

1. EA is based on heterogeneous learner data;
2. EA categories are fuzzy;
3. EA cannot cater for phenomena such as avoidance;
4. EA is restricted to what the learner cannot do;
5. EA gives a static picture of L2 learning.

Dagneaux et al. (1998) go on to argue that the first two limitations are related to EA methodology. These two limitations demonstrate that there is a need for a new data collection technique and more objective, well-defined error categories. The latter three are related to the scope of EA. They show that learners' correct use of TL and a dynamic approach depicting L2 learning is required.

The arrival of LC research has accompanied by the development of a new type of EA (Granger, 2009). This new type of EA bears some similarities to the traditional one in terms of detecting, correcting and analyzing learner errors;

however, it differs from the former EA by several major perspectives (Dagneaux et al., 1998). With regards to these differences, Nesselhauf (2005, p. 41) expresses the advantages of LC analysis over the traditional EA as follows. First of all, EA can be done on systematic collections, and the details of learners and the data production can be sufficiently recorded. Secondly, the texts used are computerized. Recorded corpus provides access to the context of the errors, information about the text types, text length, and related information. As a result, it enables the re-analysis and verification of the results. Finally, text collections are not discarded after extracting the errors; but can be used for other analyses of linguistics properties.

According to Shih (2000), SLA and EFL specialists agree on the usefulness of LC as a resource for obtaining concrete evidence and a wider perspective on learners' interlanguage. Respectively, EA has contributed to the SLA research generously; however, it has not succeeded in its mission sufficiently (Dagneaux et al., 1998). Therefore, it is hoped that LC research removes the limitations of traditional EA as Dagneaux et al. (1998) suggest that this type of EA makes full use of advances in LC research.

CHAPTER II: METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology employed in this study. Firstly, research design of the study presents the descriptive nature of the study, which is preceding the participants section identifying the learners participated in this study. Later, data collection tools section explains the narrative texts gathered to compile the necessary data to be analyzed. Afterwards, procedure section accounts for the EA procedure and its application in the current study. Finally, data analysis section gives detailed information about the process of the analysis seeking answers to the research questions.

II.1. Research Design of the Study

This study aims to identify the NV collocational errors in adult advanced learners' narrative texts and the sources of those errors. Therefore, this study undertakes a descriptive research. As Erkuş (2011) states that descriptive studies do not investigate correlations or variances; but give a portrayal of the present situation by answering the question of 'what', descriptive research design was considered appropriate for this study.

II.1. Participants

234 students majoring in English at Mersin University English Language Department participated in this study in spring term of 2012-2013 academic year. Freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors enrolled in both day and night classes were included in the study as participants. As the students passed the English

exam required to enroll in an English language teaching program in Turkey, they were assumed to be B2 (Vantage or upper intermediate) or C1 (Effective operational proficiency or advanced) level of English. All students had Turkish L1 background.

II.2. Data Collection Tools

Data was collected for the study through the use of narrative text. The rationale behind choosing narration as text type is the invaluable insight it provides into linguistic behaviour (Tsang, 2007). Narration enables researchers to comprehensively investigate individuals' language use across multiple linguistic domains such as lexical diversity, pragmatic skills, and syntactic complexity. Moreover, narration would enable students to express their ideas more without restrictions; consequently they would contribute towards producing real language (Hong et al., 2011).

Several steps were taken to limit the tasks variables. First of all, to ensure that all the students used the same technicality and genre, they were asked to write a narrative text. Secondly, to limit the topic of the text, students watched a short silent movie (The Rounders) lasting sixteen minutes written and directed by Charlie Chaplin in 1914 (Wikipedia TR). The movie was deliberately selected to be silent so that the students would not rewrite the script, instead they would produce their own sentences. According to Tsang (2007), dynamic visual stimuli enable narrators (*participants* in this present study) to produce more creative narrations; and silent movies as dynamic visual stimulus elicit authentic narrations. Finally, just after watching the movie, students wrote their narrative texts based on the short movie they watched. Students wrote their texts within twenty-five minutes without using any kind of help such as dictionary or peer

assistance. The narrative texts students produced contained 200 words on average and only a few of them included a title. Samples of these texts were provided in the Appendix B.

II.3. Procedure

This study conducts an error analysis on VN collocations. Therefore, in this study, Hong et al.'s (2011, p. 36) adaptation of Gass and Selinker's (2008) Error Analysis Framework was adopted to generate and analyze the data accordingly. Table 5 presents the procedure for error analysis in the present study.

Table 5

Hong et al.'s (2011) Adaptation of Error Analysis Framework

No.	Procedure
1	Data generation
2	Identification of errors
3	Classification of errors
4	Quantification of errors
5	Analysis of sources of errors

To generate the data, the narrative texts produced by students were gathered and computerized in plain text format. While computerizing the data, no corrections were made on the texts. Titles were not included in the computerized data. Later, with the help of Nooj, a corpus was created from the text files. Nooj, created by Max Silberztein in 2002, is a system to process corpus (Silberztein, 2003). Nooj enables users to perform sophisticated queries that include any of the available morphological, lexical or syntactic properties (Silberztein, 2005). First,

a linguistic analysis was conducted on the corpus via Nooj to identify the parts of speech. Then, the corpus was parsed in order to find the verbs as shown in Figure 1. Nooj produced a concordance of all the verbs including their infinitive, past, past participle and gerund forms as in Figure 2. However, the concordance needed manual interpretation to sort out the non-verb findings. After that, a list of all the verbs occurred in the corpus was made (see Appendix A).

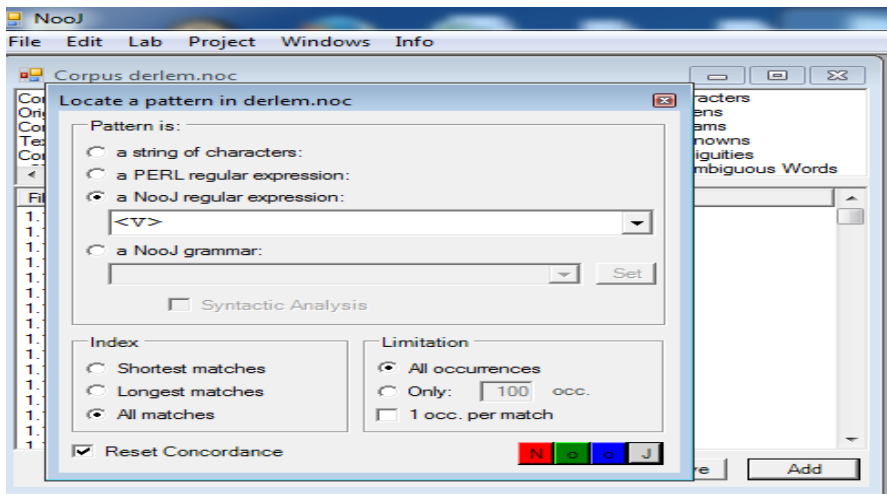


Figure 1. Screenshot of how to locate a pattern in a corpus by using NooJ

The screenshot shows the NooJ software interface with a concordance search for the verb 'accept'. The search filter is set to '5 characters before, and 5 after'. The results table is as follows:

Text	Before	Seq.	After
1.2.F.3.not	he shocked and did not	accept	this, but many did not
1.3.F.10.not	the university, one day they	accept	jack's friends, who are
2.1.F.15.not	of the swallows and sparrows	accept	this solution, they live happy
2.3.F.13.not	but his wife does not	accept	it, one day charlie comes
2.3.F.6.not	and finally, the husband never	accept	her.
2.4.F.17.not	it was very difficult to	accept	this fact and the baby
1.1.F.15.not	can be friends", so he	accepted	this suggestion, and then she
1.2.F.3.not	to meet her and she	accepted	him, after a year, he
1.2.F.3.not	a different way, so, she	accepted	him and they got married
1.3.F.11.not	fat, ugly but rich, she	accepted	to marry bill, bill had
2.1.F.17.not	you more relax" so john	accepted	it but he exaggerated the
2.1.M.5.not	convinced her mother, her mother	accepted	this and they continued to
2.2.M.6.not	did not reject him but	accepted	him, after years, he saw
2.3.F.14.not	still discussing loudly, so he	accepted	,and they left, they went
2.3.F.6.not	husband saw the event, he	accepted	both of them, he did
2.3.M.3.not	los angeles, beverly hills, i	accepted	this offer and we gone
2.4.F.10.not	do his homework herself, tom	accepted	her suggest, at the end
2.4.M.11.not	her to marry him, she	accepted	his offer and they married
2.2.F.22.not	for relationships and the girl	accepts	however, they have many problems
2.2.M.1.not	about the situation, finally, charlie	accepts	his behaviour which is wrong
2.3.M.3.not	problem, second one, she would	accompanied	to the argument, yes my
1.2.M.1.not	that bad people surrounds them,	according	to the scenario, there is
2.3.F.8.not	when we are suitable age	according	to ourselves, we will get
2.4.F.11.not	are a thief," thus, everybody	accused	her as a liar,
1.3.F.1.not	to live together, they got	accustomed	to each other day by
2.4.F.11.not	finally, she has an unbearable	ache	and that day she has
2.2.F.18.not	to beat his wife and	achieved	the wife of the first
2.2.F.13.not	he is precious because he	achieves	a hard thing, he says
1.2.F.15.not	am went red and was	aching	so much, his friends called
2.3.F.9.not	a bar tomorrow but we	act	like we do not know
2.2.F.11.not	whatever he sees someone, he	acted	like him, but in
2.2.F.11.not	in his around, he liked	acting	whatever he sees someone, he
2.2.F.5.not	his wife frustrated by his	acts	she starts complaining about him
1.1.F.13.not	few weeks she became an	addicted	of drug, suddenly she felt
2.1.F.13.not	was helping her girls to	adopt	very hard life outside, the
1.4.M.10.not	to drink as well and	adopted	to the new life, forgot
1.3.M.2.not	liked but he could not	afford	he was now on his
1.1.F.20.not	tom, he was at the	age	of seventeen, he used to
1.2.M.4.not	the tina was at the	age	of forty five and she
2.2.F.22.not	in the technology	age	,computers have crucial place in
2.3.F.5.not	and when we see suitable	age	according to ourselves, we will

Figure 2. Verb extraction process in NooJ

Each of these verbs was searched on the corpus again one by one with their infinitive, third person singular present tense, gerund, past and past participle forms by using Antconc . Antconc is a freeware, multi-platform, multi-purpose corpus analysis toolkit designed by Laurence Anthony (Anthony, 2005). AntConc was selected to perform this task because of its cluster search option. AntConc provides investigation of multi-word units using the Word Clusters function. This function displays clusters of words centered on a search term and orders them alphabetically or by frequency (Anthony, 2005, p. 734). The verbs were cluster searched on Antconc and combinations bearing the syntactic pattern of VN collocations were extracted as shown in Figure 3. These extractions were listed on an excel page with their frequencies. Later, these VN combinations were searched in the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (henceforth OCD) and British National Corpus to determine their appropriateness. Finally wrong collocations

were further examined manually for their error types and error sources. Suggestions were made for the correction of erroneous collocations. Detailed explanation of data analysis is given in the next section.

