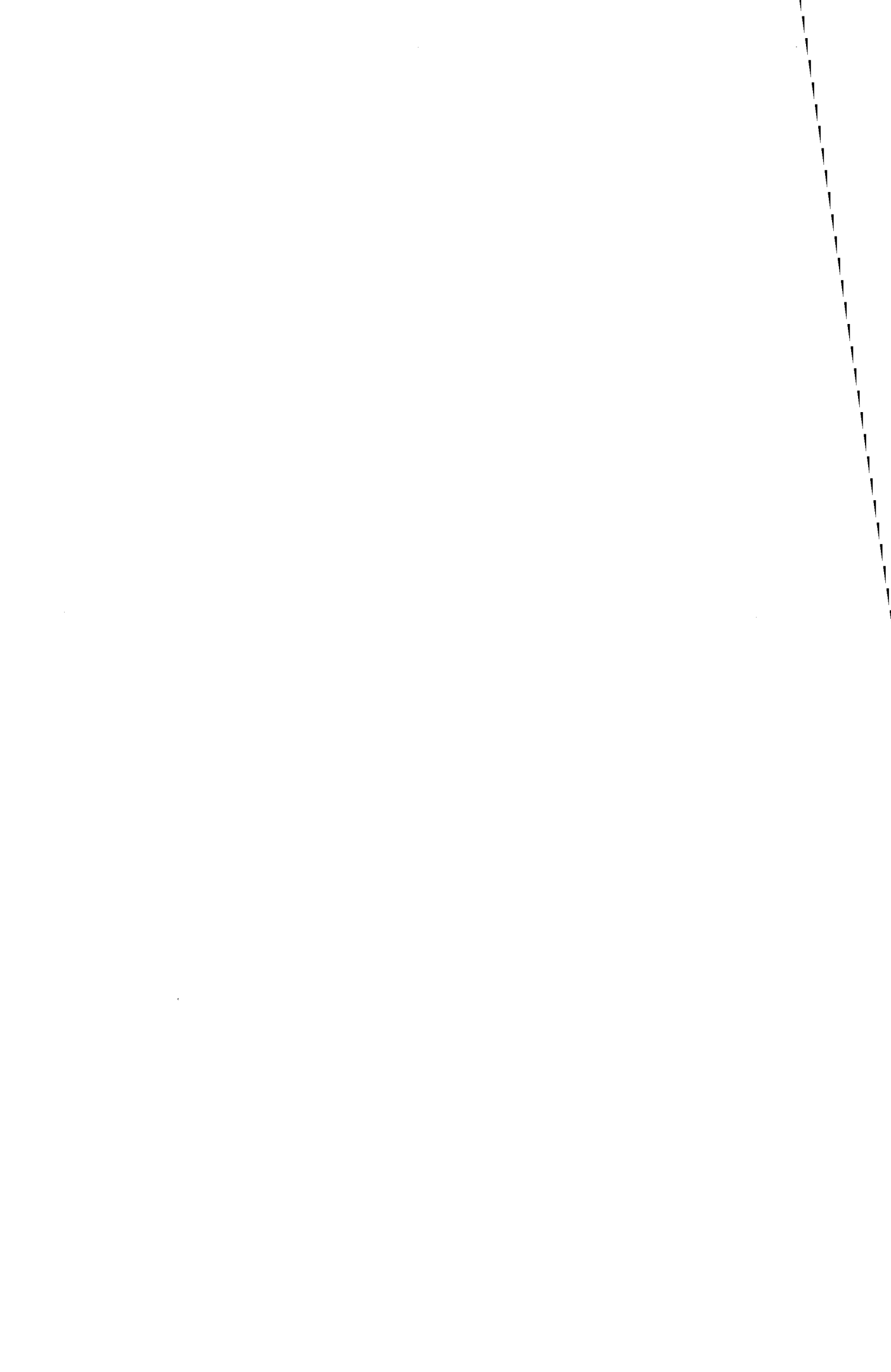


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Raising Efl Learners' Awareness  
of Verb-Noun Collocations  
Through Chunking To Extend  
Their Knowledge of Familiar Nouns

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## YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

# İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN BİLİNDİK KELİME (İSİM) BİLGİLERİNİ GENİŞLETMEK İÇİN EYLEM-İSİM ORTAKLIKLARI HAKKINDAKİ FARKINDALIK DÜZEYLERİNİN ÖBEKLEME YOLUYLA ARTTIRILMASI

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İngilizce’de kelime dağarcığı ile ilgili yapılan araştırmalar, verimli iletişim için daha geniş kelime bilgisinin gerekli olduğunun kabul edilmeye başlanmasıyla birlikte son zamanlarda oldukça artmıştır. Gerçek dil kullanım örnekleri toplamaya dayalı COBUILD gibi bazı projeler bize dilde kullanılan kelimelerin tek başlarına hareket etmediklerini, daha ziyade kelime öbekleri, kalıplaşmış ve yarı kalıplaşmış tümceler vs. halinde bulduklarını göstermiştir. Bu noktadan hareketle bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin metin okuma çalışması yaparken kelime ortaklıklarına ne derece dikkat ettiklerini belirlemek ve bu konuda farkındalık arttırmaya yönelik bir eğitimin öğrencilerin algılama ve üretme seviyesinde kelime kullanımlarına bir etkisi olup olmayacağını ölçmektir. Çalışma, bilindik isimlerle birlikte sık kullanılan kelime ortaklıklarına metin okuma sırasında, bilindik oldukları için dikkat edilmediği ve bu kelime ortaklıklarının dil becerilerinde iyi kullanılmadıklarının saptanması üzerine hazırlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, anadili İngilizce olan bir öğretmene, Oxford Collocation Dictionary (2002) çalışma sayfalarından yararlanılarak ‘Trafik’ ve ‘Eğitim’ konuları altında sıkça kullanılan kelime ortaklıklarını içeren iki okuma metni hazırlanmıştır. Ayrıca, 13’ü bu okuma parçalarıyla ilgili, biri üretime diğeri ise tanımaya dayalı, her biri 25’er cümleden oluşan iki test hazırlanmıştır. Çalışma, 18’er kişilik iki üst-orta seviyesinde İngilizce bilen öğrenci grubuyla yapılmıştır. Deney grubu olan öğrencilere normal çalışmaya ek olarak kelime ortaklıklarına dikkat etmenin önemi vurgulanmış ve bu konuda çalışma yapılmıştır. Kontrol grubuna ise normal okuma çalışması haricinde bir şey gösterilmemiştir. Yapılan ön test ve son testler sonucunda deney grubunun kontrol grubuna oranla her iki test tipinde de daha başarılı oldukları gözlemlenmiştir.

## **MASTER THESIS ABSTRACT**

### **RAISING EFL LEARNERS' AWARENESS OF VERB-NOUN COLLOCATIONS THROUGH CHUNKING TO EXTEND THEIR COLLOCATIONAL KNOWLEDGE OF FAMILIAR NOUNS**

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Research in vocabulary has received much attention recently due to the recognition of a need that a larger lexicon of L2 is a prerequisite to effective communication. Corpus linguistics such as the COBUILD project has shown us that vocabulary is not consisted only of single words but a much wider part of real language includes multi-word units; polywords, collocations, fixed, semi-fixed utterances etc. The purpose of this study is to see to what extent Turkish learners of English chunk collocations i.e. word partnerships in texts, and whether a focus on these partnerships through an awareness-raising activity makes any contribution to learners' productive/receptive vocabulary use. The study, in particular, aims to prove that frequent verb collocates of familiar nouns escape notice through reading on the assumption that such words are already known and do not need further attention. To this end, a native speaker of English formed two texts including common verb + noun collocations under the topics of Education and Traffic with reference to Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002). Then, one productive and one receptive test were formed, each comprising 25 items, 13 of which were found in the two texts. The study was conducted with two classes of 36 Upper-Intermediate level students, 18 of them being in the experimental group and the other half in the control group. The results of the study revealed that the experimental group that was trained in chunking collocations in texts scored higher in both forms of posttests.

## JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Bora GENCER'in, "RAISING EFL LEARNERS' AWARENESS OF VERB-NOUN COLLOCATIONS THROUGH CHUNKING TO EXTEND THEIR COLLOCATIONAL KNOWLEDGE OF FAMILIAR NOUNS" başlıklı tezi 21/01/2004 tarihinde, aşağıda belirtilen jüri üyeleri tarafından Anadolu Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı yüksek lisans tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

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*Dedicated to my family...*

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*Words shall be known by the company they keep*

J. R. Firth

**CHAPTER I**  
**INTRODUCTION**

**1.1. Background to the Study**

Vocabulary teaching has been afforded different levels of importance in ELT. Looking at the recent past, especially over two decades between 1950-1970, its importance has undergone considerable neglect under the influence of Audio-Lingualism (Nunan, 1991; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Read, 2000; Thornbury, 1998). By the beginning of 1970s, Communicative Approaches started to dominate the field bringing a re-evaluation to the role of lexis and its implications in language classes.

Much of that renewed interest has shown itself in an increased number of techniques to promote learners' control over the lexicon of the language. However, it is argued that a communicative approach to language still undervalues explicit vocabulary instruction on the assumption that vocabulary could take care of itself through particular techniques employed in classrooms (Lewis, 1993, 2000; Conzett, 2000; Harvey, 1983; Judd, 1983; Moras, 2001). Some of those techniques that can be viewed from a teacher-centered approach gave priority to the use of visuals like pictures, realia, mime and gesture; verbal techniques such as the use of synonymy, antonymy, definition, and word formation. A more student-centered approach, on the other hand, involved student-centered activities such as peer questioning, using dictionaries and contextual guesswork (Gairns & Redman, 1986).

These techniques, though being essential in teaching the meaning of words, deny learners the opportunities to get a grasp of the use of lexical units. Learners, in this manner, lack the chance to experience why one lexical unit is preferred to combine with another. (Ooi & Lee Kim-Seoh, 1996). It is also assumed that learners' control over the vocabulary will increase in parallel to the number of the words learned. The implications of such treatment of vocabulary are also inherent in syllabuses and teaching materials. Baigent (1999) points out that syllabuses and course books are a

basic constraint since vocabulary is treated not much differently than lists of single words.

McCarthy (1990) asserts that viewing vocabulary as individual words is not enough. Bogaards (2001) argues, “The task that the foreign language learner faces at the lexical level is far more complicated than is often supposed. It is not just ‘learning words’ in the sense that new meanings have to be attached to new forms. There is far more to it.” (p.327)

Recent observations carried out in Corpus Linguistics, such as the COBUILD Project (Sinclair, 1988), show that with the help of huge amounts of naturally occurring written and spoken corpora, language consists of many multi-word units rather than just individual words. These patterns of language have been given a variety of names by many researchers. Nattinger & Carrico (1992) refer to them as lexical phrases which they define as “form/function composites, lexico-grammatical units that occupy a position somewhere between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax...” (p.36). Pawley and Syder (1983) use the term ‘lexicalised sentence stems’. Lewis (1993, 1997, 2000) calls them as lexical chunks, and puts them into four broad categories:

1. a) *words* (eg. Push, exit, fruit)  
b) *polywords* (eg. by the way, on the other hand)
2. (relatively fixed) *collocations* or *word partnerships* (eg. an initial reaction, to assess the situation)
3. *institutionalized utterances* or *fixed expressions* (eg. I’ll see what I can do; It’s not the sort of thing you think will ever happen to you)
4. *sentence frames* or *heads* (eg. Considerable research has been done in recent years on the question of ...; At present, however, expert opinion remains divided; some experts believe...etc.)

(Lewis, 1996, p.10)

The present study deals with the second category (collocations and word partnerships).

## 1.2. Problem

The teacher researcher's experience with an advanced class in the School of Foreign Languages at Anadolu University, forms the basis of this study. The learners in this class had great difficulty in matching the appropriate collocates with a group of words in one of the exercises in the course book. Some of these relatively easy words were 'professor', 'meeting', 'expert', 'office'. The compound-adjective collocates of these nouns given in the exercise were: 'absent-minded', 'last-minute', 'so-called' and 'air-conditioned', respectively. A short inquiry after the exercise revealed that all of the learners knew the meaning of all the words in the exercise, but that they hadn't realized the correct partnerships between the words. They also expressed that once the correct pairs were formed, they looked so familiar, and that they wouldn't have stopped to give a careful look if they had come across these word partnerships in text. The learners' lack of knowledge on this subject led the researcher to tackle the issue more seriously, after realizing that even the learners having a substantial command of English were oblivious of the many useful collocates of words at their disposal. This phenomenon is best expressed in Woolard's (2000) terms "...learning vocabulary is not just learning new words, it is often learning familiar words in new combinations" (author's emphasis, p.31).

Previous studies on vocabulary have, largely, focused on how to teach unfamiliar vocabulary. However, this study aims to demonstrate whether showing learners how to chunk collocations in text can improve their knowledge of words they already know. On the importance and necessity of this point Hill (2000) notes;

Extend students' collocational competence with words they already know as well as teaching new words. A student with a vocabulary of 2,000 will only be able to function in a fairly limited way. A different student with 2,000 words, but **collocationally competent** with those words, will also be far more **communicatively competent**.

(p. 62)

Several empirical studies have investigated collocational competence of ESL/EFL learners, but only one of them has so far dealt with the effect of treatment on learner success by teaching vocabulary with collocations. This study attempts to

investigate whether learners who are introduced to the notion of collocations, and are trained in how to chunk them while reading texts, reveal better results in producing and recognizing word combinations which are essential in comprehending and constructing *precise* meaning.

