

**T.C.
ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**



**THE ROLE OF TEACHING LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS IN RAISING EFL
LEARNERS' SPEAKING FLUENCY**

THESIS

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**Department of English Language and Literature
English Language and Literature Program**

Thesis Advisor: Prof. Dr. Turkay BULUT

February, 2018

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İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

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I hereby declare that all information in this thesis document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results, which are not original to this thesis.

Daban Saber QADER







*I would like to dedicate this thesis to:
Each and everyone who explores the world, studies and works hard to*

improve our life and environment not destroy them.

*Each and everyone, who struggles to maintain peace and stands against
war and bloodshed.*



FOREWORD

This thesis would not have been completed without support and guidance of a group of good people around me. First of all I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. Turkay BULUT for her guidance, support and patience. I appreciate her efforts during teaching and her kind supervision of this thesis.

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February, 2018

Daban Saber QADER



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EFL (YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE) ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA YETENEKLERİNİN GELİŞTİRİLMESİNDE SÖZLÜKSEL EŞDİZİMLERİN ÖĞRETİMİNİN ROLÜ

ÖZET

Eşdizim ve onun dil öğrenimine etkisi bu zamana kadar dil bilimcilerinin ve bilim insanlarının ilgisini çekmiştir. Bu tez yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenenlerin sözel akıcılığını geliştirmek için sözlüksel eşdizimleri öğretmenin önemini inceler. Hipotez şudur ki eşdizim özellikle de sözlüksel eşdizim ve doğru sırada eşdizimsel kullanım bilgisine sahip olmak sonuç olarak sözel akıcılıklarını geliştirir ve ana dili İngilizce olan kişi kadar doğal konuşmalarına yardım eder.

Bu tez eşdizimlerin kökenine, türlerine ve kalıplarına ışık tutar. Soran Üniversitesi-İngilizce Bölümünden kırk beş birinci sınıf öğrencisi seçildi ve kontrol grubu ve deney grubu olmak üzere ikiye ayrıldılar. Deney grubunun sınıf derslerinde dersler eşdizimlere vurgu yapılarak anlatıldı ve özellikle sözcüksel eşdizimlere odaklanıldı. Bununla birlikte kontrol grubunda eşdizimlere hiç önem verilmedi. Ampirik çalışma eşdizim alıştırmaları, öğrencilerin öntest, öğrencilerin anketleri, öğretmenlerin anketleri ve öğrencilerin post testlerinden oluşmaktadır. Eşdizim alıştırmalarının sonucu gösterdi ki öğrencilerin eşdizim ve bunların nasıl kullanılacağına dair bilgileri yoktu. Aynı zamanda, öntest sonuçları öğrencilerin konuşmada yetkin olmadıklarını gösterdi. Bununla birlikte post test sonucu gösterdi ki eşdizimler ile alakalı derslerden ve sözcüksel eşdizimlere odaklandıktan sonra, konuşma yetkinlikleri gelişti ve bu tezin hipotezi doğrudur. Gerek tek bir kelime olsun gerekse eşdizimler dahil kelime sekansları olsun kelime sekmenleri konusunda ustalaşma yollarını bilmek, öğrenciye akıcı konuşma ile hatalar yapma ve yanlış eşdizimler kullanma endişesinin üstesinden gelme kabiliyeti kazandırmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *eşdizimler, sözcüksel eşdizimler, sözlü yetkinlik, yanlış eşdizimler.*



THE ROLE OF TEACHING LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS IN RAISING EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING FLUENCY

ABSTRACT

Collocations and its relations to learning languages have attracted the attention of linguists and scholars so far. This thesis investigates the importance of teaching lexical collocations to improve EFL learners' oral fluency. The hypothesis is that knowing collocations specifically lexical collocations and collocational usage in the right order would eventually improve their oral fluency and helps them speak as natural as native speaker of English language. The thesis sheds light on the origins of collocations, its types, and patterns. Forty five first grade students of English Language Department-Soran University were selected and divided into two groups of experimental and control groups. Students were tested for collocational knowledge and vocabulary usage. In the experimental group's class lectures were given with highlighting collocations and specifically focused on lexical collocations in. While with the control group the lectures paid no attention to collocations. The empirical study consisted of collocation exercise, students' pre-test, students' questionnaire, teachers' questionnaire, students' post-test. The results of the collocations exercise showed that the students did not have knowledge of collocations and the ways of using them. Also, the results of the pre-test showed that the students were not proficient in speaking. However the results of the post-test showed that after lectures about collocations and focusing on lexical collocations their speaking proficiency was improved and the hypothesis of the thesis had been true. Knowing the ways of mastering vocabulary segments either single words or sequences including collocations, gives the learners ability to speak fluently and overcome the anxiety of making mistakes and mis-collocations.

Keywords: *collocations, Lexical collocations, oral proficiency, miscollocations.*



1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Background Of The Study

As English language has gained more importance and become the language of the world especially in the academic fields, linguists and scholars who have been interested in the field of teaching and acquiring the English language are proposing new methods and trying to imply new approaches to teach English language in its best and easiest ways. Previously the most attention of teaching English language was paid to the grammar and it was believed that grammar was the base of language and should be learned first. However, in last few decades a new generation of linguists has appeared who believe that the core of language is meaning, and that is why they are concentrating mostly on vocabulary “without grammar little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins, 1972). Teaching vocabulary, which is teaching of either single words or more than one word or phrases or word combinations have led to a great level of development in learning English language. Researchers (Lewis, 1993, 1997 and 2000) emphasized the importance of teaching vocabulary, and the focus was on teaching collocations.

Depending on Lewis’ views, we believe that teaching collocations would help learners to develop their skills in language learning. Therefore, in this study the main focus will be on the direct influence of teaching collocations on the speaking skill. Since a good command of speaking needs a broad knowledge of vocabulary, producing the speech will be easier with a rich lexis of the target language. Furthermore, arranging the words or phrases together while speaking in most cases leads to mistakes and inappropriate use of the words; this raises the importance of collocations and knowledge about how to utter different utterances. It is clear that English language learners (either as a second language or a foreign language) all try to speak in a completely normal or native-like way and to convey their messages or speech in the best way. Here the best use or the

right selection of collocation while speaking would help producing more normal and native-like level of proficiency in speaking.

Many researchers focused on the importance of teaching collocations, and each one investigated the topic from different perspectives. Mostly, the studies (Zhang 1993; Howarth 1996; Granger 1998; Hsu 2007; Namvar et al, 2012; Soleimani et al 2013; Aghvami et al 2013; Heidarneshadian et al, 2015) have been about writing process and the importance of lexical collocations and collocation competence in EFL. Because of the importance of lexical collocations and their roles in learning English, it has been investigated widely covering all four (writing, speaking, reading and listening) language skills. The numerous studies, which mentioned above, lately have been about the importance of lexical collocations in writing process and helping learners to improve their writing skills. In addition several studies (Kharma and Hajjaj 1989; Sung 2003; Hsu 2008; Ramirez 2012; Harvey 2015; Ebrahim-Bazzaz et al 2015) have been conducted to find out the relationship of lexical collocations to speaking proficiency and developing oral competence. Moreover, some other researchers (Agha-Babaie and Moradianfard 2014) have investigated the effect of collocation awareness on the performance of learners in reading comprehension tests. Furthermore, raising awareness of lexical collocations and the techniques of teaching collocations in EFL/ESL classrooms have been researched (Karoly 2005; Dickinson 2008; Farrokh 2012; Alfahadi 2014). Additionally some others (Emery 1987; Farghal 1999; Al-Salmani 2002; Faris and Sahu 2013) have been interested in investigating the problem of translating collocation.

Since lexical collocations have been broadly researched, here we are going to mention some of these studies briefly.

Investigating English lexical collocations and their relation to writing skills has started with Zhang (in Hsu 2008), Zhang explored the possible correlation between knowledge and use of English collocations and the quality of college freshmen's writing. He studied the knowledge and use of lexical collocations among two groups of native and non-native students' writing and found out that (1) native writers performed better than non-native writers, (2) for collocation use, native writers surpassed non-native writers. He also came to the conclusion

that collocational knowledge is a source of proficiency in writing among college freshmen. Mounya (2010) investigated teaching lexical collocations in relation to proficiency in foreign language writing. She studied the origins, types and classifications of collocations and in a case study, she has investigated the use and effect of lexical collocations on writing skills of first year students at English Department of Guelma University in Algeria. Interestingly she has studied the effect of the first language (Arabic) and second language (French) on the subjects' collocational use. She concludes that students need to use collocations in order to write more proficiently, that students should consider lexical chunks as a single word, and that teaching collocations would be beneficial for them. Also Namvar, Mohdnor, Ibrahim and Mustafa (2012) have analyzed collocations in the Iranian postgraduate students' writings. Their intention was to explore the influence of the first language and the cultural background of learners on the production of collocations. They came to the conclusion that collocations are very important in writing, and using them enhances the writing skill; thus, students need more exposure to vocabulary and collocations. Including collocations in curriculum will contribute to efficient communication. Also, Aghvami et al (2013) have investigated the effect of lexical collocation awareness on Iranian EFL learners' writing skill. In the conclusion, they argued that lexical collocation awareness can significantly influence EFL pre-intermediate language learners writing proficiency. Therefore, lexical collocation awareness should be included in the writing syllabus at the university so that collocational competence could be developed in order to enhance students' communicative competence. Moreover, many linguists and researchers have been interested in collocation awareness and their effect on teaching English language: Karoly(2005) researched the importance of raising collocational awareness in the vocabulary development of intermediate level learners of English. Dickinson (2008) explored raising awareness of collocation in the Japanese EFL classroom. He argued that teachers need to know the types of collocations that their learners should be made aware of, teachers need to be more aware of problems that might result from interference of their learner's L1, and teachers need to use appropriate activities for teaching collocations. Also (Farrokh 2012; Soleimani, Jafarigohar, Iranmanesh 2013; Alfahadi, Zohairy, Momani and Wahby 2014) investigated raising awareness of

collocations and teaching them in EFL classrooms. Furthermore, Agha-Babaie and Moradianfard(2014) explored the effect of collocation awareness and text structure awareness on the performance of Iranian pre-university students in reading comprehension tests. They concluded that, collocational awareness and text structure awareness were effective in promoting the performance of Iranian pre-university students in reading comprehension tests at low and intermediate levels of proficiency.

Concerning the importance of collocational knowledge and use in speaking, Hsu (2008) has investigated the relation between lexical collocations to speaking proficiency of college EFL learners in Taiwan. Hsu, in his study, found out a strong relationship between the knowledge of lexical collocations and speaking proficiency among the Taiwanese university EFL learners and recommended teachers to provide the learners with sources of lexis, such as corpus, concordance, and dictionaries of collocations, ensuring these learners having direct exposure to chunks of English language. Biskri (2012) researched, in her MA dissertation, the effect of lexical collocation awareness-raising on EFL students' oral proficiency. She found out that students lack collocation knowledge and they had tried to translate directly from Arabic their mother tongue or French their second language which led them to failure due to the differences between Arabic and English collocations. Ebrahimi-Bazzaz, Abdsamad, Bin-Ismael and Noordin (2015) explored verb-noun collocations in spoken discourse of Iranian EFL learners. Hsu (2007) has investigated multiword lexical units and their relationship to impromptu speech. He concluded with that a strong relationship was found between the use of lexical collocations and speaking proficiency among the Taiwanese university EFL learners in the study. However, he goes on that the learners' use of fixed/semi-fixed expressions and idioms did not show significant correlation with their speaking proficiency.

1.2 Problem Statement

English language learners always try to improve their input either writing or speaking to better levels while acquiring the language. However as it has been researched, they almost work on making their input as much as fluent and native

like. The most important means of improving language learning for learners is vocabulary then grammar comes in the second rank as Michael Lewis argues that the lexical approach implies a decreased role for sentence grammar, at least until post-intermediate levels. In contrast, it involves an increased role for word grammar (collocation and cognates) (Lewis, 1993). Also he believes that words either single or groups of words are crucial and they determine grammar “Words carry more meaning than grammar so, in general, words determine grammar” (Lewis, 1993). Eventually it is the appropriate use of words that makes the language product normal and understandable. Thus, associating words together and collocating correct words and chunks is crucial and will be focal point for learners.

Many students and sometimes even native people make mistakes in arranging words or expressions together while producing language especially in speaking. Mis-collocating would be clear for those who are poor in vocabulary and their product would be unnatural while producing. This mis-collocations and lacking vocabulary in general leads to anxiety and discouragement among learners. Learning collocations will help students improve their speaking skills and make it more natural and native-like as McCarthy and O’Dell (2005, p.6) argued “learning collocations is an important part of learning the vocabulary of a language...sometimes, a pair of words may not be absolutely wrong, and people will understand what is meant, but it may not be the natural, normal collocation. If someone says *did a few mistakes* they will be understood, but a fluent speaker of English would probably say *I made a few mistakes*”.

1.3 Significance Of The Study

It is very important for English language teachers to find the most effective methods of teaching in order to pave the way for their students gain more knowledge. Also it is crucial for the learners to utilize the simple and practical ways of learning the target language so that their efforts would not go in vain. This study explores Iraqi students’ knowledge of lexical collocations and its relations to learners’ speaking fluency. In Iraq the focus of teaching English language has been on grammar so far. However, in vocabulary lectures attention is mostly paid to single lexical items, and little focus has been on chunks. The

basic principle of the lexical approach is: “Language is grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar” (Lewis 1993). Put in other words, lexis is essential in creating meaning, while grammar is less important. According to this principle learners should make more effort to develop their lexicon instead of paying much attention to grammar.

According to Lewis (1997, 2000) native speakers have huge numbers of prefabricated sequences of words in their lexicon. For learners it is crucial to attempt to acquire vast numbers of chunks of the target language to help them speak fluently and as natural as native speakers. Linguists and researchers should explore more to find out the most suitable and simplest techniques for learning the target language. Since, no study has been conducted previously to discover the importance of lexical collocations and its relationship with speaking proficiency, this study contributes directly to teachers’ as well as students’ understanding of the nature of lexical collocations in relation to oral proficiency. It provides a broad account on collocations on the one hand, and on the other hand it offers the importance of acquiring those prefabricated chunks in developing their oral proficiency.

1.4 Aim Of The Study

The aim of this study shortly is in two points:

- It is to investigate the importance of teaching collocations to raise fluency in speaking among students of English as a foreign language.
- Raising students’ collocational competence through exposing them to collocational exercises.

Lack of appropriate words or phrases and mis-collocating them has been an affective factor for learners’ mistakes and anxiety in language learning classes. Thus we hypothesize teaching collocations is important which develop students’ vocabulary and as the collocations could be memorized as prefabricated chunks and later retrieved while speaking, it would help learners to improve their speaking skills and making them fluent.

It would be crucial to expose students to as much as collocation exercises. Making them aware of collocations and as Michael Lewis calls them ‘chunks’ would develop their collocational competence.

1.5 Research Question

The following research question is intended to find an answer for:

- Does having knowledge of lexical collocations and mastering them improve learners’ speaking proficiency?

1.6 Definition Of The Key Terms

Collocations

Collocations consist a great part of English vocabulary either lexical or grammatical they are happen to be ‘constrained recurrent co-occurrences’ of two or more lexical items which are combined according to ‘syntactic relations with each other’. (Heid, U. and Gouws, R. H., 2006) .

Lexical collocations

Lexical collocations are differentiated from grammatical collocations by that they ‘do not contain clauses, infinitives, or prepositions’ but, they are combinations of content words: nouns, adjective, verbs, and adverbs. (Fontenelle, 1998)

Oral proficiency

Oral proficiency means to have the skill which makes you able to communicate verbally in a functional and accurate way in the target language. A high degree of oral proficiency indicates having the ‘ability to apply the linguistic knowledge to new contexts (topics) and situations’. (Omaggio, 1986)

Miscollocations

In contrast with well-established collocations, mis-collocations would ‘violate co-occurrence restrictions’. For example a native speaker would say *rancid butter, or the fast train* but not *rotten butter, or the quick train*. Incorrect collocational lexical combinations are not acceptable in academic discourse at

all, and they are considered as a 'major indicator of foreignness'. (Cruise, 1990, and McArthur, 1992,)



2. COLLOCATIONS AND THEIR RELATION TO SPEAKING

2.1 Overview

This chapter gives explanation of collocations in general. The phenomenon of collocations is new and recently has attracted much attention of scholars. So, this chapter sheds light on the origins, several definitions and the notion of collocations in detail. To give a better explanation of collocation, the different types and classifications of collocations (grammatical vs. lexical, upward vs. downward, strong vs. common, open vs. restricted, and academic vs. technical) will be discussed in this chapter with several tables and examples.

Then, two different aspects of phraseology (semantic prosody and colligation) will be discussed due to their closeness to collocations to avoid confusion among learners. Furthermore, because a number of different phraseological units like; free combination, idioms, proverbs and phrasal verbs, which on one hand have similarities with collocations but on the other hand they are basically different from them in form or meaning, so such word phrases will be clarified. Finally, in this chapter, lexical bundles as longest word phrase units take place and will be explained in detail. Their importance in acquiring language and their usage impact on demonstrating naturalness and native-like production of language.

2.2 The Origins Of Collocations

Scholars and linguists started to investigate collocations or meaning of words and multi-word units a long time ago when they realized that the meaning of words may sometime depend on other words and lexical units which they occur with. It is believed that the history of studies on collocations would go back to 2,300 years ago in Greece, “the Greek Stoics related collocations to semantics and used the concept of collocation to study the meaning relationships between words” (Namvar et al. 2012, p.13). Robins stated that Greek scholars believed

that “words do not exist in isolation, and they may differ according to the collocation in which they are used” (Robins, 1976, p.21). Hence, J. R. Firth who was the pioneer in the field of collocations was affected by the Greek scholars and many of his statements were alike to those of Greek scholars as he wrote “words are mutually expectant and mutually comprehended” (Firth, 1957, p.12). However concerning the word ‘collocation’ and its origins, it is believed that the word comes from Latin “the origin of the term collocation is the Latin verb ‘collocare’, which means to set in order/to arrange” (Muller, 2008, p.1). It is clear that collocation or to collocate is putting words or lexical units together and making one meaningful and acceptable lexical unit. Working on collocations long times ago give us an idea about their significant role in learning English language and due to that it had been investigated for such a long period ago.

