# EFFECTS OF INPUT FLOOD AND NEGATIVE EVIDENCE ON LEARNING OF MAKE/DO COLLOCATIONS: A STUDY WITH SEVENTH GRADE TURKISH EFL STUDENTS

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# YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

GİRDİ AKIŞI (INPUT FLOOD) VE OLUMSUZ KANIT (NEGATIVE EVIDENCE)'IN MAKE/DO EŞDİZİMLERİNİ ÖĞRENMEDEKİ ETKİSİ: İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİ ALAN 7. SINIF TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİYLE YAPILAN BİR ÇALIŞMA

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„Make' ve 'do' fiilleri, Türkçede aynı anlama sahip olmaları ve hangisinin kullanılacağına karar vermenin güç olması nedeniyle yabancı dil olarak İngilizce eğitimi alan çoğu Türk öğrenci tarafından karıştırılmaktadır. İngilizce dilini öğrenen başlangıç seviyesindeki öğrenciler, genellikle onları birbiri yerine kullanma eğilimindedirler. Bu çalışmanın amacı, veri akışı (input flood) ve olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence)'ın yabancı dil olarak İngilizce eğitimi alan 7. sınıf Türk öğrencilerinin make/do eşdizimlerini öğrenmelerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Üç ayrı sınıftan İngilizce eğitimi almakta olan toplam 91 7. sınıf Türk öğrencisi çalışmaya dâhil edildi. Bu üç sınıf, veri akışı(input flood), olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence) ve kontrol gruplarına rastgele ayrıldı.

Ön test, son test ve gecikmeli son testler kullanılarak veri toplandı. Tanıma ve üretme düzeyleri, araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan dört test ile ölçüldü. Öğrencilerin üretme seviyesindeki performansları Çeviri ve Cümle Tamamlama Testleri kullanılarak kontrol edilirken tanıma seviyesindeki performansları Gruplama ve Doğru/Yanlış testleri kullanılarak kontrol edildi. Uygulama sonucundaki ilerlemeyi tespit edebilmek için

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grup-içi veri analizi, uygulamaların etkinliğini kontrol grubuyla karşılaştırmak için gruplar arası veri analizi yapıldı. Grup-içi veri analizi sonucunda hem veri akışı(input flood)'nın hem de olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence)'ın öğrencilerin make/do eşdizimleri üzerine olan bilgilerini üretim ve tanıma seviyesinde arttırmalarına yardımcı olduğu bulundu. Gruplar arası karşılaştırmalar ise veri akışı (input flood)'nın kısa zaman diliminde kontrol grubuna karşı üretim seviyesinde önemli ölçüde üstün olduğunu, tanıma düzeyinde ise benzer etkiye sahip olduğunu gösterdi; fakat olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence)'ın hem üretim hem de tanıma seviyelerinde kontrol grubuna göre önemli ölçüde üstün olduğunu kanıtladı. Uygulamaların uzun süreli etkilerine bakıldığında üç hafta sonunda yapılan gecikmeli son testte her iki uygulamada da önemli kayıpların olduğu görüldü. Yine de veri akışı(input flood)'nın ve olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence)'ın etkilerinin halen sürdüğü ve her ikisinin de üretim ve tanıma seviyelerinde kontrol grubundan anlamlı farklılıklar gösterdiği görüldü. Bu bulgular ışığında, öğrencilerin make/do eşdizimlerini tanıma ve üretim seviyelerini arttırmak için veri akışı(input flood) ve olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence)'tan yararlanılabileceği kanısına varılmıştır. Ancak veri akışı (input flood) ve olumsuz kanıt (negative evidence)'tan uzun süreli fayda sağlayabilmek için bu tekniklerin sınıf içi/dışı ek uygulamalarla desteklenmesinin, ya da her iki uygulamanın birlikte kullanılmasının uygun olacağı düşünülmektedir.

**ABSTRACT**

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The verbs „make' and „do' are often confused by most of the Turkish EFL learners since they have the same meaning in Turkish and it is difficult to decide which one to use. The EFL students at the beginning of their learning of English generally tend to use „make' and „do' instead of one another. The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of input flood and negative evidence on 7th grade Turkish EFL students' learning of make/do collocations. Totally ninety-one $7^{th}$ grade Turkish EFL students from three classes were included in the study. These classes were randomly assigned to input flood, negative evidence, and control groups.

Data were collected through pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest. Recognition level and production levels were measured by four tests designed by the researcher. While students' performances at the production level were checked by Translation Test and Cloze Test, students' performances at the recognition level were checked by Grouping Test and Correct/Incorrect Test. Data were analyzed within group to examine the improvement due to the treatments and between groups to compare the effects of treatments with the control group. As a result of within-group analysis, it was found that both input flood and negative evidence helped students expand their

knowledge of make/do collocations at the production and recognition level. The results of between-group comparisons showed that input flood was significantly superior to the control group at the production level in the short term, but it had similar effects with the control group at the recognition level. However, negative evidence was significantly superior to the control group both at the production and recognition levels. When we looked at the long-term effect of the treatments, it was found that both treatments had significant decreases in the delayed posttest applied at the end of three weeks. Yet, it was found that the effects of input flood and negative evidence still remained and both had significant differences with the control group at the production and recognition levels. In the light of these findings, it is concluded that input flood and negative evidence can be preferred in order to improve students' knowledge of make/do collocations at the production and recognition levels. However, it is thought that input flood and negative evidence need to be supported with additional implementations which take place in/outside the classroom or they need to be used together in order to get more long-lasting benefit from the techniques.

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# CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Background of the Study

Many approaches come out in the history of language learning and teaching and they handle language learning and teaching from different perspectives. Language features such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation deserve different degree of importance in the approaches over history. Thus, the place of vocabulary and vocabulary instruction showed differences according to the prominent approach or method of that time. However, the role of vocabulary has been downplayed in the EFL education till the 1990s but in 1990s people put the lexis into the centre of language learning and vocabulary has no longer been downplayed in the EFL education. Although vocabulary has an important role in the Natural Approach and Communicative Approach since it is basic to communication, the developments in computer technology and recent developments in corpus linguistics demonstrate the significant role of lexical phrases much more, so vocabulary becomes a central research subject in the area of language teaching and learning. The lexical approach which was introduced by Lewis in 1993 is based on the principle "Language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar" and collocations are integrated as an organising principle within syllabuses.

The Present-Practise-Produce paradigm followed for teaching grammatical and lexical items is rejected in the Lexical Approach, in favour of a paradigm based on the Observe-Hypothesise-Experiment cycle. Meeting and noticing new language; sorting the input on the basis of apparently significant similarities and differences; and using the language on the basis of the learners' current intergrammar (that is, his or her current best hypothesis), stimulating new input at the appropriate level to provide

examples which confirm or contradict some part of the learners' current hypothesis are the expected steps of the Observe-Hypothesise-Experiment paradigm. The instruments such as concordancing, using collocation dictionaries, keeping vocabulary notebooks, matching exercises, identifying chunks, completing (gap-filling), categorizing, sequencing and deleting (odd-one-out), chunk completion and cloze-texts, collocation maps, collocation grids are used for teaching collocations. It is believed that lexical competence comes from plentiful exposure plus consciousness-raising tasks (Thornbury, 2002). Lewis (2000:160) also states "if students do not notice –see or hear- the differences between the language they use to express something and the correct natural version of expressing the same content, then that input cannot contribute to intake". Rich input through reading or listening is supported by Lewis but meeting the same new language on several occasions is a necessary but not sufficient condition to ensure that input becomes intake.

Collocations which are at the centre of Lexical Approach are defined as the combination of words that co-occur naturally with greater frequency than random frequency (Lewis, 2000). In the recent years, there are many studies which focus on collocations as a result of the effect of increased interest in vocabulary teaching and the Lexical Approach. Deciding on which collocations should be taught, how they should be taught and dealing with mis-collocations need special attention in English Language Teaching. Three major questions which still need to be answered with regard to collocations are presented by Bahns (1993:58):

> 1- Do collocations need special attention in the EFL classroom? Do we have to teach collocations or are they learned *en passant*, more or less automatically, together with single lexical items.
> 2- Should we decide that special attention is necessary; the next problem is that of choice. Which of the tens of thousands of collocations do we select for special treatment in the classroom? Are there any criteria to decide which collocations need to be taught and which do not?
> 3- When we have decided on what to teach, the next question touches on methodological problems. How should we handle collocations in the classroom? What kinds of exercises are most effective?

Regarding the first question, Mackin (1978) and Bahns (1993) put forward different opinions. According to Mackin (1978; cited in Bahns, 1993), advanced learners should have a command of tens of thousands of collocations and „years of study, reading, and

observation of the language' is necessary to acquire some degree of collocational competence. On the contrary, Bahns (1993) states that Mackin's estimation about the number of collocations an advanced foreign language learner should have is probably not exaggerated but he claims that all of these collocations don't have to be learned. As it is stated by Bahns and Mackin, there are numerous numbers of collocations so the second question of Bahns is one of the important questions need to be answered. In other words, we need to decide which collocations should be taught since it is impossible to use the limited class time for teaching all of them. When we look at the articles and books written about collocations, teaching problematic collocations and high-frequency collocations are the ones generally recommended by scholars (i.e. Nation, 2001; Bahns, 1993). A language learner may have many problems and it is possible to see different kinds of errors such as grammatical, syntactical, morphological and pragmatic errors but collocational errors are among the ones noticed by most teachers of English as a foreign language. Besides, Grucza and Jaruzelska (1978), Marton (1978) and Arabski (1979) claim that they constitute a high percentage of all errors committed by L2 learners (cited in Biskup, 1992). Likewise, Conzett (2000:75) states that "collocation has often been a source of student error".

If the learners have some deficiencies in collocational knowledge of a word, this can cause problems in the use of that word and that word can be used in wrong combinations. Using the words in right combinations is one of the criteria of "knowing a word" so this kind of a problem cannot be overlooked. Hill (2000) claims that collocational errors may occur due to the fact that students learn the equivalents of the words in their mother tongue and they store all the words as separate items. As they haven't stored the lexical items in their mental lexicons as single item such as „make a mistake', the learners with even „good vocabularies' still have problems in combining the words correctly (Hill, 2000).

Learners' problems of English collocations are investigated by scholars such as Biskup (1992), Liu (2002), Huang (2001), Nesselhauf (2003), Altenberg and Granger (2001), Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003). L1 transfer is found as the main source of these problems and mis-collocations. Despite this fact, it is not easy to find empirical studies

which investigate the ways to deal with these kinds of mis-collocations. Thornbury (2002) talks about the error types such as compounding errors, collocation errors, and phrasal verb errors and suggests that there are two possible approaches to deal with these kinds of errors: teaching rules or exposing learners to lots of correct examples. Beltran (2004) designs a study for dealing with problematic words for Spanish speakers and compares the effectiveness of explicit treatment and implicit treatment with input flood on learning of noticeably difficult and misleading vocabulary for Spanish speakers. Nakata (2007) includes 28 Japanese first year university students into his study and compares the effects of meaning-focused activities and form-focused activities on English collocation learning. In a similar manner, the present study also investigates the effects of explicit treatment and implicit treatment. The main aim of this study is to find the effects of negative evidence (explicit treatment) and input flood (implicit treatment) on teaching make-do collocations which students have a lot of problems.

## 1.2. Statement of the Problem

It is often observed by teachers in Turkey that students cannot use the right combinations of the words in the exams or classroom activities. Some students tend to use sentences such as „*I ride a car', „*She drinks cigarette' or „*They ate breakfast'. Hill (2000:51) claims that "Because of their L1, some learners may find eat lunch or take lunch a more obvious choice than have lunch". By giving this example, Hill (2000) emphasizes the effect of L1 in students' word choice. In addition, if one word in Turkish has many equivalents in English, students may not use them in right combinations such as *tell-say* in Turkish „*söylemek*', *make-do* in Turkish „*yapmak*'. Students in the primary school sometimes cannot decide which one to use and collocate them in a wrong way such as *do a mistake* instead of *make a mistake*, *make exercise* instead of *do exercise*. In other words, make/do collocations cause problems for Turkish EFL students due to the differences between their first language, Turkish, and the target language, English. Despite the awareness of these problems, the books used in state

primary schools in Turkey don't involve any activities on these collocations and collocation-learning is not emphasized in the curriculum of the primary school students.

The new developments in corpus linguistics and Lexical Approach indicate the significant role of collocations in foreign language teaching and there are considerable numbers of research on this significant role. However, it is hard to find studies which only focus on mis-collocations and the ways to handle these collocations in the classroom. Although students begin to encounter these verbs „make/do' from the fifth grade in their books, especially in the instructions or in some reading texts, the curriculum and the books used in the state primary schools in Turkey don't involve specific suggestions or activities for teaching such kinds of problematic collocations. Therefore, this study focuses on make/do collocations which students generally have problems and examines the effects of two different techniques, namely input flood and negative evidence, for teaching these collocations to seventh grade students in a state school in Turkey.

## 1.3. Aim and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find the effectiveness of input flood and negative evidence while dealing with make/do collocations. Despite the widely accepted importance of collocations and the common problem of the students' lack of collocational competence, there are a few studies which focus on the question how to increase students' collocational knowledge and how to overcome these collocational errors of students.

The studies about collocations in Turkey generally compare the single vocabulary teaching and teaching words in collocations. However, there are a few studies which investigate the different collocation instructions and which focus on mis-collocations. Thus, this study may shed light on the area of SLA and vocabulary teaching in terms of handling mis-collocations such as make/do. Based on the results of the study, suggestions will be provided in order to overcome the collocational difficulties which

primary school students encounter probably as a result of L1 transfer. Since this is an empirical study, it is expected that these suggestions may have enhancing contributions to classroom applications and to the curriculum in Turkey. In addition, feedback will be obtained concerning the effectiveness of two different techniques suggested for teaching collocations and for handling collocational errors. The input flood indirectly represents implicit teaching and the use of negative evidence indirectly represents explicit teaching, so the conflicting views, implicit and explicit teaching, which have been discussed for vocabulary learning and grammar learning will have been searched in terms of their effects on learning make/do collocations. Finally, the data gathered in this study reflect students' knowledge of make/do collocations at the recognition and production levels unlike the vocabulary studies which don't look at this distinction or include only the production or recognition level.

## 1.4. Research Questions

This study will address the following questions:

1. Does presenting make/do collocations by using input flood technique help 7th grade EFL students improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations?

    a) Is there any significant difference in the students' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of recognition?

    b) Is there any significant difference in the students' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of production?

2. Does presenting make/do collocations by using negative evidence technique help 7th grade EFL students improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations?

    a) Is there any significant difference in the students' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of recognition?

b) Is there any significant difference in the students' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of production?

3. Do students in the control group improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations without exposing them any specific treatment?

a) Is there any significant difference in the students' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of recognition?

b) Is there any significant difference in the students' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of production?

4. Do students in the input flood group improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations in comparison to the control group?

a) Is there any significant difference between the input flood and control groups' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of recognition?

b) Is there any significant difference between the input flood and control groups' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of production?

5. Do students in the negative evidence group improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations in comparison to the control group?

a) Is there any significant difference between the negative evidence and control groups' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of recognition?

b) Is there any significant difference between the negative evidence and control groups' scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest, and pretest to delayed posttest in terms of production?

**1.5. Definition of Key Terms**

**Input:** Input is the language which the learner is exposed to (either written or spoken) in the environment (Lightbown and Spada, 1999), language presented to students through reading and listening (Lewis, 2002b).

**Input flood:** It means including plentiful exemplars without any device to draw attention to the feature (Ellis, 2001). The aim is to provide high-frequency exposure to a particular form in the instructional input (e.g., adverb placement). In the input flood treatment, learners may be exposed to audio or visual texts that include artificially increased incidence of the target form. They may read a series of texts containing the use of this form, but there is no teaching of this form nor is any error correction given. In this study, input flood treatment is used for extending students' collocational knowledge of make/do collocations and learners are exposed to the texts and sentences that include artificially increased incidence of target make/do collocations.

**Negative Evidence:** Negative evidence is information provided to the learners about which sentences or features are not grammatical in the language they are learning (Lightbown and Spada, 2000). In other words, negative evidence involves providing the learners with direct or indirect information about what is unacceptable. Negative evidence can keep learners from stabilizing erroneous, developmental forms and features in their interlanguage or can help them destabilize errors when such a point of stabilization has already occurred. Feedbacks regarding the incorrect sentences, recasts, expansions or reformulations are regarded as negative evidence. However, negative evidence in this study is provided by explicit instruction on make/do collocations in which teacher highlights the differences between them and presents the correct-incorrect make/do combinations.