### 1.3. Purpose and Scope of the Study

The present study attempts to raise learners' awareness of collocations for familiar nouns to enrich their collocational knowledge of these words. This was established through introducing learners to the concept 'collocation' and training them in how to chunk these collocations in two reading texts. Raising learners' awareness of collocations is crucial here since collocational knowledge cannot be enriched only through one-off exercises. Gough (1996), on this aspect, asserts that collocation is too big a subject to teach explicitly in class, and also that textbooks do not take a systematic approach to it. Therefore, it should be tackled from a learner-centered perspective - as all vocabulary teaching should be. Learners should be shown ways to help themselves in and out of the classroom to make it more manageable.

Collocations are usually defined as two or more words tending to occur together more than chance would suggest, that is, they are word combinations that are most likely to appear together. In this respect, the scope of the present study is limited to two-word collocations, and nouns are taken as the starting point of this study owing to the reason that they are the crucial elements in forming ideas. The Oxford Collocation Dictionary (2002) explains this more clearly in;

When framing their ideas, people generally start from a noun. You might think of *rain* and want to know which adjective best describes rain when a lot falls in a short time. You would be unlikely to start with the adjective *heavy* and wonder what you could describe with it (*rain, breathing, damage, gunfire?*) Similarly, you might be looking for the verb to use when you do what you need to do in response to a *challenge*. But you would not choose meet and then choose what to meet (*a challenge, an acquaintance, your death, the expense*).

(p.ix)



In particular, this study deals with verb + noun collocations. The rationale for this is because other combinations such as; adjective + noun, adverb + verb...are, a matter of choice to enrich the degree of the word they modify, and one may easily avoid using them, especially in a study that involves testing. Hill, Lewis, Lewis (2000) support this view in;

Collocations are of different kinds, and not all are equally accessible in the classroom. *Adjective + noun* and *adverb + verb* collocations add meaning, so both *He ambled down the street* and *He ambled slowly down the street* are possible; the latter is merely more descriptive than the first. Much less amenable to classroom practice, but more important for learners, however, are *verb + noun* collocations. This is because these are rarely alternative or better ways of expressing a single idea. Instead, they are typically the first choice – the unmarked – way of expressing the idea. (p. 93)

#### 1.4. Research Questions

The study, drawing from the above principles, seeks to answer the following research questions;

1. Does training Turkish students of English to chunk verb + noun collocations in text help extend the collocational knowledge of the familiar nouns?
  - a) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition pre and posttests of the experimental group?
  - b) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive pre and posttests of the experimental group?
2. Does studying the texts without drawing attention to the verb + noun collocations help extend the collocational knowledge of the familiar nouns?
  - a) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition pre and posttests of the control group?
  - b) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive pre and posttests of the control group?

3. Do the two different treatments yield significant differences in terms of the results both groups get from the recognition and productive tests?
  - a) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition pretests of the experimental and the control group?
  - b) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive pretests of the experimental and the control group?
  - c) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition posttests of the experimental and the control group?
  - d) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive posttests of the experimental and the control group?

### **1.5. Limitations of the Study**

This study is limited to Upper-Intermediate proficiency level learners of English studying at the Preparatory School of Foreign Languages, Anadolu University. The concern of the study was limited to the affect of the two different procedures applied in a reading lesson to two groups of learners in one week through immediate posttest results which reflect the short term retention of the items covered. The long term retention was not taken into consideration.

### **1.6. Assumptions of the Study**

All the learners that have participated in this study are assumed to be familiar with all of the nouns in the collocations that are brought to their attention in the texts (the target collocations). The learners' level of proficiency (Upper-Intermediate) and the frequency of the nouns in these collocations (1<sup>st</sup> 2000 of the General Service List; West, 1953) are the two reasons that led the researcher to assume that they have already learned these nouns throughout their formal education. Nation (1990) states that the list covers 87% of an average non-academic text. Furthermore, the nouns chosen for the study are found in most of the coursebooks of lower level learners. The data collection procedure and the data analysis are based on this assumption.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1. Lexical and Grammatical Collocations

There are two kinds of collocations, namely 'lexical and grammatical'. Grammatical collocations consist of a lexical item and a preposition or a grammatical word (an open class word + closed class word) whereas lexical collocations include word combinations, and do not contain prepositions or grammatical words. (Bahns, 1993; Lewis, 2000). The Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002) sorts them out as;

- Adjective + noun: *bright/harsh/intense/strong light*
- Quantifier + noun: *a beam/ray of light*
- Verb + noun: *cast/emit/give/provide/shed light*
- Noun + verb: *light gleams/glows/shines*
- Noun + noun: *a light source*
- Preposition + noun: *by the light of the moon*
- Noun + preposition: *the light from the window*
- Adverb + verb: *choose carefully*
- Verb + verb: *be free to choose*
- Verb + preposition: *choose between two things*
- Verb + adjective: *make/keep/declare sth safe*
- Adverb + adjective: *perfectly/not entirely/environmentally safe*
- Adjective + preposition: *safe from attack*

(p.ix)

Among many of the proponents of this concept in vocabulary teaching Hill (2000) refers to them as "a predictable combination of words" (p.51). McCarthy (1990) contends that "it is a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others" (p.12). Gairns & Redman (1986) indicate that, "when two items co-occur, or are used together frequently, they are said to collocate..." (p.37) Eryıldırım (2002) draws our attention to a common point found in all definitions

concerning collocations stating, “they [researchers] agree that collocations are lexical items that co-occur more often than expected by chance.” (p.84) “Collocation is the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency.” (Lewis, 1997; p.8)

## 2.2. Collocations and their Pedagogic Value

Lewis (1993) claims being able to use a word involves mastering its collocational range and restrictions of that range. Kavaliauskiene & Januleviéiene (2001) note, “Knowing frequent collocations is essential for accurate, natural English.” (p.1) Brown (1994) states that teaching collocations might be helpful in highlighting the ‘conceptual’ significance of the noun and that it may well be the key to understanding register in language. Lewis (2000) states that many applied linguists and most teachers believe, at least to some extent, focusing learners’ attention explicitly on some aspect of the linguistic form of the input is helpful in accelerating the acquisition process. Swan (in Conzett, 2000) emphasizes the pedagogic necessity of explicit vocabulary instruction, and points out that unless teachers guide learners towards the importance of collocations, learners are less likely to turn their attention to them. Knowledge of how words combine with each other i.e. their ‘syntagmatic’ aspect is an important part of word knowledge that requires attention (Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Ooi & Lee Kim-Seoh, 1996). Hunt & Beglar (1998) remind us that along with learning meaning, associations and grammatical patterns, collocations are a major component of learning vocabulary. McCarthy (1990) claims, “Languages are full of strong collocational pairs and, therefore, collocation deserves to be a central aspect of vocabulary study.” (p.12)

Hill (2000), also referring to collocation from a pedagogical point of view says, “The first and most obvious reason why collocation is important is because the way words combine in collocations is fundamental to all language use.” (p.53) Brown (1974) asserts that collocations have a bi-directional value, as they allow learners to learn words within their immediate environments while they can also learn them as individual words that compose the collocation. Lewis (2000) agrees with Brown in

mentioning that once collocations are learnt, it is much easier to separate them into their components than trying to do the reverse. He states the following;

1. Words are not normally used alone and it makes sense to learn them in a strong, frequent or otherwise typical pattern of actual use.
2. It's more efficient to learn the whole and break it into parts, than to learn the parts and have to learn the whole as an extra arbitrary item.

(1997; p.32)

Eryıldırım (2002) supports this view in observing that learners tend to assign meaning to single words as they read a text, and when they try to reconstruct meaning, they face difficulties in forming natural and accurate strings of language. She also asserts, "...collocation deserves special treatment in FL learning and teaching as it is the most important factor in the creation and comprehension of natural languages." (p.83)

Hill (2000) observes that the awkward stretches of language that learners produce are due to a lack of collocational competence. He claims that a learner mistake such as, "His disability will continue until he dies" (p.49) could be overcome by the natural collocation "permanent disability" (p.50). He raises another major issue regarding this failure claiming that grammatical mistakes are a result of this lack of competence. He clarifies this as, "lack of competence in this area forces students into grammatical mistakes because they create longer utterances because they do not know the collocations which express precisely what they want to say." (p.49) He adds that the major concern in classroom vocabulary teaching, especially at intermediate and above levels, should be to increase this collocational competence with learners' basic vocabulary.

The problem is noticed by another teacher researcher (Lewis, M. 2000) in the field who observes that students know lots of simple words but are unaware of the common collocates of these words, which put them in a state not knowing what they could do with them. Lewis also supports Hill by pointing to the same issue of grammar errors stating that, "...the fewer collocations students are able to use, the more they have to use longer expressions with much more grammaticalisation to communicate

something which a native speaker would express with a precise lexical phrase and correspondingly little grammar.” (p.16) His example concerning lack of collocational competence makes his opinion on this more intelligible. A student not knowing the collocation “adequate supplies to meet the demand” tries to convey the intended meaning constructing strings of broken pieces of language like, “*We don’t have things enough so that every person who will have one can have one,*” which will require laborious work on the part of both the addresser and the addressee. Lewis concludes, “This means the more collocations learners have at their disposal, the less they need to grammaticalise.” (p.16)

Brown is yet another teacher who has noticed the issue of the mis-collocations of his learners. The example given is, “Biochemists are *making* research into the causes of AIDS” (cited in Woolard, 2000; p.30) where the student misused the verb. This is a widely common mistake committed by EFL/ESL learners, and it is no wonder that many course books have paid attention to this issue. Woolard (2000) suggests ‘make/do’ collocations are a good starting point for teachers who want to introduce the notion of collocations into their classrooms. Course books, which had generally limited this issue to de-lexical verbs ‘make/do’, have only recently come to recognize the importance of collocations and provide more space to them.

## **2.3. Theoretical Framework**

### **2.3.1. The Lexical Approach**

The fundamental linguistic insight of the Lexical Approach is that much of the lexicon consists of multi-word items of different kinds, known as ‘chunks’. It is based on the assumption that acquisition of the language is maintained through an understanding and production of these chunks providing learners with an essential knowledge whereby they can draw an adequate amount of information as to how language is formed (Lewis, 1993, 1997). According to Lewis (1997), implementation of the approach means, “learning to look at how words really behave in the environments in which they’ve been used” (p.32), and that careful *noticing* of chunks, be it grammatical or phonological, help turn input into intake. On this issue Lewis also notes,

“The key idea of ‘noticing’ informs all Exercises and Activities in the Lexical Approach. While agreeing with Krashen’s main proposition in *The Natural Approach*, namely *We acquire language by understanding messages*, the Lexical Approach differs in one important respect. The Natural Approach claims conscious learning has no influence on acquisition...Meaning and message are primary, but Exercises and Activities which help the learner observe or notice the L2 more accurately ensure quicker and more carefully-formulated hypotheses about L2, and so aid acquisition which is based on a constantly repeated Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle.” (p.52)

Hill (2000) states, “A Lexical Approach to language and to learning does not break everything down into individual words, but sees language in larger units.” (p.48).

Moudraia (2001) summarizes the basic principles of the approach as follows;

- 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 grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar.”
- One of the central organizing principles of any meaning-centered syllabus should be lexis.

(p. 1, 2)

Analyses of data of real used language suggest that native speakers of any language are much less original and creative than is usually believed. It was observed that native speakers’ mental lexicon includes many prefabricated chunks stored as single units. This gives them the accuracy and fluency essential to rapid interpretation and production of the message they intend to get across with relatively less effort than that of non-native speakers. Retrieval of these chunks from the memory enables them to focus more on the content of the message rather than the form. (Pawley & Syder, 1983; Lewis, 2000; Schmitt & Carter, 2000; Kavaliauskiene & Januleviéiene, 2001, Moras, 20001, Baigent; 1999, Read, 2000). Widdowson (1989) argues that lexical phrases are of great importance within the communicative competence of language learners;

...communicative competence is not a matter of knowing rules for the composition of sentences. It is much more a matter of knowing a stock of partially pre-assembled patterns, formulaic frameworks, and a kit of rules, so to speak, and being able to apply the rules to make whatever adjustments are necessary according to contextual demands. (p.135)

Lewis (2000) states that the fundamental assumption underlying the syntactic view to language was that learners first needed structures, and having mastered some of the basic ones, they would move from accurate but halting production, to more fluent speech and writing. Bolinger (in Skehan, 1998) argued that this rule-based approach to language allows the users to express meanings through the generative power of grammar that gives them the flexibility to create expressions that have not been created before. However, he also claims that this does not reflect what users of language do most of the time. Instead, he proposes that language use is largely based on lexical elements, and that it is not as creative as was previously conceived of. Sinclair (1988), in his extensive research in computerized corpora, observed that the 'open choice principle' which emerged as a result of the rule-governed view to language falls short of accounting for the structure of the texts he investigated. He found that lexical choices of language users in such a model are much more limited than it was supposed and introduced the 'idiom principle'. He argues that, co-occurrences of words are limited, and that the use of one word markedly changes the probability that other words will collocate. Sinclair also asserts that people rely much more on a large set of particular combinations of lexical elements. Skehan (1998) agrees with this in saying, "it is natural to communicate by lexical means, and we only relinquish this preferred mode if we have to." (p.33) Lewis (2000), drawing from Sinclair's ideas, suggests that the primary role of language is meaning, which could be conveyed by lexis rather than grammar. He also adds that, "The global purpose of language is the communicating of messages, but the medium for doing it is language items – words and phrases – which may need to be noticed if they are to be acquired." (p. 160)

Others have also pointed out that vocabulary carries more meaning than grammar. One of these is Wilkins, who puts it so elegantly in his words: "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary *nothing* (author's italics) can be conveyed." (cited in Carter & McCarthy, 1988; p.42) In the same vein, Carter & McCarthy (1988) argue that the combinations of words involve some issues which are



independent of grammatical considerations, and that they should be investigated from the framework of a Lexical Approach. Lewis (1997) suggests that we need to revise the role of grammar in language courses, and that more time should be spent on multi-word units, awareness raising activities and efficient recording of language. He adds that the Lexical Approach, however, does not involve a total ignorance to the role of grammar.

