

# **A Study of Collocation Errors at the Intermediate Level in Pakistan**

**By**

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Candidate of **Master of Philosophy** at the National University of Modern Languages do hereby declare that the thesis **A Study of Collocation Errors at the Intermediate Level in Pakistan** submitted by me in partial fulfillment of MPhil degree, is my original work, and has not been submitted or published earlier. I also solemnly declare that it shall not, in future, be submitted by me for obtaining any other degree from this or any other university or institution.

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **A Study of Collocation Errors at the Intermediate Level in Pakistan**

The study aimed to investigate the impact of intervention on intermediate students' knowledge and usage of collocation errors in English language learning. A quasi-experimental approach was employed to identify the effect of intervention on intermediate students' writing. The present research identifies common collocation errors, such as verb-noun, adjective-noun, and adverb-adjective combinations. It also highlights patterns of misuse and overuse of collocation by intermediate learners. The study population was selected from the intermediate students of a college. The non-randomization sampling technique was adopted to select the population. The sample size consists of 30 students and is divided into two groups. The first group was named the control group and the second was the experimental group. The control group consists of 15 students and the other 15 belong to the experimental group. Regarding data collection pre-tests and post-tests were used as research tools. The pre-test was conducted before the intervention. A lesson plan was designed for the experimental group and the lesson plan was implemented in the classroom through traditional teaching techniques. After treatment, a post-test was conducted, and the results of both tests were compared and analyzed. For the data analysis, IBM SPSS 29.0 was used. SPSS (statistical package for social science) is a software used for statistical analysis of data in quantitative studies. The present study employed a quantitative research method, to provide a detailed account of error frequencies. The findings highlight that collocation errors are due to several factors, like lack of exposure to English language use, and limited awareness of collocation rules. Further, the research reveals that teachers' perspectives can be valuable in formulating strategies and methods for implementing explicit instruction with peer involvement in L2 classrooms.

**Key Words:** Collocation errors, Intermediate students, English Language Learning

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|                                                  |             |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>THESIS AND DEFENSE APPROVAL FORM .....</b>    | <b>ii</b>   |
| <b>AUTHOR’S DECLARATION .....</b>                | <b>iii</b>  |
| <b>ABSTRACT.....</b>                             | <b>iv</b>   |
| <b>TABLE OF CONTENTS .....</b>                   | <b>v</b>    |
| <b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>                      | <b>ix</b>   |
| <b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>                     | <b>x</b>    |
| <b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .....</b>               | <b>xi</b>   |
| <b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>                    | <b>xii</b>  |
| <b>DEDICATION.....</b>                           | <b>xiii</b> |
| <b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>                         | <b>1</b>    |
| 1.1 Collocation .....                            | 1           |
| 1.2 Types of Collocation .....                   | 2           |
| 1.2.1 Strong Collocations .....                  | 3           |
| 1.2.2 Weak Collocation .....                     | 3           |
| 1.2.3 Semantic Collocation.....                  | 4           |
| 1.2.4 Cultural Collocation .....                 | 7           |
| 1.2.5 Register Collocation .....                 | 11          |
| 1.2.6 Grammatical Collocation.....               | 16          |
| 1.2.7 Lexical Collocational Errors.....          | 18          |
| 1.3 Grammatical vs Lexical Collocations .....    | 20          |
| 1.4 Statement of the Problem .....               | 21          |
| 1.5 Hypothesis.....                              | 22          |
| 1.6 Research Objectives .....                    | 22          |
| 1.7 Research Questions .....                     | 23          |
| 1.8 Research Design.....                         | 23          |
| 1.9 Significance of the Study .....              | 23          |
| 1.10 Delimitation of the Study .....             | 24          |
| 1.11 Organization of the Study .....             | 24          |
| <b>LITERATURE REVIEW .....</b>                   | <b>27</b>   |
| 2.1 Collocation .....                            | 27          |
| 2.2 Difference between Errors and Mistakes ..... | 31          |
| 2.3 Collocation Errors .....                     | 31          |
| 2.4 Causes of Collocation Errors.....            | 33          |

