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VOCABULARY RETENTION: A COLLOCATIONAL STUDY

THESIS BY

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ÖZET
SÖZCÜK BİLGİSİNİ AKILDA TUTMA: SÖZDİZİMSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Gençlere İngilizce öğretimi uzun bir süredir eğitimcilerin ve araştırmacıların gündemindedir. Gençlere iyi bir dil öğretimi sağlamak amacıyla öğretim teknikleri üzerine birçok araştırma yapılmaktadır. Bir diğer taraftan yabancı dil öğrenim sürecinde önemli bir rol oynayan kelime birçok yıldır ihmal edilmiştir. Ancak son zamanlarda kelime bilgisinin öneminin artmasıyla kelime öğretimi ve öğrenimiyle ilgili birçok teknik ve yaklaşım ortaya çıkmıştır. Kelime öğrenimine sözcük grubu edinimi olarak kabul eden sözdizimi kullanımı, kelime öğretiminde son zamanlarda kullanılan bir yoldur.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, kelimeleri sözdizimi kullanarak öğretmenin, öğrencilerin kelime kazanımını arttırıp arttırmayacağını araştırmaktır. Bu çalışma Mezitli Kız Teknik ve Meslek Lisesi' nde yapılmıştır. Katılımcılar İngilizce öğreniminin başlangıç seviyesinde olan 33 kişiden oluşan 9. sınıf öğrencileridir. Çalışmanın başında 9. sınıfın müfredatına uygun 15 kelime seçilmiştir. Araştırmacı tarafından, her kelime için ayrı ayrı hazırlanmış ve onları farklı aktivitelerle sunan birer çalışma kâğıdı hazırlanmıştır. Çalışma 5 hafta sürmüştür. Bu araştırma için hem ön-test hem de son-test olarak uygulanan bir kelime testi, veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın en sonunda ise öğrencilerle görüşmeler yapıp, öğrencilerin uygulama hakkında ne düşündükleri sorulmuştur. Bu durum çalışmasının sonuçları, kelimeleri sözdizimi kullanarak öğretmenin, öğrencilerin kelimeleri akıllarında tutmalarında anlamlı bir etki yaptığını göstermiştir. Bu araştırmadan elde edilmiş bulgular doğrultusunda, sözdizimi kullanımı sonucunda genç öğrencilerin, kelime bilgilerini geliştirdiği belirlendi.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sözdizimi, Kelimeyi Hafızada Tutma

ABSTRACT
VOCABULARY RETENTION: A COLLOCATIONAL STUDY

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Teaching young learners has been on the agenda of educationists and researchers for a long time. A lot of investigations have been carried out about techniques for how best to teach young learners. On the other hand, vocabulary that plays an important role in foreign language learning process has been neglected for decades. But recently with raising importance of vocabulary many techniques and approaches related to vocabulary teaching and learning have emerged. Using collocations, which accepts the vocabulary learning as a phrase acquisition, is one of the recent way to teaching vocabulary.

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether teaching vocabulary through collocations will increase the learners' vocabulary gain. The study was conducted at Mezitli Technical and Vocational High School for Girls. The participants were 33 ninth grade students. They were young language learners at the elementary level of proficiency. At the beginning of the study, 15 target words were selected according to the curriculum. A paper, which presents the words via different activities, was prepared by the researcher for each word. The study lasted five weeks. A vocabulary test, which was administered as the pre- and post- test, was used as data collection device. In order to find out if there is a difference between the pre and post tests, t-test was used. At the end of the study, interviews were made with the students and they asked what they think about the treatment. The results of the case study indicated that teaching vocabulary through collocations made a significant effect on the learners' retention of the words. In other words, the young language learners improved their vocabulary as a result of using collocations.

Keywords: Collocation, Vocabulary Retention

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Pre-test and Post-test.....	43
Table 2. The statistics of Paired-Samples T-Test.....	44
Table 3. The Sample Collocational Exercise Designed by Lewis.....	52

ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
TEFLESE	Language Designed to Illustrate the Workings of a Simplified Grammatical System and Bearing a Beguiling but Ultimately Quite False Similarity to Real English

TABLE OF CONTENTS

COVER.....	i
APPROVAL PAGE.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ÖZET.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	vi
ABBREVIATIONS.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the Study.....	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	2
1.3. Significance of the Study.....	3
1.4. Limitations of the Study.....	4
1.5. Research Questions.....	5

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	6
2.1. Introduction	6
2.2. Teaching Vocabulary	6
2.3. The Lexical Approach.....	10
2.3.1. Words.....	15
2.3.2. Polywords	16
2.3.3. Collocations	16
2.3.4. Institutionalized Expressions	21
2.3.5. Sentence Frames	22
2.4. The Importance of Collocations in L2 Learning.....	22
2.5. Empirical Studies on Collocations	25

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY.....	30
3.1. Introduction	30
3.2. Participants	30
3.3. Materials	30
3.4. Research Design and Procedure	30
3.5. Data Analysis Procedure.....	33

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS.....	34
4.1. Comparison of the Test Results.....	34

CHAPTER 5

5. CONCLUSION.....	38
5.1. Introduction.....	38
5.2. Conclusion and Discussion.....	38
5.3. Implications of the Study.....	41
5.4. Further Research.....	42

6. REFERENCES.....	44
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7. LIST OF APPENDICES.....	52
7.1. Appendix A Pre-Test.....	52
7.2. Appendix B Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions.....	54
7.2.1 Appendix B.1 Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions.....	54
7.2.2 Appendix B.2 Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions.....	55
7.2.3 Appendix B.3 Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions.....	56
7.3. Appendix C Post-Test.....	57
7.4 Appendix D Interview questions used in the thesis “Vocabulary Retention: A Collocational Study”.....	58
7.5 Appendix E Some interview responses of the students.....	59

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Vocabulary is the main component of any language. So, for the vocabulary learning and teaching there should be a special effort. According to Celce–Murcia and Rosensweig (1989) vocabulary should be recognized as a central element in foreign language instruction from the beginning stages and having an adequate stock of vocabulary often helps the learner more not only in reading comprehension, but also in achieving more efficient survival communication than having a perfect command of structures with an inadequate amount of vocabulary. No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way (McCarthy, 1990).

Balcı (2006) states that as far as communication is concerned, vocabulary is just one of the components in the whole system. That is, grammar or the structures and these functions also pay a vital role in communication. On the other hand Wallace (1982) claims that;

No matter how good a language learner is at grammar, he might still have difficulty in communicating, however; he will be able to communicate to a certain extent provided that he knows the necessary vocabulary. In other words; communication could be achieved with a relative degree of success by means of an adequate knowledge of vocabulary alone. Thus, vocabulary should be viewed as an integral part of learning a foreign language since it leads the way to communication. (p.3)

With the recognition of the importance of vocabulary, many techniques and approaches to teaching and learning vocabulary have emerged (Balcı, 2006). Teaching vocabulary through collocations comes at the head of these techniques. Acquiring vocabulary is not learning only its dictionary meaning. It rather means a learner's knowledge about the possible relationship of the words in question, which one fits more with which (Şimşek, 2008).

The term of collocation was originally introduced by J. R. Firth (1957a). He is often quoted having said “*you know a word by the company it keeps*” (Firth, 1957, p.11).

Collocations are simply the patterns of co-occurrence of words. Word combinations such as *make progress*, *feel free* and *take a vacation* are some examples of them. According to McCarthy (1990) the relationship of collocation is fundamental in the study of vocabulary; it is a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others.

It is obvious that learning and using collocations have some benefits for the learners. Lindstromberg (2003) claims that collocations;

- increased fluency (when speaking and writing)
- faster comprehension of when reading and listening generally
- better comprehension, especially when listening to fast speech.

In other words, by storing multi-word expressions as *chunks*, we can recall and use them without having to mentally construct them from individual words each time we want to use them or mentally parse (grammatically analyze) them each time we read or hear them. (pp.1-2)

Learners need to be aware of the importance of collocations. If they can use multiword units without error, they will feel more confident about their language use (Bircan, 2010). It is much more useful for them to learn “sing a song” than “song”. According to Boers, Eyckmans and Stengers (2006) collocations are retrieved from the memory holistically; so this makes students more fluent and being able to use of them makes the students sound more native-like.

Today, it is almost an undeniable truth by the scholars and foreign language teachers that collocations are integral elements of second and foreign language teaching (Şimşek, 2008). It is also clear that teaching vocabulary through collocations has a lot of advantages for language learners. The focus of this study is to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocation will increase the learners vocabulary gain.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this case study is to investigate whether using collocations will result in better vocabulary learning. The importance of vocabulary learning has always been realized and discussed (Deveci, 2004; Carter & McCarty, 1988; Ellis, 1999). The Natural and Communicative Approaches emphasize the importance of vocabulary development and find it necessary for meaningful communication. With the rise of these approaches, the EFL course books have started to place different types of collocation activities.

One of the most important responsibilities of language teachers is to deal with vocabulary building problems of learners effectively, using the most appropriate and effective techniques in their classes (Koç, 2006). Using collocations is only one of these techniques. According to Ördem (2005) collocation studies have brought a new perspective to vocabulary teaching, deviating from traditional vocabulary teaching because unless students know how to collocate the words, they are bound to make long syntactic sentences so that they can express the ideas in the target language clearly and precisely. Also Koç (2006) stresses that;

If collocations are not learned as part of L2 vocabulary knowledge, learners' use of the second language is odd and deviant from Standard English. In addition, they are not fluent in writing and in speech production. Furthermore, they have difficulties in understanding texts since they cannot identify collocations. Therefore, it is important that language teachers provide opportunities for their students to develop collocational competence. (p.5)

Teachers use many different techniques in their language teaching to learners in Turkey. Most of the teachers tend to use some traditional techniques, which give more importance to grammar and the structure of the language. For the teaching of vocabulary items, they prefer de-contextualized situations, definitions and translation-based techniques. Students tend to learn new words via word lists or individually. As a result, students do not make any efforts to learn the meaning or they forget the meaning of words easily (Balcı, 2006). So, learners need to be aware of the importance of patterns such as collocation because rather than learning ever lengthening lists of new rare words, students may become more effective communicators by combining the words they already have in new and useful ways (Fusco, n.d.). All in all, this study focuses on the effects of using collocation in teaching vocabulary to young language learners.

1.3. Significance of the Study

It is clear that vocabulary teaching is very important in learning a language and it needs a very special attention. Because learners cannot express themselves with the limited vocabulary. Learners of any foreign language need to know thousands of words in order to understand and use the target language efficiently (Koç, 2006). According to Nation (1993) vocabulary knowledge enables language use, language use enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge, and knowledge of the world enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge and

language use and so on. So teachers should have an idea about the vocabulary teaching techniques.