**Mis-collocations:** Mis-collocations are incorrect word combinations that break the convention of collocations. Shortly, they are violations of collocations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

## 2.1. A Brief Historical Overview of the Role of Vocabulary in Language Teaching/ in SLA Approaches

The role of the vocabulary in language teaching has changed in different approaches. In the Grammar Translation Method, language learners were given detailed explanations of grammar in L1 and the emphasis was on the ability to analyze language rather than the ability to use it. The role of vocabulary was a mean to illustrate a grammar rule, and to understand literary texts full of obstacle vocabulary. It was thought that language learners could benefit from memorizing lists of words.

The Direct Method, which was developed in the U.S. by Sauveur and became famous by the help of Berlitz, claimed that interaction had a special place in natural language acquisition. Thus, everyday vocabulary and sentences were used throughout the course, reading was taught. The vocabulary was simple and familiar. Concrete vocabulary was presented with labeled pictures and demonstration, whereas abstract vocabulary was presented through the associating of ideas.

In the Reading Method, reading was viewed as the most necessary skill and only the grammar which was useful for reading comprehension was taught. Based on frequency and usefulness, vocabulary was controlled at first and then expanded. West's suggestion was to use word-frequency lists as the basis for the selection and order of vocabulary in student materials.

During the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s the Audio-Lingual Method, which was a reaction to the Reading Method and to its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills, became widespread in the United States. The language learning was seen as a process of habit formation so systematic attention to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling of basic sentence patterns were emphasized in this method. Grammatical points were taught through examples and drills instead of analysis and memorization of rules. Vocabulary played a secondary role in the Audio-Lingual Method which emphasized the mastery of structures and downplayed the importance of vocabulary in language teaching. Vocabulary teaching is severely limited in initial stages because it was believed that learning too much vocabulary early in the language learning process gives a false sense of security. As the morphological variations and syntactic structures were practiced better with well-known vocabulary, vocabulary items were selected according to their simplicity and familiarity to the learners.

In the 1970s, Dell Hymes introduced the concept of communicative competence which gave greater emphasis to the sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors governing effective language use. Language learning began to be seen as different from the previously held model of habit information so the focus in language teaching changed to communicative proficiency rather than the command of structures. In the argument for fluency over accuracy, Rivers (1983; cited in Zimmerman, 1997) has attracted the attention of language educators to pay more attention to words for the aim of helping learners communicate meaning. Widdowson (1978; cited in Zimmerman, 1997) has emphasized the importance of having accurate vocabulary rather than accurate grammar but inaccurate vocabulary in order to understand better. Yet, little explicit attention has been given to vocabulary and attention has been on the appropriate use of communicative categories and language as discourse. Generally, vocabulary was seen as support for functional language use.

The Natural Approach which was developed by Krashen after 1970s emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful input rather than grammatically correct production. It is based on a theoretical model consisting of the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the

Affective Filter Hypothesis. Greater emphasis on vocabulary in the early stages of learning and increased emphasis on the ability to communicate messages, with correspondingly decreases emphasis on structural accuracy are two clear changes of emphasis which are central to Krashen's Natural Approach (Lewis, 2002b). In this approach, vocabulary has very important place since comprehension of vocabulary is necessary for acquisition to take place. The importance of vocabulary is stated by Krashen like that (cited in Lewis, 2000, p. 23):

> Vocabulary is basic to communication. If acquirers do not recognize the meaning of the key words used by those who address them they will be unable to participate in the conversation. If they wish to express some idea or ask for information they must be able to produce lexical items to convey their meaning. Indeed, if our students know the morphology and the syntax of an utterance addressed to them, but do not know the meaning of key lexical items, they will be unable to participate in the communication. For this reason, we are not impressed with approaches that deliberately restrict vocabulary acquisition and learning until the morphology and syntax are mastered.
> Vocabulary is also very important for the acquisition process. The popular belief is that one uses form and grammar to understand meaning. The truth is probably closer to the opposite: we acquire morphology and syntax because we understand the meaning of utterances.

In the Natural Approach, providing interesting and relevant input and directing students' attention to the understanding of messages is suggested for teaching vocabulary but reading is regarded as the most efficient way to acquire new vocabulary for students beyond the beginning level.

Communicative linguistic theorists were criticized since they paid little attention to vocabulary and its instruction. The need for more accurate language description has led to lexicographical research in the 1980s. Work in corpus analysis and computational analysis aroused the interest in the importance of large chunks of language. Sinclair, Nattinger, DeCarrico, and Lewis emphasize the language learner's need to perceive and use patterns of lexis and collocation (cited in Zimmerman, 1997). Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) state "It is our ability to use lexical phrases that helps us to speak with fluency. This prefabricated speech has both the advantages of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers (and learners) to direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse, rather than keeping it narrowly focused on individual words as they are produced". According to them, language production is not a syntactic rule-governed

process but it is the retrieval of larger units from memory. Their works in this area represent a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past. One of the important works done was belong to Michael Lewis who introduced the Lexical Approach in 1993. The most important difference from the Communicative Approach is the increased understanding of the nature of lexis in naturally occurring language. Lexis is central in creating meaning; grammar plays a subservient managerial role. Lewis (2002b) makes a list of the key principles of the Lexical Approach and central role of lexis is mentioned in the ones written below.

- *Language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar.*
- *The grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid; much language consists of multi-words 'chunks'.*
- *A central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of, and developing their ability to 'chunk' language successfully.*
- *Although structural patterns are known as useful, lexical and metaphorical patterning are accorded appropriate status.*
- *Collocation is integrated as an organising principle within syllabuses.*
- *Grammar as structure is subordinate to lexis.*

The *‚grammaticalised lexis', multi-words 'chunks', 'collocation', lexical and metaphorical patterning'* are the terms which reflect the basis of this new approach to language teaching. Language classrooms and the activities which take place in these classrooms are arranged according to these principles. Methodological implications of the Lexical Approach are presented by Lewis (2002b:194):

1. *Early emphasis on receptive skills, especially listening, is essential.*
2. *De-contextualised vocabulary learning is a full legitimate strategy.*
3. *The role of grammar as a receptive skill must be recognized.*
4. *The importance of contrast in language awareness must be recognized.*
5. *Teachers should employ extensive, deictic language for receptive purposes.*
6. *Extensive writing should be delayed as long as possible.*
7. *Non-linear recording formats are intrinsic to the Lexical Approach.*

*8. Reformulation should be the natural response to student error.*

*9. Teachers should always react primarily to the content of student language.*

*10. Pedagogical chunking should be a frequent classroom activity.*

As it is understood from Lewis' implications, the process of language acquisition is taken into account and some items are suggested in parallel to them. Children begin to acquire their first language through listening and through extensive exposure to the spoken language so receptive skills, especially listening, are emphasized over productive skills at the early stages of second language learning, too and extensive writing is delayed as long as possible. Well-chosen comprehensible language is crucial to the learning process as stated by Krashen in his Input Hypothesis so reading texts, listening to stories and especially language produced with reference to the Here-and-Now framework are important in this respect and can be used in the language classrooms (Lewis, 2002b).

Lewis (2000:184) says "Acquisition is not based on the application of formal rules which generate correct examples, but on an accumulation of examples about which ever-changing provisional generalizations may be made by the individual learner. These generalizations may be the basis for the production of language which is novel for that learner, but all such production is ultimately the product of previously-met examples, not formal rules". Based on this assumption, Observe-Hypothesise-Experiment paradigm is suggested in the Lexical Approach instead of the Present-Practise-Produce paradigm and it is also believed that student-generated rules, rather than the rules provided by textbooks and teachers greatly contribute to the learning process. Meeting and noticing new language; sorting the input on the basis of apparently significant similarities and differences; and using the language on the basis of the learners' current intergrammar (that is, his or her current best hypothesis), stimulating new input at the appropriate level to provide examples which confirm or contradict some part of the learners' current hypothesis are expected to happen respectively in the Observe-Hypothesise-Experiment paradigm. Mastery happens when new input serves only to confirm the learners' intergrammar (Lewis, 2000). Lewis (2000:184) summarizes the position of noticing and the relation between input and intake "Meeting and (at least)

understanding the same new language on several occasions is a necessary but not sufficient condition for acquiring the new language. Noticing similarities, differences, restrictions and examples arbitrarily blocked by usage all contribute to turning input into intake, but formal description of the categories into which input language may be sorted –descriptive „rules'- probably does not help the process of acquisition, and may hinder it by intimidating some, perhaps many, learners".

One another implication of the Lexical Approach is about how to give feedback and respond to student error. Reformulation, rather than formal correction, and reacting primarily to the content of student language is advised because of the importance of content over language and the need to make students feel that their oral contributions are valued.

Lastly, Lewis (2002b) talks about pedagogical chunking as methodological implication of the Lexical Approach. The principle „Language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar' emphasizes the significance of lexical items in the Lexical Approach. In addition, the principle „A central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of, and developing their ability to 'chunk' language successfully' implies the necessity of developing awareness of language and developing ways of identifying constituent bits with the whole.

Consequently, a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past is seen as a result of Lexical Approach. This approach to language and to learning does not break everything down into individual words and structures, but sees language in larger units (Hill, 2000). Hill (2000:48) supports the lexical approach and expresses his opinion in this way:

> It seems sensible to take on board what lessons we can from the lexical nature of language and the lexical ways in which native speakers learn from their mother tongue. In particular, that huge area of language commonly referred to as idiomatic usage, is clearly learned lexically. One of the most important areas of idiomatic language is collocation.

As it is seen, Lexical Approach puts lexis rather than grammar at the centre of language teaching so multi-word units and collocations becomes the central issue in language teaching and other scholars tend to search these concepts and their roles in language teaching.

## 2.2. The Importance of Collocations in EFL Context

Collocation is defined as word combinations that are most likely to appear together or the habitual or expected concurrence of words. When we looked the literature, collocation was first defined by Firth as "the company words keep-their relations with other words" (cited in Hill, 2000). Lewis (2000:127) states that "collocation is about words which occur together more often than might be expected if words were produced randomly". In other words, Lewis (2000) defines collocations as combinations of words that occur naturally with greater frequency than random frequency. Nation (2001:324) defines collocations as closely structured groups whose parts frequently or uniquely occur together. Eker (2001) combines the definitions and writes a definition by contrasting the term collocation by other confused terms "Words that tend to occur repeatedly together with other words in languages and which are non-idiomatical and relatively fixed but are not combined freely".

Lewis (2000) states that it is easy to see that the definition of collocation as the way words occur together is very wide and covers many different kinds of items. He (2000:133) gives the examples of the group of words which are regularly found together. For example, *submit a report* is a collocation which occurs as a result of combination of a verb and a noun. However, *fire escape* is a compound noun; *turn in* is a phrasal verb; *on the other hand* is a fixed phrase; see you later/tomorrow/on Monday is semi-fixed expression.

There are different categorizations of collocations but it is possible to see them divided into two basic categories such as lexical collocations and grammatical collocations. While lexical collocations involve one open word like noun, verb, adverb or adjective

combined with another open word, grammatical collocations combine a lexical word, typically a noun, verb or adjective, with a grammatical word like a preposition, clause, infinitive or gerund. Degree of fixedness, the extent to which collocates can be replaced by another word, can be used as a criteria to divide the collocations into another categories. Unchangeable, semi-fixed and free combinations are mentioned by Smith (2005) in this category. "chip off the old block" is an example for unchangeable collocations because you cannot replace one of the words in collocation with another word. On the contrary, the words in free combinations have seemingly unlimited combination possibilities such as "red+virtually any concrete object". In semi-fixed one (such as "ham and eggs", the items can be reversed "eggs and ham" or substituted by another word "bacon and eggs".

Strength of collocation is another criteria used by some scholars to classify collocations (Hill, 2000; Conzett, 2000; Smith, 2005). Unique, strong, medium strength and weak collocations take place in the classification according to strength of collocation. In order to explain unique collocations, Hill (2000) states that it is possible to say *shrug our shoulders*, but no other part of our anatomy and he also mentions of the uniqueness of *foot* used as a verb in the collocation *foot the bill* but the impossibility of using it in such kinds of collocations "footing the invoice" or "footing the coffee". *Trenchant criticism, rancid butter, ulterior motives, harbour* grudges are examples given by Hill (2000) for strong collocations. Such collocations are not unique but strong or very strong so any knowledge of the words *trenchant, rancid, motive, or grudge* would be seriously incomplete without some knowledge of these strong collocates. On the other hand, the words like short, cheap, expensive, good or bad can be combined with many words such as short skirt, expensive car/skirt, etc. However, Hill (2000) warns that these words can also be used in multi-word expressions such as *He is a good age* so it is necessary to make students aware of these words' more predictable collocations. Medium-strength collocations (i.e. hold a conversation, make a mistake/cake/an appointment, and catch a cold) constitute a large part of what is said and written. Conzett (2000) advices to conceptualize collocations on a continuum below because collocations may be strong or weak but units made of freely-combining words like *friendly dog* or *old car* and fixed expressions and idioms like *throw in the towel* would no be treated as collocations.

*friendly dog*      *strong coffee*      *sibling rivalry*      *throw in the towel*

←——————    **weaker**      **stronger**    ——————→

*old car*      *heavy smoker*      *mitigating circumstances*      *Stars and Stripes*

*(Conzett, 2000: 74)*
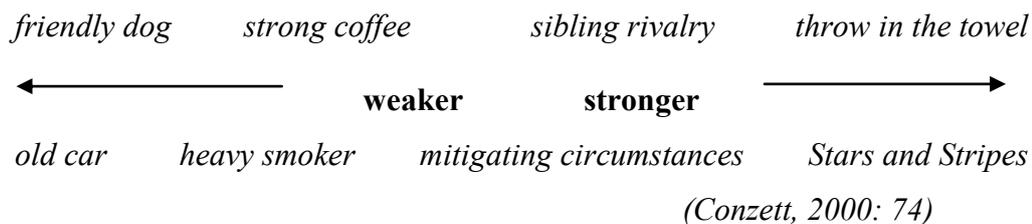
Nation (2001) calls collocations as items which frequently occur together and have some degree of semantic unpredictability. He uses ten scales for classifying items as collocations or not: frequency of occurrence, adjacency, grammatically connected, grammatically structured grammatical uniqueness, grammatical fossilization, collocational specialization, lexical fossilization, semantic opaqueness and uniqueness of meaning.

Collocations are significant in the area of SLA and they have pedagogical value. First of all, the lexicon is not arbitrary and the way words combine in collocations is fundamental to all language use. Hill (2000:53) says "We do not speak or write as if language were one huge substitution table with vocabulary items merely filling slots in grammatical structures. To an important extent vocabulary choice is predictable". In other words, the words don't follow each other randomly. For example, it is not possible to combine a verb such as *have* with any noun you want such as *have shower.* Collocation helps to think more quickly and communicate more efficiently (Hill, 2000). Hill (2000:54) explains this with a comparison between native speakers and non-native speakers and says "The main difference between native and non-native speakers is that the former have met far more English and so can recognise and produce the „ready-made chunks', which enable them to process and produce language at a much faster rate". Collocation allows us to name complex ideas quickly so that we can continue to manipulate the ideas without using all our brainspace to focus on the form of words. Thus, it is an important element for fluency. Recognising chunks is seen as one of the necessary steps for acquisition because incorrectly chunked input cannot be available for retrieval and use (Hill, 2000). During reading, correctly understood and stored lexical items may be available for immediate use. Native speakers have a vast of store of fixed expressions or collocations and they are ready for use when required and most of them are acquired from their daily listening and reading. Similarly, such collocations

in L2 seen or heard in a context over and over again will be ready to use when required. Hill supports this view and emphasizes the role of memory by saying "We know collocations because we have met them. We then retrieve them from our mental lexicon just as we pull a telephone number or address from our memory (p 53)". Communication breakdowns and ambiguity problems in conversations may have a relation with collocations but the ones used wrongly. According to Gass and Selinker (1994; cited in Koç, 2006), a sentence which contains a grammatical mistake may not lead to misunderstanding but a sentence which contains a lexical error may seriously interfere with communication. Similarly, the intended meaning cannot be conveyed successfully and misinterpretation can be seen because of choosing wrong word or combining words with wrong collocates.