2.3 Definitions Of Collocations

Collocations and their role in teaching and learning English language has been extensively researched for last two or three decades up to nowadays. Many researches have investigated the relations of collocations and learning English as a second or a foreign language. In the most definitions of collocations by different scholars and linguists what is clear and repeated is “co-occurrence” of the words or patterns.

It is believed that the first scholar who focused on collocations was J. R. Firth; in other words he argued that the meaning of a word depends on the words or lexical units which co-occur with it when he says “you shall know a word by the company it keeps” (Firth, 1957, p.195). It is believed that the word ‘collocation’ was first coined by Firth in defining collocations he stated that “collocations of a given word are statements of the habitual or customary places of that word order but not in other contextual order and emphatically not in any grammatical order. The collocation of a word or a ‘piece’ is not to be regarded as mere juxtaposition, it is an order of mutual expectancy” (ibid, p.181). One good example for the definition is the word *heavy* which collocates with *rain* in (*heavy rain*) it is assumed one of the meanings of *rain* is its collocability with *heavy*. F.R. Palmer, who had been affected greatly by Firth, argued that for Firth

collocation “was merely part of meaning of a word” (Palmer, 1981, p.94). It is clear that the meaning of a word also depends on the context of situations and consequently we can find different meanings of a word by putting it in different linguistic contexts, as an example, by putting the word *Chair* in different contexts the meaning varies according to the context:

- A new table and chairs
- The Chair of Medicine
- He accepted a university chair
- Appointed chairman of the committee
- You must chair the meeting
- Using an electric chair
- Being condemned to the chair

In these contexts we can distinguish four different meanings of the word *chair*.

In relation to fixedness, it is clear that collocations are fixed and prefabricated lexical units (Benson et al. 1986a) stressed on fixedness and non-idiomaticity of collocations. Since collocation is concerned with how words go together, the co-occurrence of which words with which other words determines the meaning “knowing which words go together is an important part of understanding the meaning of a text and translating it well” (Larson, 1998, P.155). So, the co-text of the word affects its meaning in the words around would influence its translations. Furthermore, in arranging our mental lexicon a great part of the words are put in order as collocations “one way we seem to organize our knowledge of words is simply on the basis of collocation or frequently occurring together” (Yule, 2010, P.122), and again this highlights range of fixedness of collocations. Due to the fact that collocations are ‘prefabricated’ units and by going back to Firth’s ‘mutual expectancy of words’ the notion of collocation is when we see one word in a context, then we could expect the other constituent of it around “when we see one, we can make a fairly safe bet that the other is in neighborhood” (Thornbury, 2002, p.7).

Students of EFL/ESL should make an effort to learn collocations due to their important role in learning and improving English vocabulary. Guessing of collocations is probably natural and easy for native speaker, but learners may

face difficulty and sometimes they might make mistakes in using appropriate collocates. In this sense it is important for English learners to identify and learn collocations “these combinations sound natural to native speaker, but students of English have to make special effort to learn them because they are often difficult to guess” (McCarthy and O’Dell 2005, p.6). For Michael Lewis, collocation is “the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency” (Lewis, 1997, p.8). By using certain words, he argued that all words which are put together in a text must not be seen as collocations, while we have various types of word combinations in English. This is to differentiate collocations from the other phraseological units which make up from the co-occurrence of two or more elements together. Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009), which is a good and reliable source of finding and understanding collocations, defines collocations as “the way words combine in a language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing” (p.v) to give an example for such a definition it is clear that in English native speakers normally say ‘strong wind’ but ‘heavy rain’, It would not sound normal to say ‘heavy wind or ‘strong rain’ the latter phrases do not seem natural. This illustrates the level of normalness and naturalness of the English utterances and writings one produces by using proper collocations.

We mentioned several definitions of collocations above, but still there are many other definitions by different linguists or researchers. What, almost all of them, mention or agree on is that the co-occurrence of two or more words constitute collocations and they are, in one way or other, distinguished from other vocabulary units such as idioms, compound nouns, phrasal verbs...etc.

2.4 Collocations’ Patterns

Collocations have been so far patterned in different ways, but here we mention three most frequent patterns in the following three tables which have been adopted from Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009); McCarthy and O’Dell (2005); and Michael Lewis (2000). Oxford Collocations Dictionary has grouped the collocation patterns according to content word entries such as noun entries, verb entries, and adjective entries.

Table 2.1: Collocations' Patterns according to Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009)

| Collocation Patterns | Examples |
|---------------------------|--|
| Adjective + Noun | Bright/ harsh/ intense/ strong <i>light</i> |
| Quantifier + Noun (...of) | A beam/ ray of <i>light</i> |
| Verb + Noun | Cast/ emit/ give/ provide/ shed <i>light</i> |
| Noun + Verb | <i>Light</i> gleams/ glows/ shines |
| Noun + Noun | A <i>light</i> source |
| Preposition + Noun | By the <i>light</i> of the moon |
| Noun + Preposition | The <i>light</i> from the window |
| Verb + Adverb | <i>Choose</i> carefully |
| Verb + Verb | Be free to <i>choose</i> |
| Verb + Preposition | <i>Choose</i> between two things |
| Verb + Adjective | Make/ keep/ declare something <i>safe</i> |
| Adverb + Adjective | Perfectly/ not entirely/ environmentally <i>safe</i> |
| Adjective + Preposition | <i>Safe</i> from attack |

McCarthy and O'Dell asserted that "there are many different types of collocations" (p.12) and that is due to the number of the content words in English language (nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs) and the other five parts of speech (prepositions, conjunctions, articles, pronouns and interjections). In most of the cases the content words combine to create collocations and in few cases prepositions combine with the content words, which is clear in the tables. As they call them 'types', they have classified collocations' patterns on six different patterns:

Table 2.2: Collocations' patterns according to McCarthy and O'Dell (2005)

| Collocation Patterns | Examples |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Adjective + Noun | Bright color, brief chat, major problem |
| Noun + Verb | Economy boomed, companies emerged, created opportunities |
| Noun + Noun | A surge of anger, a sense of pride, a pang of nostalgia |
| Verb + Prepositional Expression | Swelling with pride, filled with horror, burst into tears |
| Verb + Adverb | Pulled steadily, whispered softly, smiled proudly |
| Adverb + Adjective | Happily married, fully aware, blissfully unaware |

We notice in the second row in the (Noun + Verb) pattern, McCarthy and O'Dell gave the examples in two different arrangements either as (noun + verb) economy boomed or (verb + noun) created opportunities. And for the pattern (noun + noun) in the third row, McCarthy and O'Dell believed that "there are a

lot of collocations with the pattern (a....of....)” (p.12) as they gave such examples: a sense of pride, a surge of anger. Concerning the collocations’ patterns according to Michael Lewis, which we find in the following table (1.3), they are almost the same as those of McCarthy and O’Dell:

Table 2.3: Collocations’ patterns according to Michael Lewis (2000)

| Collocation Patterns | Examples |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Adjective + Noun | A difficult decision |
| Verb + Noun | Submit a report |
| Noun + Noun | Radio station |
| Verb + Adverb | Examine thoroughly |
| Adverb + Adjective | Extremely inconvenient |
| Verb + Adjective + noun | Revise the original plan |
| Noun + Verb | The fog closed in |

What is obvious in these three tables is that in the first table (1.1) the patterns are doubled comparing to the other tables (1.2) and (1.3), and there are several patterns which contain preposition in the collocation arrangement. But in the tables (1.2) and (1.3) we do not find much of those patterns containing prepositions. That is related to the differences between grammatical collocations with lexical collocations in which the latter contains content words arranged together to produce the collocation while the former could contain a content word with a function word. Moreover, the patterns by McCarthy and O’Dell and those by Lewis, are almost the same in that they contain content words rather than prepositions and other parts of speech. They patterns are (adjective + noun), (verb + noun), (noun + noun), (verb + adverb), (adverb + adjective) and (noun + verb). But the one different pattern is in McCarthy and O’Dell’s we find (Verb + Prepositional Expression) but in Lewis’ we find (Verb + Adjective + noun) pattern.

2.5 Types Of Collocations

Since collocations attracted the attention of linguists and became the subject of many researches and books, they have been categorized in different types from the perspective of different linguists. Some classified collocations according to their strength while some others classified them according to the arrangement of parts of speech which constitute the collocation, but there are other scholars

who categorized them according to the context they are used in. Here we mention the types of collocations as they appear in the following types:

2.5.1 Grammatical vs. lexical collocations

The first classification of collocation is the one between grammatical and lexical collocation, the focus of this study will be on the latter. The most distinguishing point between grammatical and lexical collocations is that of their make up while “a grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause” (Benson et al. 1986a, p.xix). They described eight major types of grammatical collocations which are included in their dictionary and they have designated by G1, G2, G3, etc as in the following table:

Table 2.4: Grammatical collocations by Benson, et al. (1986a)

| | Grammatical Collocations | Examples |
|----|-----------------------------------|---|
| G1 | Noun + preposition combination | Blockade against, apathy towards |
| G2 | Noun + to infinitive | It was pleasure to do it |
| G3 | Noun + that clause | He took an oath that he would do his duty |
| G4 | Preposition + noun | In agony, at anchor, by accident |
| G5 | Adjective + preposition | Angry at, fond of, deaf to |
| G6 | Predict adjective + to infinitive | It was necessary to work, it was stupid to go |
| G7 | Adjective + that clause | It is necessary that he be replaced immediately, she was afraid that she would fail |
| G8 | Consists of 19 English verbs | Send (dative movement transformation) He sent the book to his brother |

But concerning lexical collocations’ make up and their difference with grammatical collocations is that lexical collocations, in contrast to grammatical collocations, normally do not consist of prepositions, infinitives, or clauses, they consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. So, it is clear that the lexical collocations consist only of content words, while function words are not included in the phrases. Benson et al. (1986a) described seven major types of lexical collocations in their BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, which are designated by L1, L2, L3, etc as it is illustrated in the following table (2.2):

Table 2.5: Lexical collocations by Benson, et al. (1986a)

| | Lexical collocations | Examples |
|----|--|--|
| L1 | Verb + noun | Compose music, fly a kite, launch a missile |
| L2 | Verb (eradication or nullification) + noun | Break a code, revoke a license, crush resistance |
| L3 | Adjective + noun | Reckless abandon, strong tea, crushing defeat |
| L4 | Noun + verb | blizzards rage, blood circulates, bees buzz |
| L5 | Noun + noun | A herd of buffalo, a school of whales, an ac of violence |
| L6 | Adverb + adjective | Hopelessly addicted, sound asleep, keenly aware |
| L7 | Verb + adverb | Apologize humbly, argue heatedly, appreciate sincerely |

2.5.2 Upward vs. downward collocations

Sinclair (1991) mentioned two types of collocations ‘upward’ and ‘downward’ collocations. Sinclair utilized two terms to classify collocations “the term node for the word that is being studied, and the term collocate for any word that occurs in the specified environment of a node” (Sinclair 1991, p.115). And the distinguishing point between the two types is related to the frequency of components of the phrase, thus when (a) is node and (b) is collocate, Sinclair calls it ‘downward’ collocation, ‘collocation of (a) with less frequent word (b)’, e.g. arrive and bring are less frequently occurring collocates of back. But when (b) is node and (a) is collocate, according to Sinclair, it is an ‘upward’ collocation. The word back, for instance, collocates with down/from/into which are more frequent than the word back. The difference between upward and downward collocations, which is ‘systematic’ according to Sinclair, is that “upward collocation, of course, is the weaker pattern in statistical terms, and the words tend to be elements of grammatical frame, or super-ordinates. Downward collocation by contrast gives us a semantic analysis of a word” (ibid, p.116).

2.5.3 Strong vs. common collocations

Categorizing collocations according to strength depends on the combination of words. So the collocation will be counted as a weak collocation when the words that constituted it are used with several more words and making different other collocations, for instance, adjectives such as *good* and *bad* can precede several nouns and be repeated in different collocations. But the collocation is strong

when its components are not used in numerous collocations and when we see one part the other component will be predicted, as an example *rancid butter*.

Jimmie Hill (in Lewis 2000, p.63-64) categorized collocation according to their strength as follow:

- Unique collocations: some collocations are unique and should be distinguished from others as they are fixed. Considering the word foot in foot the bill which is used as a verb in this collocation, but footing the invoice or footing the coffee will not be possible. Likewise, shrug shoulders is accepted but shrugging other parts of our anatomy is not possible. Thus these two collocations are unique.
- Strong collocations: they are a large number of collocations which are strong or very strong but not unique. Examples like: trenchant criticism, ulterior motives, harbour grudges, moved to tears.
- Weak collocations: there are many weak collocations as many things can be useful or useless, acceptable or unacceptable. It will be easy for learners to make new and different combinations such as: blue shirt, red car, white wine, black hair...etc. EFL/ESL learners may be able to use the color in English in the same way in their first language.
- Medium-strength collocation: those collocations are many thousands according to Hill, as they constitute a huge fraction of our production either speaking or writing. The collocations like hold a conversation, make a mistake, which represent a single item of meaning, would lay under these group of collocations. According to Hill, these medium-strength collocations are important and must be paid attention to “it is this area of medium-strength collocations which is of prime importance in expanding learners’ mental lexicon.”(ibid, p.64).

2.5.4 Open vs. restricted collocations

Cowie and Howarth (in Biskri 2012) categorized two forms of collocations which are ‘open’ collocations and ‘restricted’ collocations. Depending on this sorting, constituents of the open collocation can be freely combined with other words “the elements of the collocation are used literally, for the example, *fill the sink*” (Biskri, 2012, p.25). From this aspect open collocations are,

sometimes, called free collocations in which two or more words come together and represent one single meaning unit but there is not any particular relations between them. For the other type which is 'restricted' collocation known as 'fixed collocation' in which one component of it, is not used in its original literal meaning the similarity between both open and restricted collocations is that their elements may be combined with others. Since restricted collocations are fixed, their constituents can not combine freely with other different words, they seem to resemble idioms "its figuratively used elements cannot be combined with other elements such as *jog one's memory*. Each restricted collocation carries potential of an idiom" (ibid, p.25). Also Aisenstadt (in: Brashi, 2005, p.23) making a distinction between some phraseological forms such as free word combinations, restricted collocations and idioms, believed that "restricted collocations are combinations of two or more words used in one of their regular, non-idiomatic meanings.... and restricted in their commutability". Brashi gives the example of word 'face' which possibly collocate with four different nouns: '*the fact, the truth, the problem, and the circumstances*'. So, constituents of restricted collocations are limited in combining with other elements to make a lexical combination.

2.5.5 Technical VS Academic collocations

Technical collocations are distinguished from lexical or grammatical collocations in that the former are used in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) while the latter which are academic could be found in general English and ESP. The importance of collocations in the textual collections has been highlighted as collocations play a crucial role in the description of this specific language usage. The level of technicality in word behavior, according to Fuentes, may differ in accordance to the subject domains "the salient condition is that elements function uniquely in their corresponding field, describing the restricted setting" (Fuentes, 2001, p.118). He exemplifies with a range of specific combinations identified with the noun *network* in '*U-network*', '*access network*', '*local area network*'. Despite technical collocations, there are free collocations which differ considerably in terms of subject matter "are considered semi-technical elements" some handy examples are '*information system, information technology, digital information and information about*'

(ibid, p.111). It is due to this technicality issue that we find different kinds of English dictionaries as: business, medical, legal ...etc, which help learners acquire a specific language use. This clarifies each of these aforementioned fields have their own vocabulary. Consequently Fuentes stated that “technical vocabulary is formed by collocations that introduce specialized knowledge in ESP” (ibid, p.118).

2.6 Collocation Or Colligation

The two terms of collocation and colligation are so close to each other in their spelling and utterance. This similarity may sometimes lead to confusion. While collocation, mentioned previously in the definitions, is the co-occurrence of two or more lexical items together to represent a single semantic unit on the other hand colligation is the co-occurrence of a cluster of words which are syntactically connected. Hoey (in Lewis, 2000, p.234) defined colligation as “the grammatical company a word keeps and the positions it prefers; in other words, a word’s colligations describe what it typically does grammatically”. Hoey’s definition of colligation is close to Firth’s definition of collocation knowing a word by ‘the company it keeps’. As a clarifying example, some employment words like ‘accountant, actor, actress, architect and carpenter’ these all are nouns but they ‘differ grammatically amongst themselves’ or in other words they have ‘different colligations’. Hoey illustrated that the word ‘accountant is much more likely to occur with a classifier (a wages accountant) and actress is more likely to occur in apposition (actress Debra Winger) than any of the other items’ and it is relatively possible to ‘possess an accountant (my accountant) but virtually impossible to possess an actress’ (ibid). Michael Lewis believed that the ‘entire grammar/vocabulary dichotomy’ is invalid and all language ‘lies on a spectrum between what is fixed and what is variable’ as there are different degrees of ‘fixedness’ and there are different degrees of ‘generalization’ that is why he states “colligation generalizes beyond the level of individual collocations, so *a bunch of grapes/bananas/flowers* are three separate collocations, but the last one can be generalized to *a bunch of (flowers)*, and so generate *a bunch of roses/daffodils/(any other kind of flower)*” (Lewis 2000, p.137).

2.7 Collocations And Other Phraseological Combinations

All word combinations made up of two or more words can not be counted as collocations just because they co-occur. Several linguists (Aisentadt 1979; Benson et al. 1986; Carter 1987; Cowie and Howarth 1996) were interested in investigating the differences and role of such word combinations. We have to make a distinction between different phraseological combinations; collocations, free combinations, idioms, proverbs and phrasal verbs. The formation and meaning of each of these combinations must be differentiated in order to avoid confusion among learners and users of such combinations.

2.7.1 Collocations and free combinations

Syntagmatically speaking, when two words co-occur in a sentence they could be counted as free combination when their arrangement is not violating the syntactic and grammatical rules, and the elements of these combinations can easily be replaced. In their '*BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English*' Benson et al, (1986a) stated that free combinations "consist of elements that are joined in accordance with general rules of English syntax and freely allow substitution" (p.xix). Normally a verb can be followed by adverbials (time, place, and manner), thus we will have several possible combinations: *they decided— after dinner, at half past four, in the break, immediately, in the meeting room, on their way, quickly, unenthusiastically, unhesitatingly, with a heavy heart, etc.* What is clear in these instances is that the elements are not fixed in arranging together and they are substitutable. With this substitutability of the elements we can make many more correct and acceptable combinations. Moreover, the meaning of free combinations depends on the literal meaning of their composing elements, thus by removing one element from the whole combination, the meaning can not be inferred from the remaining element.