### 2.3.2. Chunks and Noticing

Moras (2001) states that chunks consist of collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms, and that they occupy a crucial role in facilitating language product being the key to fluency. Defined in Tode's (2003) words, a chunk is "a product of processing input through chunking." (p.24) Lewis (1997) argues that efficient learning of a language is to turn the input, to which learners are exposed, into intake, and to reach that end he suggests that more class time should be spent helping learners become aware of the patterns in the text by assisting them in developing useful strategies. Stoller (1987) proposes that students can benefit a lot from explicit reading instruction that focuses on strategy training. Oxford (1990) claimed that it is most effective when the students learn why and when specific strategies are important, how to use them, and how to transfer them to new situations. Lewis (1997) says that rather than dwelling too much on individual items, which is widely the fashion in dealing with vocabulary items, teachers should guide the learners towards encouraging effective noticing and recording of lexical items i.e. chunks from which they are constructed. On the importance of chunking he notes;

The central role of chunking - the ability to discern clearly the component units of any text - becomes clearer and clearer. Unless you chunk a text correctly, it is almost impossible to read with understanding, and unless you speak in appropriate chunks, you place a serious barrier to understanding between yourself and your listeners. Chunking is the key to comprehensibility, hence to making yourself understood in speech, and from a language teaching point of view, to successfully turning input into intake. If you claim to teach in the communicative tradition, helping learners to understand chunks and chunking should have a central place in the classroom. Chunking is central to effective communication, and efficient acquisition. (p.58)

Lewis also adds that correct identification of chunks in text helps learners use dictionaries more efficiently, translate better and prevent mistakes concerning lexical choice and that, “it is the fundamental skill which aids both formal learning and acquisition.” (p.89)

Ellis & Hunt (1993), relating chunking to the issue of the functioning of memory assert;

Chunking is a useful process which can serve to offset the extreme capacity limitations of short term memory. More information can be stored by increasing the information in each unit, thus making the limited number of chunks rich in information value. (p.82)

Miller (in Leahey & Harris, 1997) states that the bits of information could be enlarged with the help of chunking. He claims that it allows us to combine pieces of information together and this takes up less space in our working memory.

Ur (1996) also points to the importance of meaningful chunks of language in context supporting the view that memorized chunks of language or formulaic utterances contribute effectively to the learner’s ability to manipulate language. So, it is helpful to make learners explicitly aware of the lexical nature of the language, and to develop an understanding of the kinds of chunks found in the texts they meet and the kinds of prefabricated groups of words, which are the prerequisite of fluency.

Ellis (1994), Lewis (1993) and Skehan (1998) support the view that noticing accounts for the way in which input becomes intake before it is ready for integration into the learner’s developing interlanguage system. Noticing language as chunks, aids storage as chunks, and it therefore aids acquisition as some of this prefabricated language is then available to the learner both for use as prefabricated items and as raw material for syntactic analysis. Thus, without guidance from a teacher, learners may miss much that is of value from an acquisitional point of view (Lewis, 2000).

Fotos (1993) suggests that ‘consciousness raising’, which is defined as drawing learners’ attention to the formal properties of language, is the process that precedes noticing. Schmidt (1990) identifies three aspects of consciousness in language learning: awareness, intention and knowledge, and that consciousness as awareness covers the aspect of ‘noticing’. It is asserted that the major difference between these two concepts is that “noticing has supposed implications for language processing and the actual

acquisition of linguistic features.” (Cross, 2003; p. 2). It is also claimed that a conscious awareness of how language works and the subjection of learners’ experience to analysis would suit their cognitive style, increase motivation and so enhance learning. Oxford (1990) suggests that language learning strategies can be taught in at least three ways one of which is ‘awareness training’. Awareness training, which is also known as consciousness-raising is viewed as crucial elements in a comprehensive model of foreign language learning. Yong (1999) suggests:

“Raising students’ awareness of collocations will motivate them to find their guide from readings, dictionaries, and communication with native speakers. All these will help their language production and development. They will learn to use appropriate word patterns rather than simply put individual words together according to English syntactic rules. When it comes to writing, where greater accuracy is required and more opportunities for self-monitoring are possible, a knowledge of appropriate word combinations will prove to be especially useful.” (p.2)

Lewis concludes, “...the more aware learners are of the chunks of which any text is made, the more likely that the input they notice will contribute to intake.” (2000; p.163).

#### **2.4. Related Empirical Research Conducted on Collocations**

Almost all of the studies reported on collocations investigated whether learners have collocational knowledge of the words under study. In one of these studies, Bahns and Eldaw (1993) show that collocational development of learners is well behind ordinary vocabulary development. Another study by Howarth (1998) reveals that non-native speakers made little use of collocations, or that they lacked the knowledge of how to use them. Farghal and Obiedat (1995) applied two questionnaires in the form of a ‘fill-in-the-blanks’ and a ‘translation’ which included 22 collocations under topics such as food, color and weather to senior and junior English majors in EFL classes. They found that both groups lacked competence with collocations. Gitsaki (1999) examined the patterns of acquisition of English collocations using three measures; a writing task, a gap-filling task and a translation task. The results showed that knowledge

of collocations was parallel to a level of proficiency, and that learners had greater difficulty in rendering lexical collocations than grammatical collocations. Another conclusion of this study was that acquisition of collocations correlated well with the amount of time learners were exposed to the use of a particular collocation. Bonk (2000) developed a test of collocations for ESL learners. Application of the test revealed that there was a strong correlation between collocational knowledge and proficiency levels. Barfield (2002), in a recent study “Learner Constructions of Collocational Use”, gave a text on migraine to two groups of learners with different levels of vocabulary. While the students read through the text, notes were taken by the learners. He then collected the notes and recorded the learners’ speech while they tried to give a summary of the text. After transcribing the learners’ speech, he mapped the results to get a schematic representation of their ‘network of collocational use’ (a term that the author coined to understand to what extent the learners used the word combinations inherent in the text, and those that the learners came up with on their own). The results showed that collocational networks of the lower group involved isolated combinations that tend to run in parallel and were limited, whereas the higher group’s networks involved overlapping active links between the combinations. In addition, the verbs and adjectives for the latter group showed multiple nominal links although their number were smaller than those of the former group.

Comparative studies have also revealed similar results. In a translation task from L1 (Polish/German), Biskup (1992) investigated the influence of L1 on learners’ renderings of English lexical collocations. The results of her study revealed that German speakers seemed to be more willing to take risks and to paraphrase, while Polish speakers, less likely to take risks, produced fewer incorrect renditions, but had more omissions, and more of their incorrect translations showed interference from L1. In another comparative study conducted by Arnaud and Savignon (1997), French teachers with high levels of proficiency in English matched native speakers in choosing rare and low frequency words in multiple-choice tests, but failed to achieve the same level of performance with lexical units. A similar study by Altenberg and Granger (2001) revealed that Swedish and French learners of English tended to misuse the de-lexical verb ‘make’ in multi-word expressions. Alpaslan (1993), in his contrastive study of lexical collocations in Turkish and English, draws our attention to the reasons why

Turkish students are likely to make mistakes in English. He puts his reasons into four categories asserting that:

1. The different word order of both languages under question may affect the order of collocations.
2. English words are more specialized (lexicalised) compared to Turkish words.
3. Cultural differences in both languages may be in effect.
4. The differences in the semantic fields of words of both languages may have influence on the form of collocations.

(p.75)

He concludes that “lexical collocations are initiators of vocabulary teaching without them [sic] vocabulary teaching will hardly be achieved”. (p.83)

Altinok (2000) states that collocations are a major problem for Turkish students, and that “students have always problems [sic] with finding appropriate collocations for words.” (p.4) She says that students are inclined to translate collocations directly from L1 to L2. Altinok relates this pitfall to the difference of the word order and word selection between the two languages, and claims that this could be overcome by teaching the appropriate collocations of words the students learn. In her thesis, she attempted to see whether teaching collocations of unknown words helped learners learn new vocabulary, and compared this to teaching definitions of those words to another group of learners.

Altinok gave learners a vocabulary checklist of 100 words from which the learners indicated their knowledge for each of them by ticking one of the categories which were “I know the word”, “I think I know the word, but I am not sure”, and “I don’t know the word at all”. After selecting the words for which the learners ticked, “I don’t know the word at all”, she found collocates of these unknown words from a language corpora. The learners were then asked to do the same thing in a second vocabulary checklist for these words, and she selected those for which the learners ticked, “I know this word”. Next, with the help of a native speaker, two passages were formed, each of which included 10 collocations. (The collocations contained one unknown word from the vocabulary checklist and one known collocate from the second list).

Both passages were read by the experimental and the control groups. After answering comprehension questions relating to the passages in each separate session, she drew learners' attention to collocations in the first experimental group and used the 'collocation technique', although she did not indicate clearly in her thesis what this technique involved.

The second experimental group, on the other hand, was given the definitions of the unknown words, and a word formation activity was conducted to even out the time spent with each group. The meanings of new words were not explained in the control group, but a speaking activity was carried out to approximate the time taken by learners in the first two groups.

As a follow-up for the reading, learners were given a gap-filling exercise. For the first experimental group, the unknown words to be matched with blanks were given with their collocates, while the words given to the control groups were listed in isolation. The immediate and delayed posttests for all groups were twofold. The first one was a recognition test and the second one required learners to write the meaning of the new word in English, and to use it in a sentence. Delayed posttests were the same as the immediate posttests, with the order of the items changed.

The results indicate that there were no significant differences between the two groups, and Altınok concludes that teaching collocations does not help learners in remembering new vocabulary. The outcome of the study was not surprising, since it involved teaching *unknown* words with the help of collocations, and this certainly seems to have put more of a load on student memory. Although advocates of the Lexical Approach are in favor of teaching each new word with at least one collocate, the scope of the above study cannot embrace the full potential of this technique considering the methodology it followed. A study concerned with the added advantage of teaching collocations to extend the collocational knowledge of familiar vocabulary would have revealed different results. The present study attempts to achieve this goal and to overcome the drawbacks in the design of Altınok's study by choosing to focus on raising learners' awareness of verb-noun collocations in which the nouns are assumed to be already familiar to the learners.

## CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

### 3.1. Subjects and Setting

This study was conducted with two classes of Turkish learners of English studying in the School of Foreign Languages at Anadolu University. The levels of these classes were both Upper-Intermediate as determined by the combination of their first term grades and the results of a placement test administered by the school. However, to ensure the correct level of the learners before the study, the Michigan Placement Test was administered to all 42 student subjects. The study included learners whose levels were Upper-Intermediate according to the results of this test. The distribution of the subjects that fell into that level was 18 in one class and 19 in the other. To equalise the numbers in both classes, for the purposes of ease of data analysis, one student was excluded from one group at the beginning of the study. As a result, both classes in the study involved 18 participants, with a total of 36.

The learners in this school are all involved in an intensive language-learning preparation program for one year. Each class in the study receives 22-hour weekly instruction on a skill-based syllabus preparing them for an institutional final exam; a prerequisite before entering their faculties. Each class has a total of four hours of reading lesson in a week held in 2-hour sessions on different days.

One of the reasons for choosing these high level classes was the assumption that the level of the subjects in both groups was suitable for the level of the nouns used in the study. All of the nouns in the target collocations used in this study are among the 2000 high frequency words in West's (1953) General Service List. Nation (1990) says that this list covers 87% of an average non-academic text. In addition, all of the nouns chosen for this study from the list are frequently used in learner coursebooks of lower levels.

## 3.2. Instruments

### 3.2.1. Placement Test

A standard placement test (The Michigan Placement Test) was administered to determine the levels of the students a week before the collection of the data. Several other teachers at the same institution (School of Foreign Languages, Anadolu University) conducting research in the same field (ELT) have used this test in their studies, and it was also considered appropriate for this study. In determining the levels, the evaluation scale, as suggested by the Faculty of Education and the School of Foreign Languages, was used. The test comprised of four sections with the number of items as listed below:

- 20 Listening Comprehension items
- 30 Grammar and Structure items
- 30 Vocabulary items
- 20 Reading Comprehension items

The students were given scores out of 100, which reflects the total number of items in the test. The evaluation scale is shown in Figure 1.

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76-100	Advanced
61-75	Upper-Intermediate
46-60	Intermediate
31-45	Lower-Intermediate
16-30	Elementary
0-15	Beginner

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**Figure 1.** The Evaluation Scale for the Michigan Placement Test



The distribution of the scores according to this scale is given in Figure 2. below:

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Levels</u>	<u>n</u>
76-100	Advanced	2
61-75	Upper-Intermediate	37
46-60	Intermediate	2
31-45	Lower-Intermediate	1
16-30	Elementary	0
0-15	Beginner	0

**Figure 2.** The Distribution of the Michigan Placement Test Results

### **3.2.2. Pretest - Productive**

The pre-test (Appendix A) comprises of 25 sentences, including verb + noun collocations, adapted from the Oxford Collocations Dictionary Study Pages (2002). The actual number of collocations that were included in the study was 13 (7+6), and they were chosen from two topics (Traffic, Education). Item numbers of these sentences for this test are: 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 17, 18, 24, 25. The remaining items (12) in the test consist of collocations from other topics. They were added to the test to prevent categorization of the topics, and all of them were shuffled. Each sentence in the test includes a noun either preceded or followed by a blank in which the students were asked to write a suitable verb that fulfils the meaning of the sentence.