Beyond the teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as synonyms, antonyms, definition and translation, there is one more effective technique. It is using collocations. Knowing a word is much more than knowing its dictionary meaning. Students need to know how it is used in various contexts, what its cultural connotations are, what words collocate with it, and the like (Koç, 2006). McCarthy (1990) states that in vocabulary teaching there is a high importance of collocation. In addition to this, Taiwo (2004) states that “pupils who lack of collocational competence sometimes make longer sentences because they do not know the collocations, which express precisely their thoughts.” He continues that “proper acquisition of collocations makes learners competent socially at the level of personal communication.”

Studying lexis through collocation helps learners not to break language into pieces but rather learn the target language in chunks, which facilitates retrieving from mental lexicon (Ördem, 2005). A learner should be exposed to a large number of words and chunks so that they can make generalizations about lexis and its collocational restrictions (Lewis, 2000). It is obvious that collocations have an important role in using language, so learning them should be promoted in the classroom.

Consequently, this study aims to emphasize the significance of collocations in language learning and raise teachers’ awareness on the need of vocabulary teaching taking collocation patterns into consideration when dealing with new vocabulary in the classroom.

1.4. Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations that need to be acknowledged and addressed regarding the present study, which intends to find out the effect of collocations on learning new vocabulary. Firstly, this study has been carried out with the ninth graders only in Mezitli Technical and Vocational High School for Girls.

Another noteworthy limitation of this study is the number of student. The study is limited to 33 students.

Thirdly, language and vocabulary level of the students are evaluated based on the first term written exam.

1.5. Research Questions

In this study the following questions will be evaluated:

- 1) Does teaching vocabulary through collocations to ninth graders result in effective learning of vocabulary?
- 2) What are students' beliefs about learning vocabulary through collocations?

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Vocabulary teaching is one of the most essential parts for language acquisition whether the language is first, second or foreign. It is accepted that choosing our words carefully in certain situations is more important than choosing grammatical structures (Harmer, 1991). According to Deveci (2004) we cannot use structures correctly if we do not have enough vocabulary knowledge. Although vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching, interest in its role in second language (L2) learning has grown rapidly in recent years and specialists now emphasize the need for a systematic and principled approach to vocabulary both by the teacher and the learner (Şimşek, 2008). Because of the dominant influence of audio-linguism and the direct method, vocabulary was neglected for many years. On the other hand, Balcı (2006) explains that since 1970s, the perspective on vocabulary teaching has changed because of the effect of the communicative approach and the natural approach in teaching, which emphasized the importance of receptive vocabulary growth during the early stages of language learning.

It is clear that vocabulary acquisition is a very complex procedure. Nesselhauf (2005) states that owing to the nature of vocabulary acquisition, some techniques are developed in order to enhance this process by speeding it up. One way to promote vocabulary acquisition may be with explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations (Koç, 2006).

The term collocation was first introduced by Firth and they are regarded as word combinations. Significance of collocations has been recognized by many linguists, teachers and researchers in recent years. McCarthy (1990) views that in vocabulary teaching there is a high importance of collocation, and describes that the relationship of collocation is fundamental in the study of vocabulary, and collocation is an important organizing principle in the vocabulary of any language.

2.2. Teaching Vocabulary

It is very predictable that the vocabulary of a language especially like English consists of several hundred thousand words. So, the main question about this is “How can language teachers and learners approach this huge store and make sense of it?”. Of course there is not only one simple answer to this question.

Perhaps the greatest tools we can give students for succeeding, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary and the skills for using those words (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004). As Schmitt (2008) states that one thing students, teachers, material writers, and researchers all agree on is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second/foreign language, vocabulary is the main tool for language learners to use the language especially at the early stages of foreign/ second language learning. In addition to this, Lewis (2000) views that vocabulary is the centre of a language and grammar is built around it. As Sinclair (1996) points out “*A lexical mistake often causes misunderstanding, while a grammar mistake rarely does*” (p.p. 179-196). So, for the target language vocabulary is the key for comprehension and production.

According to researches, an educated native English speaker has a vocabulary of about 50000 words (Aitchison, 1987). Meanwhile, there are still some attempts to find a common core vocabulary for non-native English learners. Ogden (1930) views that 850 words can be adequate to speak Basic English in daily life. He also claimed that the words provided by him would help the learners express even their complex ideas and facilitate their communicative competence basically. After Ogden’s explanation about vocabulary, West’s more influential General Service List (1953) which consisted of the 2000 words that comprised 80% of the words in any written text was published. On the other hand, according to Şimşek (2008) trying to identify a common core vocabulary for all learners is almost impossible; while students of general English may benefit from learning such a core, students with specific needs will have different vocabulary requirements. He asserts that learners cannot be taught all the vocabulary they will need and therefore must develop inferential strategies for dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary. So, the question is “Which word should be taught in what order?”.

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

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

Traditionally, vocabulary teaching has focused on teaching word meaning, synonyms, antonyms, which has been thought that words have been taught well in doing so (Oxford & Crookall, 1990). The first predominant method to be implemented in Turkish schools and in the world was the Grammar-Translation Method. It was developed based on procedures used for teaching Latin and evolved out of the need to systematize foreign language teaching for school children (Howatt 2004). Zimmerman (1997) views that this method was introduced in Prussia at the end of the eighteenth century and its main aims were to enable students to read classical literature and pass standardized exams. Mastery of structures was the priority of this method and vocabulary played a secondary role. Hodne (2009) supports the idea that students were given extensive grammatical explanations in their own language and bilingual vocabulary lists, which were to be learned to help them translate classical texts. She also says that in this method, vocabulary was introduced mainly as a way of illustrating a grammar point and when vocabulary difficulties arose, they were usually addressed by means of etymology. Therefore, the main role of vocabulary was viewed as an aid to illustrate a grammar rule, and to understand literary texts full of obsolete vocabulary (Koç, 2006).

Since the Grammar-Translation Method was not very effective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively, the Direct Method became popular (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Its members defended the study of “*connected texts rather than unconnected sentences and lists of isolated words*” (Simensen, 1998). According to Zimmerman (1997), explicit grammar teaching and translation were set aside, while students were expected to learn English through the same process as native speakers do. They would listen first, and then speak, and only in later stages would they learn to read and write. Vocabulary was thought to be generally acquired through interactions in the classroom by asking and answering questions (Hodne, 2009). In order to do this, teacher introduces a new target language word using pictures, mimic, pantomime and realia. Also learners practice vocabulary by using new words in complete sentences. On the other hand, Rivers (1983) states that, one of the weaknesses of this method was that vocabulary was taught in context without much explanation since it adopted the idea that if vocabulary was involved too much in teaching, students would consider language an accumulation of words. Additionally, another flaw of this method was that it emphasized

teaching secondary students how to read in a foreign language, highlighting receptive vocabulary skills but neglecting productive vocabulary skills (Koç, 2006).

From 1945 to 1970, vocabulary teaching was under the influence of structuralism, teaching syntactic patterns with small vocabulary, the idea of which led to Audio-lingual Method that focused on memorization of sentences and repetition drills (Carter & McCarthy, 1996). Structuralist linguist Charles Fries developed Audio-lingual Method, which is oral-based approach like the Direct Method. However, according to Larsen-Freeman (2000) it is very different in that rather than emphasizing vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations, the Audio-Lingual Method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns. Koç (2006) states that, the Audio-Lingual Method focused mainly on structure patterns and deemphasized explicit vocabulary teaching. In this method, new words were only introduced in drills, and vocabulary was thought to be acquired naturally through good language habits (Hodne, 2009).

Nunan (1991) states that there was not much concentration on vocabulary teaching before 1970s, and vocabulary was regarded and treated as a part of grammar or the other skills. In other words, vocabulary teaching was under the influence of structuralism, which was based on teaching syntactic patterns with small vocabulary (Bircan, 2010). Since 1970s, the place of vocabulary teaching has changed due to the effect of the communicative approach and the natural approach in teaching, emphasizing the importance of receptive vocabulary growth during the early stages of language learning (Balci, 2006).

In 1972, Hymes advanced the concept of *communicative competence*, emphasizing the relevance of social interaction to language learning (Zimmerman, 1997). A new approach known as Communicative Language Teaching was developed from this notion. Also, latest curricula in Turkey, elements of this approach, such as cultural knowledge and especially communication, are clearly emphasized. On the other hand, even though it is a meaning-based approach, vocabulary is again given a secondary status (Hodne, 2009). In the same line, Koç (2006) supports the idea that with the arrival of the Communicative Language Teaching approach, fluency was given far more importance, which would result in an expectation of similar amount of prominence devoted to vocabulary teaching; however, it was again of secondary status, being viewed as support for functional language use. Sökmen (1997) views that, in the communicative approaches the priority is *incidental* vocabulary learning, so that students are encouraged to guess from context, use monolingual dictionaries, and avoid translation.

As a consequence, Krashen & Terrell (1983) were developed the Natural Approach to aid beginners in achieving the ability to communicate orally in the classroom in the 1980s. Zimmerman (1997) views that, it is based on five hypotheses, and its methodology emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful input rather than grammatically correct production. It follows that vocabulary, as relevant language input, is considered essential to the acquisition process. Also Krashen (1989) suggests reading as the best way to develop wider vocabulary knowledge for more advanced students.

Vocabulary teaching has made a great progress in applied linguistics and vocabulary studies have developed exponentially after 1980s. Şimşek (2008) puts forward the following idea:

One reason for the resurgence of interest on the part of researchers was that computer-aided research was providing vast amounts of information that had not previously been available for analysis, such as information about how words behave in actual language use, larger units that function in discourse as single lexical items, and differences between written and spoken communication. Further, psycholinguistic studies were providing insights concerning mental processes involved in vocabulary learning, such as memory, storage and retrieval. Interest in these issues led in turn to related studies concerned with developing more effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies. (p.12)

Concepts of corpus, psycholinguistics accounts of vocabulary, L2 vocabulary acquisition, vocabulary storage in memory, vocabulary retrieval, and lexical phrases have emerged through different researchers in recent years (Ördem, 2005). As a product of this movement, a new vocabulary teaching method which was known as Lexical Approach was introduced by Lewis (1993) in the early 1990s.

2.3. The Lexical Approach

The lexical approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years for developing learners' linguistic competence and as an alternative to grammar-based approaches (Moudraia, 2001; Schmitt, 2004; Granger, 1998). This movement away from a grammar-based syllabus largely began with the publication of "The Lexical Approach" by Michael Lewis (1993). In the same line, Harwood (2002) claims that lexical approach has emerged against the dichotomy of grammar and vocabulary with the former emphasizing structures and the latter focusing on single words. The lexical approach concentrates on

developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993). Instruction focuses on relatively fixed expressions that occur frequently in spoken language, such as, "*I'm sorry,*" "*I didn't mean to make you jump,*" or "*That will never happen to me,*" rather than on originally created sentences (Lewis, 1997).