In dictionaries we may not find free combinations but collocations will be found, and there are numerous dictionaries specified to illustrate collocations (The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations(1986); Collins COBUILD English Words in Use__ A Dictionary of Collocations 1991; The Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (2002); LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations (1997) and yet it is believed that "Collocations should be

included in dictionaries; free combinations, on the other hand, should generally not be included” (ibid, p.xix).

Yet to be mentioned that free combinations are part of what Sinclair (1991) categorized as ‘the open-choice principle’ or what it is called a ‘slot-and-filler’ model.

2.7.2 Collocations, idioms and proverbs

Idioms are usually defined as “complex bits of frozen syntax whose meanings cannot be derived from the meaning of their constituents, that is, whose meanings are more than simply the sum of their individual parts” (Nattinger, 1980, p.337). Thus, when a speaker says: *We gave the guests a red carpet*, she/he does not mean that they let their guests walk on a red carpet rather they have given them a warm welcome. In the same way when we say: *It rains cats and dogs*, that does not mean cats and dogs are falling from the sky, rather it rains heavily. In contrast to idioms, collocations’ meaning is inferred from the meaning of their component elements and that is as Bahns (1993) stated “the main characteristics of collocations” (p.57). In this sense the meaning of *commit murder* is derived completely from the meaning of the composing elements.

Jimmie Hill (in Lewis, 2000) on the relations between collocations, idioms and phrasal verbs, stated that “in one sense all collocation is idiomatic and all idioms and phrasal verbs are collocations --- predictable combinations of different kinds” (p.50). According to Hill, the fixed expressions vary from ‘totally fixed’ (*An apple a day keeps the doctor away*) through ‘semi-fixed’ (*What I’m saying/suggesting/proposing is...*) to ‘fairly loose’ (*go on holiday*) expressions. According to him, an idiom is an expression which is relatively fixed and allows little or no change. Although some collocations are less fixed and their elements can be substituted, yet some collocations permit very limited choice and the variability of their elements is restricted. In the case of very strong collocations, where it is hard to expect any other use of one of the partner-words, are kinds of idiom: *We had a blazing row/argument*. Furthermore, regardless of some similarities between the two but yet the focus of idioms is different from the one of collocations “idioms focus mainly on the

meaning of the whole, while collocation is concerned with combinations of words which do or do not occur” (Lewis, 2000, p.132).

Knowing and using a good range of idioms as pre-constructed phrases help in raising fluency among learners, thus learners make effort to learn them “using idioms correctly is one of the things that sets apart fluent speakers of a language, and, realizing this, students are often keen to learn them” (Schmitt, 2000, p.100). Since the meaning of the idioms is not derived from the meaning of their constituents, therefore they represent one single unit of vocabulary. Due to the importance of the role of idioms in learning and producing English language as native and natural like, there are several dictionaries in English dedicated to idioms (Oxford Learner’s Dictionary of English Idioms (1994); Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms (1995). With the wide usage of idioms Moon (1997) asserted that “certain kinds of genres seem to have a strong preference for idioms, such as journalism and informal conversation”.

Moreover it should be mentioned that idioms permit some variability “grammatical variability, for example, of the verb tense” (Benson et al. 1986b, p.252-253) it is normal to say: *he’ll break (or: he broke) the ice*, or “the variability might be lexical” (ibid) for instance: *to add fuel to (or: fan) the fire (or: flames)*.

Finally proverbs are also frozen expressions but they differ from ordinary idioms in several ways. Their meaning can be “literal or nearly literal”. However, the crucial difference is that they “convey folk wisdom or an alleged general truth” e.g. *a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush, he who hesitates is lost*. Accordingly, proverbs are “usually complete sentences; idioms often represent parts of sentences” and lastly, proverbs are usually “more frozen than idioms” (Benson et al. 1986b, p.253).

2.7.3 Collocations and phrasal verbs

Since we are concerned with the co-occurrence of words, we must not forget phrasal verbs and their relations to collocations. Phrasal verbs are broadly used in daily usage of English language especially in spoken field. It is clear that phrasal verbs are phrases that contain a verb plus one or more particles: *make up a story, put the light out*. Moon (1997) stated that “phrasal verbs are usually

made up of a mono-syllabic verb (e.g., go, come, take, put, get) and an adverbial or prepositional particle (e.g., up, out, off, in, on, down)” (p. 99). Concerning the meaning of phrasal verbs Hill (in Lewis, 2000) and (Gairns and Redman, 1988) agreed that their meaning may or may not be understandable from the meaning of their constituents, a phrase such as ‘sit down’ can be understood clearly from the meaning of its elements, but a phrase like ‘take in’ may possibly mean to ‘deceive/cheat somebody’ while other phrases like ‘pick up’ can have several meanings like ‘lift, acquire, collect, etc’. It is the last category which generates most “difficulty and contributes to the mystique which surrounds multi-word verbs for many foreign learners” (Gairn and Redman, 1988, p.33) the meaning of such phrases can rarely be guessed from their individual elements. Yet phrasal verbs have to be distinguished from ‘prepositional verbs’ as phrasal verbs are ‘separable’:

e.g. take off your hat take it off
take your hat off (but not ‘take off it’)

But on the contrary, prepositional verbs ‘are not separable’:

e.g. look after the children
look after them (but not ‘look the children after’ or ‘look them after’) (ibid, p.34).

Using phrasal verbs and other phraseological units help in producing natural and native-like utterances, thus it might be a clear distinction between native and non-native speakers “learners often rely on single-word equivalents (confuse) even though a native speaker might use phrasal verb in its place (mix up)” (Dagut & Laufer, 1985, p.76). So, it is normal to see that non-natives avoid using too much phrasal verbs, while preferring counterpart single units which seem easier for them. (Siyanova and Schmitt, 2007, p.74) discussed the usage of multi-word verbs versus single-word verbs and stated that English learners often have problems with multi-word verbs but natives prefer using them.

2.8 Lexical Bundles:

Lexical bundles occupy a remarkable space amongst what Schmitt (2004) calls them ‘Formulaic Sequences’. According to Biber and Barbieri (2007) the term

'lexical bundles' first used in the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan, 1999). In chapter 13 of the book lexical bundles are defined as "recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity, and regardless of their structural status. That is, lexical bundles are simply sequences of word forms that commonly go together in natural discourse" (p.990). In addition, lexical bundles co-occur in longer sequences than other 'formulaic sequences' that is they consist of more elements than the other sequences:

| | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Do you want me to</i> | <i>going to be a</i> |
| <i>I said to him</i> | <i>I don't know what</i> |

Concerning their relations to collocations, lexical bundles can be regarded as extended collocation; they are a bunch of words that show a statistical tendency to co-occur. They are stored in the mental lexicon and at the same time retrieved as chunks, and the process is the same for collocations. The obvious difference is that collocations mostly consist of two or three words maximum, but lexical bundles consist of three or more than three words e.g. *they're not going to believe this*.

The importance of differentiating between idioms and lexical bundles was emphasized. As idioms are fixed and their meaning is not comprehensible from their elements, lexical bundles on the contrary, are not fixed expressions, and it is not feasible to replace a sequence by a single item. On the other hand lexical bundles are much more widespread than idioms. Biber et al, (1999) exemplified that sequences like: (*in the case of the, there was no significant, it should be noted that*) occur at least 20 times per million words, while idioms like 'kick the bucket' or 'slap in the face' occur less than five per million words.

Furthermore, lexical bundles are usually not complete sentences and their meaning is not idiomatic and inferred from the meaning of their elements but they "serve important discourse functions in both spoken and written texts" (Biber and Barbieri, 2007, p.264) e.g. *I don't know if, I just wanted to*. Yet to be mentioned the patterns of lexical bundles changes according to the genre usage "most bundles in conversation are clausal, whereas in academic prose they are mainly phrasal" (Hernandez, 2013, p.188).

Still due to their widespread occurrence and their role, it is emphasized that English learners should have knowledge about them. Also, the usage of these sequences have a clear impact in attaining native-like language “for language learners, the knowledge and use of a wide range of formulaic language helps them to achieve naturalness in language use” (Allen, 2010, p.106), and their important role had been highlighted in showing the difference between fluent and non-fluent language users “their very ‘naturalness’ signaling competent participation in a given community. Conversely, the absence of such clusters might reveal the lack of fluency of a novice or newcomer to that community” (Hyland, 2008, p.8).

Finally, Biber et al. (1999) grouped lexical bundles in academic prose into categories according to their structural correlates as in the following table:

Table 2.6: Structural Classification of lexical bundles in academic prose

| Structure | Examples |
|---|---|
| Noun phrase with of-phrase fragment | The centre of the, the start of the, the aim of this study |
| Noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment | The extent to which, the same way as, the way in which the |
| Prepositional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment | For the purpose of, as a result of the, from the point of view of |
| Other prepositional phrase fragment | On the grounds that, in the same way as, in such a way as to |
| Anticipatory it + verb phrase/adjective phrase | It is not surprising, it can be seen that , it should be noted that the |
| Passive verb + prepositional phrase fragment | Is based on the, can be seen as, is to be found in |
| Copula be + noun phrase/adjective phrase | Is the same as, is equal to the, may or may not be |
| Verb phrase + that-clause fragment | Has been suggested that, that it is not, should be noted that the |
| Verb/adjective + to-clause fragment | May be able to, to ensure that the, has been shown to be |
| Adverbial clause fragment | As shown in figure, as we have seen, as we shall see |
| Pronoun/noun phrase + be (+ ...) | There are a number, aim of this study was, this is not to say that |
| Other expressions | As well as the, than that of the, the presence or absence+ |

2.9 Lexical Collocations

In order to have a thorough understanding of a word, it is necessary to understand how that word relates to other elements of vocabulary and how it combines with other words. Having real mastery of language requires one to know which words collocate with which words. Lexical collocations are those that do not contain infinitives, prepositions or clauses. They are made up of adjectives, verbs, nouns and adverbs. Although the term ‘collocation’ is used in various ways by different authors, the two main concepts are the phraseological approach and the frequency-based approach. The frequency-based approach shows that collocation is the co-occurrence of word at a higher frequency than expected if words were arbitrarily combined in a language. Some of the representatives of this approach are Halliday, Sinclair, and Firth. On the other hand, the phraseological approach shows that collocations are relations of two or more lexemes that are identified by their occurrence in a particular range of grammatical constructions. Chodkiewicz (2000) classified lexical organization as the following figure and categorized collocations under the syntagmatic relations: (adopted from Arabski, J and Wojtaszek, A, 2010, p. 127)

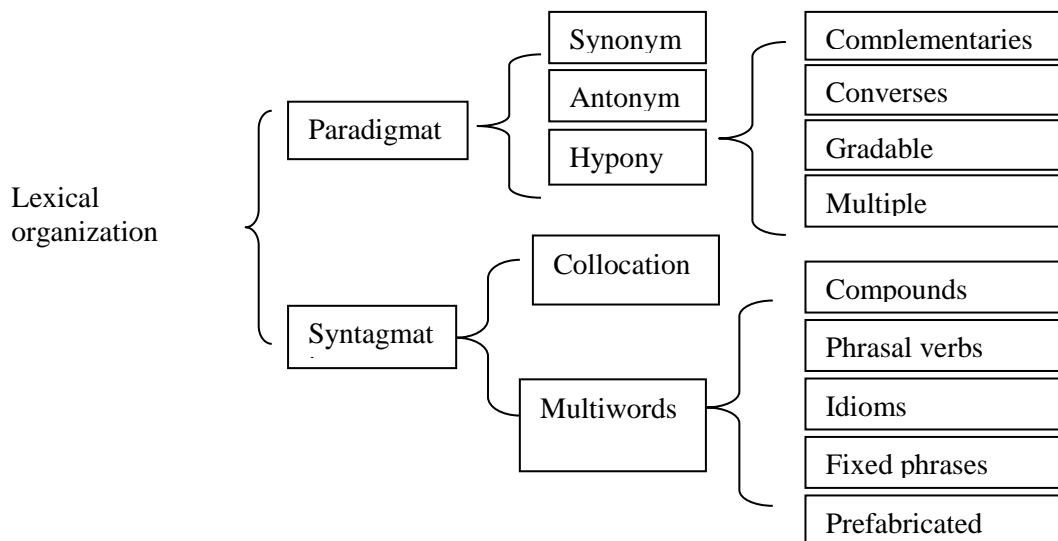


Figure 2.1:Types of Lexical Organization

According to Carter, lexemes are the basic or primary contrasting units of vocabulary found in a language. For instance, when searching for words such as brought or bringing, we can find them by looking up the lexeme ‘bring’ (Carter,

1987, p.47). Other authors such as Lewis argued that the lexical approach is based on the opinion that language is made up of significant chunks that are combined to produce coherent text. These bits are what Lewis believes form the data which learners use to perceive and from patterns and other linguistic features (Lewis, 2008, p.39). Gairns and Redman (1986) proposed four different patterns of lexical collocations which are believed to be the most frequent types as are shown in the following table:

Table 2.7: Lexical collocations' patterns according to Gairns & Redman (1986, p.37)

| Collocation Patterns | Examples |
|---|---------------------|
| Subject noun + verb | The lion roared |
| Verb + object noun | She bites her nails |
| Adjective + noun | Heavy traffic |
| Adverb + past participle used adjectively | Badly dressed |

However, despite the numerous studies that have been done in grammar, collocation, and lexis, there is still a lot to be done in trying to understand the relationship between teaching collocation and how it affects EFL learners' speaking proficiency.

2.10 Effect of Lexical Collocations on Speaking Proficiency

The most efficient way of analyzing the effect of lexical collocations on EFL learners is through error analysis considering the approach is widely used in various teaching methods. Many EFL learners have enough access to lexical knowledge. However, it is difficult for them to use collocations correctly. English speakers say 'make a mistake' which is a correct collocation. However, Iranians who are an example of EFL learners think in their native language and say 'do a mistake' which is incorrect in the English language. Several factors hinder EFL students from making correct collocations. They include:

Transfers

Transfer refers to the influence that occurs as a result of the similarities and differences between an individual's first language and the acquired or learned language. In this case the learners use knowledge of their mother tongue (L1) and apply the same to the second language (L2). There can be either positive or

negative transfer. Positive transfer occurs when an L1 structure is used in an L2 utterance resulting in an almost correct collocation in L2. On the other hand, a negative transfer occurs when an L1 structure is used in an L2 utterance resulting in an incorrect collocation.

Interlingual transfer

This is in refers the negative influence that EFL learners experience due to their mother tongue. The patterns of the learners' native language prevent them from acquiring the patterns of the second language (Krashen, 1981. P.117). For instance, Iranians in their L1 structure 'be' must apply with 'agree' so they say 'I am agree' which is unacceptable in the English language. The interlingual transfer makes EFL learners to think in their mother tongue then transfer the same to the second language resulting in non-target-like sentence structures.

Intralingual transfers

This is the complete vice versa of interlingual transfer since it involves the negative transfer of items within the target language. It is the incorrect summarization of rules within the target language. This type of transfer also relates to errors because of the language being learned which is independent of the native language.

Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is a type of intralingual transfer which occurs when EFL learners create a deviant construction based on other structures in the target language. The learners take a rule that they have learned before and generalize it then use it in a different structure making it wrong. For example, in a sentence like "she sings," EFL learners know of the rule that "s" is added to a verb to form the third person singular. However, they take this rule and summarize it for other structures saying something like "she can drives" which is grammatically wrong in English.

The acquisition of transferability of collocation patterns from the first language to the second one shows a cross-linguistic effect in interlanguage. Its importance as a component of second language acquisition has over years been analyzed in various ways. Interlanguage speakers use transfer in communication using the second language both in reception and production. Transfer in

production refers to the process of activating the mother tongue to achieve a communicative objective. In this process, learners rely on the patterns used in the first language to interpret any incoming utterances.

Kellerman shows that there is plenty of evidence supporting the theory that L1 has a lot of influence on the L2 for learning lexis in the second language (Kellerman, 1983, p.115). Acquisition of lexis is normally facilitated if both L1 and L2 languages are related. In some cases, the transfer still results in correct collocations. However, EFL learners presume that a one-to-one correspondence between the first and second language does not exist. Due to these problems that arise due to collections, it is necessary for appropriate teaching techniques to be applied in teaching collocations so that learners can speak proficiently.

2.11 Teaching Methods For Collocations

Considering there are different forms of collocations, teaching methods also vary. Some methods and learning activities are more suitable for teaching specific types of collocations than others.

Deliberate learning of new collocations:

Channel was one of the few authors to advocate for the teaching of collocations (Channel, 1981, P 120.). She saw that EFL learners could not realize the full potential of known words since they only used them in a few collocations that they felt certain of. She saw the need to expose these learners to a wide variety of collocations when they use a word acquired for the first time for it to prevail over the limited use of collocations. For perfect collocation, collocation grids could be used such as the one below (Channel, 1981, P.120).

| | Handsome | Pretty | Charming | Lovely |
|-----------|----------|--------|----------|--------|
| Woman | | + | + | + |
| Child | | + | + | + |
| Dog | | + | | + |
| Bird | | + | | + |
| Flower | | + | | + |
| Weather | | | | + |
| Landscape | | + | | + |
| View | | + | | + |
| Furniture | + | + | | + |
| Bed | | + | | + |
| Dress | | + | + | + |
| Voice | | | + | |

The grid is used to make a representation of many verb + noun and adjective + noun combinations. However, some critics question the effectiveness of grids since they only provide information on the forms of collocations and do not include their usage. They feel that complete knowledge of all usage aspects such as semantics, prosody and pragmatics can be learned best through typical contexts. It is, therefore, important for teachers to understand how they can use grids to help learners and know their limitations so that they can use them efficiently in conjunction with other methods or teaching activities.