Lewis (2002a) believes that it is more logical to learn words in a strong, frequent, or otherwise typical pattern of actual use since words are not normally used alone. Learning the words individually and bringing them together later is a more difficult process than learning the whole and breaking to parts. According to Lewis (2002a), learners may begin to make better use of language they already partly know if they consciously aware of collocations and are encouraged to explore them. In addition to this, their communicative power; that is, the ability to say more of what they want to say with the limited language resources at their disposal, may increase. Hill (2000:62) says "A student with a vocabulary of 2.000 words 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". Hill (2000) believes that collocation knowledge helps learners to get beyond the „intermediate plateau', and to read more widely, understand more quickly, and speak more fluently. According to Hill, spending a lot of class time on traditional EFL grammar prevents learners to get beyond the „intermediate plateau'.

The studies which compare teaching vocabulary using collocations and traditional techniques such as using definitions, synonyms, etc. demonstrate that teaching vocabulary through collocations results in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques and enhances retention of new vocabulary items

(Altınok, 2000; Ördem, 2005; Koç, 2006). These studies suggest that presenting the word by their collocations is more effective than presenting the word only with its definition, synonym, etc.

There are many scholars who work on collocations but they deal with collocations for different purposes. It is possible to group the studies according to their aims:

- the studies which are related to the collocational knowledge of students, particularly the development of collocational competence, skills over time, and differences in collocational competence according to language proficiency, language background, etc. (Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Al-Zahrani, 1998; Howarth, 1998; Bonk, 2000; Eker, 2001; Huang, 2001; Barfield, 2002; Wu, 2003; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003; Smith, 2005)

- the studies which compare L1 and L2 in terms of collocations (comparative studies which aim at finding out the similarities and differences between the first and target language) (Alpaslan, 1993; Taeko, 2005)

- the studies which are related to teaching collocations and raising collocational awareness (Hsu, 2002; Tseng, 2002; Gencer, 2004; Ok, 2005; Koç, 2006)

- the studies which investigate the effects of collocational instruction on vocabulary learning and retention (Altınok, 2000; Ördem, 2005; Avcı, 2006; Balcı, 2006)

- the studies which investigate the effects of collocational instruction on different aspects of second language such as listening comprehension (Hsu, L. and Hsu, J., 2005), reading comprehension (Lien, 2003), writing abilities (Avcı, 2006), language fluency (Hsu, 2002)

- the studies which examine the difficulty of using collocations, collocational errors and their reasons (Biskup, 1992; Altenberg and Granger, 2001; Huang, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003; Hemchua and Schmitt, 2006 )

## 2.2.Mis-collocations and Teaching Collocations

Language learners make different kind of errors in the learning process such as linguistic errors (i.e. grammatical errors, syntactical errors, morphological errors,

collocational errors), pragmatic errors (errors which occur when learners produce a grammatically and semantically correct phrase/sentence, but the use of the phrase/sentence is not appropriate for the communicative situation), misspelling and mispronunciation. Pham (2005:146-147) defines error as „a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts' and categories the linguistic errors such as morphological errors, grammatical errors, syntactic errors, collocational errors, inappropriate word form. While errors which involve a failure to comply with the norm in building word structure are called as morphological errors, errors made in the idiomatic usage of the target language are called as collocational errors by Pham (2005).

As cited by Biskup (1992), scholars such as Grucza and Jaruzelska (1978), Marton (1978), Arabski (1979) have already shown that collocational errors constitute high percentage of all errors committed by L2 learners. After the emergence of computer technology and recent developments in corpus linguistics, the significant role of lexical phrases was demonstrated and vocabulary became a central research subject in the area of language teaching and learning. Among language learners' errors, collocation errors regarded as the main problem of EFL learners by scholars have begun to be investigated again.

„Knowing a word' has been discussed for a long time in the area of vocabulary learning and teaching but it is agreed that knowing a word involves different kinds of knowledge of that word and it doesn't only involve knowing the equivalent of the word in the mother tongue. Here are the criteria presented briefly by Taylor (1990:1-3):

1. Knowledge of frequency of the word in the language, i.e. knowing the degree of probability of encountering the word in speech or in print,
2. Knowledge of the *register* of the word, i.e. knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation,
3. Knowledge of *collocation*, both semantic, and syntactic (sometimes termed „colligation'), i.e. knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word and also knowing the network of associations between that word and other words in the

language. This is to ensure that vocabulary items are not taught in isolation but in a meaningful context with examples related to their uses.

4. Knowledge of *morphology*, i.e. knowing the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it,

5. Knowledge of *semantics*, i.e. knowing firstly what the word means or denotes. It is relatively easy to teach denotation of concrete items like plate, ruler or banana by simply bringing these objects (relia), or pictures of these objects, into the classroom. For more abstract concepts synonyms, paraphrases or definitions may be useful,

6. Knowledge of *polysemy,* i.e. knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.

7. Knowledge of the equivalent of the word in the *mother tongue*.

As it is seen, „knowing a word' requires the knowledge of collocation. The main problem which is mentioned by Hill (2000) and Lewis (2000) is related to this aspect of „knowing a word' because they state that learners know the equivalents of the words in their own language but they cannot retrieve the right combinations and choose the wrong collocates of the words. For example, they know the words *hold and conversation, but* may not know that it is possible to say *'hold a conversation'.* They know the words *make* and *mistake,* but have not stored *make a mistake* in their mental lexicons as a single item so they cannot retrieve it when required.

Scholars such as Biskup (1992), Liu (2002), Huang (2001), Nesselhauf (2003), Altenberg and Granger (2001), Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) work on learners' problems of English collocations. Biskup (1992) tries to find the main causes of observed collocational errors and determine the role of L1. 34 Polish and 28 German advanced university students participated in the study and they were asked to supply the English equivalents of lexical collocations in Polish and German respectively. The number of incorrect variants (answers different from target) produced by German learners is much higher and German students often used descriptive answers. As related to L1 interference, it was found that the Polish learners made 48 interference errors in the 106 incorrect variants they produced (46 percent) but the German learners produced 33 errors of this type out of 156 variants (21 percent). This study suggests that many collocational errors can be explained by L1 interference. It is difficult for most learners to find the right collocates of a word because of the differences between L1 and L2.

Bahns (1993:56) states that most of the learners often have problems in choosing the right combination of two (or more) words and he presents some typical examples of wrong word combinations:

a. *feeble tea
b. *put up a campaign, *laugh broadly
c. *commit treachery, *hold a burial
d. *climb a horse, *healthy advice

According to Bahns (1993:61), „hypothesis of transferability' is the thing learners concerning the collocations and the majority of collocational errors can be traced to L1 influence.

a. *drive a bookshop (from Polish kierowac sklepem) instead of run a bookshop
b. *make attention at (from French faire attention a) instead of pay attention to
c. *win money (from Bulgarian печеля пари ) instead of make money
d. *finish a conflict (from German einen Konflikt beenden) instead of resolve a conflict

Al-Zahrani (1998) examines the differences in the knowledge of English lexical collocations among four Saudi EFL students representing four academic levels (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior) as well as the relationship between knowledge of such collocations and the students' overall language proficiency. Results showed that there was a strong relationship between the students' knowledge of collocations and their overall language proficiency, there was a difference in the knowledge of lexical collocations among the four level tested. Results also revealed that participants encountered some problems with certain collocations. Among such problems were collocations that had no Arabic equivalents, culturally loaded collocations, the problems due to semantic factors.

Eker (2001) investigates the development of second language learners' collocational competence according to time, collocation type, native language influence and transparency of collocations. It was found that learners produced more collocations which had direct translation equivalents in their native language than those which did not have a direct translation equivalent and transparent collocations are significantly higher than non-transparent collocations. The results of this study also pay attention to the L1 influence on the use of collocations.

Huang (2001) designed a study with 60 EFL students from a college in Taiwan and investigated their knowledge of English collocations and the collocational errors they made. He used a self-designed Simple Completion Test to measure students' knowledge of four types of lexical collocations: free combinations, restricted collocations, figurative idioms, and pure idioms. The results indicated that free combinations caused the least amount of difficulty, whereas pure idioms were the most challenging. Huang concluded that most subjects' collocational errors could be attributed to negative transfer from their first language (such as *a black horse for a dark horse, *red tea for black tea, *eat a bite for take a bite) and others could be attributed to the learners' tendency to use high-frequency words to substitute for the lexical items and lack of cultural awareness. Similarly, Liu (2002) searched verb-noun miscollocations of Taiwanese senior high school students and college students by collecting essays of these learners in the English Taiwan Learner Corpus. Liu concluded that learners' miscollocations are not arbitrary; especially the verb noun miscollocations; learners' lexical choices were influenced by their first language; instructors should spend more efforts on the emphasis of collocational knowledge in vocabulary teaching.

Nesselhauf (2003) analyses the verb-noun collocations (such as take a break, shake one's head) in 32 essays written by German-speaking advanced learners of English. Of all types of mistakes, the one occurring most frequently is the wrong choice of verb. For example, students use collocations such as *carry out races instead of hold races, *make one's homework instead of do one's homework, *give a solution to instead of provide. The wrong choice of noun and the production of a completely wrong combination, followed by prepositional mistakes and determiner mistakes are other

frequent mistakes. In terms of restriction, the lowest rate of mistakes is found with collocations involving a lot of restriction (such as pay attention or run a risk), whereas the highest rate of mistakes occurs in combinations with a medium degree of restriction because learners are less aware of restrictions in combinations where the verb takes a wider range of nouns (such as *exert, perform,* or *reach*). The results also demonstrated that there was not a single type of mistake in which L1 did not seem to have an influence. Here are some examples of collocational errors which were influenced by the learner's first language.

- verb mistake: *make homework* (correct: *do homework*; German *Hausaufgaben machen)*
- noun mistake: *close lacks* (correct: *gaps*; German *Lücken schliessen*; phonological influence likely)
- usage mistake: *train one's muscles* (correct: *to exercise;* German *seine Muskeln trainieren)*
- preposition mistake: *draw a picture from* (correct: *of*; German *ein Bild zeichnen von*; both *of* and *from* frequently correspond to German von)
- article mistake: *get the permission* (correct: *get permission*; German *die Erlaubnis bekommen*)

Altenberg and Granger (2001) investigate EFL learner use of high frequency verbs and particular use of the verb, "make." Results of this study show that EFL learners have great difficulty with a high frequency verb such as *make*. Some of the problems with these high-frequency verbs were shared by both the French-speaking and Swedish-speaking learners but others seem to be affected by L1. The French-speaking learners underuse the verb make, whereas the Swedish-speaking learners use make a little more than the native-language speakers.

Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) investigate the use of collocates as an indicator of language proficiency and the strategies Arab learners of English at different levels of competence use in their attempts to come up with the proper collocation. Participants of the study were two groups of EFL university students (38 graduates and 32 third-year

undergraduates) from the Department of English at Yarmouk University, Jordan. A multiple-choice task, a translation of the sixteen *kasara*-collocations, and a free translation task of the same 16 Arabic collocations were used as instrument of the study and findings. Results reveal that learners even at advanced level still have problems with collocations. Twelve distinct communicative strategies were identified: avoidance, literal translation, substitution, overgeneralization, quasi-morphological similarity, assumed synonymity, derivativeness, imitation of literary style, idiomaticalness, paraphrase and circumlocution, graphic ambiguity, and finally, false IL assumptions.

Alpaslan (1993) examines lexical collocations in Turkish and English and puts the ungrammatical sentences or unacceptable sentences into two main groups: problems of co-occurrence (lack of knowledge on lexical collocations) and problems of grammatical marking (lack of knowledge on grammatical collocations). Alpaslan (1993:79) clarifies these problems with comparative examples from Turkish and English and he thinks the differences between languages as potential sources of mistakes. The word order of languages, the feature of being specialized, cultural differences, and some differences in the semantic fields of words may be the reasons for making mistakes in English use. For example, he says that "since Turkish words are not specialized, Turkish students who are learning English as a second language may think of the same for English and try to use collocations such as (*hind tire of the car) or (*rear leg of the animal) to give the exact meaning.

Smith (2005) states that interference from the native language is responsible for collocational errors and the main form of interference is direct translation, word for word, into the target language of what the student would have said in the native language. She used the term „gridding' mentioned by Hasselgren (1994) as a another form of interference and „gridding' takes place when the collocational ranges of a word in L1 is narrower or wider than the collocational range of the equivalent word in L2. Other reasons for collocational errors are related to cultural backgrounds, students' tendency to use the familiar and easy one when formulating collocations, and students' unwillingness to take risks. Koç (2006) also talks about the reasons for collocational errors and the influence of the first language, culture-based knowledge, the instruction

type concentrating on single words, and the strategies learners rely on while producing collocations are given as the source of collocational errors.

The scholars who work on collocational errors point out the necessity to teach collocations (Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Bahns, 1993; Al-Zahrani, 1998; Altenberg and Granger 2001; Liu, 2002; Nesselhauf, 2003). As there are a huge number of collocations, it is important to decide what to teach in the lesson. These miscollocations and high-frequency collocations deserve attention in classroom time (Nation, 2001; Bahns, 1993). Nesselhauf (2003:238) expresses the criteria for selection of the collocations to be taught and says that "…non-congruence in L1 and L2 is one of the most important criteria, that is, collocations that are non-congruent should receive particular attention in language teaching". Based on their study, Bahns and Eldaw (1993:109) say "collocations are not equally necessary on the teaching syllabus and that, while some collocations around which there is no comfortable paraphrase should be taught, others can be easily circumvented and should not be a teaching priority". Shortly, it can be concluded that teaching collocations are supported but it doesn't mean that all collocations deserve equal attention in language classrooms. While the problematic collocations which cannot be paraphrased or cannot be learnt in the expected way due to the L1-L2 differences need special attention, other collocations which can be directly translated from L1 or which can be paraphrased easily don't need a teaching priority or special class time.

There are some general advices for teaching and learning collocations. According to Woolard (2000:46), "a primary aim of teaching must be to raise the students' awareness of their increasing responsibility for, and power over, their own learning". Concordancing, using collocation dictionaries and keeping vocabulary notebooks are recommended by Woolard for enhancing independent learning. He believes that concordances, computer softwares which allow a constructive search of large amounts of text for examples of a particular word or phrase, provide much richer sources of co-textual information than dictionaries, and they are good sources for exploring of the collocates of a word. The role of the teachers is to show students how to use these concordances to uncover the probable language and to correct their mistakes in their

written works. Woolard (2000) also stresses out the need to train students to record, revisit and re-activate the significant vocabulary they meet and suggests the vocabulary notebook for that aim. He puts the word grammar approach into base of this application and directing the students' attention to the syntactic constraints on the use of lexis is significant. Students can write the word's definition, examples, verb and noun collocates of the word, significant grammar patterns of the word, and „favourites', that is, patterns or expressions which the individual particularly likes and will probably use.

Hill and Lewis (2000) talk about activities by exploring a text, using a collocation dictionary and some exercises. These two activities are for exploiting the collocational content of any text: Finding the collocations in a text and restructuring the content in which groups exchange papers and try to expand the notes to recover the main content of the original text. Collocations can also be worked with the dictionary-based activities like recording collocation, essay preparation, find a better word, sorting, near synonyms, five-word stories, translating collocations, exercises like correcting common mistakes, finding the missing verb, odd-verb out and collocation games can be used. Lewis (2002a) presents basic types of lexical exercise designed with careful reference to lexical principles: identifying chunks, matching the parts of collocations, completing (gap-filling), categorizing, sequencing and deleting (odd-one-out). Thornbury (2002) also gives some ideas for teaching collocations. For example, he advises preparing „collocation maps' of high-frequency verbs (such as *have, take, give, make*, *get*), and using collocational grids, odd-one-out tasks.

The studies below are all related to collocations and investigate the effect of teaching word via collocations but collocation instruction used in these studies differs from one study to the other. Thus, they can give idea about teaching collocation.

Hsu (2005) investigates the effect of direct teaching of lexical collocations on Taiwanese college EFL learners' listening comprehension. 34 English majors in a university of science and technology participated in the study. In three week period, all groups received three different types of instruction (single-item vocabulary instruction, lexical collocation instruction, and no instruction). In each instruction type, each group

received 30 minutes instruction. In the lexical collocation instruction, lexical collocations were written on two separate pieces of A4 paper and students discussed about these lexical collocations in groups. Later, each group was requested to compose a sentence by using a target lexical collocation. Participants' performances in three tests after receiving different types of instruction were significantly different. Results indicate that the target items should always be presented in collocation together with at least one other word.