Richards & Rodgers (2001) support the idea that this approach is derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is, words and word combinations. Lewis (1997, 2000) views that native speakers carry a pool of hundreds of thousands, and possibly millions, of lexical chunks in their heads ready to draw upon in order to produce fluent, accurate and meaningful language. So, this method can be apply for the second language learners.

According to Harwood (2002) there are two basic principles of the Lexical Approach. The first one is "teach real language, not 'TEFLESE'; use computer corpora but be corpus-based, not corpus bound". He emphasizes that at the center of Lexical Approach is the stress on teaching real English based on a number of corpus studies providing teachers and learners with frequencies of lexical items, collocations and prevalent grammatical patterns of the lexis. Harwood's (2002) second principle is Recycle and Revisit. He views that the Lexical Approach emphasizes the necessity of using corpora to inform pedagogical materials and the importance of Recycle and Revisit strategy, which is the focus of Lexical Approach. So, language teachers should apply Recycle and Revisit strategy in an effective way. Similarly, Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown (1999) stress that an EFL learner's need for recycling/reviewing is perhaps more acute than a non-native speaker who is surrounded by the L1: since EFL learners are not continually surrounded by the target language they cannot be said to benefit from any spontaneous reviewing which may result.

The existence and importance of lexical units has been discussed by a number of different commentators and they used different and overlapping terms such as gambits, speech formulae, lexicalized stems, lexical phrases, lexis, lexical items, prefabricated phrases, formulaic language, frozen and semi-frozen phrases. Lexical chunk, which is used by some writers, is an umbrella term that includes all the other terms. It is defined as any pair or group of words, which is commonly found together, or in close proximity.

Lexis which is the main tool of the Lexical Approach plays the dominant role in this approach. According to Harwood (2002) *lexis* I have in mind strings of words which go together (i.e. prefabs and collocations) as opposed to the single words language teaching traditionally called vocabulary. Lewis (1993) states that the Lexical Approach highlights lexis however, this does not mean that grammar is undervalued in language learning process. Even though grammar is necessary to combine chunks, if language learners do not have sufficient vocabulary knowledge, grammatical knowledge alone will not provide them with a meaningful situation or context (Lewis, 1997). Also Michael Lewis (1993), who coined the term *lexical approach*, puts forward the following suggestions about lexis:

- Lexis is the basis of language.
- Lexis is misunderstood in language teaching because of the assumption that grammar is the basis of language and that mastery of the grammatical system is a prerequisite for effective communication.
- The key principle of a lexical approach is that “language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar.” In other words, lexis is central in creating meaning, grammar plays a subservient managerial role.
- One of the central organizing principles of any meaning-centered syllabus should be lexis. (p.95)

Sinclair and Renouf (1988) point out that focusing on lexis in classrooms has several advantages. First, teachers can highlight common uses, and important meanings and patterns for frequent words. Both are worth learning because learners may have used this information in authentic situations. Second, teachers can encourage a learner to make full use of the words that the learner already has, regardless of the learner’s level (Sinclair & Renouf 1988). Willis (1990) also notes that it is easier for learners to start exploration of the language if they start from lexis, which is concrete, rather than from grammatical rules, which are abstract.

On the other hand, according to Lee (2004), in claiming the importance of focusing on lexis, linguists do not mean that teachers only need to teach lexis, and should exclude grammar from classrooms. Rather, lexis and grammar are considered inseparable in nature and completely interdependent (Sinclair 1991). Willis (1993) also views that grammar and lexis are two ways of picturing the same linguistic objective. That is, the lexis consists of word - meaning patterns, while the grammar consists of structures, and categorizes words according to

such structures. He considers that language learners have to work simultaneously with the grammar and the lexicon.

In one of his views, Lewis (1993) asks the question of what we are to understand by the term of lexical item (lexis) and following this question brings three characteristics of lexical items:

- meaning is not totally predictable from form,
- each is a minimum unit for certain syntactic purposes,
- each is a social institution.

On the other hand, one of the criticisms levelled at the Lexical Approach is its lack of a detailed learning theory. It is worth noting, however, that Lewis (1993) argues the Lexical Approach is not a break with the Communicative Approach, but a development of it. In other words, it is not really a revolution but an evolution as it tries to develop principles already known by Communicative Language Teaching.

So how does the Lexical Approach deal with the teaching part? Even if the approach doesn't present a clear theory of learning there are some hints about how the teaching looks like within the approach ("The Lexical Approach", 2009). They are:

- Successful language is a wider concept than accurate language. Emphasis is on successful communication not grammatical mastery.
- Language is not learnt by learning individual sounds and structures and then combining them, but by an increasing ability to break down wholes into parts. We can also use whole phrases without understanding their constituent parts.
- Noticing and recording language patterns and collocations.
- Grammar is acquired by a process of observation, hypothesis and experiment. That is, the Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle replaces the Present-Practice-Produce Paradigm.
- Grammar exploration instead of grammar explanation.
- Intensive and extensive listening and reading in the target language.
- First and second language comparisons and translation—carried out chunk-for-chunk, rather than word-for-word—aimed at raising language awareness.
- Repetition and recycling of activities.
- Guessing the meaning of vocabulary items from context.

- The language activities consistent with a lexical approach must be directed toward naturally occurring language and toward raising learners' awareness of the lexical nature of language.
- Working with dictionaries and other reference tools.

In a review of the approach, Kranz (1997, p.223) wrote, "The Lexical Approach can be summarized in a few words: language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks". He goes on to list the main principles of the approach:

1. The grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid.
2. Collocation is used as an organizing principle.
3. Successful language is a wider concept than accurate language.
4. The Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle replaces the Present-Practice-Produce Paradigm.
5. Most importantly, language consists of grammaticalised lexis—not lexicalized grammar".
6. It is the co-contextual rather than situational elements of context, which are of primary importance for language teaching.
7. Grammatical error is recognized as intrinsic to learning process.
8. The primacy of speech over writing is recognized.
9. A central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness and developing their ability to "chunk" language successfully. (p.223)

Moudraia (2001) explains that the lexical approach makes a distinction between vocabulary— traditionally understood as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings— and lexis, which includes not only the single words but also the word combinations that we store in our mental lexicons. She also says that the Lexical Approach advocates argue that language consists of meaningful chunks that, when combined, produce continuous coherent text, and only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel creations. Lewis (1997) suggests the following taxonomy of lexical items:

- Words (e.g., book, pen)
- Polywords (e.g., by the way, upside down)

- Collocations or word partnerships (e.g., community service, absolutely convinced)
- Institutionalized utterances (e.g., I'll get it; We'll see; That'll do; If I were you . . .; Would you like a cup of coffee?)
- Sentence frames and heads (e.g., That is not as . . . as you think; The fact/suggestion/problem/danger was . . .) and even text frames (e.g., In this paper we explore . . .; Firstly . . .; Secondly . . .; Finally . . .). (pp. 255-270)

Also, Nattinger and Decarrico (1992) classify the lexical phrase into seven groups; idioms, clichés, polywords, institutionalized expressions, phrasal constraints, sentence builders and collocations. They classify the lexical phrases in terms of how they are perceived, stored, remembered and produced.

All in all, as seen above, the Lexical Approach pays attention not only to single words but more importantly to collocations and institutionalized utterances and sentence frames. Moreover Lewis (1997) emphasizes that instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever-smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic, ways.

2.3.1. Words

A word is a unit which is a constituent at the phrase level and above. It is sometimes identifiable according to such criteria as (Hartmann and Stork, 1972; Crystal, 1980; Cruse, 1986; Mish, 1991; Pike and Pike, 1982) :

- being the minimal possible unit in a reply
- having features such as
 - a regular stress pattern, and
 - phonological changes conditioned by or blocked at word boundaries
- being the largest unit resistant to insertion of new constituents within its boundaries, or
- being the smallest constituent that can be moved within a sentence without making the sentence ungrammatical

Heinle's Newbury House Dictionary of American English (2004) defines the word as a written or spoken unit of language having one or more meanings; usually the smallest unit of meaning that can be used alone. In another dictionary words are defined as a sound or letter or group of sounds or letters that expresses a particular meaning (Oxford Wordpower Dictionary,

1993). According to Ördem (2005) Words are defined as the most basic kind of lexical items and also the most familiar. He also adds as follows:

However, words alone are of little use to learners because learners probably carry chunks in their mind rather than single word units. A great deal of language is stored in units larger than the individual words. For example, only one single word is required in the example of *Could you please pass me the..... (Salt/pepper) please?* This category is by far the largest of the four categories in the lexicon. (p.13)

2.3.2. Polywords

Polywords are group of words that act as single word. They are very important in the Lexical Approach as they represent one category of “pre-assembled” language called chunks. They are relatively short (two or three words). Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) cite a number of items which they describe as polywords. Some examples are given below:

<i>So far so good</i>	<i>Record player</i>	<i>Of course</i>
<i>Nevertheless</i>	<i>Look up</i>	<i>By the way</i>

According to Willis (2003) polywords need to be learnt as lexical items and they are central to language, functioning as all parts of speech. They help speakers to emphasize topic shifts, summaries, agreement or disagreement with the others and so on (Nattinger & DeCarrio, 1992).

Polywords which are categorized by Lewis (2000) have two groups. The first one is expressions which have no variation. They are indivisible and they are usually short (2-3 word expressions) and the words in those expressions cannot be replaced with synonyms. *On the other hand, upside down* are the examples of this group. The second one is a compound noun which consists of two words that are closely bound to each other. For example, *prime time*. As a consequence, Bircan (2010) states that polywords are important part of lexical phrases and they take a part in vocabulary teaching / learning in language teaching process.

2.3.3. Collocations

The term collocation was first introduced by Firth (1957), who considered that meaning by collocation is lexical meaning "at the syntagmatic level". According to Palmer

(1981), Firth argues that “You shall know a word by the company it keeps”. He exemplifies this by the English word *ass* which occurs in a limited set of context (*You silly _____; Don't be such a _____*) and in the company of a limited set of adjectives (silly, obstinate, stupid and awful).