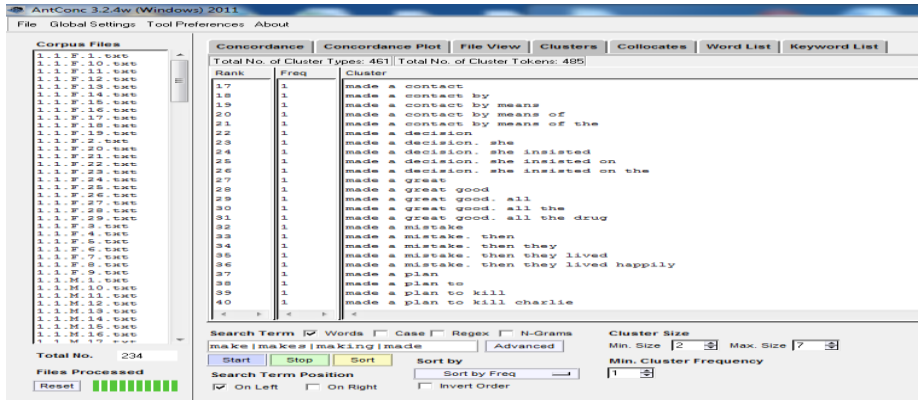


Figure 3. Extraction process of VN combination by using Antconc

II.4. Data Analysis

This section explains how the data was analyzed to get answers to two research questions of the study. Therefore, this section is divided in two parts. First part accounts for the analysis of the VN collocational error types. Second part deals with the analysis of the sources of VN collocational errors.

II.4.1. Analysis of VN Collocational Error Types

To analyze the VN collocational error types, VN combinations were extracted from the corpus. Later, these combinations were further analyzed in order to determine whether they were collocations. To determine the acceptability and correctness of VN collocations two references were applied. Finally,

erroneous collocations were categorized according to the VN collocational error classification.

II.4.1.1 Syntactic Patterns Considered

In the analysis, VN combinations were considered as a whole derived from various linguistic forms as suggested by Nesselhauf (2005). Therefore, not only the combinations with a verb and a noun, but also the grammatical elements such as prepositions and determiners were also considered as a part of the collocations. Consequently, the present study investigated the syntactic patterns proposed by Nesselhauf (2005, p. 68) as follow:

Table 6

Nesselhauf's (2005) Categorization of VN Syntactic Patterns

Abbreviation	Syntactic pattern	Example
VO	Verb + object	Do harm
VPO	Verb + preposition + object	Cope with a problem
VOO	Verb + object + object	Do somebody harm
VOPO	Verb + object + preposition + object	Take something into consideration
VOC	Verb + object + complement	Keep something under control
VOA	Verb + object + adverbial phrase	Put somebody in prison
VA	Verb + adverbial phrase	Go to prison
VC	Verb + complement	Come into existence
VCPO	Verb + complement + preposition + object	Fall in love with somebody

The analysis was conducted on these syntactic patterns of VN combinations given in Table 6. VO combinations included a verb and an object such as *wage war* or *do harm*. VPO included a verb followed by a preposition and an object such as *cope with a problem*. VOO consisted of a verb and an object followed by another object such as *do somebody harm*. Another category of VN patterns, VOPO contained a verb and an object followed by preposition and an object such as *take something into consideration*. Combinations such as *keep something under control* were considered as VOC, a verb followed by an object, and a complement. VOA combinations such as *put somebody in prison* consisted of a verb and an object followed by an adverbial phrase; while VA only consisted of a verb and an adverbial phrase as in the example of *go to prison*. VC category included a verb and a complement such as *come into existence*. The final category of the syntactic patterns was VCPO which was a combination of a verb, a complement followed by a preposition and an object as in the example of *fall in love with somebody*. These nine categories of VN syntactic patterns were examined and extracted from the corpus.

The study did not include the passive constructions of VN combinations. For example in the sentence of “*a mistake was made*” *make a mistake* was not included in the study. Also, combinations in relative clauses such as “*the mistake that you’ve made...*” *make a mistake* was also not included. Combinations with *to be* were also excluded from the analysis because they were pointed out to be “both extremely frequent and probably largely or possibly even completely unrestricted with respect to its complements” (Allerton 2002, in Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 281). In 2005, Nesselhauf also followed this approach of exclusion the combinations with *to be*.

II.4.1.2. Determining the Acceptability of a Collocation

After the extraction of VN combinations from the corpus with the help of corpus software programs Nooj and Antconc; the OCD (2009) and BNC were used to determine whether the combinations were collocations or not. Also, these references were also consulted to determine the acceptability of the collocations. The OCD (2009) includes 25.000 word combinations and 75.000 examples (front cover). The OCD was particularly selected as a reference to determine the acceptability of the collocations because the present study adopted the phraseological approach. OCD is one of the few dictionaries which describe collocations in phraseological sense (Nesselhauf, 2005). On the other hand, the BNC is one of the largest corpora ever created with its approximately 100 million words in length; whose 90% consists of written British English and the other 10% consists of spoken British English (Meyer, 2004). First of all, a combination was checked in the OCD. If it was found there with the identical form of students' production, it was considered as a correct collocation. If it was not found there, the BNC was considered. If the combination occurred at least five times in different texts in the BNC, then it was also considered to be a correct collocation. If a combination was not found in students' identical usage form in both references, then it was considered as an erroneous collocation. The criterion of five occurrences was set arbitrarily as proposed and applied by Nesselhauf (2005) and also applied by Hong et al. (2011).

II.4.1.3. Analyzing VN Collocational Error Types

Once the erroneous collocations were determined with the references of the OCD and the BNC, these wrong combinations were later analyzed to define where the error occurred. To achieve this, incorrect VN collocations were

remedied with the help of those references above. While remedying, intended meaning of the attempted collocation was taken into consideration. Therefore, sometimes even the whole text which included that erroneous item was read and the intended meaning extracted. Afterwards, using the categorizations below, these combinations were classified according to their error types. To classify the error types, Nesselhauf's (2005) framework was adopted for this study.

According to Nesselhauf (2005), VN collocational errors might be caused by deviations in the verb, noun, and determiner component of the combination. Along with these, structural errors can also occur. There are also instances of stretched verb constructions where a single verb would be more appropriate and instances of whole collocation inappropriate. These categories are given with their subcategories in more details below.

II.4.1.3.1. Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Verbs

The first category of VN collocational error type is errors concerning the verb. The framework given below in Table 7 was adopted from Nesselhauf (2005). Nesselhauf (2005) identified twenty-three subcategories of errors concerning verbs. The last three subcategories were later added by the researcher upon finding the relative errors in the data.

Table 7

Framework for Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Verbs (Adopted from Nesselhauf, 2005)

Type of Error
Simple verb for simple verb
Phrasal verb for phrasal verb
Phrasal verb for simple verb
Simple verb for phrasal verb
Simple verb for prepvI
Simple verb for prepvII
PrepvI for simple verb
PrepvII for simple verb
PrepvI for prepvI
PrepvII for prepvII
PrepvI for phrasal verb
Phrasal verb for prepvI
Phrprepv for simple verb
Simple verb for phrprepv
PhrprepvII for prepvII
Simple verb for multi-word verb or verb+verb
Phrasal verb for multi-word verb
prepvI for verb+verb
Unclassifiable verb for simple verb
Inappropriate preposition in prepvI
Inappropriate preposition in prepvII
Verb superfluous
Multi-word verb for phrasal verb
Multi-word verb for single
Missing verb

II.4.1.3.2. Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Nouns

This categorization only takes deviations concerning nouns into consideration. The subcategories consist of eight different types of errors. They are given below in Table 8.

Table 8

Nesselhauf's (2005) Framework for Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Nouns

Type of Error
Number of noun
Inappropriate choice of simple noun
Non-existent simple noun
Compound produced where simple noun is appropriate
Simple noun produced where compound or noun phrase appropriate
Inappropriate or non-existent compound or noun+of+noun combination
Part of compound or noun+of+noun combination superfluous
Noun superfluous

Investigated nouns include simple nouns (e.g. football, milk, etc.), compounds (e.g. exhaust fumes, adventure stories, etc.), and noun+of+noun combinations (e.g. rules of traffic, area of privacy). The plurality and singularity of the nouns used in the collocation are also investigated as an error type. If an element either a single noun or part of a combination is seen unnecessary, it is considered as superfluous.

II.4.1.3.3. Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Determiners

According to Nesselhauf (2005) collocational errors can also stem from using inappropriate or superfluous determiners as well as not using any determiners. Also, in some cases, errors are produced due to misuse of pronouns. Using pronouns instead of articles or vice versa is also considered erroneous. Framework for classifying errors of determiners is given below in Table 9.

Table 9

Nesselhauf's (2005) Framework for Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Determiners

Type or Error
Article superfluous
Inappropriate type of article
Article missing
Article instead of pronoun
Pronoun instead of article
Pronoun superfluous
Pronoun missing

In this study, errors caused by misuse or nonuse of determiners and pronouns, also superfluous determiners and pronouns were categorized according to the framework above. In addition, using pronouns instead of articles or vice versa was also considered and related errors were categorized accordingly.

II.4.1.3.4. Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Structure

Nesselhauf (2005) proposes another category for classifying VN collocational errors related to deviations in the structure of a collocation. This study examined errors found in the data caused by deviations in the structure, and categorized them according to this framework provided with its subtypes of deviations in the structure as presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Nesselhauf's (2005) Framework for Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Deviant Structure

Subtype of deviation
Inappropriate mapping of nouns into constituents
Missing constituents
Superfluous constituents
Inappropriate mapping of nouns onto constituents plus missing or superfluous constituents
Order of constituents

According to Nesselhauf (2005) errors can result from placing nouns into constituents inappropriately. Missing and superfluous constituents as well as wrong order of constituents can also cause deviations in the collocational structure. Finally, inappropriate mapping of nouns onto constituents plus missing or superfluous constituents can also create deviations in the collocational structure.

II.4.1.3.5. Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Stretched Verb Construction

Nesselhauf also states that sometimes collocational errors can result from learners' use of stretched verb constructions where the corresponding verb is more appropriate. These stretched verb construction can either be existing in the language or invented by the learners. For example the combination *play betting* is invented by the learner and in this case using the verb *bet* is more appropriate. By following Nesselhauf's (2005) approach, such occurrences in the data of this study were classified as stretched verb construction instead of the corresponding verb.