### **3.2.3. Pretest – Recognition**

The sentences in this test are the same as those in the productive version of the test (Appendix B). Each sentence has four answers, with only one choice being correct for the blank in each sentence. All the answer choices (correct or incorrect) reflect the same part of speech with their verb-tense inflections, to prevent the test focusing on grammar rather than on vocabulary. The prepositions that are found with some of the

verbs in the sentences were also provided with the verbs. Item numbers of the sentences for this test are: 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19, 21, 22.

#### **3.2.4. Posttests**

Posttests were necessary to understand whether the difference in the instruction to the two groups caused any difference in terms of collocational knowledge familiar vocabulary. The items in these tests were the same as those in both versions of the pretests but the order of the items in both tests were changed to prevent the possibility of guessing as they could be recalled from the pretests. And since the study is limited to testing the short term memory retention of the items presented, the posttests were administered only once.

#### **3.2.5. Reading Texts**

The texts were written by a native speaking teacher of English. The teacher had been given the correct pairs of verb + noun collocations for each topic. (7 for Traffic, 6 for Education) The teacher was asked to form two coherent passages depicting an event, including the collocations. One of the texts is about 'Education' and the other is about 'Traffic' (Appendices C1, C2). The number of the collocations for each test was limited to '7' as Miller, in his work on memory (in Leahey & Harris, 1997) found that the memory span was about '7' considering numbers and also bits of information such as words, pictures and even sentences. Hunt & Beglar also (1998) state that the words and word groups learners are presented should not exceed an average of 5-7 per lesson.

Each text is backed up with comprehension questions to make the reading more meaningful and intelligible. Before the passages were read, a brainstorming activity was conducted to elicit learners' vocabulary about the topics at hand.

### **3.3. Data Collection Procedures**

#### **3.3.1. Experimental Group**

##### **3.3.1.1. Pretests**

The productive test was given before the recognition test on the assumption that the learners could have remembered some of the answers given in the recognition test had the order been reversed. The learners were informed before the productive test, through guided examples and explanations from the instructor, that each sentence in the test includes a verb + noun collocation, and that they should find one suitable verb for each blank. Three examples, followed by three practice sentences, were given to clarify the procedure. Instructions were given in Turkish to prevent any misunderstanding.

A pilot study had been carried out with another group of learners at a similar level. The results revealed that some learners responded to some of the items by providing an alternative verb that was not given in the texts but which could also fulfill the context of that sentence. On both occasions however, this would not have a direct effect on the outcome of the study, since the posttest would show whether a learner who was able to provide other acceptable verb collocates in the pretest could pick up the correct collocates (the ones in the texts) for that particular noun through chunking.

##### **3.3.1.2. Reading Texts**

The texts that are used in the study are relatively short, but they are collocationally rich. Each of them contains an average of 7 verb + noun collocations and a number of other types of collocations (adverb + verb, adjective + noun and so on) that can be found in a great variety of texts. It took each class nearly thirty minutes to study each text. Each group read two texts in two consecutive lessons in one week.

After reading each text (C1, C2), any problems concerning vocabulary or structure were worked out. Learners were encouraged to work by themselves to figure

out the meaning of any of the unfamiliar words through guessing in context, using dictionaries and eliciting. The instructor also tried to supply accurate definitions and synonyms and/or paraphrased to make explicit the meaning of all of the items, as is done in traditional reading classes. During this stage, none of the nouns in the target collocations were reported to be unfamiliar by any student as anticipated. What then followed, on completion of the vocabulary work and the answering of the comprehension questions, was to hand out the second version of the same texts with some deliberately selected parts underlined to draw the learners' attention to the issue of collocations (Appendices D1, D2)\*

The underlined parts of the texts (Appendices D1, D2) in the present study included all but verb + noun collocations, to provide examples for the learners. The instructor asked the learners to locate all the nouns and find the verb collocates of these nouns in texts. Guidance from the teacher was essential at this stage, as Conzett (2000) warns that, "students are less likely to notice unless guided towards the importance of collocation by their teachers." (p.75) When they finished locating them, the instructor told the learners the advantages of learning new and *familiar* words in new combinations and how constructing the precise meaning would be easier if they achieved this skill.

The activity utilized in this study is adapted from one of the activities Michael Lewis (1997) suggests in his book "Implementing the Lexical Approach". The activity is called "Find the noun, find the collocate" (p.109). The lexical focus of this activity is to remind learners of the importance of seeing, noticing and recording words together with the other words with which they occur. It also states that *Verb + noun* partnerships are among the most useful in the lexicon. The pivotal role of the 'noun' in this respect was made explicit by explaining that nouns are by rule the focus of information, and that meaning is usually constructed around them.

Lewis (2000) says that learners usually do not notice the exact way an idea is expressed, even if their attention is drawn to it. Some training in the sorts of chunks which make up the texts they read or hear increases the chance of noticing useful language. Noticing, at this point, is key as Woolard (2000) expresses, "collocation is

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\* Please note that these also show the collocations in bold which the learners were expected to identify. On the actual handouts these were not in bold letters.

mostly a matter of noticing and recording, and trained students should be able to explore texts for themselves.” (Woolard, 2000, p.35) Brown (1994) advises teachers to suggest that their students adopt a Green Cross Code of Reading. This involves applying the order, ‘Stop, look left, look right, look left again, and when satisfied, proceed,’ when the learner sees a word, even if it is already familiar to him/her. He admits that this seems ‘unnatural’ since people do not generally stop to look around a word that is already familiar. He claims that this familiarity usually gets in the way, and what seems to be familiar at first glance may not be that familiar at all. He notes:

“Students should be advised to read in manageable chunks, analysing sentences, noticing how words co-exist with others. And all this is part and parcel of teaching them to look not simply for new words, but at the words they know already; not simply at the words they know already, but at these *in relation to* other words, many of which they will also know already.”

(p.25)

The awareness-raising part was of prominence in this study since learners should have been convinced that the technique under the new vocabulary framework they were trained in would provide them with opportunities they could use for themselves when working independently. The instructor raised the learners’ awareness of collocations with examples, and told them that really knowing a word requires knowing how that word operates with other words, and that they can achieve this just by looking at texts in a slightly different way.

### 3.3.1.3. Posttests

The posttests were handed out after the final reading text was studied. The items in the posttests were the same as those in the pretest. The learners were asked to answer as many of the questions in both tests. No questions from the learners were replied during this stage. It took the subjects nearly twenty minutes to answer both versions of the tests.

### **3.3.2. Control Group**

#### **3.3.2.1. Pretests**

The procedure for the application of the pretests were the same with that of the experimental group. The instructor explained the learners the procedure of the study and provided examples to guide them on how to proceed with the tests. The order of the tests were also the same in this group, the productive test having been administered first followed by the recognition test version.

#### **3.3.2.2. Reading Texts**

While dealing with the texts, traditional vocabulary teaching techniques were applied. This broadly involved giving definitions of unknown words, providing near synonyms, and giving example sentences to make the meanings clear. The learners were asked to read the texts first, and then to find every single word whose meaning they were not sure of. During this stage, none of the nouns in the target collocations were reported to be unfamiliar by any student as anticipated. The focus was always on words in an isolated fashion i.e. in the sense of treating each unknown word as a single item without paying attention to its collocates. Therefore, the only point the learners in this group was deprived of, was the introduction of the concept 'collocations' and the importance of noticing them in texts. The learners in this group were also encouraged to use dictionaries. Vocabulary work went on until the meaning of each word was clarified. This was followed by answering the comprehension questions.

#### **3.3.2.3. Posttests**

The posttests were administered after the final reading text was read and studied by the group. The learners were asked to answer as many of the questions in both tests.

No questions from the learners were replied during this stage. It took the subjects nearly twenty minutes to answer both versions of the tests.

### **3.4. Data Analysis Procedures**

Analysis of the data was based on the number of correct answers learners from each group gave to the items in both tests, before and after the treatment. The measurement was done by running two types of t-test to understand whether there was a significant difference in the results within and between groups. The first type of t-test was the 'correlated' version that is used to measure the significance between the pre and posttest results of the same group. The other type, called the 'independent t-test', was used to determine the significance of the results between the two groups of learners.

The tool utilised in measuring these variables was developed specially to measure vocabulary test competence and comply with other standard forms of testing tools. Called 'The Compleat Lexical Tutor V.3' (2003), it was developed by Tom Cobb and was adapted from R. Lowry's work (1998) on statistical analysis. Being a user-friendly statistical tool, it allows researchers to run tests such as 't-tests, chi-square, correlational and descriptive analyses'. The manual paper of the tool and the demos explain clearly how data should be entered and evaluated. The tool's explanation for the independent t-test is that it is used to compare numerical data from two independent groups e.g. the test scores of two different classes of students who have received two different kinds of instruction. The explanation for the correlated t-test are the same as the type of data that could be entered into a correlational analysis: the numbers are arranged in matching pairs (such as pre-post scores for each student) and the two columns of figures are of equal length. Both in the independent and correlated t-tests a two-tail test of significance was used because no hypotheses have been put forward in the research questions implying an expectation in one direction or the other.

The t-tests involved the following categories;

1. The difference between the correct answers of the recognition vocabulary pre and posttest results of the experimental group.
2. The difference between the correct answers of the recognition vocabulary pre and posttest results of the control group.
3. The difference between the correct answers of the recognition vocabulary pretest results of the experimental and control groups.
4. The difference between the correct answers of the recognition vocabulary posttest results of the experimental and control groups.
5. The difference between the correct answers of the productive vocabulary pre and posttest results of the experimental group.
6. The difference between the correct answers of the productive vocabulary pre and posttest results of the control group.
7. The difference between the correct answers of the productive vocabulary pretest results of the experimental and control groups.
8. The difference between the correct answers of the productive vocabulary posttest results of the experimental and control groups.

Each correct item in both tests was given one point, as the number of items in each type of test was the same (13). The results of the t-tests are shown in **Table 1.** and **Table 2..**

Tense, spelling, inflectional and derivational grammar mistakes were ignored during the analysis of the data, since the study aimed to investigate choice of vocabulary.

Further analysis of the productive test results, based on the categorization of responses for each group, was also considered to be helpful in explaining the types of transition that took place after the treatment each group received. The answers each student gave to each question in the productive test were charted on tables (Appendices E1, E2) and were sorted out into categories displaying the type of change in the answers. The first letter on the left side of the slash (/) mark in **Table 3.** and **Table 4.** refers to the response the student provided before the treatment was given, and the letter



to the right side of the slash mark is the response the student gave after the treatment. **Table 3.** and **Table 4.** also show, on a horizontal order, the number of cases each category received for each item. The number of cases for each item adds up to 18, which refers to the number of students in each group. When examined vertically, the numbers at the bottom indicate the total number of usage for each of the corresponding top category. The explanation of the meaning of each letter used in the categories is explained below.

All the answers in the test were categorized into subsets, indicating what the students knew before the treatment and after the treatment. Each answer from learners in both groups was then categorized into one of the 16 categories, as shown in **Appendices E1: Experimental Group** and **E2: Control Group**.

The names of the categories were identified with initials showing which category they belonged to. These are:

A. Alternative      B. Blank      C. Correct      I. Incorrect

The category 'alternative' was used for those items that are possible collocates of the verb in question, but which were not included in the text given to the learners. The verb 'fail' for example, which is an alternative collocate of the noun 'exam', was considered as an 'alternative' for the given blank in the test. The Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002) was taken as a reference for this study, so all the 'correct' and 'alternative' collocates of the target nouns were looked up in this source and other probable candidates were ignored.

Obviously, not all the words were identified as 'alternative' for each given noun. The contextual framework was one of the most important factor in deciding whether to assign a word as either an 'alternative' or a 'correct' item. A word which is considered as a possible collocate of a particular noun in the collocation dictionary but is used in another sense, was not counted as 'alternative', and was considered 'incorrect'. The category 'alternative' was essential, since the set of collocates of a word is usually not limited to one single item. It was therefore necessary to include such a category in case the learner used an 'alternative' collocate of the noun which was not in the texts the

learners read but was among the choices in the entry to the target noun in the dictionary and conforming to the contextual meaning.

A 'correct' item on the other hand was defined as the actual collocate that was used with one of the target nouns given in the texts.

An 'incorrect' item does not bear any relation to the noun it is used with. That is, according to the Oxford Collocation Dictionary (2002), it is not considered as a collocate of the lexical item used in the text. Any item which does not go together with a target noun, though being meaningful on its own, was labeled with this category.

The category 'blank' was used when the learner provided no answer for the given blank in the productive test.

What follows is an extension of the example provided at the beginning of this part. The noun 'exam' is used in one of two the reading texts used in the study under the topic "Education." One of the verb collocates it is used with in the text is 'flunk' which is considered as the 'correct' collocate in the sentence "She is a lazybones, so it's no surprise that she \_\_\_\_\_ the exam." (Appendix A, item 14). An answer which could be considered as 'alternative' to this sentence would be 'fail'. Although this word is given together with the 'correct' choice 'flunk' in the same entry, it is assigned the 'alternative' category since it is not found in the text the students read. The verb 'pass' is another verb found in the dictionary entry, but since it does not conform to the contextual meaning of the sentence, it is neither considered as 'correct' nor 'alternative', and was evaluated under the category 'incorrect'. Any other verb which is not found among the choices to the noun 'exam' in the dictionary was also considered as 'incorrect'.