Dictionaries

Another tool that can be employed as a source of data is the collocation dictionary. Although this tool is more efficient for the more advanced learners, it can be used as an independent learning strategy for students to improve their collocation knowledge. For example, if a learner has difficulty understanding the phrase “she has made a fool of you,” he/she can use the dictionary to look up the word ‘fool’ where he will find various phrases relating to that word and

their meanings. Through this knowledge, EFL learners can better understand different expressions hence providing them with the limitations for usage. Since this method is done by the student independently, the role of the teacher is to guide the learners on how to record the information they get.

Corpus and Concordances

Fox insists on the need to use spoken language when deciding which collocations to teach. He says that the over ten million words present in the British National Corpus (BNC) spoken section contain one of the most frequent patterns of spoken collocations. However, due to the changes that occur in language over time, there may arise the need to keep the list updated continually. In addition, Fox believes that teachers should teach collocations based on frequency to help them concentrate on the common and most important words (Fox, 1998, p.119). Koosha and Jafarpour explain concordance as the method of analyzing language through the study of lexical patterns and constructions found in the database (Koosha, 2006, P. 204). This strategy is one that could help EFL learners recognize collocations in various contexts together with how they are used by native speakers of the target language.

Collocations in texts

In this category, documents found in magazines or newspapers can be a reliable source of collocations for teachers to use. They can use sentences from articles and analyze the structure while highlighting any collocations they come across with the learners. They can also highlight adjectives in the sentences then the EFL students can find and create other possible collocations. This method will help students understand and grasp many collocations since they will be researching them on their own and even be discussing them among themselves before passing their results back to the teachers.

Input enhancement and learning collocations

Visual data enhancement has over the years proven to be an effective way of drawing the attention of the audience in any setting. Visual data enhancement can also be used to catch the learners' attention to the formal aspects of language (Khanchobani, 2012, P.96). It is an implied means to help develop the perceptual salience of the target types through typographical methods such as

underlining, highlighting, bolding and italicizing. Through input enhancement, the learners' attention is maintained through graphical features while still maintaining the importance of the message. This technique is useful mainly in the acquisition of grammatical collocations.

Output tasks and learning collocations

Whatever EFL learners have learned is what is referred to as output or the outcome of the process of language acquisition. This element has come to be proven to be a very critical factor in improving L2 learning. In the course of acquiring the target language, EFL learners get a chance to process information at a high level which may be required for increasing accuracy and proficiency. Even as EFL learners try to acquire the target language sufficiently, they may realize that they cannot write or say the meaning which they want to transfer. Therefore, using this technique helps learners understand and accept their linguistic difficulties and try to find solutions. Teachers can use the different methods and learning activities to help EFL learners better understand and use the target language despite the difficulties they may experience along the way.

2.12 Improving Speaking Skills

Speaking skills have become increasingly important especially in the EFL setting considering the positioning of English as a global language used for communication. Therefore, one of the major issues for EFL students is developing effective speaking skills. Despite the difficulties they experience, they still need to be fluent in their speaking of the English Language. Fluent speaking of the English language is a requirement for almost every part of life starting from exams in school and the job field. As far as speaking fluently is concerned, it is an element that is at the heart of L2 learning and among the productive skills. It is only through developed speaking skills that students can be able to adequately express themselves and master the social and cultural role of communication in different settings.

2.13 Elements Of Speaking Skills

Various elements have been put forward as necessary if one is to speak accurately and fluently. These factors include the language features that learners should have at their fingertips as well as the processes of the language and information when they interact with an interlocutor.

Language Features:

Some of the language features that are necessary for fluent speaking include:

- Expressive devices

English native speakers know how to alternate the volume, stress, pitch, and speech using non-verbal means which enables them to convey the exact intended meaning hence making them efficient speakers and communicators. However, this is different for EFL learners because they may use certain words with the wrong expressions hence giving them an entirely different meaning from the one intended.

- Connected Speech

A fluent English speaker should be able to produce more than distinct phonemes. They should be able to use and create related sounds for their speech to be fluent. A connected speech has the sounds either modified, added or weakened. They can be altered through assimilation, added through linking or weakened through contractions.

- Negotiation language

This type of language is important particularly for learners who request for clarification when they are listening to another person. Students also benefit from this when teachers are providing them with phrases that they can use to improve their speech. The speakers, therefore, use the negotiation language to elaborate on the structure of their discourse especially when they notice that other interlocutors cannot understand them.

- Lexis and grammar

Students typically use the same lexical structures when they produce various language functions. Therefore, the teacher should provide the students with

phrases that have different roles to make students competent at various interaction stages such as when they are agreeing, disagreeing or are surprised.

Social/Mental Processing:

- Interacting with others

Interaction during speech involves speaking fluently while also taking into account listening and understanding the other parties' talk. After taking the time to listen, one can now react by taking turns to talk. The art of oral interaction is one which has been around for a very long time. However, the way native speakers interact is very different from how learners interact.

- Language processing

Processing language refers to the speakers' ability to process the language in their minds by putting it in a coherent order hence making it easy for interlocutors to understand it. It can also be described as the ability of retrieving words from the speakers' mind so that they can be used appropriately to deliver the intended message.

- Information Processing

Speakers need to be able to process information rapidly so that they can respond to others when they talk because an immediate response is necessary for communication to flow continuously. Therefore, to improve oral communication, it is necessary for speakers to acquire knowledge of language features and the ability to process language on the spot.

2.14 Characteristics Of Speaking Performance

Many researchers in language describe speaking ability as the level in which one knows a language. Fluency is defined as the ability to effectively communicate with others other than just the capacity to read and write. Fluency, as well as accuracy, is a concept which is used in teaching speaking skills. Therefore, learners need to master fluency and precision.

Fluency

Among all four skills of language (speaking, writing, listening and reading) either receptive or productive, speaking is the most important one. Since knowing a language is remarked greatly by what is called oral proficiency, and those who can manage a language very well are called fluent people. Therefore, speaking fluency is the basic marker of knowing, and using a language.

Hughes defines fluency as “the ability to express oneself in a reasonable, intelligible and accurate manner without hesitation. Otherwise, communication will break because the listeners will lose interest” (Hughes, 2002, P.14). This definition shows just how much fluency and accuracy relate closely. Many EFL learners make the mistake of associating fluency with the ability to speak fast hence they talk without pauses. However, the aspect of fluency is reflected by two main components: regularity and speed of delivery which means a natural amount of well-distributed pauses is necessary (Bygate, 2009, P.412)

Accuracy

Accuracy is defined as the ability to produce sentences that are grammatically correct. Use of controlled accuracy-focused activities for English learners can help them use the language even though they may not be ready yet to use it by themselves. Through this, they can gradually transfer that passive knowledge into their actual daily use. It is important for learners to be notified when they are performing activities that are accuracy based so that the activity does not miss its aim. Students may mistakenly take the accuracy activities to be fluency practice which will not help in developing their language skills. In teaching of speaking skills, it is important that learners focus on things such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation

- Grammar

Grammar refers to the system of language that the principles of that same language are organized. Some of the principles in the English language use that for a sentence to be grammatically correct, it needs to have a subject and a verb followed by an object, adverbial or complement. However, the grammar of speech is organized differently from that of writing. For example, the following features are for spoken grammar:

- Interjections (oh, wow)
- Frequent non-clausal units (huh, yeah, Mmmm)
- Hesitators (mm, umm)
- Direct speech favored
- Condensed questions (Any luck?)

Accuracy in grammar helps in adding meanings that cannot be easily inferred from the context. Through grammar, learners can be able to describe the world regarding how, when and where things happen. It also helps with interaction with people and ensures that speakers' deliver their intended meaning.

- Vocabulary

Accurate vocabulary is triggered by selecting perfect words that have correct definitions. Sometimes learners try to express what they want to say and end up using inappropriate vocabulary. Sometimes they also use words incorrectly such as synonyms which carry different meanings in various contexts. The knowledge of classes of words also helps speakers form utterances accurately. Therefore, teachers should assist learners by giving them practical information and vocabulary. Learners will be able to produce grammatically correct and well-connected sentences that are appropriate for the given contexts.

- Pronunciation

Pronunciation teaching can improve students' speaking immeasurably. Students can acquire proper pronunciation depending on their attitude towards how they speak and how they hear. At the production stage, students are advised to focus on word and phrase/sentence stress and intonation to identify the various patterns for rising and falling tones. Good speaking requires a lot of effort and active speaking practice. Learners should prepare their talks, rehearse, practice on how to control body language, nerves, voice and even speed during their speech.

2.15 The Importance Of Speaking

Speaking is given more importance because of its role in oral communication which involves speech and learners are expected to be able to interact verbally

with others. Traditionally, more emphasis was put on reading and writing while speaking was largely ignored and was not even tested due to the difficulty in evaluating the skill. However, people have come to realize the importance of speaking skills. For instance, speaking helps students develop their grammar and vocabulary which will in turn help learners express their opinions, feelings or ideas clearly and confidently even in front of large audiences.

2.16 Speaking Skill Activities

The primary objective of teaching speaking skills is to enable learners to be able to present their thoughts as well as they are in their minds to produce the intended meaning and effect. Therefore, speaking can help reduce different psychological barriers when interacting with others. Speaking skills can only be developed effectively through practicing various speaking activities such as the following

- Information gap activity

Information gap activity is a type of speaking activity where two speakers have segments of information which when connected create a whole image. This activity requires the students' ability to fill existing gaps so that they can be able to identify any parts of information that may be missing.

- Discussions

In this activity, students get the skills that help them with critical thinking and decision making. Students also learn how to disagree with others when communicating without being rude. Through discussions, learners get the opportunity to share their views with others while training on their speaking fluency. In the discussion groups, learners get to discuss their thoughts then later receive feedback on their discussion from the teachers. At this stage, teachers should look at the errors made by students and elaborate on them. In order to be more productive, the teachers can also pre-teach important language tips such as communication strategies and pragmatics. This type of activity helps create a real-life setting of communication where students get to use their speaking abilities and develop new ones.

- Role Play

Here, the teacher divides students into various groups and two students are selected from each cluster and given different roles. The rest of the students sit and watch the performance and also listen to their dialect which they will later use to provide feedback. The idea of receiving feedback from fellow learners helps the students to remain confident and are motivated to improve. Role play helps the learners know that they can utilize language to say whatever they want and teaches them to adapt their speaking to the situation at hand.

- Interviews

Interviews can be an excellent activity to improve speaking efficiency especially if learners are engaged in interactions that interest them. A set of questions can be provided from which learners can choose issues to interview each other in pairs or groups. Although interviews may seem easy, finding issues that are stimulating is quite difficult. Teachers may want to motivate learners to find questions that encourage follow up and encourage further discussion instead of the one-answer questions.

- Games

Teachers can design forms of communication games to help support learners and involve them in verbal communication. Activities in this segment include tasks like ‘describe and arrange’ where one student describes a structure orally and the other one constructs it without looking at the original one. Such activities help learners use language effectively orally so that their partners can get the clear meaning of what they intend to say and do the same thing.

- Prepared talk

Prepared is one of the most common methods used to improve speaking in EFL learners. In this activity, learners are tasked with the duty to make presentations on their topics without learning it by heart. When presenting it, they have to speak freely using their notes without reading directly. The talks improve their speaking skills especially those considered during speech delivery or public speaking.

2.17 Mistakes And Correction

The role of self correction is very important in improving students' skills. Encouraging students to correct their mistakes helps them gain confidence and try to deliver their messages and speak freely. Such freedom of speaking and expressing paves the way for better communication and step by step, their speaking will improve. Teachers should not react directly to the mistakes of learners, since it is not teachers' job to correct all non-standard English which learners produce. But it is students' job to help them improve their English and with the teachers' encouragement students attempt to find and use the correct form "the importance of mistakes is that they should often be ignored. Students need the experience of being listened to as people with things to say" (Edge, 1989, p.20). Instead of punishing or criticizing learners for their mistakes, it is better to remind them the correct form of the Standard English. While correcting learner's mistakes the best way is the teacher gives them the opportunity to correct their mistakes by themselves. With self-correction, on the one hand learners gain more confidence in themselves and on the other hand, they memorize the right form in their heads. Keeping the right form in their memory, would eventually help them in retrieving the forms easily.

Mistakes should not be ignored completely, but when mistakes are done in class teachers should make learners pay more attention, and realize that a mistake has been done. If the learners kept repeating the same mistake and could not correct it by themselves, then teachers can resort to peer-correction. When a learner makes a mistake, the teacher can give the chance to another learner to correct his/her colleague's mistake. Using this peer-correction model makes two or more learners engage in learning, and eventually it encourages learners to become less dependent on teachers in learning. But in some cultures learners may find peer-correction as criticizing, then, it will be the teacher's responsibility to make the learners aware of such model, and explain the advantages of using such a model. It is very important that a teacher keep his/her learners trying to produce the right form by themselves instead of giving them the correction.

2.18 Use Of Mother Tongue To Teach Speaking Skills

Linguists have always been investigating new issues of learning the second language in order to find solutions and propose the most affective methods of learning it. The interference of L1 in L2 learning is another concern of linguists. It may lead to error in learning the language “the first language, it is maintained, is but one of several sources of error” (Krashen, 1981 p. 64). This phenomenon is so spread and normal in language learning classes and it varies from class to class and from level to another level of learning. It has been proved that use of the learners’ mother tongue can play a significant part in influencing the learners’ acquisition of the target language. Various authors admit that it's hard to know when to use or not use mother tongue. However, one thing they all agree on is that using the first language to give brief examples and illustrations of grammar and lexical collocations can facilitate fast and easy learning of language among learners.

In multi-ethnic communities the problem is that the language teacher may find more than one L1 in the classroom and S/he may not be able to speak or master all the L1 of the learners in the class. As it is the case in Iraq in which different ethnics (Kurds, Arabs, Turkmen, Assyrians ...etc) with different mother tongues attend a college together. Poor acquisition paves the way for the first language interference “first language influence seems to be strongest in ‘acquisition poor’ environments” (ibid, p.66). This demonstrates that the L1 interference is lesser among children while it is more effective among adult learners.

2.19 Impact Of English Language On Acquisition Of Lexical Collocations

Fluent use of a native language is taken to involve the frequent use of collocations which means the native speakers have access to tons of words. Since they have knowledge of grammar features and vocabulary, they can use it to produce and gain an understanding of very many words even those they have never heard of before. However, one mistake native speakers do is putting many combined words together in various ways just to satisfy their communicative

needs. When words are used together in a chunk, they gain the ability to predict each other's occurrence (Namvar, 2012, P.12).

Firth described language in both situational and linguistic context saying “you will know a word by the company it keeps” (Firth, 1957 p.195). This statement showed that whenever we find one collocating word, we should expect to find the other. Having knowledge of vocabulary is not just about the meanings of various words that are isolated but is also about knowing other words that tend to occur with it. The English language is full of collocations and combinations of words that occur together. For instance, we say we are going somewhere ‘by train’ or ‘on foot’ and that is how it is. Those words cannot be changed because they appear together.

Automation of collocations has proved to help native speakers express themselves more fluently since the collocating words are already there for use. However, it is not the same for EFL learners because they lack this automation hence end up making the wrong combination of words when speaking. In order for EFL students to reach the native-like fluency, they need to understand that their ability to understand lexical collocations is an important part in enhancing their speaking proficiency.

It is quite clear that EFL learners have severe difficulty with collocations. Lack of knowledge makes speaking fluently very challenging because the knowledge of collocations is crucial in the production of language. This experience enables learners to come across as natives, make natural choices and also process language accurately and fluently in real-time situations. Basic grammar knowledge and a broad range of vocabulary are not sufficient for learners to fluently communicate. They must learn the collocations by exposing themselves to the English language and using it as often as possible. After using the language for a while, they will be able to identify which words collocate with which and use them accurately in their communication.

2.20 Lexical Collocations In Translation

Collocations create serious complications when it comes to interpretation. For instance, taking the words ‘heavy smoker’ and translating the word ‘heavy’ into

German, Arabic or French would produce something wrong with an entirely different meaning. Languages differ in the way they express concepts in collocations. The word 'heavy' in French will be 'large' while in Arabic and German it would be 'strong'. These three words all produce very different meanings, and only the first one collocates with 'smoker.'

Translators are required to have a vast knowledge of the target and source languages as well as their cultures. It is also important for translators to have an understanding of the norms and strategies used in translation that enable them to reproduce the accurate imagery and style intended by the original producer. Shakir and Farghal (Shakir, 1991, P.4) maintain that translators should build their memory of collocations which can be used anytime when it is needed during the translation process. It is known that it is almost impossible to produce the exact equivalence in translation considering that different languages have different origins. This means their lexical and grammatical systems also vary hence there will always be a loss of meaning in translation. However, translators should try their best to reduce translation loss to an acceptable minimum by knowing the valuable features that cannot be ignored and those that can be left out.

2.21 Miscollations And Its Causes

Most cases of miscollations are as a result of lack of comprehension of the collocation concepts and also interlingual transfer. The following is a summary of the primary causes of miscollation.

- Lack of collocation concepts

Most learners only understand the underlying meanings of words but cannot determine which words they would match. This means that these learners lack basic collocation concepts hence cannot produce proper collocations.

- Lack of knowledge of collocation properties

Many students do not know the collocation features which explains why they would mismatch words in their utterances. For example, many are familiar with collocations such as 'good boy.' However, when faced with other words, they mismatch collocations and end up saying things like 'good knowledge' which is

obviously wrong. If they understand the collocation properties, the students can use the features to figure out which words go with which ones.

- Ignorance of rule restrictions

Other students fail to take grammar into consideration during collocation. They do not understand that some collocation restrictions are based entirely on the meanings and range of the words. As a result, they end up producing grammatically wrong collocations.

- Direct translation

Translation is a big problem for learners because they try to derive collocations by translating those in their language to English. They do not realize that different languages have different rules and concepts and what may be correct in their mother tongue may be totally wrong in English.

2.22 Raising Awareness On Collocations

Collocations are unpredictable and arbitrary which makes it difficult for the non-native speaker to catch up with them quickly. It is necessary that teachers make an effort to increase awareness of the collocations among EFL learners because they are not only useful for comprehending the English language but also for producing it. Memorization of collocation groups can help learners increase their basic knowledge. Students will not need to start reconstructing the language whenever they have something to say. Instead, they will use the collocations which are like pre-packaged chunks of words.