II.4.1.3.6. Classifying VN Collocational Errors Concerning Whole Collocation Inappropriate

The final category is the one which finds the whole collocation inappropriate. In occurrences where identifying individual erroneous elements is not possible, and where the relation between the collocation and the correction does not concern the stretched verb construction; those occurrences are labeled as whole collocation inappropriate as in the study conducted by Nesselhauf (2005). Therefore, this study applied the same approach to such occurrences found in the data.

II.4.2. Analyzing the Sources of VN Collocational Errors

In the second step of the analysis, deviant collocations were analyzed to identify the sources of errors. Identification of error sources was succeeded with

the use of the framework adapted by Hong et al. (2011) which classified the sources of VN collocational errors. The frame work is given below in Table 11.

When the combinations showed some transfer of L1 syntactic and semantic structures as well as its cultural characteristics within one of the forms of L1 translation, L1 transliteration or language switch, those combinations were categorized under the interlingual transfer. On the other hand, if the combinations presented some transfer of L2 characteristics, in particular false concept hypothesis, and overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules and ignorance of rule restriction; those combinations were identified under intralingual transfer. Misuses of de-lexical verbs in addition to misuse of frequently confused verbs were included in false concept hypothesized category. Inappropriate omission or addition of articles was included in the category of incomplete application of rules. Wrong uses of prepositions as well as singularity or plurality problems were considered as ignorance of rule restriction. Finally, the combinations showing semantic affinity, morphological or phonological affinity were categorized under the communicative strategies. However, if an erroneous combination showed a degree of L1 transfer where the error could be corrected by changing the preposition (such as *look from the window* instead of *look through the window*), then it was considered as ignorance of rule restriction. Also, the cases where the translation error could be corrected by changing de-lexical verbs (such as *do* instead of *make*), those combinations were considered as false concept hypothesized.

Table 11

Framework for Classifying the Sources of VN Collocational Errors (Adapted from Hong et al., 2011 and Richards' 1974)

Strategies	Major categorization of sources of errors	Sub-categorization of sources of errors	Examples
Cognitive strategies	Interlingual transfer	a) L1 Transliteration / L1 literal translation	*story about the tragedy / tell the story about the tragedy
		b) Language switch	*has olta çubuğu/ has fishing rod
	Intralingual transfer	a) False concept hypothesized	*dropped into the river / fell into the river
		b) Overgeneralization	*heard the shouted / heard the shout
Communicative strategies	Paraphrase	c) Ignorance of rule restriction	*go for fishing / go fishing
		d) Incomplete application of rules	*start second paragraph / start the second paragraph
		Approximation -semantic affinity	*cutting come flowers / picking some flowers
		-morphological and phonological affinities	*safe my friend / save my friend

*collocational error

CHAPTER III: RESULTS

This chapter describes the results of the study in the light of the data obtained through the narrative texts. The overall results are given in to main sections which are divided into sub-sections. Firstly, overall results of VN collocational error types are provided with detailed descriptions of sub-sections concerning verbs, nouns, determiners, structure, stretched verbs constructions and whole collocation inappropriate. Secondly, overall results of VN collocational error sources are presented with comprehensive account of sub-sections including cognitive strategies of first and second language transfer, and communicative strategies of paraphrasing.

III.1. Overall Results of VN Collocational Error Types

In total, seven hundred ninety seven VN combinations are extracted from the corpus designed for this study. Of all, three hundred thirty five VN collocations are found to be erroneous. However, as some combinations contain two errors, the total number of errors investigated is three hundred sixty. Chart 1 presents the number of erroneous VN collocations over error types with their frequencies.

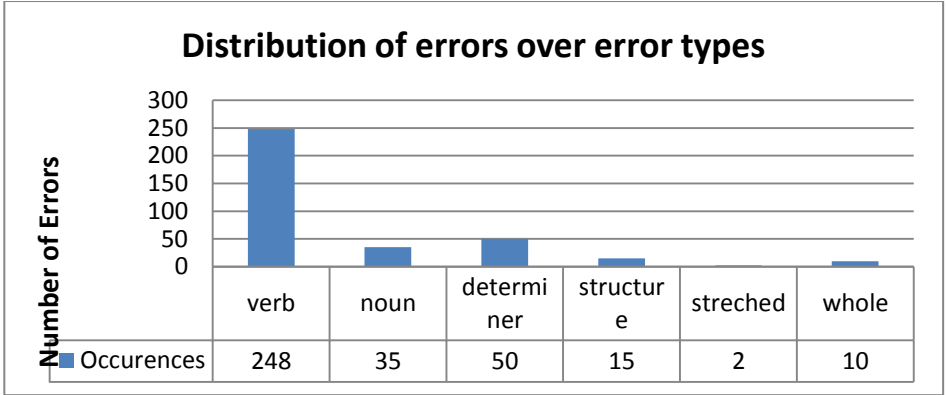


Chart 1. Distribution of Errors over Error Types

Chart 1 exhibits the distribution of errors over collocational error types. Of all, the most frequently occurring type of error is found in *verb* category with two hundred forty eight occurrences (68, 88 %). *Determiners* rank as the second most frequent type with fifty occurrences (13, 88 %). The third most frequent item is the *noun* errors with thirty five occurrences (9, 72 %). Errors caused by deviations in the *structure* have the fourth rank with fifteen (4, 16 %) occurrences. *Whole collocation inappropriate* category is found to be the fourth most occurring erroneous type with ten instances (2, 77 %), followed by *stretched verb* category with only two occurrences (0, 55 %). Detailed results of each category are given below.

III.1.1. Results of VN Collocational Errors Concerning Verbs

Table 12 displays the different types of error that concern the verb of the collocation. Altogether, two hundred forty eight deviations are found which concern the verb.

Table 12.

Distributions of Deviations Concerning Verbs over Subcategories

Type of Error	Number of Occurrences	Percentages %
Simple verb for simple verb	70	28,22
Phrasal verb for simple verb	30	12,09
Phrasal verb for phrasal verb	17	6,85
Simple verb for phrasal verb	48	19,35
Simple verb for prepvI	25	10,08
PrepvI for phrasal verb	22	8,87
PrepvI for simple verb	11	4,43
Inappropriate preposition in prepvII	8	3,22
Phrasal verb for prepvI	4	1,61
Inappropriate preposition in prepvI	4	1,61
PrepvII for prepvII	3	1,30
Missing verb	3	1,20
PrepvII for simple verb	1	0,40
Multi-word verb for phrasal verb	1	0,40
Multi-word verb for single	1	0,40
Simple verb for prepvII	0	0
PrepvI for prepvI	0	0
Phrprepv for simple verb	0	0
Simple verb for phrprepv	0	0
PhrprepvII for prepvII	0	0
Simple verb for multi-word verb or verb+verb	0	0
Phrasal verb for multi-word verb	0	0
prepvI for verb+verb	0	0
Unclassifiable verb for simple verb	0	0
Verb superfluous	0	0
Total:	248	100%

Errors caused by learners' use of simple verb instead of the correct or more appropriate simple verb rank the highest with seventy occurrences (28, 22 %). Forty eight occurrences (19, 35 %) relate to using simple verb where a phrasal verb is need or more appropriate; whereas the opposite case, using a phrasal verb instead of a simple verb is the third highest error type with thirty occurrences (12, 09 %). Twenty five occurrences (10, 08 %) are noted in using simple verbs where prepositional verbs are required or more appropriate. Using a prepositional verb (prepvI) instead of a phrasal verb occurs twenty two times (8, 87 %). Using a phrasal verb where another phrasal verb is required or more appropriate is observed seventeen times (6, 85 %) and the sixth highest type of error. Using prepositional verb (prepvI) where a simple verb is required or more appropriate is the seventh most frequent deviation with eleven occurrences (4, 43 %).

There are eight instances (3, 22 %) of using inappropriate preposition in prepvII category of prepositional verbs; while the number of errors caused by inappropriate preposition in prepvI category is four (1, 61 %). Similarly, there are four errors (1, 61 %) of using a phrasal verb for prepvI. Three errors (1, 20 %) are observed to occur both in using a prepositional verb (prepvII) for the correct prepositional verb (prepvII), and in cases where the verbs are missing. Categories with only one occurrence (0, 40 %) are using prepvII for simple verb, multi-word verb for phrasal verb, and multi-word verb for single verb. However, there are also categories where no deviations are found: simple verb for prepvII, phrprepv for simple verb, phrprepvII for prepvII, unclassifiable verb for simple verb, single verb for phrasal-prepositional verb, and superfluous verb.

The most common case of deviation concerning verb by far is the use of a simple noun where a different simple noun is required or more appropriate. This case occurs seventy times. However, only three combinations repeat more than

one. Here are the occurrences of this case more than one time. One of them is the erroneous combination of *take one's gun* frequented three times in the corpus, where the verb *draw (draw one's gun)* is more appropriate. Other combinations seen more than once in the corpus are *cook drugs* which is corrected as *produce drugs*; and *gain money* where *earn money* is more appropriate. Also, the last combination repeated twice is *realize the situation* where *understand the situation* is more appropriate.

Producing simple verb where phrasal verb is more appropriate or required ranks the second highest error type with forty eight occurrences. Five occurrences of *knock the door* are corrected with *knock at the door*. Another erroneous combination with three occurrences is *wait somebody* into which the preposition *for* should be added to make it correct as *wait for somebody*. Occurring twice, *look the mirror* should include the preposition *into* to make it an appropriate combination as *look into the mirror*. Another wrong combination with two instances is *go college* where the preposition *to* is required to correct it as *go to college*. The same case also is seen in *go a café* which should be *go to a café*.

With thirty occurrences, the third highest error type is found as using a phrasal verb rather than a simple verb. The erroneous combination *come to home* is observed seven times in the corpus and corrected by omitting the preposition *to*. The same correction is also applied to the combinations with three occurrences *go to home* and *come to the home*. There is another combination including the adverb *home* with two instances, *arrive at home* where the preposition *at* should be omitted. Moreover, two instances of *look for one's family* are noted and corrected by changing the verb as *support one's family*.

The fourth highest errors concerning verb occur due to using simple verb when a prepositional verb (prepvI) is required or more appropriate. This case is observed twenty five times in the corpus. With eleven instances, *say somebody* which is corrected by adding *to* (*say to somebody*) is the most frequent error in this case, followed by four occurrences of *apologize somebody* where the combination requires the preposition *to* (*apologize to somebody*). Three instances of *shout somebody* are seen, of which correct form requires the preposition *at* (*shout at somebody*).