## CHAPTER IV

### DATA ANALYSIS & DISCUSSION

#### 4.1. Analysis of the Results

This chapter contains information about the results of the statistical tests conducted to understand whether there was a significant difference in the pre and posttest results of the experimental and control groups. Correlated t-tests were conducted to determine the difference within the same group, and independent t-tests were conducted to determine the difference between the two separate groups i.e. experimental and control. The confidence level was determined at 0,05 for all types of t-tests.

All the results obtained from the application of 8 t-tests are shown in **Table 1.** and **Table 2.** The order of the analysis starts with reading the results of correlated (within group) t-tests on a vertical direction of the tables followed by the reading of the results obtained from the independent (between groups) t-tests on a horizontal direction for each table. The analyses of the results of t-tests are then followed by the analysis of the productive test.

##### 4.1.1. The Results of Analysis for the Recognition Tests

**Table 1. The Correlated (within group) & Independent (between groups) t-test results of the Recognition Pre & Posttests**

		Experimental Group	Control Group		
		n=18	n=18	t	p
Pretest	Mean	5,7	5,1	0,93	0,3589
	SS	87,1	69,7		
Posttest	Mean	10,6	8,05	3,07	0,0041
	SS	104	116,9		
	t	-8,83	-5,59		
	p	<0,0001	<0,0001		

**Table 1.** demonstrates that the mean for the recognition posttest (10,6) is almost twice the mean (5,7) of the recognition pretest for the experimental group. The result of the two-tailed correlated t-test, with 17 degrees of freedom, indicate that there is a significant difference between the pre and posttest mean values of the experimental group beyond the 0,05 level of significance ( $p < 0,0001$ ).

The t-test run for the control group also shows a significant difference beyond the 0,05 level of significance with  $p$  being  $< 0,0001$ . This indicates that this group also showed an increase in the scores between the pre and posttest, as the experimental group, though it may display a lower increase when compared with it (cf 5,7/10,6: experimental group with 5,1/8,05: control group).

When we look at the table horizontally, it seems from the slight difference between the mean values of both groups (5,7 for the experimental group, and 5,1 for the control group) that there is no significant difference between the pretest scores of each group. The  $p$  at 0,3589 is higher than the 0,05 level of significance.

On the other hand, the mean value of the experimental group for the recognition vocabulary posttest is 10,6 and the mean value of the control group for the same test is 8,05. The t-test result indicates that the  $p$  value 0,0041 is significant beyond the 0,05 level of significance.

**Table 2. The Correlated (within group) & Independent (between groups) t-test results of the Productive Pre & Posttests**

		Experimental Group	Control Group		
		n=18	n=18	t	p
Pretest	Mean	0,7	0,7	0,21	0,8349
	SS	11,1	9,6		
Posttest	Mean	5	2,8	2,65	0,0121
	SS	116	77,7		
t		-6,66	-4,72		
p		<0,0001	0,0001		

The pretest mean value of the experimental group for the productive vocabulary test is 0,7 and it rose to 5 in the posttest. The t-test result, considering these values,

demonstrates that the observed  $t$  significantly exceeds the critical value for the 0.05 confidence level, and the corresponding  $p < 0,0001$  can hence be regarded as significant beyond the 0.05 level.

The  $p$  (0,0001) between the pre and posttest mean values of the control group indicates that there is a significant difference. However, the mean values, (0,7 for the pretest, and 2,8 for the posttest) when compared with those of the experimental group in the same test, (0,7 for the pretest, and 5 for the posttest) show us that the increase is not as high as it is in the experimental group.

The pretest scores of both groups for the productive version of the test show a close similarity in the mean values in the first horizontal line of the table (0,7 for the experimental group, and 0,7 for the control group). As  $p > 0,05$  ( $p = 0,8349$ ) we understand that there is no significant difference between these scores each group received from the productive vocabulary pretest.

With 34 degrees of freedom at the 0,05 significance level, the  $p$  value (0,0121) shows that there is a significant difference between the posttest scores of both groups. The experimental group received a much higher mean value (5) than the control group (2,8).

Examination of the statistical tables reveals that the correlated  $t$ -test results of each group show a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores. Thus, it can be contended that each group performed better in the posttest than they did in the pretest. On closer inspection, the means for each group reveal that the increase between the pretest and the posttest results of the experimental group is much higher than that of the control group. The recognition pretest mean value of 5,7 rose to 10,6 (**Table 1.**) in the experimental group, whereas the value in the control group increased from 5,1 to 8,0. The productive pretest mean value was 0,7 and the posttest score was a flat 5 (**Table 2.**) in the experimental group. The mean values of the control group for the same test, on the other hand, were 0,7 for the pretest and 2,8 for the posttest.

The  $t$ -test results show that the difference between the two groups was insignificant in both types of pretests, but was significant in the posttests. The significance was beyond the 0,05 confidence level for both tests with  $p$  values being  $p = 0,0041$  with the recognition test and  $p = 0,0121$  with the productive test.

#### 4.1.2. Item Analysis of the Productive Test Results

**Table 3. The distribution of answers to the productive test – Experimental Group**

Item	A/A	A/B	A/C	A/I	B/A	B/B	B/C	B/I	C/A	C/B	C/C	C/I	I/A	I/B	I/C	I/I	Total
1	0	0	0	0	1	3	4	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	3	18
3	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	2	0	0	4	18
4	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	3	0	0	1	0	1	2	4	2	18
7	1	0	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	9	18
8	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	10	18
9	5	1	1	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	5	18
10	1	0	0	0	0	3	7	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	18
12	2	0	0	4	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	5	18
14	9	1	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	18
17	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	18
18	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	5	0	1	1	6	1	18
24	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	7	5	18
25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	5	18
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>n=18</b>

**Table 4. The distribution of answers to the productive test – Control Group**

Item	A/A	A/B	A/C	A/I	B/A	B/B	B/C	B/I	C/A	C/B	C/C	C/I	I/A	I/B	I/C	I/I	Total
1	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	4	18
3	3	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	0	1	0	3	1	18
4	0	0	1	0	0	3	2	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	5	18
7	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	12	18
8	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	14	18
9	7	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	18
10	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	7	18
12	1	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	8	18
14	16	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18
17	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10	18
18	0	1	1	2	0	3	2	0	0	0	4	0	0	1	2	2	18
24	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	18
25	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	7	7	18
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>n=18</b>

The first category A/A indicates that the students used an ‘alternative’ verb in the pretest and used the same or some other ‘alternative’ response in the posttest. The number of total instances for this category is 20 for the experimental group, and 29 for the control group. The higher number for the control group may mean that the learners

in the control group were, as a result of a lack of focus on correct collocates in the treatment stage, less careful in taking notice of the correct collocates in the reading texts, and therefore chose to stick with their initial ‘alternative’ responses. The two items, 9 and 14, received a higher number of instances in each group (5 and 9 in the experimental, and 7 and 16 in the control group). The ‘alternative’ responses for item 9 varied considerably, but the responses for item 14 mainly focused around the verb ‘fail’ instead of the correct collocate ‘flunk’ as used in the text.

The second category A/B received just a few instances in both groups (3 in the experimental, and 5 in the control group). This means that there were only 8 cases where the initial response was an ‘alternative’ in the pretest with the latter remaining blank in the posttest.

One of the most important categories out of the 16 is category A/C, as it indicates that there has been a transition to the ‘correct’ answer from an ‘alternative’ response. The number of instances is 9 in the experimental group and 7 in the control group. An example of the type of transition under this category can be found in the responses student number 4 in the control group provided. The ‘alternative’ collocate s/he gave for the noun ‘test’ is the verb ‘take’, which s/he later replaced it with the ‘correct’ verb collocate ‘do’ as found in the text.

The next category is A/I, referring to the transition from an ‘alternative’ response to an ‘incorrect’ response. The number of instances for this category in each group is relatively high (13 in experimental, and 11 in control group). An example to this transition is found in the response of student number 1 from the experimental group for item 12. S/he provided two responses in the pretest, cross and crash, which are acceptable verb collocates of the noun ‘car’ in that context. This student, however, replaced this verb with an ‘incorrect’ verb collocate ‘push’ in the posttest that simply does not fit the meaning, and one that is not found in the Dictionary of Oxford Collocations (2002). This ‘incorrect’ response might have stemmed from a misinterpretation of the phonological similarity between the verb ‘push’ and the correct collocate ‘pull’, as found in the text. So, the ‘correct’ answer to this item should have been, ‘A car suddenly *pulled* out in front of me.’

The following category B/A got few instances in both groups (1 in the experimental and 2 in the control group) indicating that only three students gave an 'alternative' collocate in the posttest after leaving the response 'blank' in the pretest.

The number of instances for category B/B indicates that there were 16 cases in the experimental group, and 19 in the control group, where the students did not give any answer to some of the items both in the pretest and in the posttest.

Category B/C exhibits 22 cases in the experimental group illustrating a transfer from a 'blank' answer to a 'correct' answer, whereas the number of instances for this category is only 5 in the control group. The difference between these numbers could be evaluated as evidence for the assumption that the subjects in the experimental group were more successful in identifying the 'correct' collocates of the target nouns used in the text while reading.

The number of instances for category B/I is 13 in the experimental group and 15 in the control group showing that the transfer of word knowledge worked in the negative direction for some of the items in the posttest. Some examples to this category are: (item 1) 'She was *tired* from driving after failing a breath test', 'She was *avoided* from driving after failing a breath test' in which both italicized verb collocates do not fit into the context of the sentences, and (item 10) 'The stolen car hit an oncoming vehicle and *fire* into flames', (item 25) 'I *wrote* the essay to the teacher late' where the italicized verbs were used to give the intended meaning, but which are not the 'correct' verb collocates of the target nouns 'flames' and 'essay'.

There were no instances for the category C/A in the experimental group, and there was only one instance in the control group where the subject used the 'correct' collocate 'do' in the pretest in the sentence, 'We have to *do* a vocabulary test every Friday', and later replaced it with an 'alternative' verb collocate 'take'.

There were no recorded instances for category C/B in both groups.

The number of instances for category C/C is 12 in both groups. It can be interpreted by the results of this category that there were 12 cases in both groups where the subjects had given a 'correct' answer for an item in the pretest, and later in the posttest, confirmed the correctness of their answers, although it is not clear whether the subjects utilized the same 'correct' items through mere guessing or through reading in chunks. More importantly, the majority of the instances in each group gather around



item 3, 'We have to *do* a vocabulary test every Friday' and item 18, 'The car *ran out of* petrol in the middle of the motorway'.

There were only two instances for category C/I both being in the experimental group. Both of the instances occurred in item 3. The first 'incorrect' answer involved a wrong verb choice ('attend' instead of 'do'), and the second involved a grammatical mistake (to be done).

The experimental group had 11 instances under the category I/A and the control group 4. The subjects in both groups deviated from the 'incorrect' answer they had given in the pretest, and chose to put an 'alternative' collocate in the blank rather than the 'correct' ones found in the texts.

The next category is I/B and the distribution of the total 21 instances is 10 for the experimental group and 11 for the control. In these instances, the subjects preferred to leave the blanks empty after placing 'incorrect' answers in the pretest.

The next category can be considered the most important one of all, as it involves a transition from an 'incorrect' response to a correct response. The distribution of the instances is 46 for the experimental group and 24 for the control group. Evident from the figures, the number of instances in the experimental group is almost twice that of the control group. Item 25 has the highest number of instances (11) in the experimental group, and 7 in the control group. The sentence in the test was, 'I \_\_\_\_\_ the essay to the teacher late.' Some of the 'incorrect' answers the subjects in each group used for the blank were, 'bring, gave, sent, handed (without the preposition 'in'), wrote and committed.' In the posttest, these responses were replaced with the 'correct' verb collocate 'handed in'. Other high instances were 5 for item 8, 6 for item 18, and 7 for item 24 in the experimental group, with 3 for items 3, 4, 7 in the control group.

The final category was I/I and this category had the highest number of instances of all the categories. The experimental group had 56 instances and the control group had 89 instances under this category. The 'incorrect' responses given in the pretest by the subjects remained either the same, or were changed with other 'incorrect' responses in the posttest. Although the number of instances was high in both groups, they were lower in the experimental group compared with those of the control group (56/89), meaning that the experimental group was more successful in rectifying their 'incorrect' answers in the posttest.

The four categories (A/C, B/C, C/C, I/C) deserve special attention since all of them include the 'Correct' label on the right hand side of the slash marks that refer to the posttest choices of the learners. Any direction towards a correct answer is certainly more important than other types of directions that are found in the remainder of the total 16 categories. The number of instances that the experimental group obtained from these four most important categories is also higher than that of the instances of the control group with the exception of the category C/C for which both groups had the same number of instances. Distribution of these instances under each category for both groups is shown in Figure 3. below:

	A/C	B/C	C/C	I/C
Experimental Group	9	22	12	46
Control Group	7	5	12	24

**Figure 3.** The Distribution of Instances under 4 Categories for Both Groups

Analysis of the responses to the productive test also illustrates that the type of transfers between the categories, before and after the posttests, pinpoint a higher degree of success. The total number of the instances for the four most important categories in **Figure 3.** is 89 with the experimental group and 48 with the control group.

#### 4.2. Discussion of the Results

Analysis of the **Tables 1.** and **Table 2.** reveals, considering the correlated t-tests, that there has been an observable difference between the scores each group received from the pre and posttest results in both types of tests. The point that should be paid attention is the degree of increase each group of learners attained as a result of these tests. The degree of increase has been much higher in the experimental group in both types of tests when their mean values are compared with those of the control group.