Ördem (2005) tries to find out whether teaching vocabulary via collocations would contribute to retention and use of foreign language. Subjects were 60 first year students at the ELT department of Muğla University. Data was collected through pretest and posttest, guided writing tasks and retention judgment test. Four reading topics were studied for ten weeks, and each week the participants attended the reading course for six hours. Word definitions, synonyms, antonyms and guessing from the context were used with the control group. Eight different kinds of collocation exercises were presented to the experimental group (recording a notebook of collocation, use of collocation dictionary, collocation game, correcting collocation mistakes, match collocations, five word story, find the right collocation with synonymous pairs, cloze test, find your partner, find as many as you can). It was found that teaching vocabulary via collocations contributed to retention and use of foreign language.

Altınok (2000) investigated whether teaching vocabulary in collocations would result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using definitions alone. All groups read the text and answered the comprehension questions but ten unknown words were presented with their collocates to experimental group, whereas the other group received only the dictionary definitions of the words. The results demonstrated that the experimental group trained in chunking collocations scored higher in the immediate posttests. Balcı (2006) designed a similar study to Altınok's and found that teaching vocabulary through collocations and cliches results in a better learning of the words than presenting them using classical techniques and enhances retention of new vocabulary items.

Gencer (2004) examines the effect of raising EFL learners' awareness of verb-noun collocations through an awareness raising activity on learners' productive/receptive vocabulary use. Each group read two texts in two consecutive lessons in one week. While traditional vocabulary teaching techniques such as giving definitions of known words, providing near synonyms, and giving examples were used in the control group, learners locate all the nouns and find the verb collocates of these nouns in texts they read; that is; „find the noun, find the collocate' activity was used. The results indicate that there were significant differences between the two groups in both types of tests in favour of the experimental group.

Avcı (2006) examines whether students receiving collocation instruction would develop awareness of collocations and be able to show this knowledge in a new text. Subjects were 19 pre-intermediate level students at Istanbul Technical University, English Preparatory Programme. Both groups studied the same reading texts, did brainstorming activities prior to writing about the same topics and they were both given feedback on their work. Students in the experimental group read texts and were presented activities, worksheet and revision worksheets. No significant results were obtained between the groups with the exception of the number of collocations used in the students' written paragraphs.

Koç (2006) aims to find what extent explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations, using different techniques, develops collocational awareness in students, and whether such instruction has any enhancing effect on the retention of vocabulary. Four of the groups were assigned as the experimental group and received vocabulary instruction focusing on collocations, while the remaining four were assigned as the control group and received instruction concentrating on single words. In the first treatment session, the experimental group completed a table involving lexical collocations they encountered in the text; dictaglossing technique (multiple reading of a short text, concentrating on single words and reconstructing the passage, working to compile the collocates of the words, refining the first version of the passage) was used in the second treatment session; students used a set of concordancing extracts to find the mistakes in 15 sets of sentences given by the teacher and correct them by examining the examples

in the extracts in the third treatment session. Results revealed that the participants developed awareness to the extent that they could identify collocations in any text and categorize lexical collocations. Vocabulary instruction in collocations yielded far better results in terms of vocabulary retention.

Sökmen (1997:72) summarizes the change in vocabulary teaching with these words: "The pendulum has swung from direct teaching of vocabulary (the grammar-translation method) to incidental (the communicative approach) and now, laudably, back to the middle: implicit and explicit learning". Now, this distinction between implicit and explicit learning is being discussed concerning teaching collocations. In this sense, the role of negative evidence and rich input are discussed by the supporters of Lexical Approach and some other scholars. Noticing the input language is crucial to expanding learners' mental lexicons and proving rich input is a way to help learners notice the input. Woolard (2000:31) states that teachers have prominent role to play in helping the learner identify collocations in text. According to Woolard (2000:35), collocation is mostly a matter of noticing and recording. Morgan Lewis (2000:23) believes that students may not learn the collocations if the teacher only asks the class "Are there any words you don't know?" and doesn't point the collocations out in text they are using. Thus, he stresses out the fact that the words of the collocations occur together and they are worth noticing and recording together must be pointed out by the teacher. Richards and Rodgers (2001) make the reader remember the Krashen's „input theory' (giving massive amounts of "language input") and express that giving massive amounts of input, especially through reading, is the only effective approach to collocation learning. Lewis (2000:184) supports this view and says "encountering new learning items on several occasions is a necessary but sufficient condition for learning to occur". Yet, he adds that "noticing lexical chunks or collocations is a necessary but not sufficient condition for "input" to become "intake". The belief that lexical competence comes from plentiful exposure plus consciousness-raising tasks is the key principle of the Lexical approach (Thornbury, 2002). According to Ellis (1997), word structure and form, collocations, word class can be learnt implicitly through exposure. However, integrating explicit teaching and achieving maximum exposure, probably through reading is needed for a well-designed vocabulary programme.

Negative evidence is supported in the Lexical Approach because it is believed that learners need to know both what is possible and what is not in order to explore and understand the rule. The problematic collocations like blocked collocations should be predicted by the teacher and necessary steps should be followed. According to Lewis (2000:144), a word with two or more different meanings such as the adjective „strange' should be introduced as part of naturally occurring collocations, and possible alternative collocations should be explored with learners immediately and attention drawn to important blocked collocations (impossible combinations). However, different kinds of verbs require different kinds of treatment in the classroom. For instance, it is necessary to introduce the verbs such as „say, speak, tell' which has similar meanings with a small family of real examples which show some typical collocations and their families compared and contrasted. Negative evidence of what is not actually possible should be provided by the teacher: *say me/John/someone to ….. Say is not followed by a name, person or personal pronoun in this structure. According to Hill and Lewis (2000:116), special attention should be paid to "de-lexicalised verbs" such as *do, make, put, keep, get, have*, which learners overuse when they do not know the appropriate verb collocate. Hill (2000) even states that analysis of students' essay writing often shows a serious lack of collocational competence with „de-lexicalised' verbs such as get, put, make, do, bring, take. It is suggested that teachers need to make students learn both which can be used with a particular noun, and, perhaps more importantly, which cannot be used with a particular noun (**do a complaint*, *make a hard diet*). Similarly, Thornbury (2002) suggests two possible approaches to deal with compounding errors, collocation errors, and phrasal verb errors: teaching rules or exposing learners to lots of correct examples. As it is seen, negative evidence is seen as a technique which can be used in order to deal with the collocations with de-lexicalised verbs or blocked collocations.

Although there are studies which examine the effect of rich input, that is, input flood (Trahey & White, 1993; EG, 2003; Beltran, 2004; Laufer, 2006; Duperron, 2003; Sprang, 2003; Seiba, 2001) and negative evidence (White, 1991; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Izumi & Lakshmanan, 1998; Leeman, 2003; Ayoun; 2001; Seiba, 2001) in language learning and vocabulary learning, there aren't sufficient studies which directly compare the effects of these different techniques on collocation learning. The studies on

input flood show that L2 learners may not be able to discover what is ungrammatical in their own interlanguage if the focus is always on meaning, even if the frequency and salience of correct model is increased. Trahey and White (1993) states that input flood could learners add new things to their interlanguage but not get rid of an error based on their first language. While the effect of input flood is also investigated in vocabulary-based studies under the key terms „incidental vocabulary learning' or „focus on form', the effect of negative evidence is restricted with the studies which generally focus on grammar teaching. Negative evidence is generally suggested in order to deal with errors based on the first language and to eliminate patterns already present in the interlanguage that are not grammatical or possible in the TL (target language), and it is generally included in the studies as different ways of feedback such as recasts, expansions or reformulations, corrective feedback. Negative evidence and input flood are suggested for teaching collocations but it is difficult to find a study which compares their efficiency. Thus, the present study aims to fill this gap and investigates the effect of input flood and negative evidence in teaching make/do collocations to seventh grade students. In other words, this study focuses on the effects of input flood and negative evidence on students' learning of make/do collocations, which are confused by most of the students. In this study, negative evidence is provided in the form of explicit instruction; that is, students are explicitly instructed which nouns are not possible to use with make or do. Thus, this study is like an exploration of implicit and explicit vocabulary learning through input flood and negative evidence.

Beltran (2004) tries to determine the relative effectiveness of two vocabulary teaching techniques for noticeably difficult and misleading vocabulary for Spanish speakers. Two groups taking an intermediate, university-level course with an academic orientation participated in this study and 30 false friends were used. Group A with 88 students received an explicit treatment of the linguistic feature which included providing L1 equivalents of the key words and brief metalinguistic explanations. On the other hand, Group B with 72 students received synonyms or short definitions of the key words and an input flood which involved a deliberate increase in the amount of exposure to these words. The treatment took place during a 5-week period and the input flood students were exposed to the target items three times whereas students in the other

group just once. Results demonstrated that an explicit focus on form was more beneficial than the implicit one in the learning complex lexical items. Thus, this study suggests that it is also necessary to explore the linguistic similarities between L1 and L2 and to develop some degree of language awareness in the language learner while dealing with the learning problems due to interlinguistic influence.

Unlike Belltran's study which focuses on difficult and misleading vocabulary for Spanish learners, the present study particularly focuses on make/do collocations because students in Turkey have problems in using them in right collocations and they tend to use them interchangeably since they have the same equivalents in Turkish. Besides, make/do collocations are among the problematic collocations defined by many scholars. For example, Hill (2000:50) states that analysis of students' essay writing often shows a serious of lack of collocational competence with ‚de-lexicalised' verbs such as *get, put, make, do, bring,* and *take*. For example, *I make exercise every morning in the gym*. Woolard (2000:30) states that "an effective platform for raising awareness of collocation is to focus on a selection of your students' miscollocations. ‚make and do' collocations provide a useful starting point for introducing the notion of collocations to learners". Thus, it is expected that the results of this study will help to deal with the problem of make/do miscollocations and show the effective way of conveying these collocations.

# CHAPTER III

# METHODOLOGY

## 3.1. Subjects

This study was conducted at Ziya Gökalp Primary School in Hendek in the second term of academic year 2007-2008 with the participation of three intact 7th grade classes, one as the control group, and two as the experimental groups. At the beginning of the study, the number of students in the first experimental, second experimental and control groups were 38, 33 and 39, respectively. However, 19 students were excluded from the study because they didn't attend classes regularly and didn't participate in the data collection. Thus, the final subjects of the study were 91 students: 30, 31 and 30 students in the first experimental, second experimental and control groups, respectively. Their ages ranged from 12-13. Students' exposure to English was limited with classroom context. These students have been learning English for four years according to the same curriculum since they are all in a state school in Turkey. They had two hours of English lesson in a week in the 4th and 5th grade, four hours of English lesson in a week in the 6th and 7th grade. In addition, the same course books, prepared by Ministry of Education, had been used in their four-year-English education: Globe in 4-5th grade and Let's Speak English in 6-7th grade. Based on their sociocultural and language background, it was assumed that they were all elementary learners of English and classes were randomly assigned to treatment conditions. One class was assigned to the input flood-implicit teaching condition and one class was assigned to the negative evidence-explicit teaching condition, the third class was used as the control group.

## 3.2. Instruments

According to primary school course books and syllabus, 23 make/do collocations in which both „make' and 'do' are used with the Turkish meaning „yapmak' were determined to be included in the study (see Appendix A).

The tests used in the study were designed by the researcher: two tests for testing the recognition of make/do collocations and two tests for production of make/do collocations (see Appendix B). Translation and cloze test were production tests; whereas grouping and correct/incorrect tests were recognition tests. These tests were used as pre-test, immediate posttest and delayed posttest but test items were reordered in each time. Students' knowledge of make/do collocations was measured in the pretest in order to see how much they could extend their knowledge of make/do collocations after the treatments and by time. The immediate posttest was administered in the following day of the treatments in order to see their gains after the treatments. Three weeks after the immediate posttest, the delayed posttest was given to find out the long-term effect of the treatments.

Translation test consisted of 35 items. Students were asked to translate 35 Turkish verb+noun collocations into English but 23 of them were taken into consideration since they were the target make/do collocations but the others were only the distractors of the test which were used to prevent students to focus on make/do collocations.

In the cloze test, there were three separate contextualized paragraphs which were adapted by the researcher from reading-exercise books for EFL learners. 23 target make/do collocations were scattered into these paragraphs. Students were asked to complete the blanks with verbs by the help of the context-clues. The researcher only checked whether students could write the verbs „make/do' in the correct blanks. There was generally one blank in each sentence but the deletion of verbs in these sentences was done carefully without destroying the flow and comprehensibility of the paragraph.

Grouping, actually, is an exercise used in practicing collocations but it was used as a test format in the study. Students were expected to write 29 nouns given in a box to the right verb column. The researcher only checked whether students could write the nouns used with the verbs „make/do' correctly. The verb „take' was used as a distractor in order to prevent students' focusing on only make/do collocations and to diminish the chance factor.

Correct/Incorrect Test is a Grammaticality Judgment Test. This test consisted of 32 sentences. These sentences were taken from the sources in the Net by the researcher; that is, they were not written by the researcher, and verb-noun collocations were underlined in these sentences. Nine items were used as distractors in order to prevent students' focusing on only make/do collocations. Students were asked to decide whether underlined parts were correct or incorrect.

Specific materials were prepared by the researcher for the input and negative evidence treatments. Target make/do collocations were placed into the reading texts and materials used in the input flood condition. Reading texts were used in the language activities in which students found irrelevant sentences (see Appendix C), put the sentences into correct order (scrambled paragraphs- see Appendix D), and decided whether the sentences are true or false (see Appendix E). A two-choice test which consists of 25 items was prepared by the researcher (see Appendix F). The test questions were required different type of knowledge such as the knowledge of simple conjunctions, comparatives, verbs, adjectives, tenses and some questions were in the format of incomplete sentence test which you should finish according to content integrity. However, the real aim was to make students see the target make/do collocations many times. The game „Find someone who…' was adapted for the aim of the study (see Appendix G) and students were asked to find the ones described in the sentences and write their names. There were 13 sentences but ten of them involved the target make/do collocations. The distribution of the target make/do collocations in these materials wasn't fixed but students were exposed to the same collocation six times totally; that is, frequency of each make/collocation was standardized. As the tests, the reading texts, other materials used in the input flood treatment were prepared by the researcher by

using the reading-exercise books or the sources on the Net, they were controlled by two professors and the content validity of the test was confirmed.

For the negative evidence treatment, a lesson plan was prepared by the researcher (see Appendix H). Five sentences were prepared to start the lesson with a conscious-raising activity. Collocation maps were used to show the differences between the use of „make' and 'do'. Odd-one-out and word pool exercises were used to strengthen the explicit instruction of make/do collocations and to practise these collocations.

## 3.3. Data Collection

Make/do collocations were chosen as the target words of the study since students had tendency to misuse make/do collocations in the classroom activities. Besides, make/do collocations were shown as a good starting point for introducing the notion of collocations to language learners (Woolard, 2000).

Three intact classes of a state school were included in the research. As the subjects in these classes came from similar educational and sociocultural background, it was assumed that their levels of English were similar. Besides, it was not possible to regroup the students since the study was conducted in a state school. Because of these reasons, classes were randomly assigned to groups: one class as input flood group, one class as negative evidence group, and one class as control group. Treatment groups were instructed by the researcher of the study.

The pre-test which consisted of four subtests were administered before the treatment and students' knowledge of make/do collocations were tested at both production and recognition levels. The allocated time for this test was two hours of English lesson, eighty minutes. This test was also used as the immediate posttest and delayed posttest after reordering the items of each test. However, the order of delivering these tests didn't change. The translation test, cloze test, grouping test, and correct/incorrect test were given respectively and the order of these subtests were also important. Production

tests were given before the recognition tests. If the recognition tests were given first, students could remember the information written in those tests and use in the other tests; that is, copy the information.

The first experimental group, input flood group, received the input flood treatment in two-week period. According to the activity, the whole lesson or only the last twenty-five minutes of regular class time was used for this treatment. In the first session of the input flood treatment which lasted forty minutes, students read nine short texts and their comprehension were checked with a true/false activity. They only had to read the target collocations and understand them to do the true/false activity; they weren't asked to produce the target collocations. Students' answers were checked and necessary explanations were provided when they had difficulty in deciding why a sentence was true or false. In the second session of the input flood treatment which lasted forty minutes, the students unscrambled the sentences of ten short paragraphs. After they had finished the activity by themselves, the right order for each paragraph was discussed. The focus was on the meaning like the first activity. In the third session of the input flood treatment which lasted twenty-five minutes, the game „Find someone who….' in which they try to find friends who make a big mistake or do sport, etc was introduced. The sentences were written on the board and necessary instructions were given. They were free to walk around the class. Students asked each other the question „Which one are you?' and answered the question by only saying the number of sentences which describe them. They also wrote down the names of those who were suitable for each sentence as if it was a survey. The students didn't produce the target collocations but they had to read and understand them in order to decide which ones were describing themselves and later to answer the question „Which one are you?'. After their talking to each other, the teacher asked the names which students could write for each sentence. In the fourth session which lasted twenty-five minutes, the test including twenty-five questions which require different knowledge and skills was given. After they had finished the test, the answers were discussed. In the last session which lasted twenty-five minutes, students found the sentences which don't fit into the coherence of the paragraphs. By the help of these activities, students' exposure to make/do collocations

was increased. Each target make/do collocation was used six times but the researcher didn't attract the students' attention to these collocations deliberately.