However, there are various ways to define it and it seems that linguists and teachers have not yet agreed upon a common description (Hodne, 2009). In line with Fontenelle (1998), there does not seem to be any clear-cut, non-controversial definition of the term “collocation”. Sinclair (1991) sees collocation as the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. Another definition is given by Leech (1974) in his discussion of “Seven Types of Meaning”, one of which is “collocative meaning”: Collocative meaning consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. Hoey (1991. As cited in Partington 1998) states another aspect of the concept: collocation has long been the name given to the relationship a lexical item has with items that appear with greater than random probability in its (textual) context. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) define it by saying “*Collocations are strings of specific lexical items and collocations are defined in terms of paradigmatic and syntagmatic axis consisting of a node with a span of words in either side*”. In addition, Lewis (1993) states that collocations identify the ways individual words co-occur with others. Lewis (1997) stresses that collocation is a predictable combination of words. Cruse (1986) offers a more comprehensive, more exclusive and more formal definition. He views that collocations refer to “*sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but which are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent*”. McCarthy and O'Dell (2008) state that words are used with each other (or collocate) in fairly fixed ways in English, and exemplify this point by means of the word *fair*. *Fair* is synonymous with *light, blonde, pale, colorless* and *bleached*. Therefore, it is possible to describe *hair* as *fair, light, blonde* or *bleached*. Collocation is also defined as 'how words typically occur with one another' (Carter and McCarthy, 1988), 'a group of words which occur repeatedly in a language' (Carter, 1992), and 'the ways in which words regularly occur near each other' (Diegman et al. 1998).

In the same line, Hall (2006) emphasizes that collocation is the tendency of words to co-exist. He also adds as follows:

At its simplest it is a predictable association of words that naturally fall together in certain contexts such as 'cup of tea' or 'bread and butter'. However, on a more deeply erratic and idiomatic level, it demands that one word is used rather than

another in particular contexts and this idiomaticity often defies any obvious logic and is thus very difficult for nonnative speakers to predict. Learners need to be aware: a) that it is not denotative meaning alone which determines the way we select words to form sentences; b) of the need to record collocations as discrete lexical items and not try to learn vocabulary word by word. This can be done from the very start of their language learning when they meet such collocations as a loaf of bread, a packet of cigarettes, a bar of soap, a pair of socks.; c) authentic texts are more likely to contain useful collocations than specially constructed texts; d) training is needed on how to spot a collocation or a cluster and determine its boundaries. (p.1)

As a consequence, Simpson (1996) describes the collocation as follows:

Significant chunk of the meaning of a word will be derived from the syntagmatic relationships into which it conventionally enters. This principle of lexical combination is known as collocation. Collocation refers broadly to the grammatical combination of lexemes, while the term collocate is used to describe any word which exhibits a standard pattern of co-occurrence with another word. The principle of collocation helps explain why words occur in the sequences they do. Given that the syntagmatic axis sets up strong structural constraints, collocates are often easily predicted. Collocation is a probabilistic phenomenon: it is a question of whether this or that item is more likely to occur than another. (p.p.78-79)

In his book Lewis (2000) emphasizes that a collocation can consist of two or more words and accepts all of the following as collocations since they are regularly found together;

- a difficult decision (adjective + noun)
- submit a report (verb + noun)
- radio station (noun + noun)
- examine thoroughly (verb + adverb)
- extremely inconvenient (adverb + adjective)
- revise the original plan (verb + adjective + noun)
- the fog closed in (noun + verb)
- to put it another way (discourse markers)

- a few years ago (multi-word prepositional phrase)
- turn in (phrasal verb)
- aware of (adjective + preposition)
- fire escape (compound noun)
- backwards and forwards (binomial)
- hook, line and sinker (trinomial)
- on the other hand (fixed phrase)
- a sort of ... (incomplete fixed phrase)
- not half! (fixed expression)
- see you later/ tomorrow/ on Monday. (semi-fixed expression)
- too many cooks ... (part of a proverb)
- to be or not to be ... (part of a quotation). (p.133)

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

1. adjective + noun (*a huge profit*)
2. noun + noun (*a pocket calculator*)
3. verb + adjective + noun (*learn a foreign language*)
4. verb + adverb (*live dangerously*)
5. adverb + verb (*half understand*)
6. adverb + adjective (*completely soaked*)
7. verb + preposition + noun (*speak through an interpreter*) (p.66)

On the other hand, collocations are classified by some researches and writers, but basically the classifications can be divided into two types. The first type is based on the syntactic or grammatical characteristics of the collocation, the second on its the semantic or lexical characteristics of the collocation. In the first type, a grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of the main word (a noun, an adjective, a verb) and a preposition or grammatical construction such as “to + infinitive” or “that-clause”. As already mentioned above, Hausmann (1989), for example, divides grammatical collocations into six types:

adjective + noun (heavy smoker)

(subject-) noun + verb (storm – rage)

noun + noun (piece of advice)

adverb + adjective (deeply disappointed)

verb + adverb (severely criticize)

verb + (object-)noun (stand a chance).

In the same line, Aisenstadt (1981) makes a classification, but divides the verb + noun group further into verb + noun (e. g. make a decision) and verb + preposition + noun (e. g. come to a decision). Benson, Benson and Ilson (1997) put forward the following types of grammatical collocations:

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

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

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

preposition + noun e.g. *on purpose*

adjective + preposition e.g. *obsessed with*

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

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

verb + to-infinitive / bare infinitive / and with 17 other verb patterns e.g. *They planned to finish the project in two weeks. (p. 13)*

The second type of classification, which does not contain infinitives, prepositions or “that clauses”, but adverbs, adjectives, verbs and nouns is based on the semantic or lexical characteristics of the combination. According to Yong (1999), lexical collocations are combinations of nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs such as Verb+Noun, Adjective+Noun, Noun+Noun, Verb+Adverb and in contrast to grammatical collocations, normally do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses. In other words, lexical collocations consist of two open class words. In addition to these classifications, Lewis (1997) suggests the following three categories for collocations:

1. Strong: Many collocations are strong or very strong. For instance, people speaking English most commonly talk of *rancid butter*, but that does not mean that other things cannot be rancid.
2. Weak: These are words, which co-occur with a greater than random frequency. Many things can be long / tall or short, cheap or expensive, ugly or

beautiful, good or bad but some things are more predictable, which could be called collocation such as *white wine* or *red wine*.

3. Medium strength: These are words that go together with a greater frequency than weak collocations such as *hold a meeting; carry out a study*. (102)

2.3.4. Institutionalized Expressions

Nattinger and DeCarrio (1992, p.37) describes the institutionalized expressions as follows:

- They are lexical phrases of sentence length, usually functioning as separate utterances.
- They are mostly canonical.
- They are invariable
- They are mostly continuous. They are, therefore, quite similar to polywords.

It is necessary at this point to highlight that expressions are fossilized and each comprises a single lexical item. For students, they are simply to be memorized wholly and without attempts to analyze the internal grammar, since they are invariably used in exactly the same form. Proverbs, aphorisms and formulas like *once upon a time; and they lived happily ever after; long time no see*; are classified as institutionalized expressions. (Nattinger & DeCarrio, 1992). Lewis (1993) classifies the institutionalized expressions under three sub-headings:

- Short, hardly grammaticalised utterances: *Not yet, certainly not, just a moment, please....*
- Sentence heads or frames: *Sorry to interrupt, I see what you mean, I wonder if.....*
- Full sentences readily identifiable pragmatic meaning: *Can I help you, I am fine, I will give you a ring.... (p. 19)*

According to Lewis (1998) these institutionalized multi-word units provide the efficient processing both receptively and productively. They have many advantages for the language learners and they play an essential role for the language fluency of the language learners.

As a consequence, Ördem (2005) supports the idea that:

Institutionalized expressions will be of great help to any non-native learner. Clearly a repertoire of such phrases is an important part of fluency for the intermediate and more advanced learner. Institutionalized expressions also

provide a way of increasing the elementary students' communicative resources rapidly, and at the same time provide accurate and natural data against which other novel utterances may be monitored and a valuable resource contributing to the acquisition of competence. (p.14)

2.3.5. Sentence Frames

It is obvious that students often have some problems about the finding just the right words to explain, describe, and clarify what they are thinking and saying. One way to help students is to provide sentence frames. There are various types of sentence frames. For example:

-Identifying the main idea: I have come to this conclusion because...

-Agreeing and disagreeing simultaneously: Although I agree with _____ up to a point, I cannot accept his overall conclusion that _____.

-Making a prediction about the text using the text features: If we look at the _____, it shows/illustrates ...

-Reflecting on what has been learned: I would like some help with...

According to Tourtillott (2008) a sentence frame is a structure to focus student learning on specific elements of content or language. Having students produce the language orally embeds and contextualizes new learning.

2.4. The Importance of Collocations in L2 Learning

The importance of collocations for the development of L2 vocabulary, language and communicative competence has been emphasized by a number of researchers, linguists and language pedagogues (Brown, 1974; Nattinger, 1980, 1988; Bahns & Eldow, 1993; Benson, Benson and Ilson, 1997; Howarth, 1998; Sinclair, 1991). Within the lexical items, *collocation* has the high priority and is one of the biggest definable areas to which all learners need to be introduced from the first lesson. As mentioned before, the common definition of the collocation is the patterns of co-occurrence of words and with the rise of the Lexical Approach it gained importance.

According to Hill (2000) there are several reasons why it is important to teach collocations. One reason to teach collocations is the fact that they improve thought processing and lead to effective communication. Native speakers read, talk and listen to quick-paced discourses because they have a vast repertoire of chunks of language in storage, ready to be produced and recognized. Having these ready-made pieces of speech makes it easier for us to

express complex ideas and think faster, since all our brain space is not occupied searching for words. Another reason why collocations should play a central role in ELT has to do with the predictability of vocabulary use. When a speaker thinks of drinking, s/he might say *have*. Automatically, the listener conjures up a list of possible continuations – *coffee, water, tea, whisky*, but not *oil* or *shampoo*. Similarly, when someone says *do*, the listener might expect something like *the right thing* or *his best*, but never *a mistake*. The way words combine in collocations is fundamental to language use. Lastly, collocations facilitate the acquisition of correct pronunciation. Producing speech from individual words often results in bad stress and intonation because the speaker cannot utter correct chunks of language. On the other hand, fixed expressions provide the students with the stress pattern of the phrase as a whole, allowing for a better pronunciation. Besides, students cannot recognize and store chunks if they do not know them correctly. What is more, Hill (2000) states that collocations should be given the same emphasis in class as individual words. In fact, students cannot really learn a new word unless they learn how to use it. That is why teachers should teach new words along with their most common collocate. If the word is *ferry*, the teacher must also mention *go on the car ferry, a roll-on roll-off ferry, take the ferry from _____ to _____*.

It is worth noting that the correct use of collocations by the learners is a sign of growth and maturity in the use of foreign language. Moreover, Taiwo (2004) views that learning collocations is learning typical expressions in a language. Proper acquisition of collocations makes learners competent socially at the level of personal and technical communications. He also supports the idea that pupils who lack collocational competence sometimes make longer sentences because they do not know the collocations, which express precisely their thoughts. For instance, he gives some examples, which have been found in ESL pupils' compositions in Nigeria:

- they have sex the wrong way (sex abuse)
- people have the ability to say what they need (freedom of expression)
- the situation whereby people vote for their rulers to rule them (democratic rule)

Similarly, Hill (1999) views that students with good ideas often lose marks because they do not know the four or five most important collocations of a key word that is central to what they are writing about. According to him, if a learner knows correct collocation s/he uses “He has a permanent disability” rather than “His disability will continue until he dies”. He also states that because of there is no simple solution for correcting these mistakes, increasing

mental lexicons of the learner, having them acquire collocations through large amounts of quality input are the best way to foster the learners' accuracy.