Using a prepositional verb (prepvI) where a phrasal verb is necessary or more suitable has twenty two occurrences and ranks the fifth highest error type. With five instances, *walk on the street* is corrected with *walk along the street*. Three occurrences of *exist from a café/ house* needs the phrasal verb *go out of* to become an appropriate combination as *go out of a café/ house*. One instance of *arrive to the hospital* is noted and corrected with *arrive at the hospital*.

Ranking the sixth highest error type, using a phrasal verb where another phrasal verb is required or more appropriate has seventeen occurrences in the corpus. Five instances of *escape from somebody* are corrected as *get away from somebody*. Erroneous combination of *work in a company* occurring twice in the corpus is fixed as *work for a company*. Similarly, *work in a farm* with one occurrence is corrected with the phrasal verb *work on* as *work on a farm*.

The seventh highest deviation concerning verbs with twelve occurrences arises from using a prepositional verb (prepvI) used instead of simple verb. Two occurrences of *attack to somebody* are corrected with *attack somebody*. Also, appearing once in the corpus, deviant combinations of *face to an unfortunate event* is replaced by *face a crisis*; and *marry with somebody* by *marry somebody*.

With eight occurrences, inappropriate choice of preposition in prepositional verbs (prepvII) is the eighth highest error type. In this case, all errors occur once in the corpus. One of these, *fall in love to somebody* is corrected as *fall in love with somebody*. Another instance of such error appears in the wrong collocation of *judge people for their abilities* which is fixed as *judge people by their abilities*. Another example of this type of error is seen in *spend money for something*; of which correction is *spend money on something*.

Similar to the error type above, inappropriate choice of preposition in a prepositional verb (prepvI) is presented with four occurrences each appearing once in the corpus. One of them is the deviant combination of *die at an accident* where the preposition is corrected as *die in an accident*. The second instance is *mock about rights* fixed as *mock with rights*. The third one is *shout to somebody* with the wrong preposition *to* corrected as *shout at somebody*. Finally, deviation in *snuggle to somebody* is corrected as *snuggle against somebody*.

The error type of using a phrasal verb where a prepositional phrase (prepvI) is required or more appropriate has also four occurrences in the corpus. Occurring twice, *apologize for somebody* is corrected with the prepositional verb as *apologize to somebody*. Extracted once, combinations including unnecessary phrasal verbs are *turn into routine* corrected as *fall into routine*; and *shout out somebody* corrected as *shout at somebody*.

There are three instances of missing verbs in the corpus which require correction by an appropriate collocation. Two of them occur in *check on something / somebody*, which need addition of the verb *keep* as *keep a check on something / somebody*. Even though it is not considered as a syntactic category in the present study, there is one misused instance of a noun instead of a verb. The noun *magic* is used to mean *perform magic*.

Using a prepositional verb (prepvII) where a different prepositional verb (prepvII) is needed or more appropriate also presents another error type with three occurrences in the corpus. The first instance is the deviant collocation *take somebody to the ambulance* corrected as *load somebody into an ambulance* or as *put somebody into an ambulance*. The second one is *put one's nose to somebody* where *thumb one's nose at somebody* is more appropriate. Finally, deviation in *show somebody one's passion* is corrected as *express one's passion to somebody*.

The corpus analyzed presents three more error types each occurring once. The first type is the one where the deviation is the result of using a prepositional verb (prepvII) instead of a simple verb. This instance is *make some difference in one's life* which is corrected by changing the prepositional verb with a simple verb as *change one's life*. The second error type with one occurrence is using a multi-word verb where a phrasal verb is more appropriate. This type of error is present in *get rid of a habit* fixed as *get out of a habit*. The last error type occurring once is using a multi-word verb rather than a simple verb. In the following combination multi-word verb is found inappropriate and replaced by a simple verb, *get rid of a problem* is corrected as *overcome a problem*.

The corpus investigated in this study represents no instances in other ten error types. These are using a simple verb for a prepositional verb (prepvII), using a prepositional verb (prepvI) where a different prepositional verb (prepvI) is required, and using a phrasal prepositional verb instead of a single verb and vice versa. In addition to these types, no deviant combinations are found in such error types as using a phrasal prepositional verb (prepvII) for a prepositional verb (prepvII), using a simple verb for a multi-word verb or a verb + verb combination, and using a phrasal verb instead of a multi-word verb. Finally, using an unclassifiable verb for a simple verb and using a superfluous verb introduce no errors.

III.1.2. Results of VN Collocational Errors Concerning Nouns

Table 13 displays the different types of error that concern the noun of the collocation. Altogether, thirty seven deviations are found which relate to noun. Sixteen errors (45, 71 %) are observed, which are due to inappropriate choice of simple noun. Non-existent simple noun type has five occurrences (14, 28 %) with a word which is not a noun. Another five errors (14, 28 %) are also present in inappropriate or non-existent compound or noun+of+noun combination. There are also five errors (14, 28 %) where errors occur due to using a singular noun instead of a plural one or vice versa. There are three instances (8, 57 %) of errors due to using a compound where a simple noun is appropriate. The corpus contains only one example (2, 85 %) of an erroneous collocation where a part of compound or noun+of+noun combination is superfluous. Deviant occurrences of superfluous noun and using simple noun where a compound or a noun phrase is more appropriate are not observed in the corpus. Details of each subcategory are given below.

Occurring seventeen times, using an inappropriate noun where a different simple noun is more appropriate or required is the highest error type concerning nouns in the corpus. These sixteen errors are represented with only one example. The combination *make a beginning* is corrected by changing the noun as *make a start*. Another example of such errors is the combination *hear a crying* where crying needs replacing with cry as *hear a cry*. Similarly, the inappropriate noun in the collocation *learn the reality* is fixed as *learn the truth*.

Table 13

Distributions of Deviations Concerning Nouns over Subcategories

Type of Error	Number of Occurrences	Percentages %
Inappropriate choice of simple noun	16	45, 71
Number of noun	5	14, 28
Non-existent simple noun	5	14, 28
Inappropriate or non-existent compound or noun+of+noun combination	5	14, 28
Compound produced where simple noun is appropriate	3	8, 57
Part of compound or noun+of+noun combination superfluous	1	2, 85
Simple noun produced where compound or noun phrase appropriate	0	0
Noun superfluous	0	0
Total	35	100

The second highest error type is non-existent simple noun in combination where the noun used does not exist in English language or comes from a different word class. This error type has five occurrences in the corpus and each occurs once. Two instances of this type of error contain the same non-existent word *bank* as in *lie on the banks on the street* and *sit on an old bank* which are corrected with the word *bench* as *lie on the benches on the street* and *sit on an old bench*. The word *bank* is Turkish equivalent of *bench* in English. Another example of the same type of error is *have a suspicious* corrected as *have*

a suspicion. Similarly, another deviant collocation in this category is *lose one's conscious* corrected as *lose one's consciousness*. Finally, the same case occurs in *accept one's suggest* fixed as *accept one's suggestion*. However the words *suspicious*, *conscious*, and *suggest* belong to English, these words are categorized as non-existent noun as they are different parts of speech rather than noun.

Sharing the same rank with the error type above, cases of using an inappropriate or non-existent compound or a noun+of+noun combination also occurs five times in the corpus. Likewise, each of these errors is presented with only one occurrence. Inappropriate noun+of+noun combination appears in the erroneous collocation *do the works of the house* corrected with a compound word as *do housework*. Similarly, the same case is observed in *pile belongings of his wife* (this combination also appears in simple verb for simple verb category due to inappropriate choice of a simple noun) which is corrected as *collect his wife's belongings*. Another example considered in this category of error type is *sell household equipment*. Example of non-existent compound is seen in the deviant combination *do the wedding prepares* corrected as *do the wedding preparations* by changing the non-existent element *prepares* with *preparations*.

Another second highest error type in noun category is ignorance of singularity or plurality of the noun used in the collocation. This case also has five occurrences, each of which occurs once in the corpus. One of those is *grow vegetable* where the noun needs to be plural as in *grow vegetables*. Similarly, another example of deviation where the plural form of the noun is required shows up in *have no child* which is corrected by adding the plural form of the noun as *have no children*. The opposite case where the plural form of the noun is used instead of the singular form is seen in *live next doors* corrected as *live next door*. The last instance is *tell that stories* where the correction is either as *tell those stories* or *tell that story*.

In the corpus, there are three examples of producing a compound where a simple noun is more appropriate. This type of error ranks the third highest type. Each of the three examples has only one occurrence. The first one is *live in an apartment flat* where the combination is needlessly produced to refer to *a flat* as in *live in a flat*. The second instance of this type of error is observed in *have a sexual activity* corrected by changing the compound with a single noun without changing the meaning as *have sex*. The last occurrence in this type is face to an unfortunate event, which corrected with a more appropriate single noun as *face a problem*. (This combination is also included in using a prepositional verb instead of a single one)

Results shows only one occurrence of an erroneous collocation where a part of the compound or noun+of+noun combination is superfluous. This instance is present in the combination *give money giveaways* where the part *giveaways* is superfluous and omitted as *give money*. However, this combination also includes a verb error where a different single verb is required to refer to the intended meaning. Therefore, the correction is done as *disburse money*.

Analysis of the corpus yields no results of cases where a superfluous noun and a production of simple noun instead of a more appropriate compound or noun phrase is used. These two types of errors concerning nouns have no examples in the corpus.

III.1.3. Results of VN Collocational Errors Concerning Determiners

Table 14 presents the different types of error that concern the determiners. Altogether, fifty errors are found in the corpus, which are related to determiners. The highest number of errors with twenty three instances (46 %) occurs in cases where the article required to form a correct collocation is missing. Nineteen deviations (38 %), ranking the second highest error type, present

themselves in combinations where the articles are used superfluously. Relatively low, cases including superfluously used pronouns rank the third highest error type in the corpus with four occurrences (8 %). Two deviant collocations (4 %) present the error type of missing pronouns. On the other hand, the corpus analyzed contains only one deviant combination (2 %) which includes an inappropriate type of article. Another error type with only one instance (2 %) is the case where the deviant collocation includes an article instead of a pronoun. However, there is no example of a case where the deviation is due to using a pronoun instead of an article. Details of each error type are given below with their examples in the corpus.