The second experimental group, the negative evidence group, was explicitly instructed on make/do collocations. It lasted two-hour English lesson; that is, 80 minutes. First of all, five sentences with collocation errors were written on the board and the students were asked to find these errors in the sentences but they were not told what kind of error they should find. The aim of starting the lesson in this way was to create some degree of consciousness about the possible and impossible language use and verb-noun collocations. Later, the difference between „make' and „do' was presented by using the collocation maps and by giving brief explanations. Lastly, they were given specific collocation exercises to practise make/do collocations such as odd-one-out exercise in which students find the noun which can't be used with the given verb (make or do) and word pool exercise in which students put cross on the nouns which cannot be used with the verb at the centre and find the possible combinations with that verb. Although the focus was on make/do collocations in which „make' and „do' had the meaning of „yapmak' in Turkish, students were warned that they would see these verbs with different words and these verbs would gain different meanings rather than „yapmak'. By the help of the instruction and collocation exercises, students were expected to understand that these two verbs which have the same equivalence in Turkish have different area of use and cannot be used interchangeably; and they were expected to learn what is unacceptable in terms of make/do collocations and to destabilize their errors.

The control group neither read any texts with increased number of make/do collocations nor received any explicit instruction on make/do collocations. They attended in their regular English lessons throughout the study. The teacher of the control group followed the course book of Ministry of Education, "Let's Speak English 7", for 7th grade students. During the time of the study, the teacher of the control group neither did any exercises about make/do collocations nor focused on the make/do collocations deliberately. However, students in the control group may have encountered with

make/do collocations in their course books throughout the study, since some example sentences used in the presentation of other topics included make/do collocations.

A day after the treatment, the immediate posttest which took two-class-hour was administered to both treatment groups in order to compare the effects of different treatments in handling students' make/do problems and to see whether students have improvements in their recognition and production of make/do collocations. This test included the same questions with the pretest but the items of each test were in a different order.

The delayed posttest, which included the same questions with the pretest but in a different order, was given to the students three weeks later in order to see the long-term effects of the treatments. The allocated time for this was the same as the pretest and immediate posttest.

### 3.4. Data Analysis

The scoring of the Translation Test, Cloze Test, Grouping Test and Correct/Incorrect Test was done by giving one point to each correct answer. For example, the subjects were given 1 point for each correct decision and 0 point for incorrect decision in the correct-incorrect test. As there were 23 target make/do collocations, the highest score a student would get from each test was 23. Data were analyzed statistically by using SPSS 15.0 for windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL., USA). The level of statistical significance was accepted as 0.05.

Firstly, graphical techniques and Kolmogorow-Smirnov, Shapiro-Wilks tests were used to determine the normality of the data distribution. As a result of graphical techniques and statistical analysis with Kolmogorow-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests, it was found that the scores didn't have normal distribution so non-parametric tests were used for data analysis. Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test, which is alternative non-parametric method of paired sample t-test, was used to answer the first, second and third research

questions. The within-group comparisons between pretest and immediate posttest scores; immediate posttest and delayed posttest scores; and pretest and delayed posttest scores were conducted by Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test according to the scores students got from the production and recognition tests. In order to answer the fourth and fifth research questions, Mann–Whitney U test was used to demonstrate the difference in the production and recognition tests between input flood group and control group, and negative evidence group and control group respectively. The short-term and long-term effects of the treatment types were compared with the control group as a result of these between-group comparisons.

# CHAPTER IV

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## 4.1. Results

This study set out to investigate whether input flood and negative evidence is effective in promoting the learning of make/do collocations by 7th grade EFL students at Ziya Gökalp Primary School in Hendek. While input flood treatment was given as scattered into two-week period, negative evidence treatment was given in two consecutive lessons. The students in the input flood treatment read short texts, solved a test and played a game but there was no explicit teaching of make/do collocations as in the negative evidence treatment. The data obtained from the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest were analyzed in order to find the effects of different treatments in promoting the learning of make/do collocations.

Table 4.1 presents the basic features of the data such as the mean, median scores and standard deviations, and describes what's going on in the data of this study. When the mean scores were checked, the change in scores from pretest to immediate posttest, immediate posttest to delayed posttest and pretest to delayed posttest as well as the difference between input flood-control and negative evidence-control groups in terms of this change can be noticed. For example, the mean score of the input flood group from production tests was 10.53 in the pretest, but it increased to 22.7 in the immediate posttest. On the other hand, the mean score of the negative evidence group from production tests was 3.52 in the pretest, but it increased to 18.26 in the immediate posttest. The increase in terms of production was less in the control group than the treatment groups. The mean score of the control group from production tests was 2.17 in the pretest and it increased to 5.53 in the immediate posttest. However, it may be

misleading to look at only the mean scores while deciding on the effectiveness of the treatments and compare the treatments with the control group, since some data weren't normally distributed. In order to find whether differences were statistically significant or not, non-parametric tests were administered in this study. Using non-parametric tests instead of parametric tests was due to the fact that some data weren't normally distributed. The results of this statistical analysis done by using non-parametric tests will be given in the following sections.

**Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics for the Input Flood, Negative Evidence and Control Groups**

| | | Pretest | | | Immediate Posttest | | | Delayed Posttest | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **Mean** | **Median** | **SD** | **Mean** | **Median** | **SD** | **Mean** | **Median** | **SD** |
| **Input Flood** | **Production Tests** | 10.53 | 10.00 | 3.06 | 22.07 | 21.00 | 4.71 | 19.67 | 20.00 | 6.18 |
| | **Recognition Tests** | 22.17 | 22.00 | 3.06 | 24.37 | 24.50 | 3.85 | 25.23 | 25.00 | 3.71 |
| **Negative Evidence** | **Production Tests** | 3.52 | 2.00 | 3.22 | 18.26 | 16.00 | 12.10 | 13.90 | 12.00 | 10.26 |
| | **Recognition Tests** | 19.84 | 20.00 | 5.20 | 27.77 | 28.00 | 9.61 | 24.90 | 25.00 | 9.42 |
| **Control** | **Production Tests** | 2.17 | 2.00 | 1.62 | 5.53 | 5.00 | 3.68 | 2.37 | 1.00 | 2.75 |
| | **Recognition Tests** | 18.60 | 18.50 | 4.28 | 19.93 | 20.00 | 4.63 | 17.63 | 18.00 | 5.78 |

### 4.1.1. Within-Group Comparison in terms of the Pretest, Immediate Posttest and Delayed Posttest

The pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest scores of each group were compared within the group in order to find whether presenting make/do collocations by using input flood or negative evidence technique help 7$^{th}$ grade EFL students improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations. The comparisons were conducted according to the production and recognition distinction. The data were analyzed by Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test.

**Table 4.2. Within-Group Comparison of the Change from Pretest to Posttests**

| | | Pretest - Immediate Posttest | | Immediate Posttest - Delayed Posttest | | Pretest - Delayed Posttest | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **Z** | **p** | **Z** | **p** | **Z** | **p** |
| **Input Flood (N=30)** | **Production Tests** | 4.789 | **.000*** | 2.503 | **.012*** | 4.784 | **.000*** |
| | **Recognition Tests** | 3.107 | **.002*** | .969 | .333 | 3.310 | **.001*** |
| **Negative Evidence (N=31)** | **Production Tests** | 4.743 | **.000*** | 3.336 | **.001*** | 4.703 | **.000*** |
| | **Recognition Tests** | 4.031 | **.000*** | 2.254 | **.024*** | 2.599 | **.009*** |
| **Control (N=30)** | **Production Tests** | 4.270 | **.000*** | 3.726 | **.000*** | .180 | .857 |
| | **Recognition Tests** | 1.335 | .182 | 1.997 | **.046*** | .542 | .588 |

*Note.*p* < .05*

### 4.1.1.1 Comparisons for the Input Flood Group

Table 4.2 shows whether the students' scores in the flood group significantly changed or not according to the Pretest, Immediate Posttest and Delayed Posttest. When we looked at the scores from the production and recognition distinction, the change was

significant in the production and recognition levels. This result suggests that students in the input flood group could improve their knowledge of make/do collocations in the production and recognition levels by the help of input flood treatment.

It was expected that there would be a decrease in the scores of the delayed posttest when compared with the scores of the immediate posttest. In other words, it was expected that students would forget the things they learnt in three week time between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest. This assumption wasn't thoroughly confirmed because a significant decrease was only found for the production level. This means that the effect of input flood on retention was strong in terms of recognition.

When the pretest and delayed posttest scores were compared in order to find the total gain through input flood, the results demonstrate that input flood could expand students' knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of production and recognition of them.

### 4.1.1.2. Comparisons for the Negative Evidence Group

As Table 4.2 shows, there was a significant difference between pretest and immediate posttest scores of the negative evidence group for each level. Results demonstrate that negative evidence treatment improved students' knowledge of make/do collocations both in the production and recognition levels.

Table 4.2 shows that both production and recognition scores decreased significantly in the delayed posttest. This means that the improvement in terms of production and recognition owing to the negative evidence treatment disappeared to some extent.

When the pretest and delayed posttest scores were compared in order to find the total gain through negative evidence treatment, it was found that there was still a significant difference between pretest and delayed posttest scores of the negative evidence group in both production and recognition levels. Although students' scores didn't remain

unchanged within interval between immediate posttest and delayed posttest, the total gain in terms of the knowledge make/do collocations were still significant.


### 4.1.1.3. Comparisons for the Control Group

The control group was included in the study in order to see whether students could acquire make/do collocations without exposing them any specific treatment about make/do collocations. Thus, a significant increase was not expected in their posttest scores. In contrary to this assumption, results show that there was a significant difference in their production scores between the pretest and the posttest administered with two week interval (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 displays that the decrease from immediate posttest to delayed posttest was statistically significant both in the production and recognition levels. Although students in the control group performed better in the production tests of the immediate posttest, they couldn't keep their production scores at the same level and their production scores decreased significantly in the delayed posttest.

The change of the scores in the control group from pretest to delayed posttest was examined in order to see whether there was a significant increase in their knowledge of make/do collocations at the end of the experiment. In other words, it was checked whether they significantly improved their knowledge of make/do collocations without any treatment or not. It was found that they couldn't improve their knowledge of make/do collocations without any treatment. Table 4.2 indicates that the change in their pretest and delayed posttest score was not statistically significant for production and recognition levels.

**4.1.2. Between-Group Comparison in terms of the Pretest, Immediate Posttest and Delayed Posttest**

In order to see whether there was any significant difference between input flood-control group and negative evidence-control group in terms of production and recognition levels, data were analyzed by Mann–Whitney U Test.

As seen in Table 4.3, there was a significant difference between input flood and control group, and negative evidence and control group in terms of the change in their production scores from pretest to immediate posttest. The mean ranks showed that this significant difference came out due to the higher scores of input flood and negative evidence groups. This result suggests that input flood and negative evidence treatments were both effective in terms of improving students' productive knowledge of make/do collocations when compared with the control group. The results of the comparisons with the control group were different in terms of recognition of make/do collocations. While a significant difference was found in the comparison of the negative evidence group with the control group, a significant difference wasn't found in the comparison of the input flood group with the control group. However, these were the short time effects of the treatments since the immediate posttest was administered a day after the treatments. Three weeks later the delayed posttest was administered in order to look at the long term effects.

Table 4.3 also shows the between-group comparisons according to the change from immediate posttest to delayed posttest. The long-term effects of the treatments were found by looking at this change. In all groups, a decrease was expected from immediate posttest to delayed posttest but it was important to find out whether there was any significant difference between groups in terms of this decrease. As seen in Table 4.3, the decrease in the control group's recognition scores was significantly more than the decrease in the input flood group. The decrease rate of the negative group wasn't statistically different from the control group in terms of production and recognition.

**Table 4.3. Comparison of the Treatment Groups with the Control Group of the Change from Pretest to Posttests**

| | | Groups | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks | Z | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Pretest-Immediate Posttest** | **Production Tests** | Input Flood | 30 | 43.18 | 1295.5 | 5.639 | **.000*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 17.82 | 534.5 | | |
| | | Negative Evidence | 31 | 40.68 | 1261.0 | 4.338 | **.000*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 21.00 | 630.0 | | |
| | **Recognition Tests** | Input Flood | 30 | 31.73 | 952.0 | .549 | .583 |
| | | Control | 30 | 29.27 | 878.0 | | |
| | | Negative Evidence | 31 | 38.05 | 1179.5 | 3.162 | **.002*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 23.72 | 711.5 | | |
| **Immediate Posttest-Delayed Posttest** | **Production Tests** | Input Flood | 30 | 30.78 | 923.5 | .126 | .900 |
| | | Control | 30 | 30.22 | 906.5 | | |
| | | Negative Evidence | 31 | 30.32 | 940.0 | .304 | .761 |
| | | Control | 30 | 31.70 | 951.0 | | |
| | **Recognition Tests** | Input Flood | 30 | 35.78 | 1073.5 | 2.350 | **.019*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 25.22 | 756.5 | | |
| | | Negative Evidence | 31 | 29.74 | 922.0 | .565 | .572 |
| | | Control | 30 | 32.30 | 969.0 | | |
| **Pretest-Delayed Posttest** | **Production Tests** | Input Flood | 30 | 43.88 | 1316.5 | 5.950 | **.000*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 17.12 | 513.5 | | |
| | | Negative Evidence | 31 | 42.89 | 1329.5 | 5.333 | **.000*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 18.72 | 561.5 | | |
| | **Recognition Tests** | Input Flood | 30 | 35.52 | 1065.5 | 2.230 | **.026*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 25.48 | 764.5 | | |
| | | Negative Evidence | 31 | 35.92 | 1113.5 | 2.204 | **.028*** |
| | | Control | 30 | 25.92 | 777.5 | | |

*Note.*p < .05

The change from pre-test to delayed posttest was important because the improvement of students in make/do collocations could be seen by looking at this change. In terms of production and recognition of make/do collocations, significant progress was seen both in the input flood and negative evidence groups but not in the control group (see Table 4.2). The total gain as a result of different treatments was compared with the control group by Mann–Whitney U test. In terms of recognition of make/do collocations, the change in the input flood group's scores from pretest to immediate posttest didn't statistically differ from the control group' scores (see Table 4.3). However, input flood performed significantly better in the delayed posttest than the control group, so the total gain through input flood in terms of recognizing make/do collocations was significantly higher than the control group. In terms of recognition and production of make/do collocations, there was difference between input flood and control group, and negative evidence and control group and this was found as statistically significant (see Table 4.3). The significance value (p value) of the difference between the treatment groups and control group was higher in the production level than the recognition level. To sum up, these findings suggest that both treatments were effective in improving students' production and recognition of make/do collocations when compared with the control group.

## 4.2. Discussion

This study focused on make/do collocations and tried to find the short-term and long-term effects of input flood and negative evidence in improving students' knowledge of make/do collocations. In order to answer the research questions, the data obtained from the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest were used in within-group comparisons and between-group comparisons. The distinction between the knowledge at the production and recognition level was taken into consideration while answering all the research questions.

While Test 1 and Test 2 were used to measure the production level of make/do collocations, Test 3 and Test 4 were used to measure the recognition level of make/do

collocations. Translation Test (Test 1) required students to know the meaning of individual words which make up the collocation and decide which verb „make' or 'do' will be used with the noun in that collocation. In other words, students had to remember the noun and the verb to be used with it without any clue. On the other hand, Cloze Test (Test 2) was more difficult because it was context-dependent. There were blanks where „make' or „do' and other verbs would be written. Students had to understand the context and decide the verb which can be written to the given blank. Grouping Test (Test 3) was not context-dependent; there were three verbs and 29 nouns. Students had to group the nouns according to the verb. The third verb was used for reducing the chance factor in this test. The chance factor was higher in the Correct/Incorrect Test (Test 4) when compared with Grouping Test (Test 3). However, in the Correct/Incorrect Test, students should recognize the make/do collocations in a sentence as different from Grouping Test.