The frequent teaching of collocations to students helps them make more use of collocations accurately. Recently, collocations are emerging as a critical component of lexical patterning hence making it a widely established unit in the teaching materials and courses. The following are arguments that show the importance of creating awareness on collocations among learners.

- Knowledge of language requires knowledge of collocations

Collocations are found everywhere hence shows the strong patterning that is found in language and using a word-by-word approach cannot sufficiently account for meanings in texts or speech. Knowledge of language depends on the

comprehension of collocations because they are the basis of learning and using the English language (Nation, 2001, P. 321).

- Fluent use of language requires collocational knowledge

Another reason for creating awareness on collocations is that it leads to the fluent and accurate use of language. Especially for the case of oral communication, memorization of sequences of words, sentences or phrases form a large part of the stretches heard in speeches on a daily basis.

- Language acquisition requires collocation knowledge

Language is acquired easily and much faster when learned in sets of phrases which makes collocations an effective way to use to enhance language acquisition. Learners have an easier time mastering a new language when they learn it using phrases or prefabricated routines since these phrases have been proved to be more efficient than creatively generated language. Creating awareness on collocations can help learners achieve that native-like fluency in their speech such that they can be able to communicate clearly and confidently.

2.23 Related Empirical Research

At the beginning of last decade of twentieth century exactly in 1993 Michael Lewis published his (Lexical Approach) and later in 1997 he published (Implementing The Lexical Approach; putting theory into practice). Thereafter, scholars and linguists started studying lexical collocations. Consequently many researchers explored the importance of lexical collocations and its relationship with other aspects of English language. Also several studies were conducted to explore the role of teaching lexical collocations in relation to EFL speaking proficiency.

For instance, Sung (2003) investigated English lexical collocations and their relation to spoken fluency of adult non-native speakers. The participants were 96 learners: 24 native and 72 non-native speakers of English. They were tested for collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency. The results showed a big difference between native and non-native speakers in both tests. Non-native speakers had poor knowledge of lexical collocations therefore their speaking proficiency was poor. The study discovered that EFL learners in order to speak

as natural as natives, learners should learn and practice more lexical collocations.

Similarly, Hsu and Chiu (2008) studied lexical collocations and their relations to speaking proficiency of college EFL learners in Taiwan. They collected for the study from 56 junior English majors in national university in Taiwan. The students were tested twice: one lexical collocation test to discover their knowledge of lexical collocations, and an English speaking test to find out the subjects' use of lexical collocations and measure their speaking proficiency. The findings showed that there was a significant correlation between Taiwanese EFL learners' knowledge of lexical collocations and their speaking proficiency.

Also, Sadeghi and Panahifar (2012) explored the relationship between collocational knowledge, speaking proficiency, and the use of collocation in Iranian EFL learners' oral performance. The data for their study were collected from 30 intermediate Iranian EFL learners who took a collocation test and were interviewed on a range of topics. The results of their study showed revealed a significant relationship between the learners' knowledge of collocations and their speaking proficiency. On the other hand they realized that there was no significant relationship between collocational knowledge and oral use of collocations.

Likewise, Biskri (2012) investigated the effect of lexical collocation awareness raising on EFL students' oral proficiency among Algerian first year university students. She collected data for the study from 50 participants from university of Guelma which were divided on two experimental and control groups. After the pretest she revealed that the participant had poor knowledge of collocation. For the treatment, experimental group were made aware of lexical collocation while the control group were not trained at all. Then the posttest was administered and in the findings she realized that the oral proficiency was improved among the experimental group.

Moreover, Shamsudin et al. (2013) investigated Iranian EFL learners' collocational errors in speaking skill. The researchers selected fifteen Iranian postgraduate students in an intensive English course in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia to participate in the study. The subjects sat for two speech tests one impromptu and the other public as instruments of the study. The results of the

tests showed that the Iranian EFL learners made lexical collocation errors in both tests. The researchers suggested that the learners should make more effort to acquire more lexical collocations and practice them.

Also Attar (2013) studied the effect of teaching lexical collocations on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. She selected 40 intermediate L2 learners and assigned to two experimental and control groups. Both groups took pretests, collocation tests, and collocation interview. Then, collocations were taught to the experimental group. After that both groups went through a collocation test and interview. The results showed that the subjects' speaking ability in the experimental group considerably improved in posttest.

Moreover, Hassani & Jamali (2014) studied the effect of teaching English lexical clusters on Iranian EFL intermediate learners' speaking accuracy. They selected 41 male and female EFL intermediate learners, studying English at intermediate level at Zabankade Institute in Tehran. Then the participants were randomly assigned to two groups, experimental and control groups. Both groups were administered a pretest to find out their speaking skill. Then the experimental group was treated with the teaching of English lexical clusters, while the control group received traditional method of teaching without lexical clustering technique. Later both groups took posttest. The results showed that the teaching lexical clusters to the experimental group had caused a significant improvement in their speaking accuracy.

The same, Yazdandoost et al (2014) studied the relationship among collocation knowledge and listening, speaking, reading and writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. 50 students included in the study who took collocational knowledge test and an IELTS sample test to measure their reading, writing, speaking and listening proficiency. Later the results of the tests were analyzed. The findings showed that there was a significant correlation between knowledge of lexical collocations and all four skills of language specifically speaking skill.

Furthermore, Abdullah et al. (2015) investigated the knowledge of lexical collocation among Malay university students and its relation to their speaking proficiency. 30 third year male and female students were selected from Universiti Malaysia Kelantan. A lexical collocation test and a speaking proficiency test were administered to measure collocational knowledge and

level of speaking proficiency among the participants. After correlating the two variables, the researchers realized that there was no significant correlation between the knowledge of collocations and speaking proficiency among the participants.

In the same way, Ebrahimi-Bazzaz et al. (2015) studied lexical verb-noun collocations in spoken discourse of Iranian EFL learners. 212 majority female English major students in a university in Tehran participated who were divided on four groups. Their collocational knowledge and usage were tested. The findings showed that the participants acquired more noun-verb lexical collocation year after year and that helped them in their speaking skill.





3. EPIRICAL STUDY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the experimental of this thesis is explained in detail. As the second part of the study, it contains the implementation of the experimental study. The experimental was conducted in English Language Department of College of Basic Education-Soran University. This chapter consists of different sections, which starts with the methodology, and includes exercises of collocational competence. Then a pre-test is clarified in detail. Later it sheds light on the lectures which were delivered to highlight the lexical collocations and raising students' collocational awareness. After that, two questionnaires for both students and teachers are explained. The aim and content of each questionnaire is explained. Finally, the post test of students is clarified in detail.

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Sample of the Population of the experiment

Our subjects for the experimental were first year students of English Language Department in College of Basic Education in Soran University-Iraq. They were a group of 45 students and their level of English language supposed to be intermediate or above intermediate. The subjects were chosen randomly and divided in two groups which were a group of experimental with 30 students and a control group of 15 students. The students' age was between 25 to 45 years old with both genders male and female. The both groups were tested with some collocational exercises to find out their collocational competence. Then, the experimental group was exposed to more lexical collocations and provided with several sources of collocations. Later the students' questionnaire was administered to both experimental and control groups. Also the teachers' questionnaire was administered to the teachers of speaking and vocabulary in the English Language Department who are 4 teachers. After all the speaking

proficiency of the experimental group students was tested and the results were scored.

Soran University is a governmental university which has been established in 2009 and has five faculties: Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Law, and Faculty of Science. English Language Department has been opened in the College of Basic Education in 2009. Most of the students of the department are primary school English language teachers who had gained two year teaching diploma previously and have been teaching English language for several years and now they continue their studying as four year bachelor students of English language.

3.2.2 Data gathering tools

In the study we have utilized two questionnaires for collecting data one for students and the other for teachers. However before administering the two questionnaires, the students took few short exercises which included selecting appropriate collocations for filling gaps and matching the suitable collocations. The exercises had been drawn from the McCarthy and O'Dell (2005). The exercises aimed at discovering the collocational competence among students. Then the questionnaires were administered. The first questionnaire was for the students. In the questionnaire we explored the students' age, gender, their interest in vocabulary, their collocational knowledge and the sources they used for finding collocations. With students' questionnaire we collected the needed data, and later the data were analyzed.

The second questionnaire was for teachers. The objective from the teachers' questionnaire was to get advantage from their experience. Due to their teaching experience, teachers could provide us with the most affective ways of teaching vocabulary that they utilized to deliver their lectures especially explaining how they exposed their students to as much as English input. The whole process of producing a word, lexical collocation or lexical bundles starts with memorizing and later retrieving it while using it. Thus, learners need too much exposure to the target language and as much they expose to it, as better they produce it. Also, via teachers' questionnaires we wanted to find the suitable sources that would help in teaching and acquiring lexical collocations. Another point from

teachers' questionnaire was, the important ways they used in their class to encourage students and raise their collocational awareness which would lead students to concentrate more on lexical collocations

3.3 The aim Of The Experimental

The aim of the experimental was to find out the role of teaching lexical collocations in raising EFL learners' speaking fluency. Since we teach students how to improve their speaking skills via enriching their vocabulary, this study investigated the impact of teaching lexical collocation among first year students of English Language Department of College of Basic Education – Soran University. Two groups of students were randomly selected and divided one as the experimental group and the other as the control group as the sample of study population who represent first year students. With the experimental group the focus was on lexical collocations and students of this group were given highlighted lexical collocation while with the control group the focus was not on lexical collocations. The Fall semester started in October 2015 and lasted until the end of June 2016.

3.4 Collocation Exercise

This exercise was designed to find out the level of collocational awareness of the study population. It consisted of twenty five questions which were divided on three sections, first sections was filling gaps with a suitable collocation among a group of given collocates. Second section was also filling a number of gaps with a suitable collocate which was meant to be chosen from two options. And finally the third section consisted of several collocations divided on two groups *A* and *B* and students were asked to match the right collocates from group *A* to group *B*. The exercise is in Appendix (1).

3.5 Students' Pre-test

A week after the collocation exercises the students in both groups took the pre-test orally.

The aim of the pre-test was to discover the oral proficiency of the sample, and the main aim of the total study was to develop students' oral proficiency through teaching lexical collocations.

Both the experimental and control groups were joined as one group and then divided into smaller groups (three students in each group); we gave them enough time and created a suitable atmosphere to talk on the topics. In order to give the participants a suitable scope to talk about, the chosen topics were about daily life, important things and events they expose to in a daily routine like; computers and mobile-phones, travel, global problems, crime, war and peace, Health and illness, ways of speaking, money...etc. The participants were told to feel free to choose a topic among the mentioned ones that they can and would like to talk about. Each group of the test takers was given up to ten minutes to talk about a chosen topic. While the participants were talking, our focus was on their speaking proficiency and especially if they were using only single words or sequences of words specifically lexical collocations in their conversations.

3.6 Students' Questionnaire

For the students' questionnaire our participants had previous experience in teaching English as a foreign language to primary school pupils, and they had started studying English language again to enhance their knowledge of teaching English language.

3.6.1 Administration

The questionnaire was administered in English Language Department of College of Basic Education - University of Soran. The Fall semester began in October 2015, and the questionnaire administered at the last weeks of the semester on 18th/April/2016.

3.6.2 Description

The target students were asked to voluntarily participate in answering the questions as they were ensured that the results would be used only for academic purposes and would not be used in any other way. They completed the questionnaire in 30 minutes. It contained 23 questions, and was divided on two

parts: part one was aimed at collecting personal information of the students and their usage of dictionaries, while part two focused on students' speaking proficiency, knowledge of collocations, and the importance of teaching and raising collocation awareness of students.

Questions and answering options of the first part of the questionnaire were as following: Question 1 was about students' age and Question 2 was to find out their gender. Question 3 was to discover how long they have studied English language to find the duration they have studied and if there is a difference in the duration among them. Question 4 aimed at investigating that if it was their choice to study English, since in Iraq there is a central system of accepting students in governmental universities which sometimes lead to inconvenience of students when they are accepted in a college or university which is not their choice. Question 5 was to find if students use any dictionaries with two (yes, no) options and Question 6 was to find out which dictionary do they use with four options (English-English, English-Kurdish, English-Arabic, All of them) because, among the target students, there may be ones who know another language different from their mother tongue and English. Question 7 was to find how often they use dictionaries with four options (Always, Sometime, Rarely, Never) whereas Question 8 investigate if students use any electronic dictionaries on their mobile-phones with two (Yes, No) options to find the impact of electronic devices for studying and learning English.

Part II questions and answering options were about speaking skills and collocation knowledge. Question 9 was to find how students appreciate their level of English with four (Very good, Good, Bad, Very bad) options; Question 10 was to find which module they prefer learning (Grammar, Vocabulary, Both) to discover their intention or which module they think is more effective in learning English. If they think both modules are important in parallel, they were asked to write it in the space given. Question 11 was to find how students' speaking proficiency was with four (Very good, Good, Bad, Very bad) options, though the Question 12 aimed at investigating the reason which makes it difficult for them to speak easily if they have shortage of words to use or they cannot use the right words together. It was important for the study to realize that if the difficulty of students' speaking was whether a poor vocabulary or their

vocabulary was reach but they were unable to use the vocabulary segments properly together. Accordingly, the Question 13 was to find out if it was difficult for the students to find the right word combinations (which words are used together). Hence, the Question 14 asked if students believe that knowledge of how to put words that occur together would help them improve their speaking skills. While Questions number 15, 16 and 17 were to investigate whether the students know collocations, and if they have knowledge about collocations where they have learnt collocations, either in class or another source. Question 18 asked whether they use a special dictionary of English collocation. Question 19 asked which way is better for the students to learn new English words and improve their vocabulary with two (learning single words, or learning words in combinations (collocations) options and giving a space to explain the reason why they prefer one of the above options. Regarding raising students' awareness of lexical collocations, Question 20 asked if they agree that teachers must raise students' awareness of lexical collocations in order to help them speak English proficiently with four (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) options. Also to know the impact of students' mother tongue L1 on learning the target language which is English, Question 21 asked whether students put English words together just like they do in Kurdish when they speak. And concerning teaching, Question 22 asked if it is important to teach collocations as a separate module or not. Finally Question 23 was a blank space given to the participants to add their comments and suggestions concerning the topic. The questionnaire is in Appendix (2).

3.7 Teachers' Questionnaire

Teachers' questionnaire intended to gather data from the teachers who have been exposed to English language and had more experience in teaching university students. There were four vocabulary teachers including in English Language Department of the College of Basic Education of Soran University.

3.7.1 Administration

The questionnaire was administered in April 2016. The format of the questionnaire was sent to the teachers electronically to give them enough space to answer the questions in detail and add their comments or suggestions.

3.7.2 Description

The questionnaire contains 20 questions, and it was divided on two parts: the first part aimed at gathering personal information about the participants' age, sex, qualification, and their experience in teaching vocabulary; whereas the second part aimed at gathering data about challenges they face while teaching, the effective ways of teaching vocabulary, speaking, and the importance of teaching collocations.

For the first part Question 1 asked about participants' age with four (22-25 years, 26-30 years, 31-35 year, above 35 years) options and Question 2 asked about their gender. Question 3 asked for their qualification with three (B.A., M.A, PH.D) options to find their level of studying they have gained and Question 4 asked them if they work in English language department either as part-time or full-time teacher. However, the Question 5 asked how long they have been teaching English with three (it is your first year, it is between two to three years, it is above four years) options to discover the duration of their experience in teaching English language.

The second part focused on teaching and importance of collocations. Question 6 investigated the difficulties the teachers have faced since they have started teaching, and a blank space was given in order to mention the difficulties. While Question 7 asked what can help raise students' oral proficiency more with three (teaching grammar, teaching vocabulary, both) options with a blank space to mention the reason why they believe so. Questions 8 and Question 9 were concerning teaching vocabulary while Question 8 asked whether vocabulary should be taught as a separate module or through other modules, Question 9 investigated which way is more affective for teaching vocabulary with three (teaching single words, teaching chunks (words that co-occur), both) options. While Question 10 explored the causes that lead students make mistakes during speaking with the options (the shortage of correct words, they have words but

combine them incorrectly), Question 11 investigated what teachers' response will be when their students miscollocate while speaking with three options (giving them the right collocation, making them to pay more attention, other) with a blank space to specify other responses. Concerning the relation of lexical collocations and speaking, Question 12 searched if students' good knowledge of lexical collocations would affect their oral proficiency with four (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) options, and Question 13 asked how the teachers can raise their students' awareness of lexical collocations with four options (through lists of collocations, giving them texts with collocations underlined, using special collocation dictionary, other) also with a blank space to specify other options. questions 14 and Question 15 investigated combining lexical pieces the former aimed at finding out if teachers encourage students to combine lexical items appropriately with (yes, no) options, and the latter asked if their students combine English words just as they combine words in their mother tongue which is Kurdish. Question 16 asked about the most reliable source of searching for collocations with four options (texts and passages with related matter, online concordances, dictionaries, other sources) and a blank space to mention any other sources. Question 17 aimed at how can teachers help students retrieve lexical collocations easily with four options (extensive reading or writing, giving examples, translation, consciousness raising activities). Question 18 asked if it is important to teach collocations as a separate module and if so, Question 19 asked to specify the reason what makes the teachers to think it should be taught separately. Finally, Question 20 asked teachers to add any other comments and suggestions about the topic. The questionnaire is in Appendix (3).

3.8 Students' Post-test

The post-test of the students took place after the lectures of fall semester ended. Just like the pre-test, for the post-test both experimental and control group were tested orally to find out their speaking proficiency level on one hand and to realize if the participants learnt lexical collocations and if they did, whether learning lexical collocations helped them to raise their speaking fluency. And that was the main objective of the study to find.

Again both groups of participants were divided on smaller groups which consisted of three students each group. Due to the division of both groups, there were ten smaller groups of the experimental group and five smaller groups of the control group. The groups were randomly chosen. The participants were told to feel free to choose a topic to talk about. The aim of giving them freedom of choosing their conversation topic was to encourage them in talking without any hesitation. Fifteen minutes were dedicated to each group for discussing the topic they chose.

While the participants were talking, our main focus was on their oral proficiency, whether they use single words or sequences of words, and if they use lexical collocations in their conversations.