Collocations help learners' language use, both with the development of fluency and native like selection. For instance, Benson, Benson and Ilson (1997) highlight the importance of this as follows:

Learners of English as a foreign or second language, like learners of any language, have traditionally devoted themselves to mastering words, their pronunciation, forms and meanings. However, if they wish to acquire active mastery of English, that is, if they wish to be able to express themselves fluently and accurately in speech and writing, they must learn to cope with the combination of words into phrases, sentences and texts. (p. ix)

Bonk (2000) states that native speakers have extensive knowledge of how words combine in their language, and they use this knowledge when retrieve lexical items and link them appropriately in language production. In addition to this, McCarthy (1990) the systematic use of these combinations in the case of second language learners, subsequently, is considered to be very crucial to achieve like native production. A similar view is reported by Brown (1974). She argues that learning collocations not only increase learners' knowledge of collocation but it improves the learners' oral proficiency, listening comprehension and reading speed. In addition, she points out that learning collocations enables learners gradually to realize language chunks used by native s speakers in speech and writing and to get the feel of using words in natural combinations with other words as well. Accordingly, Brown highlights that collocations should be included when we teach advanced learners new words because of their significance role in language learning.

In the same vein, Deveci (2004) states that:

Collocations are important to language learners. When learners use collocations, they will be better understood. Native speakers unconsciously predict what is going to be said based on the use of phrases. If a non-native speaker uses frequently used patterns (collocations), it will be easier for native speakers to guess what the non-native speaker is saying and may help compensate for other language issues, such as pronunciation. When learners write and speak, if they use collocations central to their topic, their readers are more likely to understand their message. (p.17)

As a consequence, McCarty (1984) emphasizes that:

The more the learner can see the practical applications in language comprehension and production of notions such as collocation, the practical ways in which set relations can be applied in speech and writing and, from the very outset, that our fundamental access to meaning is the relations between words in contexts, than the more vocabulary learning will move away from its hidebound entrenchment in word-and-definition and the receptacle of sentence. (p.12)

It is very obvious that dictionaries are the most important instruments that learners can apply to find lexical information. Nevertheless, these kinds of dictionaries which you can find almost all the students' schoolbag do not help the learners in the field of collocation. Koç (2006) explains that conventional dictionaries are used for decoding- finding the meaning of unknown words- rather than encoding. According to her, since collocations were recognized by many scholars as one of the most significant aspects of lexicon, some researchers have diverted attention to the need of developing more sophisticated phraseological dictionaries. These types of dictionaries are usually based on large corpora, including learner corpora, and provide invaluable information to learners (Hodne, 2009).

2.5. Empirical Studies on Collocations

There have been a lot of researches done in the field of collocation in both Turkey and Abroad. Especially during the last two decades a great number of studies in L2 acquisition research that investigated how the knowledge and use of collocations by students at different levels of proficiency affect their communicative competence and language performance have been conducted. With the popularity of corpus linguistics, collocation has attracted substantial attention from researchers and linguists. Pei (2008, pp. 73-79) points out that published studies on collocation as they pertain to learners of English tend to focus on five points;

- Measuring of L2 learners knowledge of collocations in general
- Investigation of the developmental patterns of the knowledge and use of L2 collocations
- Analysis of L2 learners collocational errors
- Examination of the correlation between collocations and general language skills

- Assessment of direct instruction of collocations for L2 learners. (p.p.73
79)

In an experiment carried out by Bahns and Eldaw (1993), a translation and a cloze task were used to test German post-secondary learners' active knowledge of 15 English verb-noun 'lexical collocations'. The German collocations used in the translation test were direct equivalents of the English collocations. There were 15 sentences in the cloze test each sentence containing one verb-noun collocation with the verb missing. The analysis of the data revealed that the subjects produced more than twice as many errors in their translations of the nouns in the noun-verb collocations as in their translation of general lexical words, while in the cloze test nearly 52% of the responses were grammatically or collocationally unacceptable to a native speaker of English. The results show that for advanced ESL students collocations present a major problem in the production of correct English. The results also indicate that the learners' knowledge of collocations does not expand in parallel with their knowledge of general vocabulary, since they could not identify the specific verb-noun collocations, although they could use general lexical items. Bahns and Eldaw (1993) suggest that the results of their study are due to the fact that collocations are not taught explicitly in the classroom and therefore learners do not pay any attention to learning them.

Farghal and Obiedat (1995) tested Arabic EFL students for the productive knowledge of 11 adjective + noun and noun + noun English collocations in two written tasks. They conclude that, overall, L2 learners could not cope with collocations because they were not made aware of collocations in the language. They suggest that this led students to employ strategies of 'lexical simplification' such as synonymy, paraphrasing, avoidance, and transfer, as well as to use literal translation from their L1.

Bonk (2000) investigated the relationship between collocational knowledge and language proficiency in order to design valid tests on collocation. The results revealed that collocational knowledge increases with proficiency and even learners at low-intermediate levels of general proficiency in English (according to their TOEFL scores) have developed some productive knowledge of target collocations. It was suggested that such knowledge might be acquired naturalistically, because classroom teaching normally did not focus on collocations.

In yet another study, Altınok (2000) investigated whether teaching vocabulary in collocations will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using definitions only. The participants were from Çukurova University, Center of Foreign Languages

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

Biskup (1992) also conducted a study on collocation. In his study, he defined collocations as different from idioms, since they are transparent. It means that they are non-idiomatic and he tried to find out whether lexical collocations cause problems for L2 learners and which subtypes are difficult for them. After the tests, there seemed to be no difficulty in perception, but in production and when the students were asked to provide the translation of collocations. They also had difficulties in the verb + noun category. The results showed that L1 has a significant influence on L2 use. He also concluded that verbs are the main part in most collocations and they determine the collocational system of a language. He stated that it is not easy for a non-native speaker to guess the collocates of a word, it needs exposure so collocations should be taught. In addition when learners encounter a new collocation together with a word they do not make an effort to learn it and this does not ignite their mental process. That is why teaching collocations should be dealt with separately and it should be focused.

Balcı (2006) investigated whether teaching vocabulary through collocations would result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as using definition, synonym, antonym, and mother tongue translations. Her study was done at a primary school. The participants were 59 seventh grade students. Twelve small reading passages were used. The experimental group was presented the new vocabulary through their collocations and the control group was presented the new vocabulary through classical techniques. According to the results of this research, teaching vocabulary through collocations and clichés resulted in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques and enhanced retention of new vocabulary items.

In the same line, another study was done by Şimşek (2008) in Turkey. The purpose of his study was to examine whether teaching vocabulary through collocations would result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using classical techniques such as using definition, synonym, antonym and mother tongue translation. The study was conducted at Selçuk University, Faculty of Education, and English Language Department. The participants were 79 undergraduates of first-graders. In the control group there were 39 students and in the experimental group, there were 40 students. Their ages ranged from 18 to 20. According to the

findings of this study there were not any significant differences between groups. The researcher gave some reasons and told about his limitations in his dissertation. Şimşek (2008) emphasized that even though in this study teaching words in collocations did not produce any statistically significant difference in learning new vocabulary items, collocations should be dealt with more carefully and the teaching of them should take more time according to the findings of this study.

Diao (2004) conducted a survey to examine English majors knowledge of chunks, collocations included. The subjects of the research were seniors of English majors and fresh men. The survey consists of two tests: a receptive test of 30 multiple choices and a productive test of 20 translations from Chinese collocations into English collocations. It is found that collocation competence is a good indicator of learners' language proficiency, but their collocation competence as a whole is far from satisfactory. Learners are liable to create free combinations in cases where collocations are preferred.

Another important study on collocation was conducted by Taylor (2000). According to him there is a consensus among researchers and language teachers about the importance of collocations for second and foreign language learning. These researchers put forward the following idea to the second / foreign language curriculum because then it can be believed beneficial for the development of L2 vocabulary and communicative competence. The aim of this study was to investigate the patterns of acquisition of English collocations. In the study, 275 junior high school Greek learners in three different levels participated. They used three measures: a translation task, a writing task and a gap-filling task. According to the results of this study, the knowledge of collocations occurred gradually; the higher levels were more successful than the lower levels and the amount of exposure to a particular collocation correlated with better acquisition of that collocation.

Huang (2001) is one of the first to carry out a study on Chinese learners' collocational knowledge. He investigated both the productive and receptive knowledge of English collocations by English learners. Subjects of the study were 80 college juniors majoring in English. They were requested to finish three tests: one is collocational competence test composed of 38 multiple choice questions, a second is collocation recognition test composed of 28 multiple choice question, and the other is a comprehensive competence test, including listening, reading comprehension and writing. He concluded that the collocational competence is correlated with learners' comprehensive competence, and good L2 learners enjoy a higher level of collocation competence.

200 undergraduate third and fourth year Jordanian students majoring in English performed poorly in a multiple-choice test conducted by Fayed-Hussein (1990). He especially aimed to assess the students' ability to collocate words correctly in English. The multiple-choice test consisted of 40 sentences, with each sentence containing an incomplete collocation. The collocations tested were mainly noun-noun, adjective-noun, and verb-noun phrases. Only 48.4% of the collocations were answered correctly by the students and their performance on the test was found unsatisfactory. Almost half of the incorrect responses were found to be due to negative transfer from L1. Unfamiliarity with the structure of the particular idioms and fixed expressions was another major factor for incorrect responses. Finally, the students' tendency to use generic terms instead of specific ones accounted for 38.3% of incorrect responses. Fayed-Hussein lists a number of reasons for the students' inadequate knowledge of English collocations: the neglect of lexicon in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language, the students' insufficient reading experience (which is assumed to restrict their knowledge of vocabulary, synonyms, lexical restrictions, etc.), the reduction and simplification that takes place in the teaching of a foreign language (which can encourage students to use oversimplified generalizations), and the subjects' overuse of guessing strategies in answering the test items. The latter could have also been encouraged by the format of the test, i.e. multiple choice test items.

CHAPTER 3

3. MEDHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The goal of this case study is to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocations has a positive effect on learning new words.

This chapter specifies the methodology of the study. First, the participants who contributed to the study are described. Then, the materials to collect data, the way the data were collected and how the scores were given are explained and presented.