Another important point is exhibited by the independent t-tests which were run to determine the level of significance of the pretest results between the experimental

group and the control group for both types of tests. The results obtained from these tests indicate that no significant difference has been observed when their pretest scores are compared. However, when the posttest results for both types are compared, it is observed that there has been a significant increase in favour of the experimental group. What this reveals, as apparent by the mean values, is that both of the groups had scored almost identical results before the treatment, but that the experimental group outscored the control group after the treatment they received which involved the awareness-raising for identifying the verb-noun collocates in texts. The results, in summary, show that the experimental group achieved better results than the control group in both types of posttests after the treatment. Considering their pretest and posttest scores, the success rate was also higher within this group.

The independent t-test results, comparing the scores of the pretests and posttests of the two groups, seems to reveal a sum of results in line with the assumption that making learners aware of word partnerships (collocations) helps them achieve better results both in recognition and productive tests. In addition, the productive test analysis also suggests that the experimental group was more successful in extending their collocational knowledge of familiar nouns. Thus, it can be put forward that reading in chunks and focusing on the word partnerships of known words in the experimental group had a positive impact on the learners' ability to recognize and produce the target collocations and thus helped extend the collocational knowledge of familiar vocabulary.

Until preparation of the final draft of this paper, no research relevant to the design and implication of this study was found. As stated earlier in the literature review of this paper, all the studies concerning the topic have been related mostly with the varieties, forms and characteristic behaviour of collocations. A large remainder of the studies usually dealt with the degree of collocational knowledge (the collocational competence) the learners acquired during their formal studies and did not involve a treatment. Since there have been no example of research overlapping or similar to the present study, no assertions could be made regarding the relevancy of the findings obtained from this study. However, it can be contended that the study was able to overcome the deficiencies in the design and methodology of Altınok's (2000) study, and the result may indicate that raising learners' awareness of the lexical collocations in texts was helpful in extending the learners' collocational knowledge of familiar nouns.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

#### 5.1. Summary

The study aimed to extend the collocational knowledge of familiar nouns of Turkish EFL learners through training them in chunking verb + noun collocations in texts.

In order to reach the goal stated above, the following research questions were set at the beginning of the study.

1. Does training Turkish students of English to chunk verb + noun collocations in text help extend the collocational knowledge of the familiar nouns?
  - a) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition pre and posttests of the experimental group?
  - b) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive pre and posttests of the experimental group?
2. Does studying the texts without drawing attention to the verb + noun collocations help extend the collocational knowledge of the familiar nouns?
  - a) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition pre and posttests of the control group?
  - b) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive pre and posttests of the control group?
3. Do the two different treatments yield significant differences in terms of the results both groups get from the recognition and productive tests?
  - a) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition pretests of the experimental and the control group?
  - b) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive pretests of the experimental and the control group?
  - c) Is there a significant difference between the results of the recognition posttests of the experimental and the control group?

- d) Is there a significant difference between the results of the productive posttests of the experimental and the control group?

Relevant answers to these questions were sought through reading two texts in two Upper-Intermediate level classes each comprising of 18 students. Before the reading texts were studied, both of the classes were given a recognition and a productive test each consisting of 25 sentences. The recognition test required matching one of the four verbs to the given blank in each sentence. The productive test required finding a suitable verb to the given blanks without any choice available to the learners. 13 of the sentences in both tests were determined as testing items beforehand. They were chosen from two topics namely, Education and Traffic, and they include the verb + noun collocations that the students were going to see in the texts. The rest consists of collocations from other topics.

One of the classes was chosen as the experimental group randomly. In addition to clarifying the meaning of each word in the texts, which was also done with the other group, the researcher trained the learners in how to chunk the collocates of words. This was done through handing out a different version of the same reading texts in which some word partnerships were underlined. The learners' attention was drawn to the concept of collocations through examples, and they were shown how to chunk collocations in reading. The researcher also explained how reading texts in collocational chunks can be of use to them.

The control group did not receive any training in chunking collocations. Instead of pointing to this issue, the researcher asked the learners to find the meaning of all the words through traditional vocabulary teaching techniques such as dictionary work, guessing from context, utilized in most of the language classes. After the treatment phase in each class, the pretests were administered as posttests.

The results were generally in favour of the experimental group according to the independent and correlated t-tests that were run within each group and between the two groups. Considering the results within the scope of the present study, we might put forward that raising learners' consciousness about the verb-noun collocations found in the texts helped extend their collocational knowledge of familiar vocabulary (nouns in this case) as a response to the first research question. The second research question also

received a positive response meaning that learners in the control group showed a degree of achievement despite not receiving the same type of treatment that the experimental group had. The degree of achievement though was not as good as that of the experimental group. Perhaps, the most important question among the three research questions asked above was the third one asking whether the two different treatments each group received revealed different results in terms of recognition and productive tests. The results indicate that there were significant differences between the two groups in both types of tests in favour of the experimental group.

The implications of the results of this study and other studies concerning the same topic are outlined in the following part.

## **5.2 Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications**

Most of the studies about teaching and the learning of vocabulary have been concerned with the question of adding more new words into the repertoire of the learners' lexicon. Some others, on the other hand, have been concerned with the size of the vocabulary the learners possessed, literally the 'breadth' of language. Nevertheless, as Liu and Shaw (2001) postulate, these studies do not tell us much about how well the learner knows a word or how it should be taught. Perhaps more important than just the meaning of a word is the ability to know how it can be used.

The present study, in that respect, aims to deal with the 'depth' of vocabulary knowledge with emphasis on raising the consciousness of learners with regard to collocations. Depth of vocabulary involves the semantic features, associates, connotations, senses, and collocations of a particular word among others. The idea underlying the study was that consciousness-raising on the collocates of familiar high frequency words through reading in chunks would cause an expansion in the collocational knowledge of the group that received instruction on how to do this. The results collected from the examination of the pre and posttest results of the two groups involved in this study displayed that the experimental group which received such instruction was more successful in terms of providing the correct verb collocates of the nouns. Even though the study is limited to the short-term retention of the items within a

short period of instruction, the results still offer valuable insight into how such a little modification in the way learners look at texts can enrich the collocational knowledge of familiar words. Recent research in Cognitive Psychology has found that the repeated rehearsal of chunked sequences in working memory allows their integration in the long-term memory. (Ellis, 1996)

It is a well-known fact that many students, even those above intermediate levels, have great difficulty in expressing even the simplest ideas using English. An immediate solution to overcome this problem might be to highlight the chunks in texts and bring them to learners' attention. In other words, this is concerned with looking at the co-text, the immediate surroundings, of any piece of word, rather than taking it out of its natural environment. This may be quite practical as the most important thing on the part of the teacher is to understand what kinds of chunks are most useful for learners and to bring them to their attention, of course after having first made him/herself familiar with the Lexical Approach and the concept of collocations in particular. Identifying useful collocations, on most occasions those that are already familiar to learners and accurately recording them, may be a huge step towards making learners effective users of language. Strange (1997) argues that, the inability to see and use lexical patterns with advanced learners is a severe handicap, and adds that teaching learners how to chunk should start at the very early stages of learning a foreign language.

Higher-level subjects, such as those used in this study (Upper-Intermediate), have the misconception that learning new words is the only key to developing a functional vocabulary. Closely related to this is the faulty assumption that they have complete control over high frequency words. Laufer (1989) claims that learners may not be aware of the trap they have fallen into unless warned against this. High frequency of a word renders it familiar for the language learner, since it is encountered quite often. However, these words usually fulfill a variety of grammatical functions, and their meaning is determined by the word partnerships they form (Allerton, 1984). These partnerships, i.e. collocations, are crucial in language study, and should be paid more heed. They are essential in forming the precise meaning of an intended utterance. As stated earlier, they are not the source of misunderstanding when recognition knowledge is required in many cases, but when a situation requires the need for the use of productive skills, difficulties begin to emerge. In an effort to put thoughts into words,

nouns generally are not the elements that impede the correct use of language. The right choice of adjectives, nouns, adverbs, and especially verbs that should go with these nouns is what confronts the learners most. Lack of collocational competence forces the learners to come up with odd strings of language, though on most occasions they are successful in getting across what they strive to mean.

Collocations play a large part in these strings of language. They, together with lexical phrases, idioms, and fixed phrases, are what makes speech and writing more accurate and fluent. So, a special emphasis on this could help learners become aware of their importance, and use the words they already know more effectively. Sinclair (1988) has also argued that vocabulary teaching needs to place emphasis on, “making full use of the words that the learner already has, at any particular stage...there is far more general utility in the recombination of known elements than in the addition of less easily usable items.” (p.155)

The number of words learners come across in any course is high, but since they do not have the essential knowledge of how they can use them, the strings of language become no more than vague entities awaiting to be revisited. In particular, many of the so-called known words, which may be half-known words, go unnoticed in reading classes because of the false assumption that learners can effectively use them in their productive skills.

The question of which collocations to bring to learners' attention from the vast number of combinations, at this point, is another concern that teachers should approach with caution. Bahns (1993) suggests that teachers should be cautious about the types of collocation that have an exact translation equivalent in the L1 of the language learner, and the ones that do not have a direct equivalent. It would be plausible to place more emphasis on the collocations that do not have the direct translation equivalents. Idioms, for instance, which are more frozen-like collocations of the vocabulary continuum, should be handled with care. Many idioms do not have direct equivalents in another language, but those that do have should not be ignored and should be pointed out because learners will probably not think that they have a direct equivalent in their own language. Other collocate types (adj, adv, noun...) are certainly other major sources that can be utilized in language classes. In addition to collocations, other categories



such as ‘lexicalised sentence stems’ and ‘fixed expressions’ (see page 2) are the building blocks of real language use and should also be given attention.

The traditional view of recording vocabulary relies heavily on definitions, synonyms, antonyms, L1 translation of the word and contextualisation. While using all these useful techniques however, the most useful information often goes unnoticed. The reason for this is that teaching vocabulary has focused too much on single words rather than multi-word units. The recording of vocabulary that stemmed from this view has widely been confined to the meaning of a particular word using these techniques. Systematic attempts to notice collocations in texts and record them accurately will allow the learners to read more widely, understand more quickly, and speak or write more fluently (Hill, 2000). Revision of the items in the forthcoming lessons can be made using questioning techniques such as, “What verb is used before?...” or, “Can you give an adjective for?...or, How many adjectives can you give for?...”

Apart from the consciousness-raising activity used in this study, there are numerous activities and exercises that focus on collocations. Lewis (2000) asserts that, “Activities which encourage learners to notice certain features of the input probably contribute to the value of the input specifically from the language acquisition point of view.” (p.160-161) Thus, the most important awareness-raising activity is to train learners to find common key words in the text and to search for their collocates. One such activity is suggested by Woolard (2000). Learners are advised to use the following steps in their reading:

1. Isolate key words in text
2. Look for verb collocates
3. Look for adjective collocates
4. Look for adverb collocates

A comprehensive list of activities and exercises can be found in Lewis’s (1997) “Implementing the Lexical Approach” and (2000) “Teaching Collocations” among many of the others suggested by various teachers who have integrated a Lexical Approach into their classes.

### 5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

Grammatical features of language have invariably received the highest attention in most learning circumstances due to the assumption that vocabulary can take care of itself. It can not. If it did, we - teachers and students of a foreign language – would not be consulting dictionaries more than we did our grammar books. The lexicon of the English language is discouraging. Estimates of vocabulary size of an adult native speaker vary between 40,000 to 200.000 word families. Therefore, it is evident that the learner's task is more serious than is often believed, and it may be essential for the language teacher to make small amendments in personal methodology that might considerably affect the teaching and learning processes.

There has been a growing interest in research on vocabulary due to the acknowledgement of the need for a larger vocabulary for learners. Following the unquestionable sovereignty of grammar in the last 30 years, researchers and teachers have come to realize the importance and the necessity of a larger lexicon, which requires more research to be conducted on how to learn and to teach vocabulary. This study aimed to extend the collocational knowledge of familiar words with the help of using collocations through chunking. For researchers who may be interested in pursuing the same topic, some suggestions are provided below:

1. The present study was conducted using a small sample of subjects (36 total). The same study could be carried out with a larger sample.
2. This study involved only one level of learners (Upper-Intermediate). A similar study could be conducted on a cross-sectional basis, involving learners from different proficiency levels.
3. The number of the items could be increased and a different design, integrating skills such as writing and listening, could be formed.
4. A study involving a translation of collocations between the learners' language and the target language would be an interesting one. Similar studies in other languages are numerous and literature about this abound.

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

1. She was \_\_\_\_\_ from driving after failing a breath test.
2. I put up my hand to \_\_\_\_\_ my eyes from the sun.
3. We have to \_\_\_\_\_ a vocabulary test every Friday.
4. He \_\_\_\_\_ the brakes to avoid hitting the dog.
5. The taxi \_\_\_\_\_ to a halt at the pedestrian crossing.
6. We \_\_\_\_\_ a trip to a nearby island on a fishing boat.
7. I had to \_\_\_\_\_ a lift to the nearest garage as my car had broken down.
8. The final exam is \_\_\_\_\_ by a board of professors.
9. How many students have \_\_\_\_\_ the course?
10. The stolen car hit an oncoming vehicle and \_\_\_\_\_ flames.
11. The scientists failed to \_\_\_\_\_ any firm conclusions from the study.
12. A car suddenly \_\_\_\_\_ out in front of me.
13. She has always wanted to \_\_\_\_\_ her living as a musician.
14. She is a lazybones, so it's no surprise that she \_\_\_\_\_ the exam.
15. The supervisor refused to \_\_\_\_\_ the blame for the accident.
16. A sixteen-year-old girl was \_\_\_\_\_ guilty of theft.
17. Some drivers began to \_\_\_\_\_ their horns in frustration.
18. The car \_\_\_\_\_ petrol in the middle of the motorway.
19. Someone \_\_\_\_\_ the suggestion that we should have an auction.
20. The volcano began \_\_\_\_\_ late last night.
21. She's busy \_\_\_\_\_ for her exam.
22. A meeting has been \_\_\_\_\_ for next week.
23. The demonstration \_\_\_\_\_ traffic to a standstill.
24. She was always \_\_\_\_\_ lessons because of oversleeping.
25. I \_\_\_\_\_ the essay to the teacher late.