The first research question was "Does presenting make/do collocations by using input flood technique help $7^{th}$ grade EFL students improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations?". Results of the immediate posttest demonstrated that presenting make/do collocations by using input flood technique helped students improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of production and recognition. As the immediate posttest was administered only one day after the treatment, the change from pretest to immediate posttest showed us the effects of input flood in the short term. When we looked at the statistical analysis, the improvement in the short term by input flood treatment was significant for the production level (Z=4.789; p<0.001) and recognition level (Z=3.107; p=0.002) but the significance value was a bit higher in the production level.

As a result of the analysis for the change in the input flood group from immediate posttest to delayed posttest, it was seen that students couldn't produce the make/do collocations in the delayed posttest as in the immediate posttest. While there wasn't a significant decrease in the recognition level (Z=0.969; p=0.333), there was a significant decrease in the production level (Z=2.503; p=0.012). Students in the input flood generally saw the target make/do collocations in the short texts and they were involved

in the activities which require text comprehension. However, these students in the input flood group didn't have conscious learning in terms of make/do collocations, so Translation Test was more difficult for them than the Cloze Test. They could use the verbs „make' and „do' in right combinations by filling the blanks in the texts as in the immediate posttest without any significant decrease but they couldn't translate the Turkish collocations into English in the delayed posttest as in the immediate posttest. They may have hesitated to write the things they've learnt or they may have confused the collocation by writing without having any textual cue.

The change from pretest to delayed posttest revealed the long term effects of the input flood and results demonstrated that students in the input flood group significantly increased their scores from pretest to delayed posttest in terms of production (Z=4.784; p<0.001) and recognition (Z=3.310; p=0.001). In other words, input flood resulted in improvement in terms of production and recognition.

The second research question was "Does presenting make/do collocations by using negative evidence technique help 7th grade EFL students improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations?". Results from pretest to immediate posttest indicated that negative evidence treatment was effective in improving students' collocational knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of recognition and production. There was a significant progress from pretest to immediate posttest in terms of production (Z=4.743; p<0.001) and recognition (Z=4.031; p<0.001).

When the long-term effects of the negative evidence was checked by looking at the change in the scores from immediate posttest to delayed posttest, it was found that students significantly forgot the things they've learnt in terms of production (Z=3.336; p=0.001) and recognition (Z=2.254; p=0.024). This means that it didn't have too much durable effect. In spite of this, the progress in the long term through negative evidence was still significant in terms of production (Z=4.703; p<0.001) and recognition (Z=2.599; p=0.009) as seen in the change from pretest to delayed posttest. Even though these findings suggest that negative evidence was effective in expanding students' knowledge of collocations in terms of recognition and production, the decrease after

three weeks from the immediate posttest needs to be taken into consideration because it may be a signal of the probable decrease which may go on in the following weeks.

The third research question was "Do students in the control group improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations without exposing them any specific treatment?" The control group was included in the study in order to see whether students could deal with the problem of make/do collocations in the normal run of English lessons and could improve their knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of recognition and production without being exposed to any treatment on make/do collocations. It was found that students extended their knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of production within the time from pretest to immediate posttest. The results showed that there was significant progress in their Translation Test scores and Cloze Test scores ($Z=4.270$; $p<0.001$), whereas there was not a significant increase in their Grouping Test scores and Correct/Incorrect Test scores ($Z=1.335$; $p=0.182$). A significant increase was seen in the production scores of the control group from pretest to immediate posttest but they couldn't show the same achievement in the delayed posttest so their Translation and Cloze Test scores significantly decreased ($Z=3.726$; $p<0.001$). As a result, the increase from pretest to delayed posttest was not significant in terms of production ($Z=0.180$; $p=0.857$) and recognition of make/do collocations ($Z=0.542$; $p=0.588$). There was not a significant improvement in the long term and only small number of students could improve themselves in terms of make/do collocations. This result suggests that the students can extend their knowledge of collocations to some extend during the term according to the material they are presented in the normal run of the English lessons but if there aren't any deliberate intervention as in the input flood treatment of this study or they are not instructed on these collocations as in the study, the learning will have short-term effects.

The fourth research question was "Do students in the input flood group improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations in comparison to the control group?". When the short-term effects of the input flood and control group were compared by looking at the change from pretest to immediate posttest, it was found that there was significant difference between them only in terms of production ($Z=5.639$; $p<0.001$).

The improvement in their recognition of make/do collocations was not significantly different from each other (Z=0.549; p=0.583). The recognition scores of the input flood and control groups may have been influenced by the Correct/Incorrect Test. Students in these groups may have been confused by the words between the make/do collocations in some items such as "The acrobat in the circus made dangerous acrobatics and impressed many people". In addition, they may not have decided easily what was correct or incorrect because the underlined parts may sound as correct in a sentence. As they didn't have a conscious learning of make/do collocations, it seems that giving decisions about correctness was difficult for them. While some students in the control group increased their recognition scores in the immediate posttest, some students decreased their scores. Although there was a progress in the control group in terms of recognition, it wasn't statistically significant since there were posttest scores which were considerably lower than the pretest scores in the recognition level. In contrary to this, there weren't such scores in the input flood group, so a significant difference was found within the input flood group in terms of the change from pretest to immediate posttest. When the input flood and control groups were compared with each other, the input flood group wasn't found as significantly different from the control group because the increase in each groups' recognition scores from pretest to immediate posttest wasn't statistically different from one another.

When the input flood and control groups were compared in terms of the change from pretest to delayed posttest, a significant difference was found in terms of production (Z=5.950; p<0.001) and recognition (Z=2.230; p=0.026) . While recognition scores of control group deteriorated in the delayed posttest, recognition scores of input flood group didn't decrease significantly. Thus, the improvement of the input flood group throughout the experiment was significantly higher in terms of recognition and production of make/do collocations.

The fifth research question was "Do students in the negative evidence group improve their collocational knowledge of make/do collocations in comparison to the control group?". Students in the negative evidence and control groups significantly increased their production scores in the immediate posttest. When their production scores were

compared with each other, it was found that there was a significant difference in favour of negative evidence group (Z=4.338; p<0.001). Students in the negative evidence group significantly increased their recognition scores in the immediate posttest but control group couldn't. Thus, when they were compared with each other in terms of recognition tests, there was a significant difference in favour of negative evidence group (Z=3.162; p=0.002). Besides, the improvement of the negative evidence group throughout the experiment was significantly higher in terms of recognition and production of make/do collocations.

The results of this study are consistent with the previous studies which involve explicit and implicit treatments for teaching a lexical item (Beltran, 2004; Laufer, 2006; Nakata, 2007). In Beltran's study (2004), both implicit treatment in the form of an input flood and explicit treatment of the linguistic feature were shown to validate their methodological potential to actually modify the learners' erroneous analysis and to help in the learning of complex lexical items. Similarly, Laufer (2006) had two groups of participants in his study: „Focus on Form' group read a text containing the target words, discussed it in small groups, and answered comprehension questions, whereas „Focus on Forms' group studied the target words as discrete items with their meanings and examples of usage. Results of this study demonstrated that focus on form and focus on forms were both beneficial in the learning of twelve target words. Moreover, Nakata (2007) focused on collocations and concluded that collocations, especially non-congruent items, cannot be acquired easily through mere exposure and are amenable to form-focused, intentional learning. However, Nakata (2007:164) states that "Even though collocation learning under the meaning-focused condition yielded only a small gain in the learners' collocational knowledge, the cumulative gain might be enormous when they read regularly and repeatedly".

The relation between exposing learners to necessary input involving the target features and learners' noticing and learning those features is complicated. Ellis (1999) talked about Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1981) and Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990) in his review of input-based approaches for teaching grammar and emphasized the main distinction between these hypotheses. The distinction emphasized by Ellis (1999) is that

Schmidt doesn't believe that learners can detect linguistic features in the input subconsciously despite he thinks that learners don't have to make a conscious decision to learn; that is, learners can learn incidentally as claimed by Krashen. According to Schmidt (1990), learners must be conscious of what they attend to. The possibility of noticing an item and integrating it into the interlanguge system is closely related to the frequency of an item in the input. In this study, it was found that input flood (increasing the number of incidence in the input) resulted in significant improvement in terms of the knowledge of make/do collocations. By this way, the claim regarding the frequency of an item in the input was partially supported by the results of this study in favor of input flood. However, the finding in the present study regarding the short-term effects of the treatments showed that the progress in the input flood group in terms of recognition wasn't significantly higher than the control group, whereas the progress in the negative evidence group in terms of recognition was significantly higher than the control group. This can be explained as Seiba (2001) did in his study for less successful performance of Focus on Form Instruction including only input flood but not explicit negative evidence/feedback. He claimed that noticing the target form may not be sufficient for input to become intake. Similarly, students in the input flood group of the present study may have noticed the target features but exposing them to the target make/do collocations six times without drawing their attention to these target collocations was not enough to influence the learners' interlanguage. It was seen that students had still difficulty in deciding the nouns to use „make' or 'do' since they couldn't realize the difference between them thoroughly. This result suggests that while dealing with these kinds of verbs and their collocations, it is necessary to emphasize them in order to raise the necessary consciousness.

When we deal with the words which students confuse or make errors due to the differences in their L1, it is generally claimed that explicit instruction might yield better results. There are studies which cannot find the significant effect of input flood by itself and support more explicit treatment types (Williams and Evans, 1998; Seiba, 2001; EĞ, 2003; Laufer, 2006). According to some scholars such as Trahey and White (1993) and Seiba (2001), the acquisition may not be triggered by positive evidence and/or input enhancement alone during negation of meaning activities but it may be triggered by

negative evidence in addition to positive evidence. Laufer (2006) doesn't reject the idea of learning from exposure to input or during communicative activities, but he found that the FonFs (Focus on FormS) condition yielded significantly higher scores than FonF (Focus on Form) in terms of learning new L2 words. Similarly, Beltran (2004)'s study showed that an explicit focus on form was more beneficial than the implicit one in the learning complex lexical items. Based on the findings of his study in which he compared the effectiveness of two vocabulary techniques for noticeably difficult and misleading vocabulary for Spanish speakers, Beltran (2004:73) states that "in the classroom context, it is more expeditious to provide the L1 translation of unknown words with a formal similarity to the L1, which are potentially problematic, than an implicit treatment by means of input flood".

Similar to the studies above, the negative evidence treatment in this study provided significant improvement in terms of make/do collocations. There seems to be a consensus among researchers that negative evidence or explicit instruction which raise the learners' awareness of the L1–L2 differences should be provided in teaching of problematic lexical items or forms due to the effects of L1. The findings of the study are consistent with this common conclusion. However, as stated by Norris and Ortega (2000), the conclusion that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction has to be interpreted with caution in terms of durability. The fact that there are not satisfactory studies in terms of durability of explicit and implicit instruction was mentioned in the reviews of Truscott (1998) and Tode (2007). Truscott (1998:119) states "Of the studies that reported beneficial effects for form-focused instruction, very many did not use any follow-up testing". Although some studies which found benefits of form-focused instruction in the short term, they couldn't find it in the long run (i.e. Harley, 1989; White, 1991). Sprang (2003) examined the potentially facilitative effects of concept-based instruction and/or input flood over extensive reading alone for the acquisition of the meanings of German inseparable prefixes (be- and er-) and prefixed words and he also examined the long-term effect of the treatments in his study. The results of his study demonstrated that learners in the concept group benefited significantly in their understanding of the meanings of the prefixes despite learners in all groups showed gains in prefixed word knowledge over time. Tode (2007)

investigated the durability of the effect of explicit and implicit instructions on beginning EFL learners' learning of the copula *be*. Explicit instruction of the English copula *be* for Japanese junior high school learners is effective in the short term. Implicit instruction is not effective in the short term and in the long term. Thus, Tode (2007) suggests that explicit instruction must include some adjustments to retain its effect.

The long-term effects of the treatments -input flood and negative evidence- were also examined in this study by including a delayed posttest which was administered three weeks after the treatments. The results showed that students in the negative evidence group significantly forgot the things they've learnt in terms of recognition (Z=2.254; p=0.024) and production of make/do collocations (Z=3.336; p=0.001); that is, negative evidence didn't have long-lasting effects in terms of recognition and production. Students in the negative evidence group had significant improvement in their ability to recognize and produce make/do collocations after negative evidence treatment but all the things they've learnt were not permanent as inferred from the decrease in their recognition scores from immediate posttest to delayed posttest. However, input flood had more long-lasting effects in terms of recognition. Although there was a significant decrease from the immediate posttest to delayed posttest in terms of production in the input flood group, there wasn't in terms of recognition level. It seems that some students went on extending their knowledge in terms of recognition during the period from immediate posttest to delayed posttest, so these students increased their recognition scores in the delayed posttest. This can be explained by the basis constituted by input flood for further learning. Students in the input flood group had seen each target collocations six times during the treatment, but students may have encountered with those target collocations again in three-week period from immediate posttest to delayed posttest. Therefore, their recognition level with regards to those collocations may have increased in parallel to the frequency of meeting those target collocations.

In terms of the ability to produce make/do collocations, both treatments didn't have long-lasting effects as inferred from the significant decrease in the students' production scores of both groups from immediate posttest to delayed posttest. Thus, neither students in the input flood nor the students in the negative evidence group could keep all

the learnt knowledge as the day they've learnt with regards to producing the make/do collocations. Although there was a significant decrease in both groups in terms of production, the progress was still significant from pretest to delayed posttest. The gain achieved by both input flood and negative evidence treatments from pretest to delayed posttest was significant in terms of the ability to produce and recognize the target make/do collocations.

Both negative evidence and input flood seem as effective techniques in improving student's knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of production and recognition. However, this result should be interpreted with caution, since a significant decrease was found in production scores of both groups in the delayed posttest. If there is a significant decrease after three weeks following the treatment, it is highly possible that this decrease may continue in the following weeks. Unless additional treatments weren't provided, students in the negative evidence group may go on their significant decrease in terms of recognition and production.

# CHAPTER V

# CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

## 5.1. Summary of the Study

This study aimed at finding the short-term and long-term effects of input flood and negative evidence techniques in increasing students' recognition and production levels of make/do collocations. Three seventh grade classes participated in the study: two classes as experimental groups and one as control group. Pretest which consists of four different tests was administered to see what they know about make/do collocations. While Translation Test and Cloze Test were used to measure the production level, Grouping Test and Correct/Incorrect Test were used to measure the recognition level. Each target make/do collocations were seen six times during the input flood treatment and the focus wasn't on the collocations. Students in the input flood group read short texts to decide whether the given sentences are true or false; unscrambled the paragraphs, found the irrelevant sentences in paragraphs, completed a test and played the game „Find someone who…' in two consecutive weeks. On the other hand, students in the negative evidence group were instructed on the make/do collocations by using collocations rules in two consecutive lessons and some general rules were presented. The treatment was finished with two collocation exercises, odd-one-out and word pool. The tests used in the pretest were administered a day after the treatments in the same order as immediate posttest but the items of each test were reordered. Three weeks after the immediate posttest a delayed posttest was conducted.

The findings of the study demonstrated that both input flood and negative evidence helped students extend their knowledge of collocations in terms of production and recognition. Thus, the answer of first and second research questions is „YES'. The

results of the study suggest that it is not possible to expect students significantly expand their knowledge of make/do collocations in the normal run of the English lessons. Students may increase their knowledge of make/do collocations during some periods of the year as seen in the increase of production scores of control group from pretest to immediate posttest but the increase will not be substantial gain and it will not durable. Thus, the answer of third research question is „NO'.

When we compared the effects of two treatments with the control group in the short term, input flood wasn't significantly different from the control group in terms of recognizing the make/do collocations, but negative evidence was. However, both input flood and negative evidence groups were significantly different from the control group in terms of producing the target make/do collocations in the short term. When we compared the effects of two treatments with the control group in the long term, input flood and negative evidence had superiority over the control group in terms of producing and recognizing the target make/do collocations. When we looked at the mean ranks, input flood and negative evidence had higher mean ranks in terms of production and recognition. To sum up, input flood and negative evidence helped students more in terms of extending their knowledge of make/do collocations when compared to control group. That is, the answer of the fourth and fifth research questions is „YES'.

## 5.2. Pedagogical Implications

This study was carried out with $7^{th}$ grade students of a state school in Turkey and it intended to investigate the effects of input flood and negative evidence in extending students' knowledge of collocations. Also, a control group was included in the study in order to observe the period in which any treatment regarding the make/do collocations wasn't provided.