3.2. Participants

After necessary permission was obtained from the school management, the study was conducted at Mezitli Technical and Vocational High School for Girls in Mersin in the second term of the academic year 2011-2012 with the participation of the ninth graders. There were 33 students aged between 15 and 16 years who participated in the study. According to the arithmetic means of the exam results of the first term, there was not significant difference in terms of their language level. Only three or four students were more successful than the others. According to the course book, their language level was A2. The researcher himself was the English teacher of the class.

3.3. Materials

In this study two kinds of materials, testing materials and teaching materials were used. The first step was to select words which would be presented during the study. In order to select target words, the course book was used. After a detailed study, 15 words were selected by their teacher from their course book, workbook and the teacher's book. This means that the target vocabulary items were selected in accordance with their curriculum in the school. In choosing these words, the appropriateness of them for the proficiency level of the students was taken into consideration.

3.4. Research Design and Procedure

A single group pre-test and post-test design was designed for the study. In this research, the research project tested the independent variables using collocations on vocabulary

development. The dependent variable was a pre- and post- vocabulary tests. The pre-test and post-test results were analyzed using a paired-samples t-test.

As a part of the regular curriculum, some selected words chosen to be used in the treatment and the participants received the treatment monitored by the teacher. A vocabulary test was administered before and after the treatment in order to see the effect of the treatment

A pre-test (see Appendix A) was administered to 33 students one week prior to the treatment session in order to know the students' knowledge of selected words. The pre-test was a simple recognition test in multiple choice format and the students were asked to choose the best alternative among the choices of target words. For the pre-test and post-test multiple choice type of questions were used due to the fact that it would be easy to assess and provide more practicality for later evaluation.

The pre-test consisted of 15 gap-filling questions. The sentences used at the questions were chosen from the Oxford Wordpower Dictionary and Newbury House Dictionary of American English. The researcher explained the test to the students. All the test instructions were written in English. To prevent misunderstanding, the instructions were also given in Turkish. The participants were assured that the data would be treated confidentially and would not affect their grades. 15 minutes were allowed to the subjects to complete the test, and they were told that they should not leave any test items unanswered.

New vocabulary items in the students' course book were taught through classical techniques such as translation, word lists, synonyms and antonyms. But in this study vocabulary was thought through their collocations. For the treatment session, a paper (see Appendix B) was designed for each word. In these papers there were four different types of activities. Initially, the students read the word and then the researcher explained its meaning (see Appendix B, section 1). The meanings of the vocabulary items were taken from Oxford Wordpower Dictionary, Newbury House Dictionary of American English and website <http://www.seslisozluk.net>.

Then, collocates which were chosen from the Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English were written around that word (see Appendix B, section 2). It is worth noting that with this way multiple suitable collocations were presented for each word, so students learned the word through their collocations.

After presenting a word and its collocates, sample sentences related to the target word presented to make the activity more meaningful (see Appendix Bs, section 3). The items were presented in sample sentences, because it would be very difficult to construct meaningful and cohesive reading passages including these words and collocates. These sample sentences were

chosen from the website <http://www.cumlesozluk.com/testler.html>, Oxford Wordpower Dictionary and Newbury House Dictionary of American English and Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English.

The last activity of the paper was a matching activity (see Appendix Bs, section 3). The students were asked to match the pictures with their collocations.

The 9th grades have only three-hour-English lesson in a week. For this study, an hour English lesson was used for the presentation of five words in every week. The treatment session continued 3 weeks until 15 words were presented. One week following the treatment session, the post-test (see Appendix C) which included the same questions as the pre-test was administered to the 33 participants. The researcher felt confident that participants did not use a dictionary when doing the test because they were explicitly asked not to do so. Also, the participants were allowed to guess if they were not certain of the meaning of the words and asked to answer every question if they could. The tests results were compared to find out whether the treatment session focusing on collocations promoted retention of vocabulary.

One week following the post-test, in order to find students' beliefs about using collocations to teach vocabulary, to collect data about the implementations of the treatment session and to see to what extent the students developed awareness towards collocations and whether they utilized the technique used in the treatment the students were interviewed individually at their schools. They were asked the same questions (see Appendix D) with slight modification when a student gave the same answers continuously or additional questions were asked to the participants according to their responses to interview questions as the interview progressed. Most of the students were interviewed and responses were taped and noted. Among the students there were only five students that did not want to take part in these interview sessions. This was because some of them missed the treatment sessions and the others had not a very clear idea about the treatment. Before the interviews, the students informed about:

- This interview is voluntary. You have the right not to answer any questions, and to stop the interview at any time or for any reasons.
- Unless you give permission to use your name, title, and / or quote you in any publications that may result from this research, the information you tell us will be confidential.

In this thesis, semi-structured interviews have been chosen as method. Because this method with open-ended questions will allow us to adjust our questions depending on the attributes of the students and the problems that they face. According to Darmer (1995) the semi-structured interview is neither a free conversation nor a highly structured questionnaire.

Semi-structure interviews provide the opportunity to regulate the order of the questions and the respondents have the possibility to expand their ideas and speak in detail about diverse subjects rather than relying only on concepts and questions defined in advance of the interview (Grimsholm & Poblete, 2010). In other words, semi-structured interviews are more flexible than standardized methods such as the structured interview or survey. For the interview some questions were asked systematically to the students. Questions were designed to gather information about their beliefs and ascertain the effects of the collocations. Most of the questions were about the effects of using collocations on the learning and the reasons for those effects, good sides and bad sides of the treatment, effects of the collocations on retention vocabulary and feelings of the students about the treatment.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedure

To explore the research questions of the study, quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were used. For the first research question, data was gathered from comparing the pre-test and post-test scores. A vocabulary test was administered as a pre-test one week before the treatment session and it was conducted a second time as a post-test one week following the last treatment session. The scores of the students in the pre-test and post-test were examined in detailed. The total scores of the each test were 15 points. For instance, a student was given 1 point for each correct decision and 0 point for incorrect decision. The pre-test and post-test scores of the students were compared running dependent samples t-test in IBM SPSS Statistics 19.

On the other hand, the secondary data is collected by qualitative interviews. The responses (see Appendix E) to each student interview question were coded to allow an analysis. The experiences of interviewing produced familiarity with the types of responses and directed the creation of general groups of categories questions. For example, the general groups of categories for responses are enjoyable, easy to remember and natural. After responses were reviewed, a general analysis was made about the interviews.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

This study was set up to find out whether teaching vocabulary through collocations would help learners to learn new vocabulary. The aim was also to show the contribution of collocations to vocabulary learning of students in EFL classes. A pre-test and post-test were administered to a group of students in order to see whether there is a difference between pre-test and post-test results. Also an interview was made with the students to learn their beliefs about the treatment. This chapter will present the results from the investigation outlined in Chapter 3 and a brief explanation will be given about the results.

4.1. Comparison of the Test Results

The tests were evaluated giving one point for each correct answer. First of all, to see the statistics of the both tests, the means and the standard deviations were calculated. Then, in order to determine if there is a difference between the pre-test and post-test results, a paired samples t-test was used for the analysis. The scores of both tests were examined in detail. The results of these analyses are presented in the tables below. Table 1 contains the means and the standard deviations of the immediate gap-filling tests.

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Pre-test and Post-test

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PreTEST	4,9697	33	1,89547	,32996
PostTEST	7,7273	33	2,36211	,41119

An examination of Table 1 shows that the mean scores of the vocabulary pre-test and post-test indicate a significant gain in the study group. The mean for the pre-test was 4,9697 and the standard deviation was 1,89547. The mean for the post-test was 7,7273 and the

standard deviation was 2,36211. Because, the mean of post-test is higher than that of pre-test, which indicates that the students involved in the study scored better grades in the post-test.

Table 2. The statistics of Paired-Samples T-Test

Paired Differences								
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
pretest–posttest	2,75758	2,79542	,48662	-3,74879	-1,76636	-5,667	32	,000

In Table 2, in the multiple-choice post-test, the mean for the study group was 2,75758 and the standard deviation was 2,79542. T value was -5.667, in 32 degrees of freedom and the significance value was ,000. Because of the significance value is less than .05, there is a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test results. This indicates that collocations helped learners to remember the vocabulary items in the post-test. Also, It can be concluded that using collocations results in a positive effect on vocabulary teaching to 9th graders involved in the study.

In the data analysis, the effects of the treatment were clearly seen. The results of this study showed that using collocations had positive and beneficial effects on the vocabulary teaching to young language learners. The first research question found its answer in a positive way. The conclusion reached by the end of this case study was that using collocations in the procedure of teaching vocabulary items to young language learners increased their retention of vocabulary knowledge.

In this study, the qualitative data were collected through interviews held with the most of participants' treatment session to see whether the treatments had any positive effects on their learning and whether the treatments developed an awareness towards collocations. With the purpose of finding the beliefs of the students, they were interviewed one week after the

treatment session and nine questions were asked. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and the responses were audiotaped but later they were translated into English.

Questions explored in the interviews were:

- 1- What do you think about the treatment?
- 2- Was it different for you?
- 3- Were the papers used in the treatment session clear?
- 4- Was it enjoyable for you?
- 5- Was there any misunderstanding about the paper?
- 6- Was the treatment session long or short?
- 7- Did you understand words and sample sentences?
- 8- Were the pictures enough?
- 9- Were the collocations useful for the retention of the words?

The responses to the questions were mostly positive. For example, most of the students gave the same answers for the tenth question. They said that “Yes, they were useful and it was easier for me to remember the words at the post-test”. When they asked about the length of the treatment, some of the students found the sessions time consuming but some of them found them enough. For example one of the students said “*I think it is a bit long session, because for five words we spend an-hour-English lesson*”. According to her it is a bit time consuming.

The responses to the question “Were the papers used in the treatment session clear?” were mostly positive. They thought that the papers were very easy to understand. So with the meaningful and maybe colorful collocational activities vocabulary learning can be a bit easier. The majority of the interviewed students asserted that practicality of the treatments met their needs. Only a small group state that their needs were not met. The responses to the second question showed that they enjoyed the techniques used by their teachers. It can be inferred from the responses that students learned what collocation means and how important collocations are in language production. Based on the responses to the questions, it can be said that nearly all the participants had a gain from the treatments. They reported that they had the opportunity to expand their repertoire in terms of collocation learning activities.

Besides this, it was evident from the responses of an interviewee that the treatments affected her attitudes positively and enhanced her learning in terms of collocations. According to her, she should learn words in collocations as much as possible. She liked all the activities in the treatments and she also thought they were very useful.

As a consequence, to find the answer to the second research question, most of the participants agreed on the fact that they learned vocabulary better and more easily and believed that they would use it in a meaningful context.

CHAPTER 5

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether using collocations in teaching vocabulary items has any effects on the retention of new words. It also aimed at finding out if teaching new words by using collocations may have a positive effect on the young language learners.