Table 14

Distributions of Deviations Concerning Determiners over Subcategories

Type or Error	Number of occurrences	Percentages
Article missing	23	46
Article superfluous	19	38
Pronoun superfluous	4	8
Pronoun missing	2	4
Inappropriate type of article	1	2
Article instead of pronoun	1	2
Pronoun instead of article	0	0
Total	50	100

Errors due to not including an article have twenty three occurrences in the corpus, and is the highest error type concerning determiners. Of all, only three presents themselves with more than one occurrence. With three instances, the deviant collocation *get divorce* needs correction by adding the indefinite article *a*

as *get a divorce*. Two instances of the erroneous combination *go seaside* are also fixed by adding the definite article *the* together with the necessary preposition as *go to the seaside* (This collocation also appears in using a simple verb for phrasal verb error type). Similarly, another article missing case is present in *eat meal* and also in *eat sandwich*, to which the indefinite article *a* is added for correction as *eat a meal* and *eat a sandwich*. Likewise, combinations such as *get clue* and *start discussion* are also added the indefinite article *a* for correction as *get a clue* and *start a discussion*.

Results of analysis show nineteen occurrences of deviations due to using superfluous articles. This error type ranks the second highest type concerning determiners. Only two of those errors are presented with more than one occurrence. For example, the wrong combination occurring three times *come to the home* is corrected by omitting the superfluous definite article *the* together with the preposition *to*, which is another error type noted in errors concerning verbs, as *come home*. Occurring twice, another deviant combination with an unnecessary article is *commit a suicide* corrected as *commit suicide*. There are three deviations done with the verb *make* including a superfluous article as in *make a coffee*, *make a contact*, and *make a peace*, all of which are corrected by omitting the indefinite article *a* as *make contact*, *make peace* and *make contact*.

Occurring four times in the corpus, collocations with superfluous pronouns constitute the third highest error type concerning determiners. Of all, three instances of this type of error show up in the same deviant collocation *go one's home* (*go my / her/ his/ etc...*) where the pronoun is unnecessarily used and which is fixed by omitting the pronoun as *go home*. The other occurrence in this type is also related with the adverb *home* as in *reach one's home*, which is also corrected by omitting the pronoun as *reach home*.

Cases where the pronouns are missing, thus a deviation in a collocation, are cited with two instances in the corpus. The first one is the deviant collocation

watch favourite programme needs a pronoun to be correct as *watch one's favourite programme*. The other one is *believe in eyes*, which also requires a pronoun for correction as *believe in one's eyes*.

The last two deviations concerning the determiners are seen in two different types. The first error type is using an inappropriate article as in *make one move*. This deviant collocation is corrected by omitting *one* and adding the indefinite article *a* as *make a move*. The other deviation is seen in the combination *take the promise*, where the definite article *the* is misused instead of a more appropriate pronoun as in *take one's word*.

III.1.4. Results of VN Collocational Errors Concerning the Structure

Table 15 shows the different subtypes of the errors concerning the structure of the deviant collocations. Altogether, there are fifteen errors are found the corpus related to the structure. Five of them (33, 33 %) present themselves in the subtype of inappropriate mapping of nouns into constituents. Another five (33, 33 %) occur in inappropriate mapping of nouns into constituents plus missing or superfluous constituents. The subtype of missing constituents has three occurrences (20 %) in the corpus. While combinations with superfluous constituents occur twice (13, 33 %), there is no instance found presenting wrong order of constituents. Details of each subtype are provided below.

Table 15

Distributions of Deviations Concerning Structure over Subtypes

Subtype of deviation	Number of occurrences	Percentages
Inappropriate mapping of nouns into constituents	5	33, 33
Inappropriate mapping of nouns onto constituents plus missing or superfluous constituents	5	33, 33
Missing constituents	3	20
Superfluous constituents	2	13, 33
Order of constituents	0	0
Total	15	100

Five single instances occur in the corpus with a deviation due to inappropriate mapping of nouns into constituents. This case is the highest error type concerning the structure of the collocations. One of these deviant collocations is *give an answer to somebody*, where the objects of the verb are required reversal as *give somebody an answer*. The same reversal also applies to deviant combination *send to somebody a message* corrected as *send somebody a message*. Ignorance of particle phrasal verbs where the verb is interrupted with a noun shows up in two deviant combinations *back up somebody* and *bring together somebody*, both of which are corrected by reversing preposition and the noun as *back somebody up* and *bring somebody together*. Finally, the deviation in *use any tools for communication* is corrected as *use any communication tools*.

The second most frequent type of structural deviation is the inappropriate mapping of nouns onto constituents plus missing or superfluous

constituents. This case presents itself in the corpus with three single and a double occurrences. Occurring twice, the deviant combination *hit one' face* is inappropriately mapped and contains both superfluous and missing constituents, which is corrected as *hit somebody in the face*. Similar to the former instance, one of the two single instances of this type of error is *kick one's stomach* fixed as *kick somebody in the stomach*. Also, the ill-formed combination *sell every of her possession* is corrected as *sell all her possessions*. The last occurrence is *live in the opposite door*, which is corrected as *live next door*.

The third most frequent type of structural deviation is the missing constituents in the deviant collocations. These are all single occurrences. The first one of this type is *(not) pay any lesson* which is corrected by adding necessary items as *(not) pay any attention to the lesson*. The other one is *change toward somebody*, which requires a noun as in *change one's attitude toward somebody*. The last one is *drink to death*, which requires a reflective pronoun as in *drink himself to death*.

The fourth most repeated error type concerning the structure is superfluous constituents in the structure of a collocation. This case has only two single occurrences. The first one is *express one's that idea*, where the demonstrative pronoun *that* or the possessive determiner *one's* should be omitted as in *express her idea* or *express that idea*. The other instance of such type is *commit suicide for oneself* where the preposition *for* and the reflective pronoun *oneself* should be omitted as in *commit suicide*.

III.1.5. Results of VN Collocational Errors Concerning the Stretched Verb

Results hit two occurrences (0, 55) of using a stretched verb construction either existing or invented instead of corresponding verb. In the

corpus, there two instances related with this case. Both of these occurrences are used to mean the same verb *bet*. One of them is *play betting* and the other one is *play any bet*, instead of both of which using the single verb *bet* is more appropriate.

III.1.5. Results of VN Collocational Errors Concerning Whole Collocation Inappropriate

Analysis of the data shows ten instances of cases where the whole collocation is inappropriate because identifying the individual deviant elements are impossible. One instance is the deviant collocation *sit one fold bottom* with which the learner wants to mean *live downstairs* or *live in the downstairs flat*. Another instance is *change one's face via surgery*, instead of which saying *have a plastic surgery on face* is more appropriate. This deviation is also present in the inappropriate collocation *wake up from his drunk situation*, produced to mean *regain conscious*. In another combination where the learner tries to mean *burn down* by producing *(their home) set fire* is also an inappropriate collocation on the whole. Other cases of whole collocation inappropriate are *get the case* corrected as *understand the relationship*, *look at the shop* corrected as *visit the store*, *understand one's wrong* corrected as *realize one's faults*, *repeat these events* corrected as *follow this routine*, *step a few walk* corrected as *take a few steps*, and finally *follow one's attitude* corrected as *observe one's behaviour*.

III.2. Overall Results of VN Collocational Error Sources

Three hundred sixty VN collocational extracted from the corpus are analyzed in order to find the error sources. Chart 2 presents the main errors sources in terms of cognitive and communicative strategies.

Results show that three hundred and one (89, 85 %) of three hundred thirty five deviant VN collocations are caused by learners' use of cognitive strategies. On the other hand, only thirty four errors (10, 11 %) are found to be related with learners' application of communicative strategies. The study cannot classify two errors (0, 59 %) found in the corpus in terms of either cognitive or communicative strategies. Therefore, altogether, there are three hundred fifty four errors analyzed for their error sources. Chart 3 exhibits results of the subcategories of error sources.

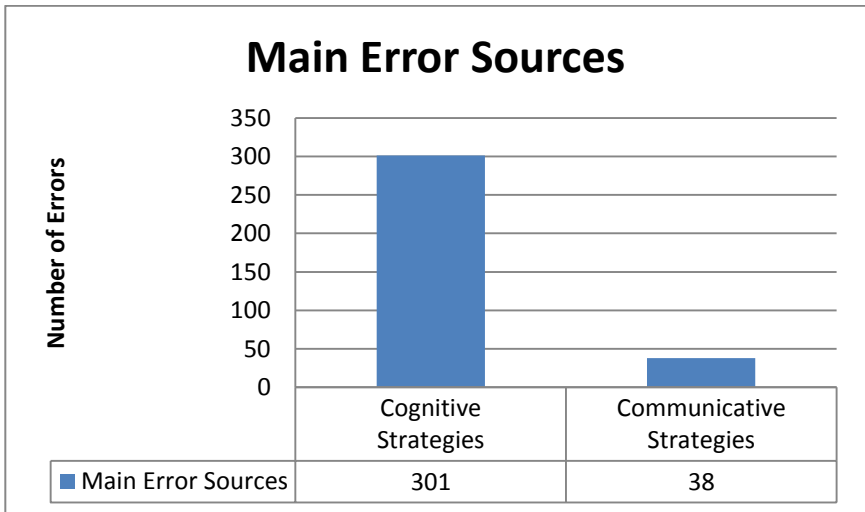


Chart 2. Distribution of Errors over Cognitive and Communicative Strategies

The results, as can be seen in Chart 3 above, shows that the highest error source is interlingual transfer, which also means influence of L1, by causing one hundred and seven errors (31, 94 %) in the corpus. Following it, the second highest error source is ignorance of rule restriction containing ninety eight errors (29, 25 %). The analysis also reveals that sixty of the errors (17, 91 %) are produced erroneously due to false concept hypothesized, the third highest error

source. In addition, thirty four of the deviant errors (11, 34 %) are resulted from learners' using communicative strategies of paraphrasing. The least factor causing deviations in collocational production in the corpus is incomplete application of rules affecting thirty of the errors (8, 95 %). It should be noted that even though interlingual transfer stands alone as the second highest error source, total number of interlingual errors, namely false concept hypothesized, incomplete application of rules, ignorance of rule restriction, is (188 / 56, 11 %) higher than the interlingual transfer (107/ 31, 94%). Finally, one of the intralingual errors, influence of overgeneralization is not traced in any of the deviant collocations. Detailed analysis of each error sources is provided below in sections III.2.1., III.2.2., and III.2.3.