## APPENDIX B

Circle the letter of the correct verb that can be used in the given blank for each sentence.

- 1) She was \_\_\_\_\_ from driving after failing a breath test.  
a) disallowed    b) disqualified    c) forbidden    d) disappointed
- 2) I put up my hand to \_\_\_\_\_ my eyes from the sun.  
a) shade    b) blink    c) shine    d) glow
- 3) We have to \_\_\_\_\_ a vocabulary test every Friday.  
a) make    b) write    c) do    d) try
- 4) A sixteen-year-old girl was \_\_\_\_\_ guilty of theft.  
a) taken    b) judged    c) decided    d) found
- 5) He \_\_\_\_\_ the brakes to avoid hitting the dog.  
a) took    b) pulled    c) slammed on    d) jumped on
- 6) The final exam is \_\_\_\_\_ by a board of professors.  
a) set    b) written    c) made up    d) assembled
- 7) The car \_\_\_\_\_ petrol in the middle of the motorway.  
a) finished    b) ran out of    c) used up    d) ended
- 8) Someone \_\_\_\_\_ the suggestion that we should have an auction.  
a) formed    b) said    c) put forward    d) claimed
- 9) How many students have \_\_\_\_\_ the course?  
a) enrolled on    b) assigned    c) undertaken    d) joined on
- 10) The demonstration \_\_\_\_\_ traffic to a standstill.  
a) reduced    b) slowed    c) finished    d) brought
- 11) We \_\_\_\_\_ a trip to a nearby island on a fishing boat.  
a) did    b) took    c) went    d) sailed
- 12) I \_\_\_\_\_ the essay to the teacher late.  
a) delivered    b) distributed    c) handed in    d) wrote

- 13) I had to \_\_\_\_\_ a lift to the nearest garage as my car had broken down.  
a) hitch-hike b) hike c) thumb d) sit
- 14) The scientists failed to \_\_\_\_\_ any firm conclusions from the study.  
a) decide b) point c) cover d) arrive at
- 15) The stolen car hit an oncoming vehicle and \_\_\_\_\_ flames.  
a) caught b) burst into c) blew up in d) fired into
- 16) She's busy \_\_\_\_\_ for her exam.  
a) reviewing b) revising c) recycling d) thinking
- 17) She has always wanted to \_\_\_\_\_ her living as a musician.  
a) set b) do c) take d) make
- 18) A car suddenly \_\_\_\_\_ out in front of me.  
a) started b) pulled c) filled d) driven
- 19) She is a lazybones, so it's no surprise that she \_\_\_\_\_ the exam.  
a) crashed b) flunked c) skipped d) missed
- 20) The volcano began \_\_\_\_\_ late last night.  
a) exploding b) bombing c) crashing d) erupting
- 21) Some drivers began to \_\_\_\_\_ their horns in frustration.  
a) hit b) sound c) push d) noise
- 22) She was always \_\_\_\_\_ lessons because of oversleeping.  
a) skipping b) losing c) missing out d) doing
- 23) A meeting has been \_\_\_\_\_ for next week.  
a) scheduled b) timed c) given d) thought
- 24) The taxi \_\_\_\_\_ to a halt at the pedestrian crossing.  
a) screamed b) brought c) screeched d) stood
- 25) The supervisor refused to \_\_\_\_\_ the blame for the accident.  
a) shoulder b) receive c) hold d) carry

## APPENDIX C1

### A DRAMATIC CHASE

The road was thronged with Friday commuter traffic as the police patrol car sped out of town. Adrenalin levels were high as the police officer occupants focused on the red BMW saloon some way ahead in the distance. Somehow, the police vehicle narrowly avoided hitting two students who were thumbing a lift on their way home for the weekend. The experienced police driver sounded his horn frantically as he tried to pick a way through the line of vehicles amassed before him. The garish blue light and the noisy two-tone police horn only succeeded in bringing traffic to a standstill, further impeding progress. Despite the problems though, the police officers were gaining ground on their quarry. If they could just stop the foreign car and arrest its driver, he would certainly be disqualified from driving for a long period. As long as they kept the BMW within sight, it would eventually run out of petrol. Gradually, the distance between the pursued and the pursuers shortened. All of a sudden, there was a violent squeal of tyres as the BMW screeched to a halt. Its driver had slammed on the brakes. The two police officers watched in amazement as the red car then pulled out as its driver attempted to make a U-turn manoeuvre and head back into town. There was no way the driver could have seen the heavy goods vehicle coming in the opposite direction. The giant lorry slammed into the German saloon, sending it into a crazy spin and killing the driver outright. The red vehicle burst into flames. The despairing policemen could only envisage the extra paperwork that this unbelievably reckless piece of driving would generate.

A- Choose the best answer to the questions below

- 1) Why didn't the police drive fast enough to stop the BMW?
  - a) He wasn't experienced in driving
  - b) The road was slippery
  - c) They ran out of petrol
  - d) There was heavy traffic

2) How did they succeed in shortening the distance between them and the red BMW?

- a) By police light and horn
- b) By changing their car with a faster one
- c) By taking some petrol
- d) By getting help from other police cars

3) Why did the driver in the red BMW die?

- a) Because of a car that hit it from the rear
- b) Because of a vehicle coming from the opposite direction
- c) Because of the police officer's shot
- d) Because it flew off the bridge

B- Answer the following questions according to the text

- 1) Why was the road crowded?
- 2) What charge would he have been accused of had he been caught?
- 3) How did the driver try to escape from the police?



## APPENDIX C2

### THE BIG DAY

On the way to school that day, I tried to clear my mind of all irrelevant thoughts. There was a test to do, and I had studied hard for this exam. My father had promised to buy an expensive world atlas for me if I achieved top marks, so I really didn't want to flunk the exam. The school reception was crowded and noisy when I arrived, and I was surprised to see some students there who had skipped lessons. My advantage over them was that I had attended every lesson and revised for the exam well. All but one of my assignment essays had been handed in; the awkward one about plate tectonics and the African Rift Valley was still lying, half complete somewhere in my disorganized bedroom. Still, as long as we didn't have to write on that aspect of sub-Saharan geology today, all would be fine. Another advantage was that our class teacher had set this exam and, in all probability, would be responsible for marking it as well. So, by the time I sat down at my designated place in the exam room, with five minutes before start time, I was feeling pretty confident. If today's exam was a success, I could enroll on the metallurgy course at the local technical college in August. Then, all of a sudden, a dark and fearful dread descended over me. It wasn't exam nervousness; it was the awful realization that I had left my school bag, with all my necessary stationery, on the school bus.

A- Choose the best answer to the questions below

- 1) Why did he give so much importance to his exam?
  - a) His father forced him to study
  - b) He had nothing else to do
  - c) He would be given a present if he passed the exam
  - d) He wanted to be away from his weird thoughts
- 2) What surprised him when he arrived at the school?
  - a) The exam was cancelled
  - b) The exam had already begun
  - c) There was no one in the school
  - d) He saw his school mates he had not seen for a long time

3) What could make him fail the exam?

- a) If his teacher evaluates his paper
- b) If the exam was about sub-Saharan geology
- c) If the teacher asked about a subject taught when he was absent

B- Answer the following questions according to the text

- 1) What could be his 'irrelevant thoughts' that he wants to avoid thinking?
- 2) What advantages did he have compared to his classmates about the exam?
- 3) How was his exam? What do you think?

## APPENDIX D1

### A DRAMATIC CHASE

The road was thronged with Friday commuter traffic as the police patrol car sped out of town. Adrenalin levels were high as the police officer occupants focused on the red BMW saloon some way ahead in the distance. Somehow, the police vehicle narrowly avoided hitting two students who were **thumbing a lift** on their way home for the weekend. The experienced police driver **sounded his horn** frantically as he tried to pick a way through the line of vehicles amassed before him. The garish blue light and the noisy two-tone police horn only succeeded in bringing traffic to a standstill, further impeding progress. Despite the problems though, the police officers were gaining ground on their quarry. If they could just stop the foreign car and arrest its driver, he would certainly **be disqualified from driving** for a long period. As long as they kept the BMW within sight, it would eventually **run out of petrol**. Gradually, the distance between the pursued and the pursuers shortened. All of a sudden, there was a violent squeal of tyres as the BMW screeched to a halt. Its driver had **slammed on the brakes**. The two police officers watched in amazement as the red car then **pulled out** as its driver attempted to make a U-turn manoeuvre and head back into town. There was no way the driver could have seen the heavy goods vehicle coming in the opposite direction. The giant lorry slammed into the German saloon, sending it into a crazy spin and killing the driver outright. The red **vehicle burst into flames**. The despairing policemen could only envisage the extra paperwork that this unbelievably reckless piece of driving would generate.

## APPENDIX D2

### THE BIG DAY

On the way to school that day, I tried to clear my mind of all irrelevant thoughts. There was a **test to do**, and I had studied hard for this exam. My father had promised to buy an expensive world atlas for me if I achieved top marks, so I really didn't want to **flunk the exam**. The school reception was crowded and noisy when I arrived, and I was surprised to see some students there who had **skipped lessons**. My advantage over them was that I had attended every lesson and revised for the exam well. All but one of my assignment **essays had been handed in**; the awkward one about plate tectonics and the African Rift Valley was still lying, half complete somewhere in my disorganized bedroom. Still, as long as we didn't have to write on that aspect of sub-Saharan geology today, all would be fine. Another advantage was that our class teacher had **set this exam** and, in all probability, would be responsible for marking it as well. So, by the time I sat down at my designated place in the exam room, with five minutes before start time, I was feeling pretty confident. If today's exam was a success, I could **enroll on** the metallurgy **course** at the local technical college in August. Then, all of a sudden, a dark and fearful dread descended over me. It wasn't exam nervousness; it was the awful realization that I had left my school bag, with all my necessary stationery, on the school bus.

APPENDIX E1

Experimental Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test

	St. 1		St. 2		St. 3		St. 4	
Items	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	/	B/B	inputed / banned	I/A	/disqualified-banned	B/C	/disappointed	B/I
3	do-study / do	C/C	take / hand in	A/I	solve / enter	I/I	do / do	C/C
4	protect /	I/B	held / slammed	I/C	/slammed	B/C	/press	B/I
7	take / take	I/I	make / pass	I/I	take / take	I/I	give / give	I/I
8	controlled / given	I/I	canceled / set	I/C	prepared / set	I/C	made / prepared	I/I
9	/give	B/I	been / skip	I/I	entered-been at / enrolled	I/C	attended / attended	I/I
10	/ burst into	B/C	going on / burn into	I/I	/burst into	B/C	/	B/B
12	cross-crash/ push	A/I	get-go/	I/B	rush / run	I/I	crash / crash out	A/A
14	fail / fail	A/A	failed / failed	A/A	fail-couldn't pass / fail	A/A	fails / flunks	A/C
17	/sound	B/C	push / push	I/I	/sound	B/C	/press	B/I
18	use / run out of	A/C	run out of / run out of	C/C	spill / run out of	I/C	run out of / ran out of	C/C
24	lazy[her]/	I/B	missing / skipping	I/C	missing / skipping	I/C	late / skipped	I/C
25	/wrote	B/I	pass-bring / hand in	I/C	gave / hand in	I/C	send / handed in	I/C

Experimental Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test

	St. 5		St. 6		St. 7		St. 8	
Items	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	ignored/ignored	I/I	/	B/B	/disqualified	B/C	vazgeçmek/banned	B/A
3	attend/attend	I/I	take/	A/B	do/do	C/C	çözmek/make	B/I
4	checked/press	I/I	slamed on/slammed on	C/C	/slammed on	B/C	bastı / wıt t rough	B/I
7	take/have	I/I	/	B/B	find/thumbed	I/C	give/bring	A/I
8	prepared/prepared	I/I	/	B/B	prepared/set	I/C	prepared/checked	I/I
9	taken/taken	A/A	taken/taken	A/A	failed/enrolled on	A/C	taken/taken	A/A
10	broke/	A/A	/burst into	B/C	/burst into	B/C	/	B/B
12	brake/stopped	I/A	/pushed	B/I	run/	I/B	broke/broke-fell	I/I
14	do bad in/flunks	A/C	can't pass/dropped out	A/I	fails/drops	A/I	failed/	A/B
17	/press"	B/I	go off/sound	I/C	/	B/B	press/press	I/I
18	run out of/run out of	C/C	run out of/ran out of	C/C	run out of/run out of	C/C	aldı /r anout of	B/C
24	sleeping in/skip	I/C	/skipping	B/C	missing/missing	I/I	skipping/skipping	C/C