Based on the findings of the study, the first pedagogical implication is that students can't easily realize the combinations they will use with „make' or 'do' by themselves in

the normal run of English lessons; that is, a special treatment is required if we want our students to use „make' and 'do' in right collocations. We cannot disregard the problems the students have in terms of make/do collocations. Thus, the second implication is that class time should be allocated for make/do collocations in the 7th or 8th grade since the problem starts from the years they meet the verbs „make' and 'do' and students should be introduced make/do collocations by taking their levels into consideration. As Woolard (2000) stated, it will be also a good introduction to collocations.

The third pedagogical implication of the study is that both input flood and negative evidence can be used for introducing make/do collocations and extending students' knowledge of make/do collocations. When the distinction between producing and recognizing the make/do collocations is taken into account, input flood treatment can be preferred to negative evidence since it has more long-lasting effects in terms of recognition than negative evidence. Besides, input flood treatment may have additional benefits due to the activities used in the input flood treatment. Even though it is not the concern of this study, the materials in the input flood treatment may be helpful in revising the grammatical rules, improving reading skills, increasing students' willingness to speak in English. Therefore, it may be preferred to explicit rule-based instruction.

Another implication is that both input flood and negative evidence should be supported with additional techniques to obtain the maximum gains from these techniques. As inferred from the significant decrease, giving some rules and then two exercises may seem effective in terms of short-term gains but there should be revisions in different times by a game or output-based activities which make them produce make/do collocations in order to increase its durability. The amount of information they remember in the long-term can be increased by this way. Similarly, input flood can be supported by an output based activity to increase its short term and long-term effect or it can be combined with explicit instruction or negative evidence. If both treatments are combined, it is highly possible that they will create more positive effects because students will have not only seen the target collocations many times in the sentence level and context level by the help of input flood but also noticed these collocations and raise

their awareness in terms of the difference between „make' and 'do' by the help of negative evidence treatments. For example, Seiba (2001) advises the adoption of a particular type of explicit instruction (Explicit Form-Focused) –one which promotes perception (noticing and understanding) of target linguistic features in the input through the provision of explicit negative evidence/feedback in the context of meaning-focused activities. This suggestion may be put into practice while dealing with make/do collocations.

## 5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

The findings of the study are limited to 7th grade students, so a further research can be carried out to find the effects of input flood and negative evidence for extending the knowledge of make/do collocations of students from different grades and data can be collected from a larger group of participants to increase the generalizability of the findings. In this study, three intact classes of a state school were used so regrouping the classes was not possible. The distribution of successful and unsuccessful students in the classes can be balanced in a further research and the study can be replicated. Longitudinal studies in which the development of same students from 6th grade to 8th grade can be searched or cross-sectional studies in which the study can be carried out in different grades at the same time can be designed. This study used a delayed posttest and examined the long-term effects of the treatments as different from many studies but the follow-up time can be lengthened in another study.

It is worthwhile to carry out studies which aim to compare the effects of two techniques –input flood and negative evidence– for improving Turkish EFL students' knowledge of make/do collocations. This study may be a start of the studies which focus on make/do collocations and the way for improving knowledge in this respect can be examined with different research designs. For example, the input flood and negative treatment can be used again but with some adjustments. A third treatment group which combines input flood with negative evidence can be included in the study and the effect of this combination can be searched for make/do collocations. It can be investigated whether

this third treatment group will outperform the input flood and negative evidence groups as happened in the studies which belong to Williams and Evans (1998), Muranoi (2000) and Seiba (2001). For example, Muranoi (2000) found that Japanese EFL learners show much better results in using English articles after receiving an implicit interaction enhancement treatment, but even better when the treatment is supported by explicit formal instruction. Similarly, the results of the Seiba (2001)'s study demonstrated that Focus on Form Instruction together with explicit negative evidence/feedback outperformed the Focus on Form Instruction involving only input flood and input enhancement. Williams and Evans (1998) found that ESL learners who received a flood of positive evidence, plus explicit instruction, plus feedback, significantly outperformed the group which only received a flood of positive evidence, which in turn, outperformed but not significantly, the control group which did not undergo any FonF (Focus on Form) treatment. Instead of adding a third group, some adjustments can be done in input flood and negative evidence treatments and they can be compared. For example, EĢ (2003) found the Input+Output treatment was more effective in learning the target forms. As suggested by Schmidt (1990), the target items in the input can be typographically highlighted in order to make these forms more noticeable for the learners or learners can be exposed to a larger amount of input flood throughout a longer period of time.

## 5.4. Conclusion

"Knowing a word" is really a complex issue and includes many aspects other than knowing its equivalence in L1. Having sufficient collocational knowledge of a word is also important. If knowing the meaning of „make' and 'do' in Turkish was enough, students could use them without any errors. If learners have insufficient collocational knowledge of a word, collocational errors will be inevitable. As the collocational errors are among the significant errors in EFL, the collocations which students generally have problems due to L1 or some other factors can be handled in the language classrooms.

This study tried to address the problems students have in distinguishing the verbs „make' and 'do'. Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, and Lewis' Lexical Approach formed the theoretical basis of this study. The used treatments in the study –input flood and negative evidence- for extending students' knowledge of make/do collocations were based on these two hypotheses and on the suggestion of the scholars who support Lexical Approach (i.e. Ellis, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Hill, 2000; Thornbury, 2002; Nesselhauf, 2003). Rich input and negative evidence are the terms mentioned frequently in the area of grammar teaching, vocabulary teaching, and particularly collocation teaching. However, few studies have addressed the effects of input flood (implicit instruction) and negative evidence (explicit instruction) for teaching collocations or problematic lexical items. Thus, this study investigated the effects of input flood and negative evidence on learning of make/do collocations.

It was found that input flood had promoting effects in the short term in terms of production and recognition and this was statistically significant. However, there wasn't a significant difference from the control group when they were compared in terms of recognition. This result indicates that input flood may not create superior effects at the beginning in comparison to control group. Yet, it was superior to the control group in terms of production. In the long-term, there wasn't a significant loss in the recognition scores of input flood group unlike in the production scores. Yet, the gain through input flood was superior to the control group in both levels at the end of five weeks. Similar to input flood, negative evidence had also promoting effects in increasing students' knowledge of make/do collocations in terms of production and recognition in the short term and this was statistically significant. When compared with the control group, students' performances in the production and recognition tests were significantly better in the negative evidence group. The studies which examined the long-term effects of form-focused instruction (Harley, 1989; White, 1991; Tode, 2007) suggested that form-focused instruction was not effective in the long run. This finding was supported by this study, too. It was found that there was a significant decrease at the recognition and production level in the negative evidence group. Yet, the gain through negative evidence was still superior to the control group in both levels at the end of five weeks.

Consequently, the results of this study reveal that students cannot handle the problems they have in terms of make/do collocations in the normal run of the English lessons as seen in the control group. The gain in negative evidence is not long-lasting in terms of production and recognition, whereas the gain in input flood is not long-lasting in terms of production. The immediate improvement enhanced by input flood treatment and negative evidence treatment cannot be maintained thoroughly. It can be concluded that these treatments need to be adjusted in order to increase their effectiveness and prevent the significant loss in the long term.

## Appendix A

## Target make/do collocations

Make a cake, bread, pizza, sandwiches

Make a list

Make tea, coffee

Make a mistake

Make clothes/ dress/ models/ a sand castle/ tree house

Make an interview

Make a noise

Make plans

Make a reservation

Make a bed

Make a choice

Make a phone call

Do acrobatics/ karate/ high jumping/ handstand/ handspring

Do the ironing/ shopping/ washing/ cooking

Do activities/ training

Do work/ housework

Do exercise

Do a favor

Do homework

Do your best

Do well/ badly

Do the puzzle/ maze

Do something/ something else/ anything/ nothing

## Appendix B

## The Pretest, Immediate Posttest and Delayed Posttest

### TRANSLATION TEST

**Write them in English.**

  **1-** sinemaya gitmek                         _____

  **2-** not almak                                    _____

  **3-** kahvaltı yapmak                    _____

  **4-** ekmek yapmak                       _____

  **5-** çay yapmak                              _____

  **6-** kahve içmek                           _____

  **7-** gürültü yapmak                     _____

  **8-** ev iĢiyapmak                       _____

  **9-** sınavda iyi yapmak               _____

**10-** sözlüğünü ödünç almak        _____

**11-** seçim yapmak                        _____

**12-** liste yapmak                          _____

**13-** temizlik yapmak                 _____

**14-** görüĢme yapmak               _____

**15-** iyilik yapmak                      _____

**16-** erken kalkmak                    _____

**17-** yatak yapmak                      _____

**18-** fotoğraf çekmek                _____

**19-** telefon konuĢması yapmak  _____

**20-** karate yapmak                   _____

**21-** etkinlik yapmak                  _____

**22-** araba satın almak               _____

**23-** egzersiz yapmak                _____

**24-** ödev yapmak        _____

**25-** para biriktirmek        _____

**26-** rezervasyon yapmak        _____

**27-** maket yapmak        _____

**28-** bir şeyler yapmak        _____

**29-** televizyon seyretmek        _____

**30-** bulmaca yapmak        _____

**31-** hata yapmak        _____

**32-** alışveriş yapmak        _____

**33-** plan yapmak        _____

**34-** bisiklete binmek        _____

**35-** elinden gelenin en iyisini yapmak        _____

**CLOZE TEST**

**Fill in the blanks.**

**A)** In school, there was a survey about students' activities outside the school. Students ………. interviews and asked what others do. Playing football is boys' favorite sport. Boy students often ………. this sport. A few boy students prefer ………. basketball to football. Girls generally like ………. the shopping and ………. to the cinema. Some girls have to ………. their mother at home. They ………. their beds and tidy their room. They sometimes ………. the cooking, the cleaning and the ironing. A few girl students ………. physical exercises because they think that they are fat. They go to stadium and ………. for 1 hour but they don't run very fast. Some students like creative works. These students ………. painting or drawing. They also like ………. models. Some students get bored but they like ………. puzzles and maze. Lastly, there are a group of students who don't ………. anything such as playing football or going to cinema. They're hardworking students and these students always ………. their homework and make necessary preparations. They ………. hard for their lessons and exams because they want to ………. well in their exams.

**B)** Sally is very excited because Jane, her childhood friend, wants to visit her. Sally wants to ………. her best for her friend and ………. plans. She remembers that her friend likes cake very much so she starts ………. cake for her friend. She looks at the fridge and ………. a list of the necessary things for the cake. There isn't any butter and eggs for the cake. She ………. her money and leaves the house quickly. After market shopping, she ………. back home but she can't find the key in her bag. She ………. a big mistake and forgets the key at home. She sits there and ………. a phone call to a locksmith service. They come and ………. the door. But Sally is still worried because she wastes too much time and doesn't have enough time to ………. everything by herself. She calls her neighbor and asks "Could you ………. me favor?". Her neighbor helps her and they clean the house, ………. cake and ………. tea. Then, they ………. the dishes. They ………. all the works quickly. Sally thanks her neighbor and begins to wait her friend.

**C)** Mary loves all restaurants, but she has a favorite restaurant. Mary loves to ………. dinner at the Kado Restaurant. This restaurant is very popular with people. It has really good food so it is not easy to ………. a choice in this restaurant. They ………. tea or coffee and serve it to all customers after dinner. There is a special place for families with children. Children ………. noise but other people don't complain. It is difficult to find place at the weekends so people ………. reservation.

**GROUPING TEST**

**Put the words in the right box.**

| a mistake | a seat | a cake | models |
|-----------|--------|--------|--------|
| the dishes | a noise | homework | a choice |
| a list | notes | something | plans |
| a bed | a phone call | karate | an activity |
| housework | a break | an exercise | work |
| well | a puzzle | an interview | coffee |
| a favor | best | a taxi | a reservation |
| the shopping | | | |

| Make | Do | Take |
|------|-----|------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

**CORRECT/INCORRECT TEST**

**Decide whether underlined parts are <u>correct</u> or <u>incorrect</u>.**

1- Ayşe <u>rides a car</u> very well.

2- I will <u>make a list</u> of the things we need.

3- Students can't <u>make the exercises</u> about „Simple Past Tense'.

4- I have a big breakfast every morning. There is always milk at the breakfast table and I like <u>drinking milk</u>.

5- All that matters is that you <u>do your best</u> on the test.

6- I have free time this week so I want to <u>go shopping</u>.

7- Who <u>did</u> this lovely birthday <u>cake</u>?

8- He felt very tired; he <u>made</u> himself <u>a cup of tea</u>.

9- Where did you <u>play tennis</u> last week?

10- Peter <u>made a tree house</u> for his children.

11- My husband <u>makes</u> the grocery <u>shopping.</u>

12- You mustn't <u>do</u> a lot of <u>noise</u> in the class.

13- Could you <u>do the hotel reservation</u> for me?

14- Excuse me, could you <u>make me a favor</u> and watch my bags for a moment?

15- The menu was good so it was difficult for me to <u>make a choice</u>.

16- They want to <u>take a T-shirt</u> but he can't find a cheap one.

17- I only <u>did one mistake</u> in my English test.

18- We've got a difficult homework from English lesson. We have to <u>make interviews</u> about likes and dislikes of people.

19- We're <u>doing plans</u> for our summer holiday.

20- Sue cooks but I <u>do the dishes</u>.

21- Do you <u>make your bed</u> every morning?

22- I think you should <u>drink an aspirin</u> for your headache.

23- Tom's <u>made a phone call</u> at the moment, he'll be back shortly.

24- The acrobat in the circus <u>made</u> dangerous <u>acrobatics</u> and impressed many people.

**25-** I play football, <u>do puzzles</u> and read books at the weekend. I enjoy <u>making these activities</u> a lot.

**26-** I'm afraid I can't come. I'm going to <u>do my homework</u> after school.

**27-** They used to <u>smoke cigarette</u> ten years ago.

**28-** My mother usually <u>makes the housework</u> during the week, but my father does most of the chores on the weekend.

**29-** He <u>does well</u> in the exam and he gets 100 points.

**30-** I'm not <u>making anything</u> today.

**31-** I usually <u>make the cleaning</u> on Saturday morning.

**32-** I'm going to <u>take photographs</u> of the lions at the zoo.

**Appendix C**

**A reading activity which irrelevant sentences were added into short texts for the Input Flood Treatment**

**Find the irrelevant sentences in paragraphs.**

**1)** My mother and father are teachers. My older sister is also a teacher. But I can't make a choice. I want to be a singer or a teacher. I make a list of positive sides. I like children but I also like singing songs. I prefer doing sports. When I finish high school, I will go to school of music or I will go to an education faculty.

**2)** Yesterday wasn't a good day. The weather wasn't very nice. It was cold and raining. The bus wasn't on time. It was late. I was late for work. I made an interview but it was bad. At 1 o'clock I went to a cafe for lunch but the food wasn't hot and the coffee was cold. I left work at 5 o'clock and it started to rain again. I made plans for the evening. I wanted to go to the cinema with my friend. I made a phone call to my friend but my friend didn't come to the cinema. I can't forget the film.

**3)** Every Saturday I get up late. At eleven o'clock I do the shopping at the supermarket. Then I go swimming at the local swimming pool. After that, I have lunch and then do the cleaning at home. In the evening I usually do something with my friends. For example, we make reservation for dinner and go to a restaurant. On Sundays I also get up early and I make my bed. I make myself a cup of tea and make toast for breakfast. I do some exercise. I do the dishes. In the afternoon I do some housework, and then I visit my parents. I don't have to visit my parents. In the evening I have dinner and watch TV. I sometimes read a book in bed.

**4)** Lucy had an English exam last week. She has just had a Turkish exam. She didn't do any work and she studied hard for the English exam. She did her best for the exam but she was ill. She didn't do well in the exam. She forgot the „Simple Present Tense' and she made mistakes.

**5)** Susan is 30 years old. Susan has got two daughters. Alice is ten years old and she likes doing puzzles. She is a good child. Jane is five years old and she likes making models. Jane is noisy and makes a lot of noise. One day Susan went to her mother. Sally, her friend, did a favor and looked after the children. Alice did her homework but Jane started running, jumping, etc. She did dangerous activities. Then, she broke her arm. This was not surprising.

**Appendix D**

**Scrambled Paragraphs used in the Input Flood Treatment**

**Reorder these sentences.**

**(1)**Newspapers make interviews with Jack Nick. **(2)**He does well in his job and people love him. **(3)**He has to do physical exercises every day. **(4)**Jack Nick is a good footballer. **(5)**He says "I help my wife at home and I do some housework".

**(1)**My father makes a phone call and makes reservation for our holiday. **(2)**We make a choice and say "We want to go to İzmir". **(3)**My father asks "Where do you want to go, Antalya or İzmir?". **(4)**Our holiday is coming.