The study was conducted at Mezitli Technical and Vocational High School for Girls. A class of 33 students at the ninth grade participated in the study. 15 target words were selected according to the curriculum. Then, a pre-test was administered to see their target vocabulary knowledge. The students were presented the new words along with their definitions, collocations and sample sentences. The treatment session lasted 3 weeks and at the end of the session a post-test was administered to see if using collocations made an effect on the students. The analysis of the study showed significant positive changes for the study group. Also with the purpose to provide answer for the second research question, the required data was gathered through interviews.

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

5.2. Conclusions and Discussion

Vocabulary teaching has gained importance recently. This is because communicative approach has been used as a method in most schools in Turkey. Course books especially have been designed based on communicative approach. Teachers started using different methods and techniques to teach vocabulary. The traditional techniques such as memorization of word lists without using a context or translation have been changed into learning and using vocabulary in meaningful contexts. Because vocabulary is a crucial element in language learning process and it needs a special attention. Sariçoban (2001) emphasizes that vocabulary, without which a language is meaningless is an important aspect in all language teaching processes since language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols, which permit all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture to communicate.

As Hill (2000, p.47) observes, language is “*a predominantly lexical phenomenon*”, and this view of language should be reflected in foreign language teaching and learning. This does not mean that we should teach students all the collocations of English, but that awareness of collocations should be encouraged as a learning strategy (Hodne, 2009). Woolard (2000, p.34) maintains that it is “*essential that the teacher equips the students with search skills which will enable them to discover significant collocations for themselves, in both the language they meet in the classroom and, more importantly, in the language they meet outside the classroom*”. Also he claims that students with limited time available for study will not learn high priority lexis if it is not deliberately selected and incorporated into learning materials. Collocations, then, must become part of that planned language input and one way to turn collocations into part of the input is including more common and stronger collocations in the texts constructed for the textbooks.

In addition to the suggestions given above, some collocational activities offered by researchers. Balci (2006) states in her thesis that:

As language teachers, we should keep in mind the fact that students have to be aware of what “knowing a word” means. They should know that just knowing the definition or mother tongue equivalent of a word does not mean that they know that word. For using a word in a context, they should know the collocations of that word. Students should be encouraged to develop a system of vocabulary learning which will lead them to be independent vocabulary learners. (p. 52)

In the same line, Hodne (2009) states that activities can be prepared by teachers or offered by textbooks in order to include collocations in language teaching. Some options are, as provided by Conzett (2000), make an “odd one out” exercise with collocations; give a few collocates of a word and ask students to add others; make thematic collocation lists; and play collocation dominoes (writing part of a collocation in each end). Hill (2000) recommends brainstorming collocations on a topic before students write a text about it; bringing to class an extra text on the topic of the essay where students can find useful collocations; exercises that teach alternatives to *very* (e.g. *highly qualified* and *bitterly disappointed*); matching collocates and using them to fill in gaps; etc.

Another idea is to ask students to write down confusable words like *do* and *make* and dictate collocates to be written under the correct verb. Howarth (1998) states that learners tend

to avoid collocations with delexical verbs (*take, make, give, do, etc.*), due to uncertainty over appropriate collocability; thus, working with these verbs can be a way of addressing the problem. Students can also be given sentences from their own writings which contain collocational mistakes to be corrected. In this case they might need to consult a corpus or collocation dictionary, which is a good opportunity to teach how to use them. An idea suggested by Nation (2001) is to encourage students to keep word cards: the word to be learned can be written on one side and the meaning on the other and drawings can be included. Woolard (2000) suggests that students keep a lexical notebook which can be divided by situations (e.g. at the restaurant), functions (e.g. boasting), and topics (e.g. sports). By this way when students encounter the words again, they can add a sentence with the new context in their notebooks as a way of recycling and expanding their vocabulary knowledge.

Recently, a resourceful book called *English Collocations in Use* that that can be used by teachers to complement vocabulary work have compiled by McCarthy & O'Dell (2005). There are collocations taken from the Cambridge International Corpus which are taught grouped by themes such as travel, relationships, sport, music, work, etc. Collocations are first presented in context and can then be practiced through exercises. Learning tips are also given based on analysis of learner errors from the Cambridge Learner Corpus.

With the light of this background information, the findings of this study give positive answers to the research questions. As mentioned before, the results of the vocabulary tests showed a significant difference. This result indicates that teaching vocabulary through collocations help learners with vocabulary learning. On the other hand, the interviews revealed that learners, when introduced to vocabulary with more emphasis on collocations, developed conscious towards collocations to the extent that they were able to come up with collocates of the key words they encounter in any context.

In conclusion, it is necessary at this point to highlight that more than worrying whether or not something is a collocation, what is more important for teachers is to shift their and their students focus away from individual words to chunks of language (Conzett 2000). These chunks improve the fluency and accuracy of the English students produce. Teaching students to notice collocations in the language input they receive and to have a system to record them are some of the best learning strategies that teachers can equip learners with (Hodne, 2009).

5.3. Implications of the Study

Several implications can be elicited for teachers, researchers and material writers from this study. Today there are many techniques to teach vocabulary and teachers should be open minded to new ideas. Especially, they should encourage their students to increase their vocabulary.

According to findings of the study, the first pedagogical implication is that students receiving the treatment can easily recall the words they have learned before. It is worth noting that language teachers can use collocations in order to facilitate vocabulary learning procedure. From all these studies, it might be concluded that collocations should be dealt with more carefully and the teaching of them should take more time in the English classes.

There are a large number of unexplored collocations in textbooks, workbooks and worksheets that may improve learners' vocabulary knowledge. Corpora can also be used as a resource to complement language teaching in general and with the help of this collocational knowledge, students can communicate more successfully. Besides, Nattinger (1988) emphasizes that "*to know the meaning of a word becomes the task of knowing its associations with other words*". For his reason, to teach vocabulary more effectively, we must present it in this network of associations. In the same line, Wallace (1982) points out some words very seldom occur in isolation and it is very important for the learner to know the usual collocations that the word occurs with. Williams (2006) concludes that learners need to be aware of the fact that all words have their own, unique collocational fields.

An effecting way for raising awareness of collocations is to pay more attention to a selection of students' mis-collocations (Woolard, 2000). Through identifying learner' mis-collocations, teachers not only understand learners' mis-collocations but also incorporate them into the classroom at proper times to improve and extend vocabulary teaching. Moreover, while teaching English vocabulary, teachers should present words and a number of typical collocations in the form of example sentences or of collocation grids at the same time (Channel, 1981; Liu, 1999). What is more, preparing collocational exercises for learners helps them enhance their recognition of collocational patterns. So, while preparing a test, exam or worksheet a teacher should emphasize not only meaning of the words but also word combinations. In 1997, Lewis designed collocational exercises to raise students' awareness of collocations. Students were required to match a word or phrase in List 1 with a word or phrase from List 2 while doing exercises. Table 3 presents a sample exercise designed by Lewis.

Table 3. The Sample Collocational Exercise Designed by Lewis (1997, p. 88)

List 1		List 2
1. to balance		a. fit
2. to keep		b. your weight
3. to lose		c. carefully
4. to watch		d. your diet
5. to eat		e. weight

List 1		List 2
6. fresh		a. diet
7. daily		b. lifestyle
8. balanced		c. routine
9. healthy		d. exercise
10. regular		e. fruit

To sum up, Ördem (2005) states that teachers have new roles in collocation studies because not only students but also teachers have much to learn from collocation studies. According to him, only knowing the meaning of the words and teaching meaning are not adequate alone. What is more, EFL teachers should teach learners some techniques to help students record collocations. Woolard (2000, p. 208) claimed that we should organize “*collocations alphabetically with a section devoted to situations like at the bank, a section to functions like complaining, and a section to topics like occupations*” . Chen (2002) proposed that language learners need to be collocation collectors and record collocations which they are learning systematically. For instance, when learners record the word like “*talk*”, they should write down a list of collocations, such as “*peace talk, pillow talk, trash talk and small talk*”. In her opinion, this systematical way can make sense to learners.

5.4. Further Research

An experimental study with control and experimental groups can be conducted for finding the effects of using collocations on the productive vocabulary knowledge of young language learners. This study is limited to only 9th grade students at an State school in Turkey.

Therefore, more learners must be involved in a further study to investigate whether the same results could be obtained.

In this study the participants were elementary students. Following the progress of learners from elementary level to intermediate and advanced levels may give researchers an insight of how vocabulary could be taught through using collocations and if there may be the same improvement in vocabulary learning at all levels.

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7.APPENDICES

7.1. APPENDIX A

Pre-Test

Choose the best alternative for each sentence.

1- I my room with my sister.

- A) share B) abandon C) graduate D) charm

2- His birthdayis going to be very colorful this year.

- A) zone B) hero C) vehicle D) celebration

3- He his country and went to another one.

- A) admired B) abandoned C) shared D) graduated

4- There are twenty houses in this site.

- A) unusual B) healthy C) detached D) silent

5- It was for him to go home after midnight because he used to go straight.

- A) unusual B) healthy C) detached D) silent

6- Iher big blue eyes and long hair.

- A) charm B) abandon C) graduate D) admire

7- Ronaldo is one of the great football

- A) vehicle B) zone C) hero D) present

8- We must bebecause the baby is sleeping.

- A) silent B) unusual C) healthy D)detached

9- Who was driving theduring the accident?

- A) zone B) addict C) vehicle D) celebration

10- You should do exercises to be

- A) silent B) unusual C) healthy D)detached

11- He has worked for the same company since hefrom university.

- A) shared B) abandoned C) charmed D) graduated

12- Madonna and Rihanna everybody with their beauty.

- A) share B) abandon C) graduate D) charm

13- This is military You mustn't take photograph here.

- A) zone B) vehicle C) addict D) present

14- Buyingfor boys is very difficult.

A) present B) hero C) celebration D) zone

15- He is an alcoholso he is taking psychological assistance.