3.9 Delivered Lectures:

The lectures were selected from Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell's book 'English Collocations in Use' which is a book about English collocations, its origins, types, examples and exercises.

The duration of lectures was two hours each week. For each lecture, a specific topic was chosen and the priority was given to the topics which were common or much talked about on daily life. During the lectures, the focus was put on collocations especially on lexical collocations. The usage of each collocation was explained and more than one example was given. In case the students needed more explanation or did not get the meaning, then the collocations were translated into students' first language which is Kurdish.



4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter includes the analysis and discussions of the experimental, and concludes with findings. The experimental aimed at finding students' knowledge of collocations, their level of speaking proficiency and whether their collocation competence helps them improve their speaking fluency.

The findings and results of the collocation exercise, the students' pre-test, the students' questionnaire, the teachers' questionnaire, and the students' post-test are discussed in detail.

4.2 Collocation Exercises

The collocation exercise aimed at determining the students' collocation competence. It consisted of three sections and overall twenty five questions. Section 1 included filling gaps with suitable collocates which were given. Section 2 was choosing the suitable collocate from two options in each sentence. Section 3 consisted of a group of collocations divided on two columns which students' were asked to match the right ones. The results of the exercise showed that students had poor knowledge of collocations.

Section 1

Table 4.1: Percentage of students' correct and incorrect answers of section one of the

| | Experimental group | | Control group | |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | percentage | Number | percentage |
| Correct answers | 72 | 24% | 48 | 32% |
| Incorrect answers | 228 | 76% | 102 | 68% |
| Total | 300 | 100% | 150 | 100% |

As a comment on the results of Section 1 we see that correct answers of experimental group were only (72) answers which made (24%) of the total answers of the group comparing to the incorrect answers which were (228) and (76%) of the total answers. On the other hand, the correct answers of control group were (48) which made (32%) and incorrect answers were (102) which was (68%) of the total answers. The whole results explained that most of the students of both groups filled the gaps with incorrect options.

Section 2

Table 4.2: percentage of students' correct and incorrect answers of section two of the collocation exercise

| | Experimental group | | Control group | |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | percentage | Number | percentage |
| Correct answers | 72 | 48% | 34 | 45.3% |
| Incorrect answers | 78 | 52% | 41 | 54.7% |
| Total | 150 | 100% | 75 | 100% |

In Section 2 the results showed that the gap between correct and incorrect answers was narrower than that of section one. In this section correct answers of experimental group were (72) which was (48%) of total answers of the group and incorrect answers were (78) which made (52%) of the answers. Also the control group's answers were (34) correct which was (45.3%) and (41) answers were incorrect which was (54.7%) of the whole answers of the group.

Section 3

Table 4.3: Percentage of students' correct and incorrect answers of section three of the collocation exercise

| | Experimental group | | Control group | |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | percentage | Number | percentage |
| Correct answers | 69 | 23% | 33 | 22% |
| Incorrect answers | 231 | 77% | 117 | 78% |
| Total | 300 | 100% | 150 | 100% |

Answers of Section 3 showed that the experimental group had (69) correct answers which was (23%) and (231) while incorrect answers were (77%) of

total answers of the group. Moreover, the control group had (33) correct answers which was (22%) and (117) incorrect answers which was (78%) of total answers of the group.

As a comment, here in section three the gap between the correct and incorrect answers was wider comparing to section two.

Table 4.4: Percentage of students' correct and incorrect answers of the entire collocation exercise

| | Number of answers | Percentage |
|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| Correct answers | 328 | 29.1% |
| Incorrect answers | 797 | 70.9% |
| Total | 1125 | 100% |

Finally the total answers of the collocation exercise of both groups showed that out of (1125) answers the correct answers were (328) which was (29.1%) and incorrect answers were (797) which was (70.9%) of the total answers.

Final comment on the collocation exercise is that the results showed that participants of both groups had poor competence of lexical collocations. Furthermore, the participants' answers explained that they were better in choosing between two options rather than filling gaps and matching the suitable collocates.

4.3 Students' Pre-Test

The aim of the pre-test was to find out the students' ability of speaking, and whether they used only single words or both single words and chunks of words including collocations during their speaking.

Both the experimental and the control groups were subdivided onto smaller groups each. Each group was consisted of three students. All the smaller groups of the two main groups were given the option of choosing a topic to talk about. The topics were about the daily life which they exposed to and those events or incidents happening around them or in the world which attracted their attention.

From the beginning of the test most of the groups were feeling little bit nervous which apparently was due to lack of words and shyness among few of them as

part of the students confessed during and after the test. All the groups were given a short time to overcome their anxiety then started their conversation. During students' conversations we were listening to them carefully and observed the words they used while speaking to each other.

The topics which the groups of students chose mostly were related to their daily life. Three groups talked about sports: football, swimming, car sports...etc. other three groups talked about their career as teachers of primary schools and their teaching experience. Other groups talked about topics like: travelling, money and financial issues, health and safety, university life, friendship, entertainment, reading books and watching movies, political issues, and environment. While they were speaking, our main focus was on their usage of words (either single or chunks), phrases and sentences they were producing.

Starting with their conversations, students were taking turns to talk for a while about the topic they decided on previously. During our listening cautiously to the speakers, we observed the following points:

- Students were talking for short periods each. Also, there were several pauses and breaks during their turns which highlighted that they were unconfident.
- They used single words mostly and rarely used collocations. On the one hand they had shortage of words apparently, and on the other hand they were not able to combine or use the right words together.
- Despite that they occasionally used collocations, also they were making mistakes in using right collocates together. Accordingly, they were using wrong word combinations like: (*doing mistake/ making mistake, *play swimming/ go swimming, *make shopping/ do or go shopping, *strong rain/ heavy rain ...etc).

Students' word usage as mentioned in point (2) was mostly single words during their conversations.

4.3.1 Findings of the pre-test

Throughout the pre-test we realized that a good part of the students were anxious at the beginning. Their anxiety was due to lack of words on the one hand and they were not able to combine the right words together on the other hand. This was the reason that most of the students mostly used single words in

their conversations. They rarely used sequences of words or collocations. Also, the students, when they used collocation sometimes they were using mis-collocations and arranged the words inappropriately.

4.4 Students' Questionnaire

Students' questionnaire aimed at collecting data from first year students of English Language Department of College of Basic Education-Soran University. The participants of the experiment were randomly chosen and divided on two groups: experimental and control group. The experimental group contained 30 students and the control group contained 15 students. In addition to this, all the students who participated in this study were English languages teachers in primary schools. They had finished a two year teaching institute and achieved a teaching diploma and at the time of our study they were admitted to English Department of College of Basic Education-Soran University in order to study English language for four years and achieve Bachelor in their teaching field. Despite of studying English, the participants have been teaching English for several years varying according to their age and working periods. This was a good point for our study since they had experience in teaching then they had returned to studying to expand their knowledge of English language teaching.

4.4.1 Analysis of the answers

The questionnaire consisted of 23 questions, and the participants were given plenty of time to answer the questions. It took them nearly 30 minutes on average to complete the questionnaire each group. Students of both groups showed their willingness to participate and answer the questions. The answers were explained in detail with tables for answers of each question as following:

One: students' age

Table 4.5: Students' Age

| | Experimental group | | Control group | |
|----------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| 24 years | 0 | 0% | 1 | 6.67% |
| 25 years | 1 | 3.33% | 3 | 20% |
| 26 years | 3 | 10% | 2 | 13.33% |
| 27 years | 3 | 10% | 1 | 6.67% |
| 28 years | 1 | 3.33% | 3 | 20% |
| 29 years | 4 | 13.33% | 0 | 0% |
| 30 years | 3 | 10% | 2 | 13.33% |
| 31 years | 4 | 13.33% | 1 | 6.67% |
| 32 years | 2 | 6.67% | 1 | 6.67% |
| 33 years | 5 | 16.67% | 1 | 6.67% |
| 34 years | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| 42 years | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| 45 years | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| 46 years | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

As it is explained in the table (4.5) age of the students ranged between (24) to (46) years old. In the experimental group it started with (25) years and ended with (46) years old. Similarly, the students' age in the control group started from (24) years and ended with (33) years old.

One note is that all the students were adult enough and as older they got they have got more experience either in learning and teaching processes.

Two: Students' sex

Table 4.6: Students' Sex

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|--------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Male | 22 | 73.3% | 8 | 53.33% |
| Female | 8 | 26.7% | 7 | 46.67% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Students' sex in the experimental group was (22) males which was (73.3%) of the whole group, while females were (8) which was (26.7%) of whole group. In the same way in the control group males were (8) which was (53.33%) and females were (7) which was (46.67%) of the whole group.

Three: duration of studying English language

Table 4.7: Students' Duration Of Studying English Language

| | Experimental group | | Control group | |
|--------------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Less than 10 years | 6 | 20% | 6 | 40% |
| 10 -15 years | 15 | 50% | 9 | 60% |
| Above 15 years | 9 | 30% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Concerning the students' duration of studying English language most of the students of both groups (80%) of the experimental group and (60%) of the control group have studied English language for more than ten years.

Studying English language as a subject starts in primary school. It varied in which level they started studying English according to the programs of some schools. After studying English as a single subject in school, students had studied the whole courses in English in the teaching institute.

Four: Students' choice to study English language in college

Table 4.8: Students' Choice To Study English Language In College

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 24 | 80% | 14 | 93.33% |
| No | 6 | 20% | 1 | 6.67% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

For the choice of studying English, in the experimental group (24) students answered yes which was (80%) and (6) students answered with no which was (20%) of the whole group. Also in the control group (14) students answered with yes which was (93.33%) and only (1) students answered with no which was (6.67%) of the whole group.

One note is in both groups most of the students started studying English as their own choice which was above 80 percent in both groups. Studying English as their choice affects their motivation in learning.

Five: Students' usage of dictionaries

Table 4.9: Students' Usage Of Dictionaries

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |
| No | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In both experimental and control groups, all (45) of the students were using dictionaries which was (100%) of the participants. No one answered with no which made the ratio of (0%) of all the students.

A comment: using dictionaries to find out new entries and learn their meaning was seemed crucial to the students.

Six: Category of dictionaries

Table 4.10: The Dictionaries Which Students Normally Use

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|---|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| English - English | 1 | 3.33% | 1 | 6.67% |
| English - Kurdish | 9 | 30% | 8 | 53.33% |
| English - Arabic | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| English - English & English - Kurdish | 14 | 46.67% | 5 | 33.33% |
| All of them | 6 | 20% | 1 | 6.67% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Using dictionaries differed from one student to another one according to their proficiency of other languages. In the experimental group (1) students which was (3.33%) of the group uses only English-English dictionaries while (9) students which was (30%) uses English-Kurdish dictionaries. None of the students uses an English-Arabic dictionaries solely which was (0%) but (14) of them uses both English-English & English-Kurdish dictionaries which was (46.67%) of them and finally (6) students use all of the mentioned dictionaries which was (20%) of the whole group. This means that despite knowing Kurdish (their mother tongue) and English the target languages, a group of students know Arabic language too and can master it. For the control group (1) students which was (6.67%) uses English-Kurdish dictionaries whereas (8) of them which was (%53.33) uses English-Kurdish dictionaries. Also none of them uses an English-Arabic dictionary solely which was (0%) but (5) of them which was (33.33%) uses both English-English & English-Kurdish dictionaries together and only (1) student uses all the mentioned dictionaries which was (6.67%) among the group.

Seven: Frequency of using dictionaries by students

Table 4.11: Frequency Of Using Dictionaries By Students

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-----------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Always | 7 | 23.34% | 9 | 60% |
| Sometimes | 22 | 73.33% | 6 | 40% |
| Rarely | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| Never | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Regarding dictionary usage, in the experimental group (7) students (23.34%) ticked (always) in using dictionaries while (22) students (73.33%) ticked (sometimes). Also, (1) students (3.33%) ticked rarely and none of them which was (0%) ticked (never). Similarly, in the control group (9) students which was (60%) of the group ticked (always) and (6) students which was (40%) of the group ticked (sometimes) and none of the students ticked (rarely) and (never) which was (0%) among the group.

A comment: students used dictionaries but in different frequencies but differs from one to another according to their level of mastering the language.

Eight: Students' usage of dictionaries on their mobile-phones

Table 4.12: Students Using Dictionaries On Their Mobile-Phones

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 27 | 90% | 15 | 100% |
| No | 3 | 10% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In the experimental group (27) students which was (90%) of the group were using dictionary applications on their mobile-phones though (3) of them which was (10%) of the group were not using any dictionary applications on their mobile-phones. On the other hand, in control group (15) students which was (100%) of the group were using dictionary applications on their mobile-phones

and there were no student (0%) who did not use any dictionary applications on their mobile-phones.

A comment: students were benefiting from using smart phones and new technologies in learning the target language.

Nine: Students' appreciation of their level of English

Table 4.13: Students' appreciation of their level of English

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-----------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Very good | 0 | 0% | 2 | 13.33% |
| Good | 24 | 80% | 11 | 73.33% |
| Bad | 5 | 16.67% | 2 | 13.33% |
| Very bad | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In evaluating the level of English they have gained so far, in experimental group (0) student (0%) believed that their level was very good while (24) student which was (80%) of them believed their level is (good) as (5) students which was (16.67%) believed their level was (bad) and (1) student (3.33%) of the group believed their level was (very bad). In the same time in the control group (2) students which was (13.33%) believed that their level was (very good) while (11) students which was (73.34%) believed their level was (good) as (2) students which was (13.33%) of the group believed it was (bad) and none of the students (0%) of the group believed it was (very bad).

As a note, most of the students of both groups believed that the level of English they have gained so far was good.

Ten: Students' preference of learning

Table 4.14: Students' preference of learning

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Grammar | 3 | 10% | 2 | 13.33% |
| Vocabulary | 8 | 26.67% | 5 | 33.33% |
| Both | 19 | 63.33% | 8 | 53.34% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Concerning students' preference of learning, in the experimental group (3) students (10%) of the group preferred (grammar) as (8) students (26.67%) preferred (vocabulary) and (19) students (63.33%) of the group preferred (both). At the same time, in the control group (2) students (13.33%) of the group preferred (grammar) as (5) students (33.33%) preferred (vocabulary) and (8) students (53.34%) of the group preferred (both) for learning.

As a comment: most of the students of both groups preferred learning both grammar and vocabulary which help them learning English better.

Eleven: Students' speaking proficiency.

Table 4.15: students' speaking proficiency

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-----------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Very good | 0 | 0% | 4 | 26.67% |
| Good | 17 | 56.67% | 8 | 53.33% |
| Bad | 12 | 40% | 3 | 20% |
| Very bad | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Regarding their speaking proficiency, in the experimental group (0) students (0%) of the group answered with (very good) while (17) students (56.67%) answered with (good). Also (12) students (40%) of them answered with (bad) and (1) student (3.33%) of the group answered (very bad). In the control group (4) students (26.67%) answered with (very good) as (8) students (53.33%) of the

group answered with (good) while (3) students (20%) of them answered with (bad) and none (0%) of them answered with very bad.

A comment: above half of the students believed that their speaking proficiency was good.

Twelve: the reason of difficulty for students to speak easily.

Table 4.16: The reason of difficulty for students to speak easily

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|--|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Those who think they have shortage of words to use | 10 | 33.33% | 5 | 33.33% |
| Those who cannot use the right words together | 20 | 66.67% | 10 | 66.67% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

As illustrated in Table 24, 10 students (33.33%) in the experimental group indicated that the reason why they had difficulty in speaking is the shortage of vocabulary; 20 students (66.67%) in the same group, on the other hand, thought that it was because they did not know how to use the right words though they knew them.

Similarly, in the control group, they indicated the same reasons.

Thirteen: do students find it difficult to find the right word combinations?

Table 4.17: Is it difficult for students to find right word combinations

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 22 | 73.33% | 14 | 93.33% |
| No | 8 | 26.67% | 1 | 6.67% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In the experimental group (22) student (73.33%) of the group believed it was difficult to find right combinations while (8) students (26.67%) believed it was not difficult for them. But in the control group (14) students (93.33%)

considered difficult to find right word combinations as (1) student (6.67%) of the group did not consider it difficult for them.

A comment: most of the students considered difficult to find right word combinations.

Fourteen: knowledge of how to put co-occurrence words together would improve speaking skill

Table 4.18: Knowledge of how to put co-occurrence words together would help improve speaking skill

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |
| No | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Regarding the knowledge of arranging co-occurrence words together, all (30) students of the experimental group which were (100%) of them believed having knowledge of putting co-occurrence words together would help them improve their speaking skills. Similarly all (15) students (100%) of the control group believed that knowledge of putting co-occurrence words together would help them improve their speaking skill while none of them disagreed.

A note: all the students of both groups realized the importance of knowing right ways of arranging the co-occurrence words.

Fifteen: knowledge of collocations

Table 4.19: Students' knowledge of collocations

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 29 | 96.67% | 15 | 100% |
| No | 1 | 3.33% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

As illustrated in the table (29) students (96.67%) of the experimental group had knowledge of collocations while only (1) student (3.33%) did not have

knowledge about collocations. Though in the control group all (15) students (100%) of the group had knowledge of collocations as (0) student (0%) of the group answered (No).

A comment: almost all of the students of both groups had knowledge of collocations.

Sixteen: source of learning about collocations

Table 4.20: Source of learning about collocations

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|----------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| In class | 28 | 93.33% | 14 | 93.33% |
| Another source | 2 | 6.67% | 1 | 6.67% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Regarding the source of learning about collocations, in the experimental group (28) students (93.33%) of the group learned about collocations in the class whilst (2) students (6.67%) of the group had learned about collocation previously outside the class. Also in the control group (14) students (93.33%) of the group learned about collocations in the class and the rest (1) student (6.67%) of the group learned about from other sources outside the class.

A comment: above (93%) of the students of both groups learned about collocations from the class which we taught.

Seventeen: another source of learning about collocations

Concerning other sources of learning about collocations, despite that the majority of the student learned about it in the class but (2) students in the experimental group and (1) in the control group had previously learned about collocations prior to the class. As they mentioned they had learned in English language preparatory courses before starting their college studies began.