**(1)**My father doesn't do housework but he does something else for the family. **(2)**Everybody has different duties in a family. **(3)**I'm a student so I have to do my best and study hard. **(4)**I have to make my bed and tidy my room. **(5)**My mother does the washing, cleaning, and ironing.

**(1)**Jane's birthday is on Monday. **(2)**She remembers the birthday but it is too late. **(3)**Jane phones and invites her to the birthday party on Monday. **(4)**Her friend forgets it and doesn't make plans for her birthday.

**(1)**But their neighbor came and warned them "Turn off the music. My son is ill. You're making a lot of noise". **(2)**Jane and Lisa are sisters. **(3)**One day, they bought a new CD of Britney Spears and listened to it. **(4)**Jane and Lisa said they were sorry and they turned off the music.

**(1)**Everyday he makes a list of his activities. **(2)**Hasan is 10 years old but he is different from others. **(3)**He likes doing puzzles and doing different activities. **(4)**He likes doing karate but he doesn't like football.


**(1)** OK. And we'll make tea. We'll drink our tea and eat our cake.

**(2)** Of course. How can I help you?

**(3)** I haven't done the dishes yet. Could you wash the dishes, please?

**(4)** Could you do me a favor?

**(5)** Sure. But could you make cake for me this evening?


**(1)**I'm an architect and I love my job. **(2)**I always want to do my best in my job and I hate making mistakes. **(3)**I prefer doing my work to watching TV, going to cinema, etc. **(4)**I usually make models of the buildings and houses.


**(1)**Then, you make a choice and use some questions in the interview. **(2)**It is not easy to make an interview. **(3)**First, you make a list of questions.


**(1)**Could you do me a favor and look after the children? **(2)**Children are making towers with toys in the living room but they're making a lot of noise. **(3)**I'm making tea in the kitchen.

**Appendix E**

**Short Reading Texts with True/False Activity**
**For the Input Flood Treatment**

**Read the short texts and do true/false activity.**

The weather was sunny and hot. She swam with her nephews every day. She made a big castle on the beach one day. She didn't read a lot but she watched a lot of films at the cinema. She took a lot of pictures with my new camera.

**1.** She had good time on holiday.
**2.** She bought a camera on holiday.

Frank's day begins at 6:30. He gets up, takes a shower and gets dressed. He always makes his tea and toast for breakfast. He does the dishes and makes his bed. He leaves home at 8:00. Then he goes to the university for his classes. He does karate after his lessons.

**1.** He is a student at the university.
**2.** He has breakfast every day.
**3.** He does housework.

Jack is a lazy student. He doesn't do his homework and he doesn't study his lessons. He always makes plans for his holiday. He makes a lot of noise in the class so teachers get angry. He doesn't do anything but he speaks a lot in the lessons.

**1.** Jack can do well in the exams.
**2.** Jack does his best for the school.

Yelda is a journalist in Ankara. She makes an interview with famous people. She goes to Istanbul every month but she sometimes can't find a room in a hotel. She makes a phone call to her friend in İstanbul. Her friend helps her. He makes a phone call to a manager of a hotel and makes a reservation for her friend.

1.    Lucy's friend sometimes does a favor.
2.    Lucy goes to İstanbul for making an interview.

Everybody wants to be happy but they don't know how to be happy. I think happy people have some hobbies. They always do something for themselves. They don't make plans too much and they live the day. They make some mistakes but they do their best next time.

1.    Happy people don't make long lists of plans.
2.    Hobbies are important for people.

She was a fat girl last year. She didn't use to do physical exercises and she didn't use to eat healthy foods. She doesn't make these mistakes any more. She is thinner and happier now. She does physical exercises everyday. She does sports every week. She makes green tea for herself and she drinks it every morning. She eats vegetables and fruits a lot.

1.    She eats healthy foods now.
2.    She loses weight in a year.

Jenny's grandmother is 85 years old. One day she wanted to eat a piece of cake. Jenny went to a pastry shop. She wanted to buy a cake for her grandfather but it was difficult to make a choice. Finally, she bought a banana cake. Her grandmother was surprised and thanked her grandchild.

**1.**     Jenny has got an old grandmother.

**2.**     Jenny made a cake by herself.

Men generally don't help their wives at home. They like doing crossword puzzles and watching TV. They don't do any work for their wife. But George is different. He is a good husband and he always helps her wife. He always does the shopping. He sometimes does the cleaning. He makes the beds and does the dishes at the weekends.

**1.**     George is different from other men.

**2.**     George doesn't do any work for her wife.

Our coach made plans for the volleyball match. We did some training activities and our coach gave some tactics. He made a list of the players. We didn't play well and our team lost the match.

**1.**     The players didn't do any activities and they lost the match.

**2.**     The coach had some plans for the volleyball match.

**Appendix F**

**A two-choice test prepared for the Input Flood Treatment**

**Circle the correct choice.**

**1)** Hasan likes doing sports so he likes ………
a) football                    b) English

**2)** Kızılırmak is …………. river in Turkey.
a) longer                    b) the longest

**3)** Hasan made a big mistake and …………
a) he forgot the oven open.
b) he visited his grandparents.

**4)** Jennifer Lopez is a famous singer. CNN will ……………. with her.
a) make an interview          b) sing

**5)** I have to ………. because I have an exam tomorrow.
a) make my bed                b) study

**6)** All the students do ….. in the exam and they get 5.
a) well                       b) badly

**7)** You mustn't make a noise …………….. Doctors can get angry.
a) in a hospital              b) in a cinema

**8)** They have …….. cleaned the windows so we don't have to clean them now.
a) yet                        b) already

**9)** I don't do anything on Sundays. I only buy a CD and watch it. I like …………. on Sundays.

a) watching films at home     b) going to cinema

**10) A:** Did you make plans for the weekend? **B:** ………………………..

a) I made a reservation in a restaurant. We're going to go there.

b) I made a phone call to my friend. He was ill.

**11)** I did the activities in my Turkish book ……………

a) twenty minutes ago        b) every day

**12)** She prefers ………….. to …………………

a) doing puzzle/do physical exercise

b) doing puzzle/doing physical exercise

**13)** I want to go to the cinema but he …………….. go out.

a) don't want to              b) doesn't want to

**14)** There is a lot of noise in the class because students are making models in Technology and Design lesson. This is the first time and they don't know how to make a model …… it is normal.

a) so                         b) because

**15)** I made a list for shopping …… I forgot to write sugar.

a) but                        b) so

**16)** Ayçe is 1.70cm. Yeliz is 1.70 cm. Ayçe is …………….. Yeliz.

a) as tall as                 b) the same

**17)** I can't do any work because …………... Could you do me a favor and do the dishes?

a) I broke my arm.            b) I drove a car.

**18)** He did his best but ………………

a) he didn't pass the class.

b) he got 100 points.

**19)** Mary wants to buy a pullover but ……………..

a) she can't make a choice.

b) she has a lot of money.

**20)** I ……. this cafe because they make tea very well and they make delicious cakes.

a) love                              b) hate

**21)** I have a little son. He is four years old. He is very young but he loves doing puzzles. He does well in memory games. He is very ………………….

a) intelligent                    b) lazy

**22)** We ………….. ten years ago but we don't now.

a) used to drink cola          b) use to drinking cola

**23)** Students sometimes make a lot of noise in the class. They don't do the activities in their books. They don't want to listen to the teacher and they ……………..

a) don't want to do anything

b) like reading books

**24)** Students didn't do well in their exam. Their teacher did them a favor and ………….

a) gave extra points to all students

b) gave extra activities to all students

**25)** They haven't made a reservation in a restaurant …... They'll make a reservation …..

a) yet /this evening          b) already/ last week

## Appendix G

### The game "Find someone who…" for the Input Flood Treatment

1- **Find someone who** wants to be a teacher

2- **Find someone who** likes doing English exercises

3- **Find someone who** prefers doing puzzles to doing sports

4- **Find someone who** always makes his/her bed

5- **Find someone who** helps his/her mother and does the cleaning

6- **Find someone who** doesn't like cats

7- **Find someone who** doesn't do any work on Sundays

8- **Find someone who** can make a cake

9- **Find someone who** does the dishes at home

10- **Find someone who** made a big mistake

11- **Find someone who** says that English is difficult

12- **Find someone who** makes long phone calls

13- **Find someone who** can't make a choice easily

**Appendix H**

**Lesson plan followed in the Negative Evidence Treatment**

**Grade: 7**

**Length of Lesson: 40' + 40' = 80 minutes**

**Subject: Make/do collocations**

**Objectives**

        **Overall Objectives:** To raise awareness about the nouns which can be used with „make' and „do'

                To expand students' knowledge of make/do collocations

        **Behavioral Objectives:** At the end of the lessons, students will be able to discriminate the nouns which can/can't be used with the verbs „make' and „do'.

**Materials:** Board, Collocation maps, exercise handouts

**Procedure:**

**Stage 1:** Teacher gives the sentences below and asks the students find the mistakes and correct them.

        I can't climb a horse.

        I always make my homework.

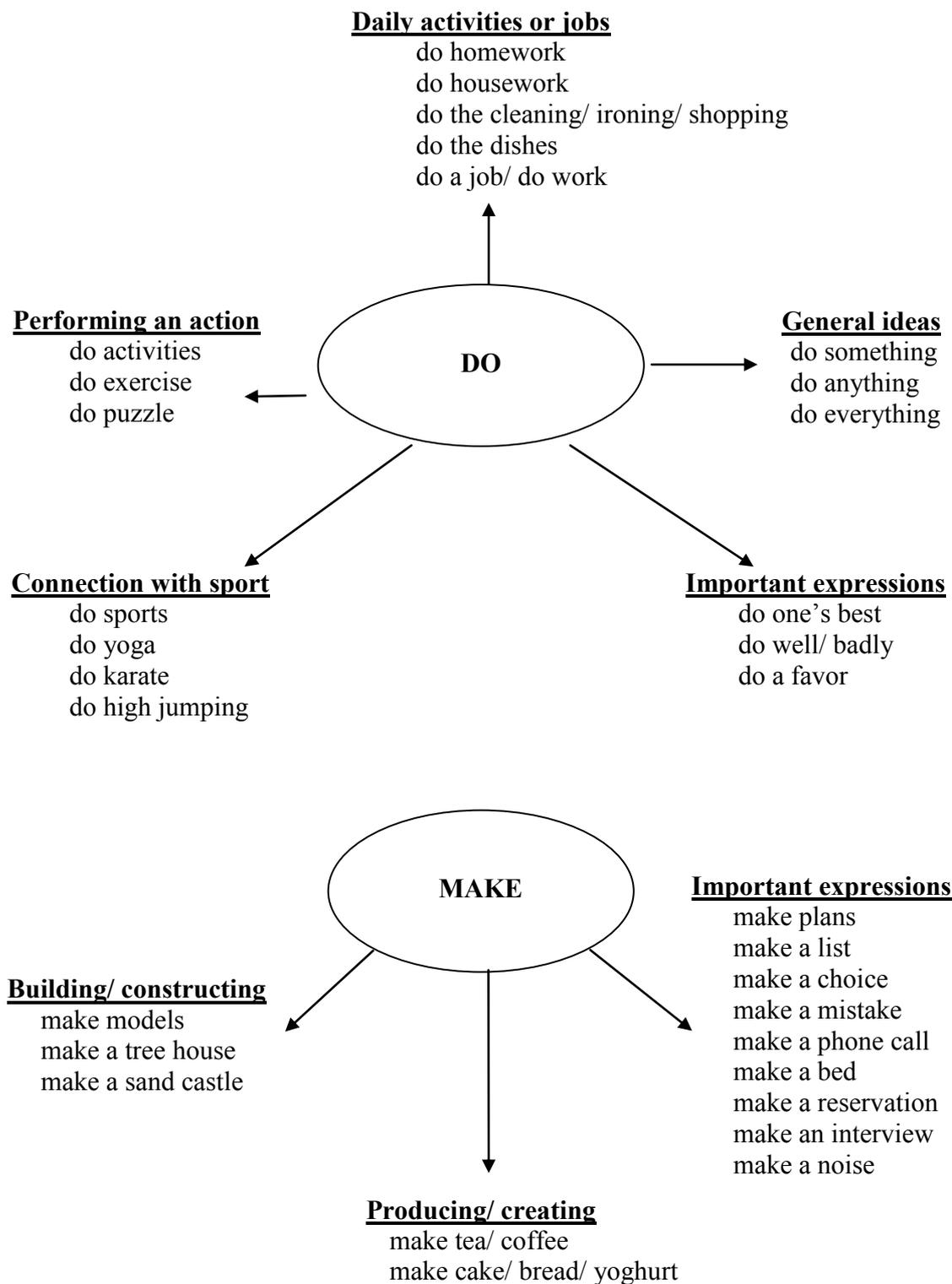        She has got a car but she can't ride a car.

        Could I take a cake and a cup of tea, please?

        He drank an aspirin for his headache yesterday.

**Stage 2:** Teacher and students discuss about the mistakes in the sentences. Teacher makes some explanations in Turkish and says there aren't any grammatical mistakes but there are mistakes about the combinations of the words, verb-noun combinations. Teacher emphasizes the source of errors. Teacher adds that it is usual to see such kinds of mistakes of Turkish learners due to their first language. Then, teacher leads students to the make/do collocations by stating that these words are confused by most of the learners and they'll learn the differences in that lesson.

**Stage 3:** Teachers emphasizes that we can't use these words interchangeably and they have some specific areas of use. Teacher writes some sentences on the board with

„make' and 'do' but she says they'll look at these sentences later. Then, teacher draws two big circles on the board. She writes 'do' into one of the circles and „make' into the other circle.

**Daily activities or jobs**
    do homework
    do housework
    do the cleaning/ ironing/ shopping
    do the dishes
    do a job/ do work

**Performing an action**
    do activities
    do exercise
    do puzzle

**DO**

**General ideas**
    do something
    do anything
    do everything

**Connection with sport**
    do sports
    do yoga
    do karate
    do high jumping

**Important expressions**
    do one's best
    do well/ badly
    do a favor

**MAKE**

**Building/ constructing**
    make models
    make a tree house
    make a sand castle

**Important expressions**
    make plans
    make a list
    make a choice
    make a mistake
    make a phone call
    make a bed
    make a reservation
    make an interview
    make a noise

**Producing/ creating**
    make tea/ coffee
    make cake/ bread/ yoghurt

I did tea for my friends last week.

Jane always does her homework.

My mother does the cleaning every week.

I don't like doing my bed.

We didn't do any mistake in the exam.

I can't make a cake.

They usually make exercises.

Make the activities in your book.

**Stage 4:** Teacher explains the difference by the help of collocation maps and also takes their attention to the important expressions with „make' and „do'. Then, teacher asks the collocations in the written sentences and underlines them. Teacher asks students whether they've been used correctly or not. Teacher puts asterisk sign to incorrect ones and writes them by using correct collocation. While students are writing the board, teacher writes more examples.

Yeliz doesn't like <u>doing karate</u>.

I can't <u>do well</u> in Math exams but BüĢracan do well.

I <u>made a phone call</u> to my friend and I <u>made reservation</u> for our holiday.

They <u>did their best</u> in the match but they lost the match.

I <u>do everything</u> for you.

Jane <u>did me a favor</u> and she <u>did my homework</u>, too.

Which one do you prefer? I can't <u>make a choice</u>.

**Stage 5:** Students close their notebooks and do the exercises given by the teacher. In the first exercise called „odd-one-out', students find the noun which cannot be used with the given verb. In the second exercise, two big bubbles are given. „Do' or „make' is at the centre and they're surrounded by many words. Students find the words which cannot be used by the verb and put cross on them.

**Exercise 1**

**Odd-one –out**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. do** | bed | karate | housework | sports |
| **2. make** | noise | plans | table | judo |
| **3. do** | well | exercise | homework | list |
| **4. make** | bed | activity | reservation | cake |
| **5. do** | a favor | something | a phone call | the dishes |
| **6. make** | anything | a choice | an interview | a sand castle |
| **7. do** | mistake | work | puzzle | the ironing |
| **8. make** | coffee | best | models | a mistake |
| **9. do** | anything | badly | exercises | clothes |
| **10.make** | a phone call | bread | noise | the shopping |

**Exercise 2**

---

homework     yoga     well     puzzle     a  mistake

activities         plans     a bed     sports     a favor

the shopping     a  list     ( **DO** )     a reservation

something          work       a phone call  exercise

housework          best       cake        the dishes

---

bread     badly     anything     a tree house

plans       the cleaning     tea     acrobatics

a mistake   a bed     ( **MAKE** )     delicious sandwiches

long phone calls     activities     a noise     models

a reservation     a choice     a favor     best

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