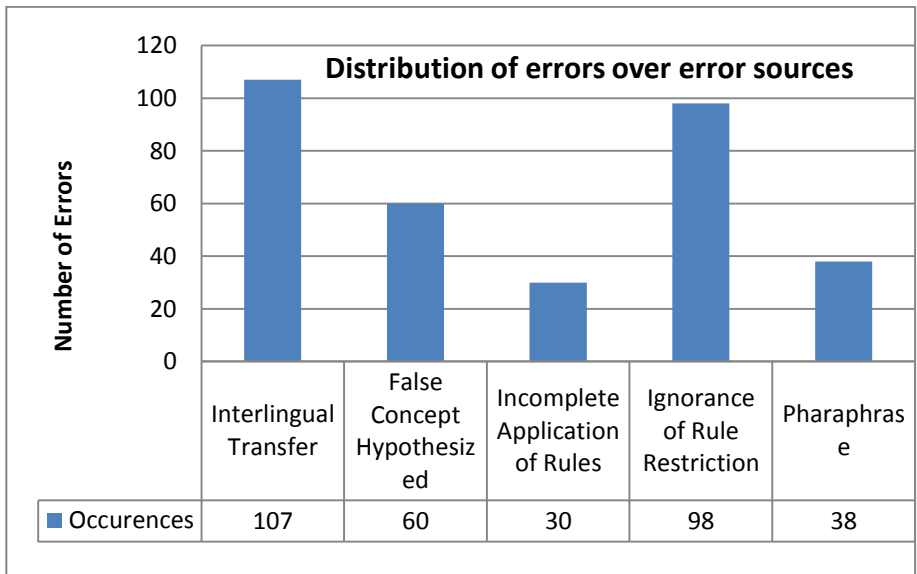


Chart 3. Distribution of Errors across Subcategories of Error Sources

III.2.1. Results of Interlingual Transfer

Data analysis reveals that one hundred and seven of three thirty five deviant collocations are caused by L1 influence. These erroneous collocations seem to be produced under the influence of learners' mother tongue Turkish. Almost all the errors in this category are the result of literal translation of the intended meanings. Instances of L1 influenced deviant VN collocations also show that while learners do translation, they ignore the transitivity and intransitivity of verbs in Turkish and English. Moreover, there are only two cases caused by language switch, which is using a word from the mother tongue. Table 16 displays some of the deviations influenced by L1 transfer.

As can be seen in Table 14, learners' deviant production of VN collocations under the influence of their L1 include literal translation where, in some cases, learners ignore the transitivity and intransitivity of the verbs while translation; and in some others they ignore considering the appropriate equivalents of Turkish words in English. Tough a few, there are also instances of switching to mother tongue and using Turkish words. For example; when verbs of movement such as *go* or *come* are used with *home*, no prepositions are required before *home* (Cambridge Learner's Dictionary, 2001). This rule does not exist in Turkish language; therefore learners may produce combinations as found in the corpus *come to home* which is corrected as *come home*.

Table 16

VN Collocational Deviations Influenced by LI Transfer

Number of Occurrence	Deviant Collocation	Turkish Equivalent	Suggested Correction
7	Come to home	Eve gelmek	Come home
5	Knock the door	Kapıyı çalmak	Knock at the door
3	Wait somebody	Birini beklemek	Wait for somebody
2	Attack somebody to	Birine saldırmak	Attack somebody
1	Complain the thief to policeman	Hırsız polise şikayet etmek	Report the thief to the policeman
1	Play betting	Bahis oynamak	Bet
1	Settle to a hotel	Otele yerleşmek	Check in at a hotel
1	Sit one fold bottom	Bir kat aşağıda oturmak (yaşamak)	Live downstairs /Live in the downstairs flat
1	Use alcohol	Alkol kullanmak	Drink alcohol
1	Sit on an old bank	Eski bir bankta oturmak	Sit on an old bench

One example of literal translations is *use alcohol* which means *alkol kullanmak* and refers to *drink alcohol* in English. Another one is *sit one fold bottom* which means *bir kat aşağıda oturmak* and refers to *live in the downstairs*

flat in English. Both verbs *sit* and *live* translate into Turkish as *oturmak*; however *sit* is used as in ‘sit on a chair’ referring the body position; whereas *live* is used as ‘live in a small house’ referring to have one’s home somewhere. Another example of literal translation is *settle to a hotel* translated into Turkish as *otele yerleşmek* which refers to *check in at a hotel*. In other cases such as *knock the door* corrected as *knock at the door*, it is clear that the learners fail to consider transitivity or intransitivity of the verb because the verb *knock* is intransitive in English and cannot be followed directly by a noun whereas in Turkish the verb *knock* (*çalmak*) is transitive and can be followed by a noun directly. The opposite case occurs in *attack to somebody* corrected as *attack somebody* where the verb *attack* is transitive in English but intransitive (*saldürmak*) in Turkish. Language switch occurs in the cases where the learners fail to produce the right equivalent of *bank* which is *bench* in English as in *sit on an old bank* corrected as *sit on an old bench*.

III.2.1. Results of Intralingual Transfer

Intralingual transfer in this study occurs in false concept hypothesized sixty instances, ignorance of rule restriction with ninety eight instances, and incomplete application of rules with thirty instances (see Chart 3) . Transfer of overgeneralization is not observed in this study. Each category is explained with representative examples below.

The highest error source in terms of intralingual transfer is ignorance of rule restriction observed in ninety eight deviant combinations. Examples of these deviations caused by ignorance of rule restriction are given in Table 17 below.

Table 17

VN Collocational Deviations Influenced by Ignorance of Rule Restriction

Number of Occurrence	Deviant Collocation	Suggested Correction
11	Say somebody	Say to somebody
5	Walk on the street	Walk along the street
4	Apologize somebody	Apologize to somebody
2	Apologize for somebody	Apologize to somebody
2	Go college	Go to college
2	Go seaside	Go to the seaside
2	Look the mirror	Look into the mirror
1	Judge somebody for something	Judge somebody on something
1	Spend money for something	Spend money on something
1	Look from the window	Look through the window

As can be seen in Table 15, deviations in combinations results from ignoring the restrictions of existing structure. This influence is observed in ninety eight of all deviations (*see* Chart 3). All the deviations caused by ignorance of rule restriction are related to prepositions required to form an appropriate collocation. This case also is also observed to stem from analogy. For example, the combination *say somebody* is probably produced in analogy with *tell somebody*, in which learners ignore that *say* is an intransitive verb and cannot be directly followed by a noun in this restricted sense, thus the correction of that

deviation is *say to somebody*. Similarly, the erroneous collocations *go college* and *go seaside* are also produced in a similar way, in which the preposition *to* is required to form a correct combination as in *go to college* and *go to the seaside*. There are also examples where the learners apply wrong prepositions where a different one is more appropriate and required. This case is visible in such collocations as *look from the window* and *spend money for something*. In the former one, the preposition *from* needs replacement with the correct one *through* as in *look through the window*, and in the latter one *for* needs to be changed with *on* as in *spend money on something*. As presented in Chart 3, this error source of ignoring the rule restriction is the most frequent error source in intralingual transfer.

The second most frequent error source of intralingual transfer is false concept hypothesized. Sixty errors extracted from the corpus are caused by learners' faulty comprehension of distinctions in target language. Table 18 presents some of these deviant collocations found in the corpus.

Sixty VN collocational errors in the corpus are produced under the influence of false concept hypothesized. As can be seen in Table 18, most of these errors result from learners' failure to comprehend the distinction of the verbs used in the combinations. It is clear that learners' produce combinations using de-lexical verbs regardless of their distinct sense. These verbs such as *make, get, have, take, etc.* are also called light verbs, which learners think that they can be used interchangeably. This case is seen in the deviant combinations *have a step* and *make argument* where the verbs are used interchangeably in a wrong way, thus the correction is *make a step* and *have an argument*. In some cases, learners use verbs which are similar to each other and confuse them as they ignore their distinct uses. For example, in one of the deviant collocation, *realize the case* is produced where the verb *realize* is confused with *understand* as in

understand the case. Another one is *attend somebody* which is confused by *join somebody*. Because *attend* means ‘going to an event’ whereas *join* means ‘doing something or going somewhere with someone’ (Cambridge Learners Dictionary 2001).

Table 18

VN Collocational Deviations Influenced by False Concept Hypothesized

Number of Occurrence	Deviant Collocation	Suggested Correction
3	Take one’s gun	Draw one’s gun
2	Realize the situation	Understand the situation
1	Attend somebody	Join somebody
1	Get friends	Find friends
1	Get in love with somebody	Fall in love with somebody
1	Get the case	Understand the case
1	Have a decision about something	Make a decision about something
1	Have a step	Make a step
1	Make some activities	Do some activities
1	Make argument	Have an argument

The third and last intralingual error source causing deviations in VN collocations is incomplete application of rules. Thirty errors are found deviant due to article and pronoun usage where learners add or omit articles in cases wherein articles should appear or not. Table 19 presents some of the deviant collocations extracted from the corpus, which are produced erroneously due to incomplete application of rules.

Table 19

VN Collocational Deviations Influenced by Incomplete Application of Rules

Number of Occurrence	Deviant Collocation	Suggested Correction
3	Get divorce	Get a divorce
3	Go one's home	Go home
2	Commit a suicide	Commit suicide
2	Eat meal / Eat sandwich	Eat a meal / Eat a sandwich
1	Make a peace	Make peace
1	Arrive the home	Arrive home
1	Give the permission	Give permission
1	Believe in eyes	Believe in one's eyes
1	Turn the back	Turn back
1	Take into the consideration	Take into consideration

Incomplete application of rules appears as the least frequent error source in VN collocational deviations. As can be seen in the examples in Table 19, the case is related with misusing articles and pronouns. In some combinations, deviations result from including the definite article *the* where it should not appear as in *give the permission* corrected as *give permission*, *turn the back* corrected as *turn back*, and *arrive the home* corrected as *arrive home*. In some others, including the indefinite article *a* also causes deviations such as *commit a suicide* and *make a peace*. These combinations need omission of *a* for correction as in *commit suicide* and *make peace*. Deviations also result from including a pronoun where it is not required such as *go one's home* corrected as *go home*; and from not including a pronoun where it is required as *believe in eyes* corrected as *believe in one's eyes*.

Intralingual transfer of overgeneralization is not found to be effective in deviations in the corpus. Overgeneralization refers to producing of a deviant structure in place of two regular structures and mostly related with deviations in grammatical collocations (Ridha & Al-Riyahi, 2011). As this present study examines lexical collocations, no errors are found to result from overgeneralization.

III.2.3. Results of Paraphrasing

Analysis shows that thirty eight VN collocational errors result from learners' use of communicative strategies, namely paraphrasing (see Graph 3). Paraphrasing includes approximation in two ways: semantic affinity and morphological or phonological affinities. Table 20 presents some of the errors caused by paraphrasing.

As can be seen in Table 20 below, in some combinations such as *have a sexual activity* and *have not good personal characteristic feature*, learners produce stretched noun combinations where they can be expressed in another and more appropriate way as in *have sex* and *have not a nice personality*. There is an example of using a noun+of+noun phrase where the intended meaning can be conveyed by a compound noun as in *do the works of the home* corrected as *do housework*. Morphological and phonological affinity appear in such deviant combinations as *have a suspicious* and *love one's conscious*, which are adjective forms of the nouns *suspicion* and *consciousness*.