Eighteen: students' ownership of a special dictionary of English collocations

Table 4.21: Students' ownership of a special dictionary of English collocations

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 6 | 20% | 4 | 26.67% |
| No | 24 | 80% | 11 | 73.33% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In the experimental group (6) students (20%) of the group had a special dictionary of English collocations at the same time (24) students (80%) of the group did not have one. In addition in the control group (4) students (26.67%) of the group had a special dictionary of English collocations while (11) students (73.33%) of the group did not have one.

A note: it seemed that most of the students did not know the importance of knowledge of collocations eventually most of them did not have a special dictionary of English collocations.

Nineteen: effective way to learn new English words and improving vocabulary

Table 4.22: Effective way to learn new English words and improving vocabulary

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|--|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Learning single words | 2 | 6.67% | 12 | 80% |
| Learning words in combinations (collocation) | 28 | 93.33% | 3 | 20% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

For the more effective way to learn new English words and improving vocabulary, (2) students (6.67%) of the experimental group believed that the more effective way was (learning single words) while (28) students (93.33%) of them believed it was (learning words in combinations - collocations). Furthermore, in the control group (12) students (80%) believed it was (learning single words) while the other (3) students (20%) thought it was (learning words in combinations – collocation).

Majority of the students of the experimental group believed that learning words in combinations–collocations was more effective. And in explaining the reason they think learning words in combination is more effective than single words most of students stated that it helps them in learning and understanding English language and could make contact with native speakers. While in the control group the answers were in favor of learning single words.

Twenty: importance of raising students’ lexical collocation awareness to improve their speaking proficiency

Table 4.23: Importance of raising students’ lexical collocation awareness to improve their speaking proficiency

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Strongly agree | 13 | 43.33% | 7 | 46.67% |
| Agree | 17 | 56.67% | 7 | 46.67% |
| disagree | 0 | 0% | 1 | 6.66% |
| Strongly disagree | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In relation to the importance of raising students’ awareness of lexical collocations to improve their speaking proficiency, (13) students (43.33%) of the experimental strongly agreed that it is important to raise students’ awareness of lexical collocations and (17) students (56.67%) of the group agreed while none of the students (0%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Also in the control group (7) students (46.67%) of the group strongly agreed as (7) students (46.67%) agreed while (1) students (6.66%) disagreed and none of them (0%) of the group strongly disagreed.

A comment: the majority of the students of both groups agreed on the importance of raising students’ awareness of lexical collocations.

Twenty one: usage of English words together just like doing in Kurdish during speaking

Table 4.24: Students' usage of English words together just like in Kurdish during speaking

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|-------|---------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 21 | 70% | 12 | 80% |
| No | 9 | 30% | 3 | 20% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

Regarding using English words together, (21) students (70%) of the experimental group were using English words together just like they do in their mother tongue (Kurdish) while (9) students (30%) of the group were not. Similarly, (12) students (80%) of the control group were using English words together just like they do in Kurdish although (3) students (20%) of them were not.

A comment: the majority of students of both groups used English words just like they did in Kurdish and that might be a source of making mistakes because Kurdish syntactic structure (SOV) is different from that of English (SVO).

Twenty two: teaching collocations separately

Table 4.25: Teaching collocations separately

| | Experimental Group | | Control Group | |
|---------------|---------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| Yes | 25 | 83.33% | 6 | 40% |
| No | 2 | 6.67% | 6 | 40% |
| I do not know | 3 | 10% | 3 | 20% |
| Total | 30 | 100% | 15 | 100% |

In relation to teaching collocations separately, (22) students (83.33%) of the experimental group believed collocations should be taught separately as (2) students (6.67%) believed it should not be taught separately and (3) student (10%) of the group did not know. Likewise, (6) students (40%) of the control group believed collocations should be taught separately and (6) students (40%) believed it should not be while (3) students (20%) of them did not know.

A comment: majority of the experimental group and nearly half of the control group preferred teaching collocations separately.

Twenty three: comments or suggestions of students

Finally, a blank space was dedicated to any extra comments or suggestions of the students. A part of them did not make any extra comments or suggestions and they have left the dedicated space blank. The other part (most of the comments were made by the students of the experimental group while students of the control group made least comments.) made some a number of comments to sum up as the following:

- Collocations are important for learning English language and especially for improving speaking skills.
- Collocations should be taught extensively as a part of vocabulary classes.
- With the collocations idioms should be taught as a part of vocabulary.
- Improving speaking skills is crucial for learning English language.
- Collocations should be taught in the secondary schools in order to make student familiar with it.

4.4.2 Findings of the students' questionnaire

The findings of the students' questionnaire could be summarized as following: most of the students have studied English language for more than ten years and it was the choice of the majority of them to study English language in the college. All the students of both groups used dictionaries. Moreover, most of the students of experimental group used both English – English & English – Kurdish dictionaries and less than half of them used only English – Kurdish dictionaries but majority of the control group used only English – Kurdish dictionaries. Regarding frequency of dictionary usage, more than half of control group students used dictionaries always and other part of the group used it sometimes but students of experimental group used dictionaries sometimes and less than half of them used it always. Furthermore, 90% of students of the experimental group and 100% of students of the control group used dictionary applications on their mobile phones. Additionally, most of students of both groups appreciated their level of English as good and other small part

appreciated their level as bad while one of experimental group and two of control group appreciated it as very bad. In addition to this, more than half of both groups appreciated their speaking proficiency as good though 40% of experimental group and 20% of control group appreciated it as bad. Also we found that more than 63% of experimental group and more than half of the control group preferred learning both vocabulary and grammar while a small number of them preferred only one of them and rejecting the other. Also, above 60% of both groups thought the reason of difficulty of speaking easily was that they could not use right words together while the other part believed it was shortage of words. In addition for most of the students it was difficult finding right word combinations. Besides all the students thought that knowledge of how to put co-occurrence words together would improve their speaking skills.

Almost all the students had knowledge about collocations and the source of learning about collocations was the class we were teaching. Furthermore, majority of students did not have a special dictionary of English collocations. Additionally, most of the students of the experimental group thought learning words in combinations- collocations as more effective in learning new English words and improving their English vocabulary while in the control group students believed single words as more effective. Moreover, most of the students of both groups agreed on the importance of raising students' awareness of lexical collocations to improve their speaking proficiency. Also both groups admitted that in some cases they used to use English words just like they used words in their mother tongue-Kurdish. Finally, above 80% of the experimental group preferred teaching collocations separately while in control group they were not in favor of teaching collocations separately.

4.5 Teachers' Questionnaire

Teachers' questionnaire aimed at collecting data from teachers of vocabulary and speaking in the English Language Department of College of Basic Education-Soran University. There were four teachers of vocabulary and speaking including me in the department. The teachers were asked to participate in answering the questionnaire voluntarily. A blank draft of the questionnaire

was sent to each teacher via email to give them enough time and space for answering and adding any additional comments or suggestions.

The questionnaire consisted of two parts: part one consisted of five questions about the teachers' personal information and part two consisted of fifteen questions about teaching, lexical collocations and speaking skills.

4.5.1 Analysis of the answers

Answers of all questions of the questionnaire have been analyzed and the results explained in detail with tables.

Teachers' age

Table 4.26: Teachers' age

| | Number | Percentage |
|----------------|--------|------------|
| 22 – 25 years | 0 | 0% |
| 26 – 30 years | 1 | 25% |
| 31 – 35 years | 2 | 50% |
| Above 35 years | 1 | 25% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Teachers' age ranged from 26 to 35 years old meanwhile one of the four teachers was above 35 years old. The teachers' age as showed in the table affirmed that they were not too old but young which made them more energetic but less experience in teaching.

Teachers' gender

Table 4.27: Teachers' gender

| | Number | Percentage |
|--------|--------|------------|
| Male | 3 | 75% |
| Female | 1 | 25% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

As it is clarified in the table, most of the teachers were male and among them there was only one female teacher. But this did not affect the process of teaching negatively since majority of the students of the department are males, as the teachers were all devoted to teaching English and had the same curriculum.

Teachers' qualifications

Table 4.28: Teachers' qualifications

| | Number | Percentage |
|----------|---------------|-------------------|
| Bachelor | 1 | 25% |
| M. A. | 3 | 75% |
| PH.D. | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

As it is explained in the table, most of the teachers (75%) got Masters in English language and no (PH.D.). We asked about teachers' qualifications to find out their studying level not their abilities since getting a qualification may not always indicate the abilities of a person.

Teachers' working shift

Table 4.29: Teachers' working shift in the English language department

| | Number | Percentage |
|-----------|---------------|-------------------|
| Part-time | 1 | 25% |
| Full-time | 3 | 75% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Most of the teachers (75%) worked in the English language department as full-time working teachers as highlighted in the table. The importance of working as a full-time teacher is that they would be more devoted to the department and motivated for teaching in the meantime they would have more time for their students.

Teachers' experience of teaching

Table 4.30: Teachers' experience of teaching

| | Number | Percentage |
|--|---------------|-------------------|
| First year of teaching | 0 | 0% |
| Between two or three years of teaching | 3 | 75% |
| Above four years of teaching | 1 | 25% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

As showed in the table, most of the teachers' teaching experience was between two or three years only one teacher had above four years of teaching experience.

Teachers' experience is important as more experience they get, they could use better ways of teaching and solve any problems facing them during teaching which lead to a better learning of students.

Difficulties in teaching

- In answering what difficulties, they have faced since they have started teaching, teachers mentioned some of them:
- Misunderstanding of some sentences due to having shortage of vocabulary.
- They (students) sometimes use literal translation instead of employing the correct forms of both lexical and grammatical collocations.
- Students keep memorizing instead of paraphrasing writing and saying expressions in their own language (mother tongue).
- Convincing students to be autonomous-learners.
- Making them familiar with e-learning devices.
- During doing researches, reminding them to avoid plagiarism.
- Students argued too much about assessments and results of exams.
- Students had difficulty in understanding teacher's English due to weak listening skills.

What raises students' oral proficiency

Table 4.31: What raises students' oral proficiency

| | Number | Percentage |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| Teaching grammar | 0 | 0% |
| Teaching vocabulary | 0 | 0% |
| Both | 4 | 100% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

In answering the question (what raises students' oral proficiency) all four teachers answered with (both). They believed that both grammar and vocabulary are important to raise students' oral proficiency and neither grammar nor vocabulary would help alone in this case.

In mentioning the reason, teachers believed that a rich vocabulary would be more effective with usage of proper grammar to communicate well.

Vocabulary as a module

Table 4.32: Vocabulary as module

| | Number | Percentage |
|-----------------------|--------|------------|
| Through other modules | 3 | 75% |
| As a separate module | 1 | 25% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

In relation to teaching vocabulary we asked whether vocabulary should be taught as a separate module or through other modules. Most of the teachers believed it should be taught through other modules while only one of them believed it should be as a separate module. Our aim was to know teachers' view on methods of teaching vocabulary.

Teaching vocabulary

Table 4.33: Teaching vocabulary

| | Number | Percentage |
|---------------------------------------|--------|------------|
| Teaching single words | 0 | 0% |
| Teaching chunks (co-occurrence words) | 3 | 75% |
| Both | 1 | 25% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Since there have been studies and arguments about whether teachers teach single words or chunks in vocabulary classes, we asked the teachers the same question. As it is showed in the table majority of them answered in favor of teaching chunks (co-occurrence words). And only one of them believed that both single words and chunks should be taught. This showed the importance teaching chunks in vocabulary classes.

Source of students' mistakes while speaking

Table 4.34: Source of students' mistakes while speaking

| | Number | Percentage |
|---|--------|------------|
| Shortage of correct words | 1 | 25% |
| They have words but combine incorrectly | 3 | 75% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Regarding the reason why students make mistakes while speaking English, most of the teachers believed that they had words but combined the words incorrectly. At the same time one teacher believed that the students had shortage of correct words. This emphasized on the importance of teaching students combination words or the way how words combine appropriately in English language.

Teachers' response to students' mis-collocations

Table 4.35: Teachers' response to students' mis-collocations

| | Number | Percentage |
|--------------------------------|--------|------------|
| Giving them right collocations | 1 | 25% |
| Making them pay more attention | 3 | 75% |
| Other | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

In this question we asked the teachers what would be the right response to students' mis-collocation during speaking. Majority of teachers preferred to make the students pay more attention while one teacher believed it would be better if they give the students the right collocations. In this question we aimed to find out about the proper responses to students' mis-collocations in class.

Effect of students' knowledge of lexical collocations on their oral proficiency

Table 4.36: Effect of students' knowledge of lexical collocations on their oral proficiency

| | Number | Percentage |
|-------------------|--------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 2 | 50% |
| Agree | 2 | 50% |
| Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Strongly disagree | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

In response of if students' good knowledge of lexical collocations would affect their oral proficiency half of the teachers strongly agreed and other half of them just agreed. This means that having good knowledge of lexical collocations would help in improving students' oral skills.

Ways of raising students' awareness of lexical collocations

Table 4.37: Ways of raising students' awareness of lexical collocations

| | Number | Percentage |
|--|--------|------------|
| Through lists of collocations | 1 | 25% |
| Giving texts with collocations underlined | 3 | 75% |
| Using special dictionaries of collocations | 0 | 0% |
| Other | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Due to importance of raising students' awareness of lexical collocations we asked the teachers and the majority (75%) of them answered that they raise their students' awareness through (giving texts with collocations underlined) and other part believed through (lists of collocations) while none of them preferred (using special dictionaries of collocations).

Encouraging students to combine lexical items appropriately

Table 4.38: Encouraging students to combine lexical items appropriately

| | Number | Percentage |
|-------|--------|------------|
| Yes | 4 | 100% |
| No | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Concerning encouraging students, all teachers stated that they encourage their students to combine lexical items appropriately. This is important to help students make lesser mistakes with combining lexical items in English.

Students' combining English words like they do in their other tongue

Table 4.39: Students' combining English words like they do in their mother tongue

| | Number | Percentage |
|-------|--------|------------|
| Yes | 3 | 75% |
| No | 1 | 25% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

In relation to the effect of students' mother tongue on learning the target language –English most of the teachers believed that students combine English words like they combine the words of their mother tongue – Kurdish. The issue of combining English words like Kurdish ones leads to mistakes, since both

languages have different syntactic structures and this may cause mis-collocation or misunderstanding in some cases.

Reliable sources of collocations

Table 4.40: Reliable sources of collocations

| | Number | Percentage |
|---|--------|------------|
| Texts and passages with related matters | 2 | 50% |
| Online concordances | 1 | 25% |
| Dictionaries | 1 | 25% |
| Other | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

To find out the reliable sources of finding collocations as here are several sources we asked the teachers and half of them preferred to give their students texts and passages with related matter. Similarly the other half of them preferred both online concordances and dictionaries. Students should be advised to use reliable sources to avoid mistakes.

Ways of helping students retrieve lexical collocations

Table 4.41: Ways of helping students retrieve lexical collocations

| | Number | Percentage |
|---|--------|------------|
| Extensive reading and writing | 1 | 25% |
| Giving examples | 0 | 0% |
| Translation | 0 | 0% |
| Consciousness raising activities | 0 | 0% |
| Extensive writing and reading & Translation | 3 | 75% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Retrieving lexical collocations is as much important as learning it. In this question most of the teachers believed that both (extensive writing and reading & translations) are efficient ways of retrieving lexical collocations.

Teaching collocations as a separate module

Table 4.42: Teaching collocations as a separate module

| | Number | Percentage |
|-------|---------------|-------------------|
| Yes | 1 | 25% |
| No | 3 | 75% |
| Total | 4 | 100% |

Concerning teaching collocations as a separate module despite their importance most of the teachers believed that collocations should not be taught as a separate module rather to be taught through other modules.

Reason of teaching collocation

Question nineteen asked for the reason of the answer of previous question. The question was if it is important to teach collocations as a separate module or not. Teachers indicated that there are other ways for students to learn collocations such as relying on watching English movies, interaction with English native speakers, interviewing, listening to songs, and reading novels and dramas. Also the teachers mentioned other reliable sources for learning collocations such as internet, attending seminars or workshops and doing presentations on related matters. Due to those reasons most of the teachers believed that collocations should not be taught as a separate module.

Comments and suggestions

The final step was a blank space for teachers to add their comments and suggestions in case they had any. To sum up their comments teachers regarded lexical collocations as very important for EFL learners and emphasized on teaching collocations while teaching English language in contemporary ways. They stated that nowadays students might be busy with using new technologies or electronic devices yet they can and should search for and learn new collocations. Also they claimed that it is teachers' duty to make students focus on collocations to help them learn faster and better. In relation to this, teachers can utilize different methods to encourage and raise students' awareness of collocations like: putting students in groups and giving them assignments, or leading them to prepare presentations and seminars on collocations.

4.5.2 Finding of the teachers' questionnaire

The findings of the teachers' questionnaire could be summarized as the following:

The teachers' age ranged from 26 to 35 years old which showed that they did not have much experience in teaching as it was 3 years for majority of them and only one of them had above 4 years of experience as most of them had M.A. degree in English language. Most of the teachers were male only one teacher was female and majority of them were working as a full-time time in the English language department.

The teachers faced some difficulties during teaching; students misunderstanding sentences in some cases due to shortage of vocabulary, students' using literal translations instead of using proper forms of collocations, and students keeping memorizing instead of paraphrasing pieces of writing or speech. Furthermore, all the teachers believed that both vocabulary and grammar are crucial for raising students' oral proficiency and they preferred vocabulary to be taught through other modules. Additionally, majority the teachers believed that in teaching vocabulary the focus must be on chunks of words or collocations but the other part of them believed the focus should be on both single and chunk words also the same majority believed that the source of students' mistakes during speaking was they had words but combined the words incorrectly while other part of them believed the reason was students had shortage of words. Moreover, in response of students' mis-collocations, teacher preferred making students pay more attention not giving them the right collocations. Besides, students' knowledge of lexical collocations would eventually have positive effect on their oral proficiency and the best way to raise students' awareness of lexical collocations was to (give them texts with collocations underlined). Also, all the teachers encourage students to combine lexical items appropriately since most of them believed that students combined English words just like they did in their mother tongue (Kurdish). In addition, reliable sources of finding collocations could successively be (texts and passages with related matter), then (online concordances) and (dictionaries). What's more, extensive writing and reading plus translation are the best ways to help students retrieve lexical collocations although teaching collocations as a separate module was not

preferred. Finally, there other different ways of learning collocations such as: watching English movies and T.V. programs, interacting with native speakers, doing seminars and presentations on related topics for the reason that collocations consist a great part of English vocabulary and it is crucial for students to learn which help them improve their speaking skills.