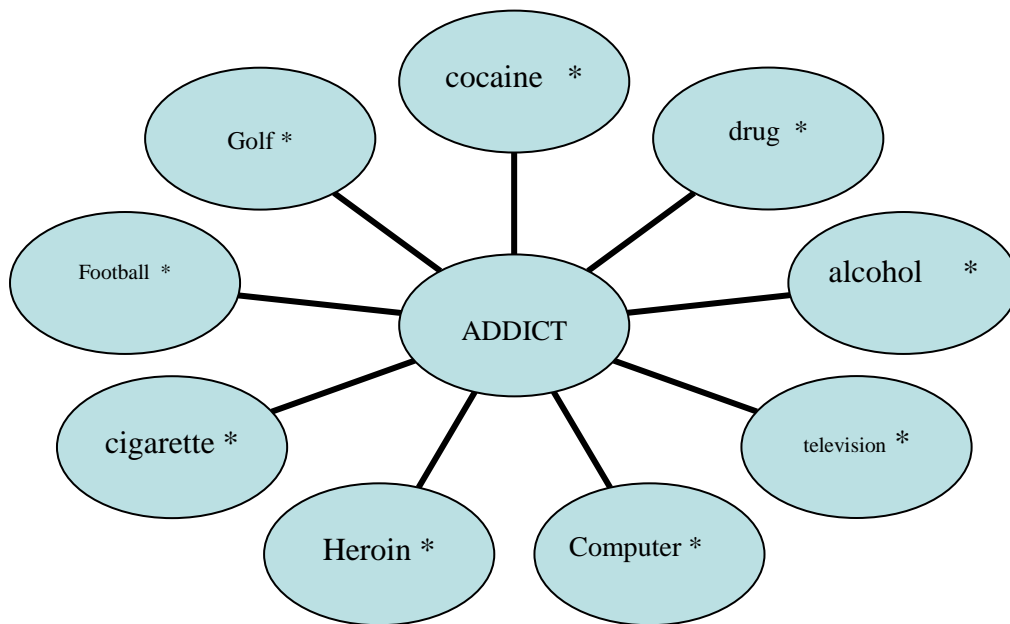
A) celebration B) addict C) hero D) present

7.2 Appendix B

7.2.1. B1 Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions

- 1. ADDICT:** -A person who cannot stop taking or doing something harmful.
 - A person physically or emotionally dependent on a substance, such as a drug.

2.



3. Sample Sentences

- Many young boys become computer **addicts**.
- He is a heroin **addict**.
- The criminal finally acknowledged that he was a drug **addict**.
- She is a real football **addict**, she loves Messi.

4. Match the Pictures with the Collocations

-computer addict

- cigarette addict

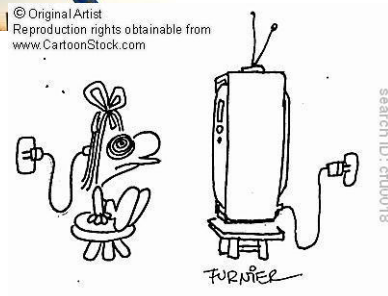
- drug addict

- football addict

- television addict



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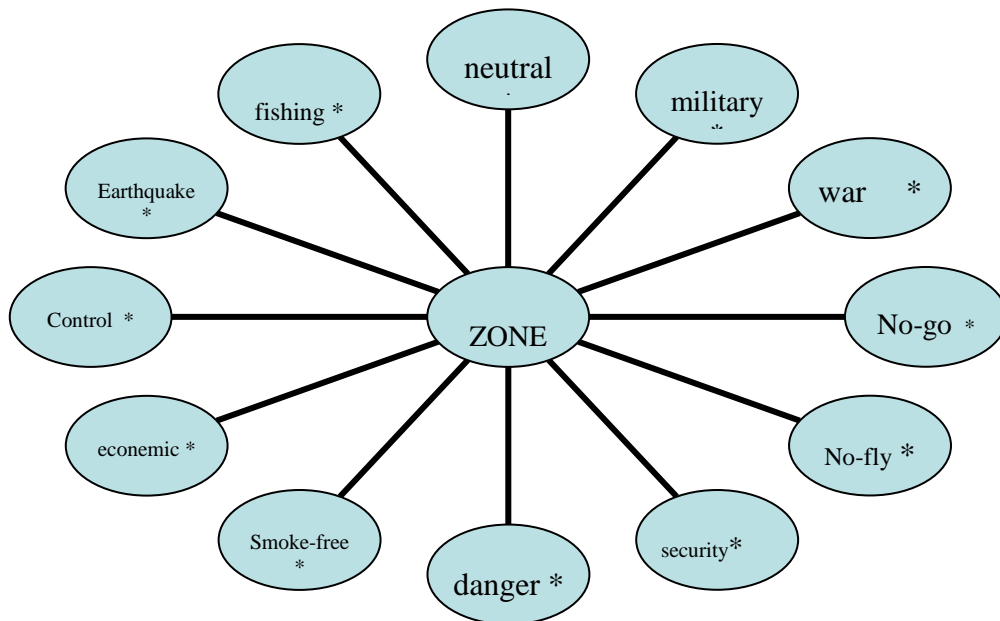


Appendix B2

7.2.2. B2 Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions

- 1. ZONE:** - An area that is different from those around it.
 - An area of land or sky marked by a government, business or person for a special purpose.

2.



3. Sample Sentences

- This area behind the station is a no-go **zone** for tourists.
- The region has been declared an ecological disaster **zone**.
- She stood some distance away from him to maintain a safety **zone**.
- Most of the town centre is a traffic-free **zone**.
- The area has been declared a closed military **zone**.
- Fighter planes are being sent to enforce the no-fly **zone**.



4. Match the Pictures with the Collocations

- Danger zone
- Smoke-free zone
- Military zone
- Earthquake zone
- War zone
- Fishing zone

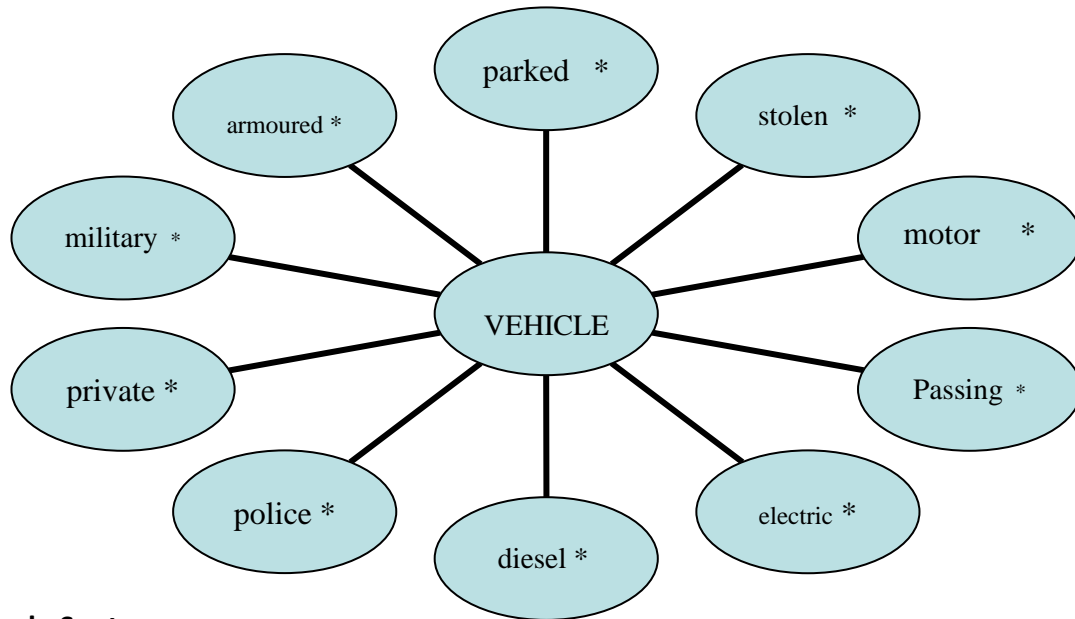


Appendix B3

7.2.3. B3 Papers Used in the Treatment Sessions

- 1. VEHICLE:** - A machine such as a car or truck, that travels to transport people or goods.
 - Something which transports people or things from place to place, especially on land, e.g. Cars, bicycles, lorries, buses.

2.



3. Sample Sentences

- The bus crashed into a stationary **vehicle**.
- The thieves escaped in a stolen **vehicle**.
- The road is closed to all **vehicle** for a while.
- That is an expensive **vehicle**.
- The city centre is off-limits to wheeled **vehicles**.

4. Match the Pictures with the Collocations

- Passing vehicles



- Police vehicle

- Military vehicle



- Parked vehicle

- Electric vehicle

APPENDIX C

7.3. Post-Test

Choose the best alternative for each sentence.

1- It was for him to go home after midnight because he used to go straight.

- A) unusual B) healthy C) detached D) silent

2- He his country and went to another one.

- A) admired B) abandoned C) shared D) graduated

3- Buyingfor boys is very difficult.

- A) present B) hero C) celebration D) zone

4- There are twenty houses in this site.

- A) unusual B) healthy C) detached D) silent

5- Iher big blue eyes and long hair.

- A) charm B) abandon C) graduate D) admire

6- Madonna and Rihanna everybody with their beauty.

- A) share B) abandon C) graduate D) charm

7- Ronaldo is one of the great football

- A) vehicle B) zone C) hero D) present

8- I my room with my sister.

- A) share B) abandon C) graduate D) charm

9- Who was driving theduring the accident?

- A) zone B) addict C) vehicle D) celebration

10- We must bebecause the baby is sleeping.

- A) silent B) unusual C) healthy D)detached

11- He has worked for the same company since hefrom university.

- A) shared B) abandoned C) charmed D) graduated

12- This is military You mustn't take photograph here.

- A) zone B) vehicle C) addict D) present

13- You should do exercises to be

- A) silent B) unusual C) healthy D)detached

14- He is an alcoholso he is taking psychological assistance.

- A) celebration B) addict C) hero D) present

15- His birthdayis going to be very colorful this year.

- A) zone B) hero C) vehicle D) celebration

APPENDIX D

7.4. Interview questions used in the thesis “Vocabulary Retention: A Collocational Study”

- What do you think about the treatment?
- Was it different for you?
- Were the papers used in the treatment session clear?
- Was it enjoyable for you?
- Was there any misunderstanding about the paper?
- Was the treatment session long or short?
- Did you understand words and sample sentences?
- Were the pictures enough?
- Were the collocations useful for the retention of the words?

APPENDIX E

7.5. Some interview responses of the students.

- **Student 1:** It was enjoyable because I saw a word with different words and it helped me to retain it. The paper, which used in the treatment, was clear and I understand all the paper. I think it is a bit long session because for five words we spend an-hour-English lesson. The pictures were comprehensible.
- **Student 2:** I think it was a different lesson. You gave us the paper and we worked on it. I understood all the activities on the paper because it was clear. I wish we learned all the words like that. Because it was very useful for me. Normally I have some problems about vocabulary learning but with this way I can beat this problem.
- **Student 3:** I was ready for an English lesson when you first gave us these papers. I thought that it was a joke because we studied an-hour English lesson on these papers. I think it is a useful but long way to teach vocabulary. There was not any problem about the paper. It was very clear and easy to understand.
- **Student 4:** When I finished the pre-test I was very nervous about myself. I knew that I could not do the questions. However, after the treatment session I learned most of the words and I was sure about myself before the post-test I did most of the questions so I believe that this treatment session was very helpful for me. The papers were amusing I could saw all the words with each other and I could encode them to my head.