|                                                                          |           |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 2.5 Interlingual Errors .....                                            | 34        |
| 2.6 Intralingual Errors .....                                            | 35        |
| 2.7 Over Generalization .....                                            | 36        |
| 2.8 Causes of Over Generalization.....                                   | 38        |
| 2.8.1 Semantic Perspective .....                                         | 38        |
| 2.8.2 Syntactical Perspective .....                                      | 40        |
| 2.8.3 Morphological Perspective .....                                    | 41        |
| 2.9 Language Transfer.....                                               | 41        |
| 2.10 Violation of Rules .....                                            | 42        |
| 2.11 Approximation .....                                                 | 42        |
| 2.12 Previous Studies .....                                              | 43        |
| 2.13 Empirical Investigation of Collocation in Applied Linguistics ..... | 47        |
| 2.14 Empirical Investigation of Collocation in Other Disciplines .....   | 51        |
| <b>METHODOLOGY .....</b>                                                 | <b>57</b> |
| 3.1 Research Design.....                                                 | 58        |
| 3.2 Setting.....                                                         | 59        |
| 3.3 Participants .....                                                   | 59        |
| 3.3.1 Selection Criteria .....                                           | 59        |
| 3.3.2 Sampling.....                                                      | 61        |
| 3.4 Instruments .....                                                    | 61        |
| 3.4.1 Pre-test and Post-Test .....                                       | 61        |
| 3.5 Teaching Intervention Materials .....                                | 62        |
| 3.6 Procedure of Data Collection .....                                   | 62        |
| 3.6.1 Data Collection for Experimental Group.....                        | 62        |
| 3.7 Teaching Intervention .....                                          | 62        |
| 3.7.1 Introduction .....                                                 | 62        |
| 3.7.2 Collocation.....                                                   | 63        |
| 3.8 The Frequency-Based Approach.....                                    | 64        |
| 3.9 Frequency and Usage .....                                            | 67        |
| 3.10 Collocation Knowledge of ESL Learners .....                         | 67        |
| 3.11 Traditional-Paper and Pen Studies .....                             | 68        |
| 3.12 Lexical Collocations (LCs) Awareness-raising Activities .....       | 69        |
| 3.13 The Importance of Teaching Collocations .....                       | 69        |
| 3.14 Approaches to Teaching Collocations.....                            | 69        |
| 3.15 Choosing which Collocations to Teach.....                           | 71        |

|                                                                |           |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 3.16 Lexical Collocation Resources .....                       | 72        |
| 3.17 Post-Testing.....                                         | 73        |
| 3.18 Data Collection for Control Group.....                    | 73        |
| 3.18.1 Pre-Test.....                                           | 73        |
| 3.19 Treatment .....                                           | 74        |
| 3.20 Data Analysis .....                                       | 74        |
| 3.21 Pre- and Post-test Analysis.....                          | 75        |
| 3.22 Validity and Reliability of the Study.....                | 76        |
| 3.23 Reliability.....                                          | 76        |
| 3.24 Validity.....                                             | 77        |
| 3.25 External Validity .....                                   | 78        |
| 3.26 Ethical Considerations.....                               | 79        |
| 3.26.1 Informed Consent .....                                  | 79        |
| 3.26.2 Confidentiality .....                                   | 79        |
| 3.26.3 Voluntary Participation.....                            | 80        |
| 3.27 Limitations .....                                         | 80        |
| 3.28 Summary .....                                             | 81        |
| <b>DATA ANALYSIS .....</b>                                     | <b>82</b> |
| 4.1 Mean Value .....                                           | 84        |
| 4.2 Standard Deviation.....                                    | 84        |
| 4.3 Probability Value.....                                     | 85        |
| 4.4 Analysis of Experimental Group Data .....                  | 85        |
| 4.4.1 Experimental Group's Pre-test Marks.....                 | 86        |
| 4.4.2 Experimental Group's Post-test Marks .....               | 87        |
| 4.5 Analysis of Control Group Data.....                        | 88        |
| 4.5.1 Control Group's Marks of Pre-test.....                   | 89        |
| 4.5.2 Control Group's Post-Test Marks .....                    | 90        |
| 4.6 Experimental Group and Control Group Improvement Data..... | 91        |
| 4.6.1 Improvement Marks of Experimental Group .....            | 92        |
| 4.6.2 Improvement Marks of Control Group.....                  | 93        |
| 4.6.3 Comparison of Improvement Marks of Both Groups.....      | 94        |
| 4.7 Analysis of Data .....                                     | 96        |
| 4.8 Normality Test.....                                        | 96        |
| 4.9 Paired Sample T-Test .....                                 | 97        |
| 4.10 Paired Sample Test-Difference .....                       | 99        |