Table 20

VN Collocational Errors Influenced by Paraphrasing

Number of Occurrence	Deviant Collocation	Suggested Correction
3	Exist from the café / house	Go out of the café / house
2	Cook drug	Produce drug
1	Company somebody	Accompany somebody
1	Accept one's suggest	Accept one's suggestion
1	Lose one's conscious	Lose one's consciousness
1	Have a suspicious	Have a suspicion
1	Have a sexual activity	Have sex
1	Give money giveaways	Disburse money
1	Do the works of the home	Do housework
1	Have not good personal characteristic feature	Have not a nice personality

Semantic affinity is present in deviant combinations such as *give money giveaways* and *cook drug*. By *give money giveaways*, the learner tries to mean that the money is given without any condition as *giveaways* means ‘something that is given to people freely’ (Cambridge Learner Dictionary, 2001). Instead of learner’s combination, using *disburse money* is more appropriate as *disburse* conveys the same meaning. The latter combination *cook drug* can be produced instead of *produce drug* considering the process of heat treatment during drug production. On the other hand, there is another wrong combination *exist from the café / house* which is probably (depending on its context it is used in the

narration) used mistakenly to mean *exit from the café /house*. However, the correction of these combinations do not include the verb *exit*, thus the correction is *go out of the café / house*. Therefore, this deviation can either be caused by phonological affinity to the verb *exit* or semantic affinity to the verb *go out of*.

III.2.4. Uncategorized Combinations

Two deviations cannot be categorized in any error sources, each represented with single instances. The first one is *(not) pay any lessons*, of which correction is *(not) pay attention to lessons*. The other one is *commit suicide for oneself*, where the constituent *for oneself* is unnecessary and inappropriate. These two errors can be placed in none of the error sources categories.

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION

The findings of the study include what types of VN collocational errors occur in Mersin University ELT students' narrative texts and what sources of VN collocational errors exist in these narrative texts. The discussion of the findings is held in this chapter in relation to the research questions of this study. However, comparison and discussion of results achieved by this study with others is unfortunately limited and difficult because the notion of collocations, data used, frameworks to define and classify error types and error sources are different in each study. Therefore, subcategories of error types can only be compared with Nesselhauf's study in 2005. In addition, the number of studies focusing solely on VN collocational error types and sources including interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer and paraphrase categories is very low.

IV.1. What Types of Verb-Noun Collocational Errors Are Found in Mersin University ELT Students' Narrative Texts?

The results show that in the corpus compiled for this study from Mersin University ELT students' narrative text, there are three hundred sixty VN collocational errors. The computerized data of these texts analyzed by corpus analysis software NooJ and AntConc includes seven major types of errors which are verbs, nouns, determiners, structure, stretched verbs and whole collocation inappropriate.

Among the error types above, the most frequent type is found to be verbs with two hundred forty eight errors. Following verbs, the second most frequent type is determiners with fifty occurrences. Respectively, noun is the third one

with thirty five instances; structure is the fourth one with fifteen occurrences followed by the whole collocation inappropriate with ten instances; and the least frequent type is stretched verb with only two occurrences.

In the present study, deviations concerning verbs are by far the most frequent error type especially wrong choice of a single verb.. This finding is supported by Nesselhauf's studies in 2003 and 2005. This finding also echoes in Bıçkı's study in 2012. Even though investigating lexical collocations altogether, Kim's study in 2009 proposes that learners have most difficulty using appropriate verbs while producing correct lexical collocations. Nesselhauf (2003) attributes this case to using verbs in collocations in restricted sense which makes their correct use with other lexical elements difficult. Another possible reason why the errors related with the verbs are higher in number is that verbs are among the most difficult items for language learners (Nesselhauf, 2005). In line with Nesselhauf's statement, Altıkulaçoğlu (2010) also notes that learners' restricted knowledge of verbs limits them to communicate satisfactorily and attach more meanings to those limited number of verbs they know very well; whereas they can maintain a communication somewhat without broad knowledge of adjective and adverbs. Therefore, learners take risks and produce utterances with deviant verbs.

This present study includes prepositions in phrasal and prepositional verbs, therefore do not investigate them as a different error type. In accordance with this, Hong et al.'s findings in their study conducted in 2011 also support the finding of this study that the most deviations occur in verbs. Hong et al. (2011) examines prepositions under another category, however in relation to the verbs as preposition of a prepositional verb missing, wrong or superfluous. In their study, prepositional errors are found to be the most occurring error type which is actually in parallel with the finding of the current study.

Deviations concerning determiners in this study are found to be the second most frequent error type. Almost half of the deviations are related with determiners occur where the article is missing, and the other approximately half occurs where the article is superfluous. However, in Nesselhauf's study in 2003, determiners rank the fifth most frequent and in 2005 the sixth. This difference can be attributed to the article systems of Turkish and German compared to English, as the participants of Nesselhauf's studies are from German L1 background. Atay (2010) highlights that English and German are Germanic languages and they share similar article system. They assign lexical properties to represent articles. On the other hand, Turkish article system is different from those above, as Turkish article system is represented with case markers, word-order and sentence stress. Therefore, participants of Nesselhauf's study commit less determiner errors compared to the participants in this study whose mother tongue is Turkish.

Compared to results of Nesselhauf's study in 2005, only 2, 77 % of the errors occur as whole combination inappropriate, whereas in Nesselhauf's study it is 13, 13 %. Similar to the present study, in Hong et al.'s (2011) study, cases where the whole collocation is inappropriate constitute 1, 99 % of whole errors, whose participants speak Malaysian as their mother tongue. This difference can be explained by L1 transfer to L2. As Nesselhauf's corpus consists of texts from German learners of English, they can transfer more L1 properties to L2. Laufer and Waldman (2011) states that in Biskup study (1992 in Laufer & Waldman, 2011) German learners produce many collocational errors by translating German words into English in structural similarity. Considering the German-English distance in terms of language properties, German learners of English whose L1 is similar to their target language can be more risk-taking in creating collocations and therefore making more collocational errors where the whole combinations are inappropriate (Wang and Shaw, 2008; in Laufer & Waldman, 2011).

IV.2. What Sources of Verb-Noun Collocational Errors Are Found in Mersin University ELT Students' Narrative Texts?

With regard to error sources, this study investigates three major error sources of VN collocational errors: interlingual, intralingual, and paraphrasing. On the whole, results show that interlingual transfer is responsible for 31, 94% of the errors; intralingual transfer is influential in 56, 11 % of the errors; and the least frequent error source is paraphrasing presenting itself in 8, 95 % of the errors. Therefore, the most prevailing error source is found as intralingual in this study.

In this study, results for each single subcategory of intralingual transfer are provided. When considered from this perspective, interlingual transfer seems to be the most dominant error source. However, intralingual transfer has four subcategories and the total number of VN collocational errors caused by intralingual transfer outnumbers the interlingual ones. Paraphrase is the least influential error source found in this study.

It is difficult to compare the results of this study with regard to the findings of error sources. Previous studies investigating error sources of collocational errors do not agree upon a common error source. In this study, intralingual transfer is found to be the most dominant error source effecting collocations. This finding echoes in Hong et al.'s (2011) study with Malay students. In parallel, this study confirms Hashemi et al.'s (2011) study with Iranian learners of English and Noor and Adubaib's (2011) study with Saudi learners of English, both of which also show that most deviations result from learners' intralingual transfer. In a similar context with this study, focusing only on L1 transfer, Altıkulaçoğlu (2010) finds only a few deviations resulting from interlingual transfer.

On the other hand, there are studies from different L1 backgrounds presenting L1 transfer as the dominant collocational error source. Nesselhauf's studies in 2003 and 2005 show significant degree of L1 transfer, she puts it as more than assumed by previous researchers (2003). Laufer and Waldman's study in 2011 with Hebrew learners of English as well as Sadeghi and Panahifar's study in 2013 with Iranian learners of English confirm Nesselhauf's findings. Finally, in Turkish context Bıçkı's (2012) study also carries the same findings of studies above presenting L1 transfer as the most frequent error source.

To conclude, VN collocational error occur mostly in verbs as confirmed by other studies. As the verbs are used in the restricted sense in collocational combinations, in addition to learners' ignorance of this restriction cause this type of errors. Determiner errors in VN collocations are the second frequent error type in this study. One possible explanation of this finding can be the different article system of Turkish and English. On the other hand, while intralingual errors constitute the highest error source in this study, there is no consensus among studies examining VN collocational error sources over a common error source.

CONCLUSION

Bolinger (1979) claims that “our language does not expect us to build everything starting with lumber, nails, and blueprint. Instead it provides us with an incredibly large number of prefabs” (in Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 1). These prefabs are fundamentally important for language learners to master the target language, as native speakers of that language make use of those prefabs in their speech rather than communicating in isolated words (Mel’cuk, 1998). An important part of these prefabs, collocational knowledge is an undeniable constituent of a second or foreign language as Nation puts it “language knowledge is collocational knowledge and fluent and appropriate language use requires collocational knowledge” (2000, pp. 517-518). In addition, considering the language learners’ desire to sound native-like, collocational knowledge provides language learners with membership of a certain linguistic group (Nesselhauf, 2005).

The knowledge and ability produce collocations are thus crucial for language learners. Nevertheless, an essential aspect of a language, collocations still present considerable difficulties for language learners even at high levels of language proficiency. To convey their messages, be understood and communicate satisfactorily, language learners use some cognitive and communicative strategies. Without noticing, learners produce language containing errors affected by their mother tongue and target language resulting from above strategies. As languages consist mostly of collocations, a part of prefabs, it is not surprising that these errors occur in collocation, as stresses by Hill (2000, in Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 3) “any analysis of students’ speech or writing shows a lack of [...] collocational competence.” Consequently, analysis of collocational errors and their sources reveals what learners have learnt and what needs to be learnt more to achieve

mastery of the target language. Rather than imposing preconceptions of how to teach and what to teach language learners, Corder (1967, p. 169) proposes error analysis to reveal and so as to allow the learners' innate strategies to dictate class practices and determine syllabus.

This study sets out to explore advance adult English learners' production of collocations (in phraseological approach) consisting of a verb and a noun in their narrative texts. First of all, the study aims to identify these errors and categories them into error types. Analysis both via corpus analysis software and done manually to determine VN collocational error types indicates that most of the errors occur due to inappropriate choice of both single and prepositional verbs. This finding suggests that learners have special difficulty in selecting appropriate verbs to combine with nouns. Following wrong choice of verbs, determiners pose the second highest difficulty for learners when producing VN collocations. In terms of VN collocational error sources, this study shows that learners produce deviant VN collocations mostly due to intralingual transfer, followed by interlingual transfer and paraphrasing, though low. This finding suggests that learners tend to use previously learnt target language rules in contexts where they do not apply.