**Experimental Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test**

	<b>St. 9</b>		<b>St. 10</b>		<b>St. 11</b>		<b>St. 12</b>	
<b>Items</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>
1	abandoned/banned	I/A	/banned-disqualified	B/C	running away/	I/B	guilty/disqualified	I/C
3	do/attend	C/I	make/set	I/A	have/make	I/I	take/take	A/A
4	pressed/pressed	I/I	put his foot on/slammed-pushed	A/C	/crashed into	B/I	push/slammed	I/C
7	have/give	I/A	be given/thomb	A/C	have/have	I/I	ask for/thumb	A/C
8	canceled/cancelled	I/I	cancelled/set	I/C	prepared/prepared	I/I	prepared/preappeared	I/I
9	to do/attended	A/I	taken/	A/B	got/had	I/I	passed/taken	A/A
10	gave out/burst into	I/C	/burn into	B/I	/fired out	B/I	surrounded by/burst into	I/C
12	stopped/stepped	A/I	passed/put	A/I	/	B/B	come/put	I/I
14	failed/failed	A/A	failed/frunked	A/C	failed/failed	A/A	succes/frunk	I/C
17	play/sound	I/C	/sounded	B/C	/	B/B	push/push	I/I
18	was stopped to/took	I/A	/ran out of	B/C	consumed/ran out of	I/C	found out/ran out	I/C
24	missed/dropped	I/I	missing/skipping	I/C	missing/missing out	I/I	late/skip	I/C
25	delivered/deliver	I/I	wrote/handed in	I/C	/sent	B/I	gave/handed in	I/C

**Experimental Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test**

	<b>St. 13</b>		<b>St. 14</b>		<b>St. 15</b>		<b>St. 16</b>	
<b>Items</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>
1	failing/taken	I/I	not accepted/	I/B	/disqualified	B/C	/	B/B
3	make-take/make	A/I	do/be done	C/I	make/take	I/A	take/take	A/A
4	had/hit	I/A	pushed/slammed	I/C	used/slammed	I/C	/	B/B
7	used/use	I/I	be given/be given	A/A	take/take	I/I	/	B/B
8	taken/set	A/C	prepared/done	I/A	prepared/set	I/C	given/made	I/I
9	attended/taken	I/A	joined-applied/accepted	A/I	passed/passed	A/A	attended/attended	I/I
10	/burst into	B/C	set/burst into	I/C	covered-had/burst into	I/C	/	B/B
12	/pull	B/C	set/burst into	I/I	stopped/step out	A/I	/	B/B
14	pass/failed	I/A	failed/is late for	A/I	failes/failed	A/A	failed/failed	A/A
17	ring/ring	I/I	play/press	I/I	use-hold/sound	I/C	/	B/B
18	burns/burns	I/I	stopped into/run out of	I/C	is out of/	I/B	/	B/B
24	missing/	I/B	spending/late for	I/I	missing/missing out	I/I	missed/skipping	I/C
25	delivered/delivered	I/I	gave/was hand in	I/C	gave/took	I/I	gave/handed in	I/C

**Experimental Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test**

	<b>St. 17</b>		<b>St. 18</b>	
<b>Items</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>	<i>Pre / Post</i>	<b>Category</b>
1	accepted/disqualified	I/C	bored/dissappointed	I/I
3	have/make	I/I	do/do	C/C
4	/slammed on	B/C	push/	I/B
7	rent/	I/B	carry/pick up	I/I
8	prepared/prepared	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I
9	taken/dropped	A/I	attended/attended	I/I
10	/burst	B/C	/burst	B/C
12	stand/stand	I/I	stopped/stopped	A/A
14	fails/failed	A/A	didn't pass/failed	A/A
17	use/sound	I/C	basamak/push	I/I
18	emptied/ran out of	I/C	was needed/ran out of	I/C
24	/skipping	B/C	skip/skipped	C/C
25	gave/handed in	I/C	gave/handed	I/C

<b>A/A</b>	Alternative/Alternative	<b>B/A</b>	Blank/Alternative	<b>C/A</b>	Correct/Alternative	<b>I/A</b>	Incorrect/Alternative
<b>A/B</b>	Alternative/Blank	<b>B/B</b>	Blank/Blank	<b>C/B</b>	Correct/Blank	<b>I/B</b>	Incorrect/Blank
<b>A/C</b>	Alternative/Correct	<b>B/C</b>	Blank/Correct	<b>C/C</b>	Correct/Correct	<b>I/C</b>	Incorrect/Correct
<b>A/I</b>	Alternative/Incorrect	<b>B/I</b>	Blank/Incorrect	<b>C/I</b>	Correct/Incorrect	<b>I/I</b>	Incorrect/Incorrect

Control Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test

	St. 1		St. 2		St. 3		St. 4	
Items	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	passed/	I/B	tired/avoided	I/I	/tired	B/I	/avoided	B/I
3	make/do	I/C	do/do	C/C	do/take	C/A	take/do	A/C
4	pushed/fluttered	I/I	got/put	I/I	put/slammed on	I/C	/slammed on	B/C
7	take/make	I/I	load/give	I/I	give/pick up	I/I	/	B/B
8	observed/prepered	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I
9	attended/assigned	I/I	gone/had	I/I	studied/started	I/I	take/taken	A/A
10	causes/produced	I/I	crashed/handed in	I/I	break/burned	I/I	/fire	B/I
12	got/came	I/I	came/run	I/I	stopped/stopped	A/A	broke/crash	I/A
14	failed/failed	A/A	failed/failed	A/A	failed/failed	A/A	fail/fail	A/A
17	press/fluttered	I/I	/use	B/I	play/hit	I/I	push/go off	I/I
18	/run out of	B/C	took/finished	A/I	run out of/run out of	C/C	took/	A/B
24	missing/dropping	I/I	late/missed	I/I	been late to/missing	I/I	missing/miss	I/I
25	gave/handed out	I/I	gave/gave in	I/A	gave/gave	I/I	wrote/write	I/I

	St. 5		St. 6		St. 7		St. 8	
	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	shat/	I/B	banned/forbidden	A/I	/	B/B	/	B/B
3	have/take	I/A	take/give	A/A	take/take	A/A	do/do	C/C
4	pushed/pushed	I/I	slammed/slammed	C/C	repaired/used	I/I	put on/slammed on	A/C
7	take/get	I/I	take/have	I/I	gave/make	I/I	get/get	I/I
8	organised/established	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I	being generated/being generated	I/I	done/made up	A/I
9	attended/come	I/I	taken/taken	A/A	/attended	B/I	passed/passed	A/A
10	broke/crashed	I/I	got/brust into	I/C	crashed to/crashed	I/I	/burning	B/I
12	ran/ran	I/I	/stopped	B/A	got/drived	I/I	went/	I/B
14	fail/failed	A/A	won't pass-fail/will fail	A/A	failed/failed	A/A	failed/missed	A/I
17	push/push	I/I	push/push	I/I	use/sound	I/C	push/push	I/I
18	ran out of/ran out of	C/C	went out of/ran out of	I/C	/run out of	B/C	got/run out of	I/C
24	/	B/B	/skipping	B(C	/miss	B/I	missing/missing	I/I



Control Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test

	St. 9		St. 10		St. 11		St. 12	
Items	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	/forbidden	B/I	passed/disqualified	I/C	tired/	I/B	/	B/B
3	take/do	A/C	do/do	C/C	take/make	A/I	take/take	A/A
4	slammed on/slammed on	C/C	was able to manage/slammed on	I/C	/	B/B	/slamm on	B/C
7	be given/be given	A/A	take/pick up	I/I	hire/get	I/I	give/be given	I/A
8	prepared/prepared	I/I	observed/set	I/C	prepared/prepared	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I
9	taken/had	A/I	to do/done	A/A	take/attend	A/I	attended-taken/taken	A/A
10	caught/caught	I/I	extinguish/burst into	A/C	jumped/	I/B	became/	I/B
12	/broke	B/I	broke/drove-broke	I/I	broke/	I/B	/	B/B
14	failed/failed	A/A	failed/failed	A/A	fails/fails	A/A	fails/fails	A/A
17	beep/hit	A/I	use/use	I/I	use/push	I/I	/push	B/I
18	ran out of/ran out of	C/C	consumed/consumed up	I/I	bought/got out of	I/I	was out of/	I/B
24	missing/missing	I/I	missing/missing	I/I	late/late	I/I	/	B/B
25	gave/handed in	I/C	will give in/will deliver	A/I	gave/hand in	I/C	gave/gave	I/I

Control Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test

	St. 13		St. 14		St. 15		St. 16	
Items	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	passed/ignored	I/I	gotten away/	I/B	sent/dissappointed	I/I	keeping/disqualified	I/C
3	have/do	I/C	take/do	A/C	do/do	C/C	make/do	I/C
4	/	B/B	slamed/slamed	C/C	pressed/slammed on	I/C	/fluttered	B/I
7	take/thumb	I/C	give/thumb	I/C	give/pull	I/I	call/thumb	I/C
8	prepared/checked	I/I	announced/announced	I/I	cancelled/controlled	I/I	prepared/prepared	I/I
9	/taken	B/A	taken/take	A/A	taken/accepted-enrolled	A/C	got/enroll	I/C
10	/	B/B	/burned into	B/I	/make	B/I	/burn out	B/I
12	stopped/	A/B	worked/sped	I/I	drive/drive	I/I	got/	I/B
14	failed/failed	A/A	failed/failed	A/A	failed/failed	A/A	fails/fails	A/A
17	/	B/B	beep/	A/B	/push	B/I	push/push	I/I
18	/	B/B	ran out of/run out of	C/C	was filled/ran out of	A/C	/	B/B

Control Group-Distribution of Responses for the Productive Test

	St. 17		St. 18	
Items	Pre / Post	Category	Pre / Post	Category
1	sent/left	I/I	/	B/B
3	practice/solve	I/I	do/do	C/C
4	broke/push out	I/I	/	B/B
7	take/take	I/I	give/give	I/I
8	done/done	A/A	done/made	A/I
9	left/been accepted	I/I	taken/taken	A/A
10	caused/occured	I/I	/	B/B
12	got/got	I/I	crashed/	A/B
14	failed/fails	A/A	fail/	A/B
17	play/play	I/I	/	B/B
18	was filled with/was out of	A/I	/	B/B
24	misses/misses	I/I	missing/missing	I/I
25	gave/gave	I/I	gave/	I/B

<b>A/A</b>	Alternative/Alternative	<b>B/A</b>	Blank/Alternative	<b>C/A</b>	Correct/Alternative	<b>I/A</b>	Incorrect/Alternative
<b>A/B</b>	Alternative/Blank	<b>B/B</b>	Blank/Blank	<b>C/B</b>	Correct/Blank	<b>I/B</b>	Incorrect/Blank
<b>A/C</b>	Alternative/Correct	<b>B/C</b>	Blank/Correct	<b>C/C</b>	Correct/Correct	<b>I/C</b>	Incorrect/Correct
<b>A/I</b>	Alternative/Incorrect	<b>B/I</b>	Blank/Incorrect	<b>C/I</b>	Correct/Incorrect	<b>I/I</b>	Incorrect/Incorrect

## APPENDIX F

Experimental Group Multiple Choice Vocabulary Pre/Posttests Correlated t-test results

	A	B	Total
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	104	192	296
$\Sigma X^2$	688	2152	2840
SS	87,1111	104	406,2222
mean	5,7778	10,6667	8,2222
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>–Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	-4,8889	-8,83	17
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>

Control Group Multiple Choice Vocabulary Pre/Posttests Correlated t-test results

	A	B	Total
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	92	145	237
$\Sigma X^2$	540	1285	1825
SS	69,7778	116,9444	264,75
mean	5,1111	8,0556	6,5833
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>–Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	-2,9444	-5,59	17
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>

Experimental/Control Groups Multiple Choice Vocabulary Pretest Independent t-test results

	A	B	Total
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	104	92	196
$\Sigma X^2$	688	540	1228
SS	87,1111	69,7778	160,8889
mean	5,7778	5,1111	5,4444
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>–Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	0,6667	0,93	34
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>0,179464</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>0,358928</b>

Experimental/Control Groups Multiple Choice Vocabulary Posttest Independent t-test results

	A	B	Total
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	192	145	337
$\Sigma X^2$	2152	1285	3437
SS	104	116,9444	282,3056
mean	10,6667	8,0556	9,3611
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>–Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	2,6111	3,07	34
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>0,0020945</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>0,004189</b>

## Experimental Group Productive Vocabulary Pre/Posttests Correlated t-test results

	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Total</b>
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	14	90	104
$\Sigma X^2$	22	566	588
SS	11,1111	116	287,5556
mean	0,7778	5	2,8889
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>-Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	-4,2222	-6,66	17
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>

## Control Group Productive Vocabulary Pre/Posttests Correlated t-test results

	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Total</b>
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	13	52	65
$\Sigma X^2$	19	228	247
SS	9,6111	77,7778	129,6389
mean	0,7222	2,8889	1,8056
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>-Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	-2,1667	-4,72	17
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>&lt;,0001</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>0,000198</b>

## Experimental/Control Groups Productive Vocabulary Pretest Independent t-test results

	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Total</b>
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	24	13	27
$\Sigma X^2$	22	19	41
SS	11,1111	9,6111	20,75
mean	0,7778	0,7222	0,75
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>-Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	0,0556	0,21	34
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>0,4174605</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>0,834921</b>

## Experimental/Control Groups Productive Vocabulary Posttest Independent t-test results

	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Total</b>
n	18	18	36
$\Sigma X$	90	52	142
$\Sigma X^2$	566	228	794
SS	116	77,7778	233,8889
mean	5	2,8889	3,9444
	<b>Mean<sub>a</sub>-Mean<sub>b</sub></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>
	2,1111	2,65	34
	<b>P</b>	<b>1-tailed</b>	<b>0,0060635</b>
		<b>2-tailed</b>	<b>0,012127</b>

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