|                                                                                                                |            |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| 4.11 Paired sample Test-Significance .....                                                                     | 99         |
| 4.12 Control groups' Statics Description.....                                                                  | 99         |
| 4.13 Paired Sample Test-Significance .....                                                                     | 101        |
| 4.14 Explanation of Intervention.....                                                                          | 101        |
| <b>DISCUSSION .....</b>                                                                                        | <b>102</b> |
| 5.1 Implicit Acquisition of Lexical Collocations .....                                                         | 103        |
| 5.2 Explicit Acquisition of Lexical Collocations .....                                                         | 104        |
| 5.3 Consciousness-Raising Activities .....                                                                     | 106        |
| 5.4 Lexical Collocations Tests .....                                                                           | 107        |
| 5.5 Learner's Engagement .....                                                                                 | 109        |
| 5.6 Cognitive Engagement .....                                                                                 | 111        |
| 5.7 Social Engagement.....                                                                                     | 112        |
| 5.8 Affective Engagement.....                                                                                  | 113        |
| <b>CONCLUSION .....</b>                                                                                        | <b>115</b> |
| 6.1 Future Recommendations.....                                                                                | 117        |
| <b>REFERENCES.....</b>                                                                                         | <b>120</b> |
| <b>APPENDIX.....</b>                                                                                           | <b>123</b> |
|  Lesson plan (1).pptx ..... | 134        |

## LIST OF TABLES

|                      |    |
|----------------------|----|
| Table No. 3.1 .....  | 59 |
| Table No. 3.2 .....  | 62 |
| Table No. 3.3 .....  | 63 |
| Table No. 3.4 .....  | 72 |
| Table No. 3.5 .....  | 73 |
| Table No. 3.6 .....  | 73 |
| Table No. 3.7 .....  | 74 |
| Table No. 4.1 .....  | 86 |
| Table No. 4.2 .....  | 87 |
| Table No. 4.3 .....  | 89 |
| Table No. 4.4 .....  | 90 |
| Table No. 4.5 .....  | 92 |
| Table No. 4.6 .....  | 93 |
| Table No. 4.7 .....  | 94 |
| Table No. 4.8 .....  | 96 |
| Table No. 4.9 .....  | 97 |
| Table No. 4.10 ..... | 97 |
| Table No. 4.11 ..... | 99 |

## LIST OF FIGURES

|                                                     |    |
|-----------------------------------------------------|----|
| Figure 1: Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test..... | 95 |
|-----------------------------------------------------|----|

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

|      |                                             |
|------|---------------------------------------------|
| LCs  | Lexical Collocations                        |
| LA   | Language Acquisition                        |
| L1   | First Language                              |
| L2   | Second Language                             |
| EFL  | English as Foreign Language                 |
| ESL  | English as Second Language                  |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |
| ACL  | Academic Collocation List                   |

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## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my late Mother and Father for their love, endless support, encouragement and prayers from heavens. Both of you are not away but in my every breath.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Collocation focuses on a natural set of words that are closely affiliated with each other. For instance, "do exercise", "fast food", "heavy rain", and "powerful engine". The term collocation was introduced by a British linguist J.R Firth in 1957. "Meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words. One of the meanings of the night is its collocability with dark, and of dark, of course, collocation with night" (Firth, 1957). A better way to understand collocation is to investigate the word collocation.

### 1.1 Collocation

A collocation word is a combination of two words Co-meaning together and location meaning, place. Collocations are words that tend to occur together. To elucidate what collocation means, an appropriate response would be collocation means a group of two or more words that are inclined to appear together. Below are some familiar examples of collocation.

Make an effort-I made an effort

Pay attention

Heavy attention

Learner of the English language can strengthen their fluency by grasping collocations, as these are words that typically come together. By comprehending the concept of collocations, learners can effectively use English more logically and expressively. Here are comparative examples that sound like natural English.

| Natural Sounds  | Un-natural Sounds |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| Heavy rain      | Strong rain       |
| Do exercise     | Have exercise     |
| Fast food       | Quick food        |
| Powerful engine | Strong engine     |
| Commit suicide  | Make suicide      |

With the increasing emphasis on L2 vocabulary instruction, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of teaching collocations. Researchers will identify collocations as an indicator of high proficiency in language learning, with Hill (2000) stating that collocation is the most influential factor in the creation and comprehension of naturally occurring text within a learner's mental lexicon. Failure to grasp the significance of this feature can lead to complications such as grammatical errors, overuse of a limited set of collocations, redundancy in sentences, non-native word combinations, and negative transfer from the L1 Hill (2000); Sinclair, (2004). Therefore, teaching collocations should be a key component of any L2 curriculum, starting from the early stages of language learning, rather than assuming that learners will recognize collocate associations as they progress Hill (2000).