Limitations of the Study

This present study is limited to only Mersin University students majoring in English. Therefore, the corpus analyzed is a small scale corpus. This corpus only includes narrative texts produced in a limited time in classroom settings. Another limitation of the study is that only VN collocations are investigated to describe the error types and their sources. While extracting VN

collocations, passive constructions of VN collocations as well as combinations including *to be* are not included in this study.

Implications

The findings of the present study are valuable for language learners and language teachers. First of all, findings of the first research question provide problematic areas students encounter while producing collocations. It is clear that learners do have problems with combining the words they already know. To deal with this problem, language teachers can consider learners' errors and try to raise collocational awareness. As Kennedy summaries

Just as the teacher of botany does not take students into the jungle and expect them to learn about all the plants by simply being exposed to them, so the language curriculum designer and classroom teacher can facilitate learning by systematic presentation of the role of important language items and their linguistic ecology - the company words keep. (1990, p.228).

One way to raise collocational awareness is using collocational dictionaries. Teachers encourage students to look up unknown words in dictionaries; however, what words go together should also be asked. Learners can learn the meaning of the words and make grammatically correct sentences. Nevertheless, without knowing co-occurrences of words, they fail to produce acceptable and appropriate target language. Therefore, encouraging and training learners to use both traditional and collocations dictionaries together can help learners express their ideas fluently and naturally as native speakers do (Hong et al., 2011).

Teaching collocations is another way language teachers can raise collocational knowledge. Nesselhauf (2003, 2005) suggests explicit teaching of collocations. While teaching them, she proposes considering the degree of difficulty and starting from the most difficult to the least. Also, attention should also be drawn to congruent and incongruent collocations, in other words collocations which are the same in both L1 and L2 and the ones which do not have the same equivalent form in L2. In addition, learners' existing vocabulary can be extended with collocational activities highlighting the much-neglected but common collocations. Teachers should train learners to use their existing lexicon to produce more collocations. Further, new vocabulary can be presented in a context including collocations and awareness can be raised on collocational knowledge in learners to use their existing vocabulary to make full advantage of it. Thus, learners can gain more insight into what words co-occur together.

Teachers should encourage learners to use corpora, both native and learner, together with corpus analysis software. This can help learners to compare their language knowledge with the native ones by accessing the native corpora. Moreover, Data Driven Learning with corpus studies is also shown to be effective in teaching collocations (e.g. Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006). Corpus studies by learners themselves enable them to acquire real language and produce native-like collocations while it also provides them with chances to identify their errors both lexical and grammatical.

With the answer the second research question about the sources of VN collocational errors, the study shows how learners deal with problems and try to overcome them by what strategies they use. Considering this finding, favorable learning conditions can be created. Corder (1967, p. 169) highlights that the more learners' built-in syllabus is learnt and learners' innate strategies dictate

classroom practices, the more teachers adapt themselves to their needs without imposing preconceptions.

Further Research

First of all, further research can be done both in different types of lexical collocations and also in grammatical collocations. Secondly, larger corpus studies of Turkish interlanguage are needed to gain more generalizable insights on production of collocational errors and their sources. In addition, more corpus studies accompanied by other elicitation tasks and think-aloud procedures can be performed on collocations especially to learn more about the error sources. Further, while most of the previous studies on collocations have focused on written production, spoken learner corpora can also be analyzed for learners' collocational production in their speeches.

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APPENDIX A: List of the Verbs Extracted from the Corpus

Accept	Behave	Commit	Disappear	Exist
Accompany	Believe	Communicate	Disappoint	Excuse
Accuse	Benefit	Compare	Discover	Expand
Achieve	Betray	Company	Discuss	Experience
Ache	Bite	Complain	Dismiss	Explain
Act	Blame	Complete	Disturb	Exploit
Adopt	Bleed	Confess	Divorce	Explore
Agree	Book	Consider	Dose	Express
Aim	Buy	Continue	Drag	Expose
Allow	Bound	Cook	Drink	Extinguish
Answer	Break	Convince	Draw	Face
Apologize	Breathe	Cover	Dream	Fail
Appear	Bring	Crash	Dress	Faint
Apply	Built	Count	Drive	Fall
Appoint	Bump	Create	Drop	Fear
Argue	Burn	Cry	Drown	Fall
Arise	Call	Criticize	Dwell	Fight
Arouse	Calm	Crush	Earn	Figure
Arrange	Come	Curse	Eat	Fill
Arrive	Capture	Cut	Effect	Find
Ask	Care	Dare	Embark	Finish
Assess	Carry	Deceive	Enable	Fix
Attack	Catch	Decide	Encourage	Flee
Attempt	Cause	Declare	End	Fly
Attend	Celebrate	Defeat	Endure	Flood
Attract	Change	Desire	Enjoy	Flow
Back	Cheat	Destroy	Enter	Fold
Bear	Check	Determine	Entertain	Forbidden
Bark	Choose	Do	Envy	Force
Beat	Collect	Die	Escape	Forget
Become	Climb	Dig	Exaggerate	Forgive
Befall	Close	Dine	Examine	Foresee
Beg	Collapse	Disagree	Except	Frighten

APPENDIX A: List of the Verbs Extracted from the Corpus Continues

Gain	Involve	Miss	Promote	Reveal
Gamble	Join	Misunderstand	Propose	Ring
Gather	Jump	Mock	Provide	Ride
Give	Keep	Move	Punch	Roll
Get	Kick	Murmur	Punish	Rule
Go	Kill	Need	Push	Rush
Gossip	Kiss	Notice	Put	Rust
Grab	Know	Offend	Quit	Run
Graduate	Knock	Oblige	Rain	Say
Grow	Laugh	Observe	Raise	Sail
Have	Lead	Offer	Reach	Sink
Happen	Lean	Ooze	React	Sit
Harm	Leave	Open	Read	Satisfy
Hate	Lend	Order	Realize	Save
Heal	Let	Overcome	Receive	See
Help	Lie	Own	Recognize	Scare
Hide	Lift	Pack	Reflect	Scatter
Hit	Light	Participate	Refuse	Schedule
Hold	Like	Pass	Regret	Scream
Hug	Listen	Pay	Reject	Search
Hurt	Live	Perceive	Relax	Seek
Ignore	Lock	Persuade	Rely	Seem
Imagine	Long	Phone	Remain	Sell
Include	Look	Pile	Remember	Send
Influence	Lose	Plan	Remind	Sentence
Inform	Love	Plan	Rent	Set
Initiate	Make	Plant	Repeat	Settle
Inject	Magic	Play	Rescue	Shock
Injure	Maintain	Pour	Resemble	Shoot
Insist	Manage	Prepare	Reserve	Shout
Interrupt	Marry	Pretend	Respect	Show
Introduce	Meet	Prevent	Respond	Skip
Invite	Mind	Promise	Return	Sleep

APPENDIX A: List of the Verbs Extracted from the Corpus Continues

Smile	Tidy			
Smoke	Treat			
Snore	Try			
Snuggle	Turn			
Solve	Underestimate			
Speak	Understand			
Spend	Use			
Split	Visit			
Stack	Visualize			
Stand	Vomit			
Stare	Wait			
Start	Wake			
Starve	Walk			
State	Wander			
Stay	Want			
Steal	Warn			
Step	Wash			
Stop	Watch			
Strike	Wave			
Study	Wiggle			
Suffer	Win			
Suggest	Wish			
Support	Wonder			
Surprise	Wear			
Swallow	Work			
Take	Worry			
Tail	Write			
Talk	Yell			
Tell				
Thank				
Think				
Threat				
Throw				

APPENDIX B: Sample Narrative Texts

Once upon a time, there was a woman who had long hair and black, big eyes. Her nose was so small that everybody wondered how she breathed. Her face reflected the sunshine. She was full of energy and goodness around her. She was fond of "especially" children. She thought that children had such special inner feelings that they attracted her. That's why she chose being a pre-school teacher. One day, she noticed that a child in the classroom was so sad that he didn't pay attention for any lesson. His eyes so familiar to her that she followed his every attitudes. Then she learned that he was his son left by herself years ago. Until that day, she made happy another children but not her son. She understood that everything was fault that she did, and finally she decided she backed up his son forever.

Two friends get bored in the city life and want to explore the world together and travel new cities. They set off the road and after an exhausting journey they find themselves at an amazon.

Turns out they take the wrong flight! Anyway since both of them have a very open mind and explorer personalities, they don't mind and decide to discover the forest. After wondering around they get hungry and have to eat living insects.

After a while they get hungry again because the insects are not so appetite rising.

Since its dark now they decide to set some woods on fire. Just when they are finished a snake come by and they are frightened at first.

But then an empty stomach wins the deal and they cook the snake and eat it.

THE END

Once upon a time, a girl lived in a castle with her father in a country. Her father liked her so much. She is a princess. Her father always protected her. One day, a woman came to the castle, and she said to king "Your princess will die, whatever you do." The king didn't believe the woman and he said to his security "Kill her!" After years king's daughter grew, but the king was always thinking about her. He was very sad. One day he decided to ask people this situation. The most intelligent person of the country came and said to king "Dear Lord, unfortunately our princess will die and you won't be able to do anything." The king was very sad, and he waited for his daughter's death. One day when the princess was eating an apple, suddenly she died and the story was finished...

A STORY

It is already 01.00 pm but the husband of our neighbour hasn't come yet. Mrs. Wagner in fact knows where his husband is and is trying to prepare her cruel words to him. If you listen to poor drunk man, he is complaining about her chatter-box wife, and in the reverse Mrs. Wagner says she has the worst fate in the world with her husband.

The Wagner family is our neighbour sitting one fold bottom in our damned and rusted 3 folded apartment. Mr. Wagner who is weak and short frightened people with his black skin and big nose under his lily big eyes. And as for Mrs. Wagner, although she is already 40 years old, she still seems so young compared to her peers, with white skin and brown eyes. It seems to me the reason the reason why she has such a big body is to be able to kick her husband down better. Almost every night all avenue wakes up with their argument. Do you wonder what about they argue? If yes it is because of alcohol Mr Wagner drinks. I do not remember a moment that Mr Wagner is awake. One day I asked Mrs Wagner, no matter when I remember I am ashamed, "why don't you divorce if you always argue and discuss?", you do not have any children, you can go your father's home or work. The only answer she gave me was "we have been married for more than 15 years and when I married with him without informing my family, I promised I would never look back and I know if I look back he never takes care of himself" I do not still know it is because of proud or love or pity towards him why she doesn't leave him but it is certain they will die of each other.

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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