4.6 Students' Post-Test

In the post-test we aimed to find out students' speaking skills and whether they use only single words or single words and chunks of words in their conversations after they had received lectures regarding collocations and practicing lexical collocation exercises in each lecture. Also, we wanted to know if learning and focusing on lexical collocations in the experimental group caused any progress in the students' speaking proficiency or not. Since students of the experimental group were concentrating on collocations and specifically lexical collocations. We hypothesized that learning and focusing on lexical collocations would help students improve their speaking proficiency.

Again as we did in the pre-test, both experimental and control groups were subdivided on smaller groups each. The smaller groups were consisted of three students each. Consequently, there were ten smaller groups of the experimental group and five smaller groups of the control group. They were given the freedom of choosing a topic to talk about among themselves and the topics were about the issues, phenomena, activities that they encounter or things they use in their daily life. The topics were (political issues, sports, environment, climate change, taste and smell, different careers, technological inventions, smart-phones, internet and computers, festivals, financial crisis, natural resources, social relationships, crime, travelling, holidays).

We started with the experimental group which consisted of ten smaller groups. Each group had up to ten minutes time for talking on the topics they had chosen for the conversations. After finishing the experimental group, we tested the control group which consisted of five smaller groups. The conversations of each group were carefully observed and the focus was on using the lexical items they used during speaking.

4.6.1 Findings of students' post-test

- The findings of the post-test would be divided on two parts: findings of the experimental groups and findings of the control group as each group was tested with different expectations from the other one.
- During the test of the experimental groups we observed the following point:
- Students took longer time of talking than the pre-test. Each smaller group took around six to nine minutes as average.
- There were less pauses and breaks in their conversations comparing to the pre-test. They looked enthusiastic and confident.
- Regarding lexical items they used, they preferred both single and sequences of words. They mostly used lexical collocations related to the topics they had chosen for conversation. It seemed that they had learnt a good amount of the collocations we had highlighted and taught them.
- Concerning miscollocations, the students made fewer mistakes in combining words together. They were cautious about arranging right collocations.

When the students were asked about the reason behind improvement of their speaking skill, they answered that with learning more sequence patterns especially collocations they overcame their anxiety and felt more confident to talk. This means that acquiring new collocations and learning how they combine in right order on the one hand it enriches learners' lexicon and on the other hand it raises their confidence among themselves to speak proficiently.

Regarding the control group, during the post-test what we observed the following outcomes:

- There was less progress in regard of talking comparing to the experimental group. The conversations were shorter and on average there were some pauses and breaks during speaking.
- The students mostly used single words. They avoided sequences of words including collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs and other pre-fabricated lexical items. This avoidance was due to lack of knowledge about sequences of words and their usage.

- Despite that they did not use collocations in a good range but yet in regards to the usage of collocations they were miscollocating and making mistakes in arranging the right words together.
- Overall, there was a big difference between the experimental and the control group in the progress they made. After the post-test we realized that the experimental group had gained more knowledge of chunks of words specifically collocations and they used lexical collocations in their conversations more frequently than the control group. Accordingly, the experimental group was more proficient orally comparing to the control group.



5. CONCLUSIONS:

5.1 Concluding Remarks

This study aimed to investigate collocations, its types and importance, and most importantly collocations' effect on speaking proficiency among students of EFL. Collocations constitute a great part of English language vocabulary and due to the important role they play in learning English, collocations have attracted attention of many linguists through past few decades. For native speakers collocations are easy to learn and use, but EFL/ESL learners have to make effort to learn and retrieve collocations which make their English output natural and native-like since collocations can not be guessed randomly. Having good knowledge of collocations help enhance learners' vocabulary, thus it helps them to produce clear and accurate utterances and sentences. On the other hand, shortage of such knowledge may lead to mistakes and using words inappropriately which rise from arranging words in a wrong order. Lexical collocations are essential components of English vocabulary and are easily distinguished from other multiword components such as free combinations, idioms, phrasal verbs and bundles.

For learning and using collocations accurately a range of methods can be applied. Visual enhancement can be very effective in regard of teaching collocations. This assists learners to acquire the things they are learning faster as they learn through visual features. On the other hand recognizing miscollocations and their causes also help in the enhancement of learners' speaking skills. Moreover, with more practice learners can improve their skills and overcome miscollocations and mistakes they make during their speaking. Traditionally most focus was on reading and writing, but now it is on speaking as the essence of oral communication.

According to the statistical data we got in the experiment, we realized that:

This study aimed to investigate collocations, its types and importance, and most importantly collocations' effect on speaking fluency among students of EFL. Collocations constitute a great part of English language vocabulary and due to the important role they play in learning English, collocations have attracted attention of many linguists through last few decades. For native speakers collocations are easy to learn and use, but EFL/ESL learners have to make effort to learn and retrieve collocations which make their English output natural and native-like since collocations can not be guessed randomly. Having good knowledge of collocations help enhance learners' vocabulary, thus it helps them to produce clear and accurate utterances and sentences. On the other hand, shortage of such knowledge may lead to mistakes and using words inappropriately which occur from arranging words in a wrong order. Lexical collocations are essential components of English vocabulary and are easily distinguished from grammatical collocations and other multiword components such as free combinations, idioms, phrasal verbs and bundles.

For learning and using collocations accurately a range of methods can be applied. Visual enhancement can be very effective in regard of teaching collocations. This assists learners to acquire the things they are learning faster as they learn through visual features. On the other hand recognizing miscollocations and reasons behind it also help in the enhancement of learners' speaking skills. Moreover, with more practice learners can improve their skills and overcome miscollocations and mistakes they make during their speaking. Traditionally most focus was on reading and writing, but now it is on speaking as the essence of oral communication.

According to the statistical data we got in the experiment, we realized that:

- Both grammar and vocabulary should be taught to students to improve their oral skills. But yet, students have preference to vocabulary more than grammar since they believe that as much as they enrich their lexicon they would be able to improve their oral skills. The results of our study confirm that belief of students true.
- Regarding teaching vocabulary, teachers should teach both single words and chunks. Yet it is essential they focus on chunks of words. Chunks of words

(idioms, phrasal verbs, collocations, and proverbs) consists a great part of English vocabulary.

- By learning chunks especially collocations learners eventually solve the problem of arranging words in wrong order. Generally, when learners focus only on single words they may learn a good number of new items, but they face the problem of putting the right words together in their speaking.
- Lexical collocations as a major type of collocations formulate a great part of English vocabulary. Knowledge and usage of lexical collocations properly would definitely help learners to learn the language in an easier and better way.
- Teaching collocations in general and specifically lexical collocations is preferred to be through modules of vocabulary not as a separate module. And in case of mistakes and mis-collocating, teachers could respond by making the learners pay more attention or give them the right collocations.
- The most preferred way of raising learners' awareness of lexical collocations is giving them texts with collocations underlined. This method also assists learners to see and learn how collocations are used properly in texts which they can use the collocation appropriately in their speaking.
- Having lexical collocations' competence would pave the way for learners to gain confidence and speak fluently. With proper word arranging their oral output could be more comprehensible and native-like.
- Owning and using a dictionary of English collocations would be helpful for learners to find and use right collocations and avoid inapt usage of collocations. Besides, having such a dictionary helps learners avoid usage of English collocations as they do in their mother tongue which sometimes lead to mistakes or mis-collocations.
- Learners' mother tongue or L1 has a great impact on their L2 learning as it is the case of our students. They sometimes use literal translations instead of using appropriate collocations. Therefore, focusing on collocations would help them in avoiding such mistakes.
- It is important for teachers to help their students to avoid learning single words and collocations by memorizing them. A proper and effective

alternative would be learning by visual methods and regular usage of what they learn.

- It is important for teachers to give learners freedom of choosing a topic to discuss and talk about would encourage them to speak more and ultimately their oral skills improve.
- Almost all of our students used multiple or at least one dictionary application on their smart phones. This shows the role of new technology and electronic device in learning another language. It is easier for learners to find a word or a phrase in a mobile-phone not in a book, also carrying a mobile-phone or other electronic appliances is easier than carrying books or dictionaries. Relating to this, teachers can help their students by specifying authentic websites, applications and programs of dictionaries of English language.
- Learners use dictionaries to find new entries and their meanings. But a problem arises when they use dictionaries of English – their mother tongue instead of using English – English dictionaries. As it is the case of our students using English-Kurdish dictionaries. It is obvious that using English-English dictionaries is a reliable source of finding new collocations and their correct usage.
- Dictionaries, online concordances, and authentic texts are reliable sources of finding new collocations. Besides, watching movies in English, socializing with English native speakers, could be helpful in finding and learning collocations.
- Regarding usage of collocations, extensive reading and writing help learners to retrieve collocations which they have learned when they need to use them in their speaking or writing.

5.2 Suggestions For Further Research

Despite that many studies have been done on collocations so far, and this thesis covers one aspect of lexical collocations as it is clear from the title. Yet there are other aspects which can be studied in the future. Thus our suggestions for further studies are the following:

- The logic behind the arrangement of collocations could be studied since sometimes the arrangement of collocations is different from one culture to another one.
- Further studies may investigate role of grammatical collocations in learning languages since they constitute a great part of English vocabulary.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

It is crucial for students of English as a foreign language be encouraged to use English – English dictionaries rather than dictionaries which are from English into their mother tongue. Using English-English dictionaries help the learners to acquire the words, phrases and sentences appropriately and it is a reliable source to find right collocations. Moreover, having a dictionary of English language collocations would also facilitate finding collocations and distinguishing their types easier to learn and use in their language input and output.

It is important to mention that daily exposure to English language either reading or listening is essential to learn new phrases and collocations. Consequently, watching TV programs, movies, reading in English and socializing with English native speakers paves the way for getting familiar and acquiring new sets of words and collocations.

Students' psychological aspect is also effective in class and teachers should pay attention to. As we found in this study, there are students who are shy or unconfident. Such shyness may lead to anxiety among them in the class. Teachers should try their best to help students to overcome their obstacles and reduce their anxiety in class which facilitate their studying and acquiring language skills.

For a better learning of collocations, teachers should advise their students to keep a specific notebook to write down new collocations they learn. Having such a notebook would help learners to learn and practice collocations and retrieve them easily when needed.



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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Students' questionnaire

Dear students

You are kindly invited to participate in answering the following question. The aim of this questionnaire is to collect data as a part of completing MA degree about the role of teaching lexical collocations in raising EFL learners' speaking fluency. Your participation is voluntary, and your answers will be confidentially used only for this case study.

If you are willing to participate, please try to answer correctly and frankly since your answers will affect the outcome of the study. I appreciate your time and participation. Thank you.

Please tick (√) the right answer in the following questions:

1- Age: years old

2- Sex:

| | |
|--------|--|
| Male | |
| Female | |

3- How long have you been studying English?

.....

4- Is it your choice to study English?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

5- Do you use a dictionary?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

6- If yes, which dictionary do you use?

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| English-English | |
|-----------------|--|

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| English-Kurdish | |
| English-Arabic | |
| All of them | |

7- How often do you use it?

| | |
|-----------|--|
| Always | |
| Sometimes | |
| Rarely | |
| Never | |

8- Do you use any dictionaries on your mobile-phone?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

9- How do you appreciate your level of English?

| | |
|-----------|--|
| Very good | |
| Good | |
| Bad | |
| Very bad | |

10- Which one do you prefer learning?

| | |
|------------|--|
| Grammar | |
| Vocabulary | |
| Both | |

If you can please tell us why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

11- How is your speaking proficiency?

| | |
|-----------|--|
| Very good | |
| Good | |
| Bad | |
| Very bad | |

12- If it is bad or very bad then what makes it difficult for you to speak easily?

- a. You think you have shortage of words to use.
- b. You cannot use the right words together.

13- Do you find it difficult to find the right word combinations? (which words are used together?)

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

14- Do you think knowledge of how to put words that occur together would help you improve your speaking skill?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

15- Do you know what collocation is?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

16- If yes, where have you learnt collocations?

| | |
|----------------|--|
| In class | |
| Another source | |

17- If it is another source please mention the source you learnt collocations from:

.....

18- Do you have a special dictionary of English collocations?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

19- Which way is better for you to learn new English words and improve your vocabulary?

- a. Learning single words.
- b. Learning words in combinations (collocations).

Please explain why?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

20- Do you agree that teachers must raise students' awareness of lexical collocations in order to help them speak English proficiently?

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| Strongly agree | |
| Agree | |
| Disagree | |
| Strongly disagree | |

21- While speaking, do you put English words together just like you do in Kurdish?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

22- Concerning teaching, is it important that collocations should be taught separately?

| | |
|---------------|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |
| I do not know | |

23- If you have any other comments or suggestions concerning the topic please do not hesitate to mention below:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thanks a lot for your time and contribution.

Appendix 2: Teachers' questionnaire

Dear Colleagues,

This questionnaire is a part of a study carried out in Soran University as a requirement of completing the MA degree in Istanbul Aydin University. It is intended to collect data about the role of teaching lexical collocations in raising EFL learners' speaking proficiency.

Your participation is voluntary, and your correct and frank answers will enrich the study. The data collected will be confidential and reported in the thesis and not used in any other registers. I greatly appreciate your time and contribution. Thank you in advance for your invaluable contribution.

Will you please tick the corresponding answer or fill in with the information necessary:

1- Your age:

| | |
|----------------|--|
| 22 - 25 years | |
| 26 – 30 years | |
| 31 – 35 years | |
| Above 35 years | |

2- Sex:

| | |
|--------|--|
| Male | |
| Female | |

3- Kindly specify your qualification:

| | |
|------|--|
| B.A | |
| M.A | |
| PH.D | |

4- You work in English Department as:

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| Part-time teacher | |
| Full-time teacher | |

5- How long have you been teaching English?

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| It is your first year of teaching | |
| It is between two or three years | |
| It is above four years | |

6- What kind of difficulties have you faced since you have started teaching?

.....

7- In your opinion, what can help raise students' oral proficiency more?

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| Teaching grammar | |
| Teaching vocabulary | |
| Both | |

Can you kindly tell us why?

.....

8- In your opinion vocabulary should be taught:

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| Through other modules | |
| As a separate module | |

9- As a teacher which way is more affective for teaching vocabulary?

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Teaching single words | |
| Teaching chunks (words that co-occur) | |
| Both | |

10- What causes your students make mistakes while speaking?

| | |
|--|--|
| The shortage of correct words | |
| They have words but combine them incorrectly | |

11- When you realize students miscollocate while speaking, what will be the right response?

| | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Giving them the right collocations | |
| Making them to pay more attention | |
| Other | |

If it is other please specify:

.....

12- Students' good knowledge of lexical collocation would affect their oral proficiency.

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| Strongly agree | |
| Agree | |
| Disagree | |
| Strongly disagree | |

13- As a teacher how can you raise your students' awareness of lexical collocations?

| | |
|--|--|
| Through lists of collocations | |
| Giving them texts with collocations underlined | |
| Using special collocation dictionary | |
| Other | |

If other, please specify:

.....

14- Do you encourage students to combine lexical items appropriately?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

15- Do you think that students combine English words as they combine in their mother tongue (Kurdish)?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

16- In your opinion what is the most reliable source of searching for collocations?

| | |
|--|--|
| Texts and passages with related matter | |
| Online concordances | |
| Dictionaries | |
| Other sources | |

If it is other sources, please specify:

.....

17- In your opinion how can teachers help students retrieve lexical collocations easily?

| | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Extensive reading or writing | |
| Giving examples | |
| Translation | |
| Consciousness raising activities | |

18- As a teacher, is it important to teach collocations as a separate module?

| | |
|-----|--|
| Yes | |
| No | |

19- If yes or no, please specify the reason:

.....
.....
.....
.....

20- Please feel free to add any comments or suggestions about the related topic:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you very much for your time and contribution.



Appendix 3: Collocation test

Dear test takers this test is a part of a broad study on the role of teaching lexical collocations in raising speaking fluency. The results of the test will be confidential and not counted in any registers. The participation is voluntary and it may take you 15 minutes. Your participation is appreciated.

1- Fill in the gaps with suitable collocations from the following options:

(critical snap attention severely serious tackle
evidence make provide neighboring)

- A- Kay is quite a shy person and finds it hard to friends.
- B- I don't want to make a decision which I'll regret later.
- C- The judge believes that all shoplifters should be punished.
- D- Does the college training in computer skills?
- E- Flu is not a illness for most people, but it can be life-threatening.
- F- The writer is sharply of our political system.
- G- Contradictory made it hard for the jury to reach a verdict.
- H- Many people who work here actually live in towns.
- I- It is clear that we must pollution before it is too late.
- J- He has attracted over his controversial decision.

2- Choose the proper word from the options to complete the collocations in the text:

- A- John told his students don't be afraid of (doing/ making) mistakes.
- B- We should not make a (hasty/fast) decision.
- C- His book helped (raise/lift) awareness of inner-city poverty.
- D- Differences (exist/have) between the unions and the management over how to solve the problem.
- E- The PM (powerfully/strongly) denied claims of corruption made against him.

3- Match the words under A with the appropriate word under B to make up right collocations:

A

B

| | |
|-----------|-----------|
| Achieve | murder |
| Panoramic | view |
| Commit | success |
| Junk | agreement |
| Vigorous | exercise |
| Online | company |
| Rival | shopping |
| Drug | smell |
| Peace | food |
| Strong | abuse |





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20/02/2018

Sayın DABAN SABER QADER

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Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Özer KANBEROĞLU
Müdür V.



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Work Experience:

2009-2010 European Technology & Training Center Erbil-Project Coordinator

2010-2011 China National Lodging Corporation Erbil-Administrative Assistant

2011-.... – Erbil Polytechnic University-Choman Technical Institute-Translator and Lecturer

Languages:

-Kurdish: Native Language

-English: Advanced

-Arabic: Advanced

-Persian: Upper-Intermediate

-Turkish: Elementary

Skills:

-Communication, Teamwork, Problem Solving, Flexibility, Creativity

- Computer skills (Microsoft Office) and others