## 1.2 Types of Collocation

It can be categorized as:

- Strong Collocation
- Weak Collocation
- Semantic Collocation

- Cultural Collocation
- Register Collocation
- Grammatical Collocation
- Lexical Collocation

### **1.2.1 Strong Collocations**

Strong collocations are pairs of words that typically occur together, indicating a high degree of association between them in both spoken and written language. The advantage of strong collocations is that even if one of the words is mistakenly replaced, native speakers can still understand the intended meaning and identify the correct collocation. In the best-case scenario, this may even elicit a humorous response from the native speakers. However, when communicating with non-native speakers, the use of strong collocations may not make a significant difference in the effectiveness of communication.

For Example, someone says; I was walking to and fro (sounds meaning he can walk in a direction and then suddenly walk in opposite direction, many times) this word "to and fro" can't be replaced in this collocation. This is a completely fixed collocation. The meaning of some fixed collocation can't be judged by individual words. These collocations are known as idioms and concentrate on those meanings which are already assigned with specific fixed collocations.

### **1.2.2 Weak Collocation**

Weak collocations are pairs of words that have a weaker bond than strong collocations, allowing for at least one word to be easily replaceable. This means that the same word can collocate with several different combinations of words. Opting for weak

collocations instead of strong ones can be beneficial for English learners as it increases the chances of being understood correctly. However, being aware of weak collocations and using them appropriately can also be advantageous.

For instance, the phrase "very interesting" is frequently used, but this collocation is weak "extremely interesting", and "really interesting" are all acceptable collocations.

Collocation Understanding collocations is a necessary part of learning vocabulary, and having a strong comprehension of collocations can assist learners use them effectively in their writing and speaking (Liu, 2010). However, some studies have shown that even advanced EFL learners struggle with collocations, demonstrating a lack of sufficient knowledge in this area (Alsakran, 2011; Basal, 2019; Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012; El-Dakhs, 2015; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2008). The research will investigate the effect of the negative transformation of L1 in collocation knowledge used by L2 learners. It will also inquire into the challenges faced by L2 learners.

### **1.2.3 Semantic Collocation**

Semantic collocation denotes the connotation between words based on their meanings or semantic properties. In terms of linguists, collocation involves the tendency of specific words to come with one another more often than would be anticipated by chance. When this relationship is based on the words' meaning involved it's proposed to as semantic collocation.

In natural language usage, semantic collocation plays a key role in contributing to the fluency, naturalness, and expressiveness of communication. Semantically collocated words frequently share associated or complementary meanings, and their combination leads to conveying precise aspects of meaning or suggesting specific associations.

Here are some examples of semantic collocations:

- 1) "Heavy rain" in this collocation "heavy" and "rain" are semantically associated, because "heavy" denotes the intensity or great force of falling "rain."
- 2) "Extreme heat" the adjective "extreme" collocates with "heat" to describe the quality or intensity of the "heat."
- 3) "Bitter disappointing" the adjective "bitter" is associated with "disappointing" to describe the quality or depth of the sadness, indicating a state of profound nervousness or disillusionment.
- 4) "Whispered secret" the adjective "whispered" collocates with "secret" expresses the state of the secret. Confidential information is shared quietly.
- 5) "Swift decision" the adjective "swift" links with "decision" to express a prompt decision.

Not only, a random combination of words but rather the implicit associations between words based on their meanings are discussed in semantic collocations. Semantic collocations play a key role in meaningful communication and allow writers and speakers to convey their intended meanings with accuracy and clarity.

### **1.2.3.1 Semantic Collocation Errors**

Associating or combining words based on their meanings that are habitually or naturally inappropriate can result in semantic collocation errors. These errors affect language use that may sound awkward, ambiguous, or senseless. Effective communication and unintended meaning can be impeded by Semantic collocation errors. Lack of awareness of suitable word association or misunderstanding of the semantic bonding between words can be observed as semantic collocation errors.

Examples of semantic collocation errors are as follows:

#### **1. Incorrect Adjective-Noun Collocations**

Inaccurate use of adjectives that don't express or collocate with the noun they describe. For example, "strong water" instead of "strong coffee" or "strong tea."

"Tall pain" instead of "sharp pain" or "intense pain."

## **2. Mismatched Verb-Object Collocations**

Inappropriate use of verbs that do not match the object they follow. For instance, "eat a tea" instead of "have a tea."

"Drink a shower" instead of "take a shower."

## **3. Inappropriate Adverb-Adjective Collocations**

Improperly use of adverbs and adjectives involves semantic collocation errors. Use of Adverbs with the adjectives that do not correctly modify or collocate with the adjective they accompany, for example; "very silent" instead of "dead silent" or "utterly silent."

"Extremely hot" instead of "scorching hot" or "blisteringly hot."

## **4. Misuse of Idiomatic Expressions**

Idioms carry specific context and express meanings at a deeper level. Using idiomatic expressions or phrases in a context that doesn't fit the context or convey the proposed meaning for instance:

"Kick the basket" instead of "Kick the bucket" (meaning to die).

"To cast pearls before cows" instead of "To cast pearls before the swans" (meaning to say something before an irrelevant person).

## **5. Inconsistent Word Pairings**

The use of combined words that do not habitually accompany based on their meanings. For example:

- "Rob kindness" instead of "Gentle kindness."
- "Delicious pain" instead of "Excruciating pain."

Semantic collocation errors can occur due to various factors including inadequate vocabulary, lack of awareness of idiomatic expressions, inaccurate translation from another language, or inadequate understanding of the aspects of word meanings. To avoid semantic collocation errors, it's necessary to develop a well understanding of word meanings, idiomatic expressions, and common collocations within the intended language through exposure, practice, and continuous language learning.

#### **1.2.4 Cultural Collocation**

The association of certain Phrases with specific cultural contexts, rituals, principles, or customs is called cultural collocation. It happens when lexical items generally Co-occur with cultural factors. It reflects the linguistic expressions of a society's practices, beliefs, ethics, and lifestyle. For better communication relations, it is compulsory to understand cultural collocations and intercultural aptitude, particularly when language and culture are interconnected.

##### **1.2.4.1 Description of Cultural Collocation**

###### **1) Cultural References**

To convey cultural significance or induce a relationship with certain cultural customs, festivals, or symbols cultural collocations are used. For example, terms like "Lantern festival," "Holi festival," or "Eid al adha" are cultural collocations that imply specific cultural festivals or traditions.

###### **2) Social Norms and Etiquette**

Cultural collocations are used to unveil the expressions related to social norms, etiquette, or interpersonal relations. These terms illustrate culture and expectations related to behavior and communication. For instance, phrases like "please" and "thank you" show politeness norms, that differ from culture to culture.

For meaningful communication, specifically in intercultural contexts where people from different cultures interact it is crucial to have better knowledge of cultural collocation. By knowing and respecting the concept of culture and cultural collocations, speakers, writers, or correspondents can steer cultural differences more adequately and enlarge their intercultural competence. Furthermore, language learners can extend their competence about a culture by perusing its collocations, in that way facilitating more nuanced and culturally proper communication.

### **3) Cultural Practices and Rituals**

Collocations can also be linked with particular cultural customs, rituals, or events. Terms like "Valima ceremony" "Funeral ceremony," or "Diwali festival" enlighten cultural collocations that associate with significant cultural festivals or practices.

### **4) Food and Cuisine**

Food or cuisine-related collocations are widespread in debates about culture. Different cuisines are usually closely linked to specific cultures or areas, and words associated with food convey cultural associations. For instance, terms like "Sushi" are closely related to Japanese cuisine, while "Biryani" is associated with Pakistani cuisine.

### **5) Idioms and Proverbs**

Numerous idiomatic expressions and proverbs are deep-rooted in cultural backgrounds and indicate the norms, morals, or social beliefs of a specific community or culture. These idiomatic expressions often enclose cultural knowledge, beliefs, or common practices. For instance: The English idiom "when in Rome, do as the Romans do" shows the Idea of becoming accustomed when in a different cultural setting.

## **6) Holidays and Festivals**

Holidays and festivals are often associated with cultures and reflect cultural collocations. Additionally, these holidays and events signify specific cultural festivals or celebrations. "Chinese New Year," "Eid-ul-Fitr prayers," or "Holy colors" are examples of collocations related to religious or cultural festivities.

## **7) Geographical and Historical References**

Cultural collocations can also consist of geographical or historical references that are closely linked to particular Cultures or areas. Terms like "Minar e Pakistan," "the Eiffel Tower," or "the pyramids of Egypt" induced cultural and historical significance related to specific places.

### **1.2.4.2 Cultural Collocation Errors**

Cultural collocation errors denote to inappropriate use of words or phrases in a specific culture or context. When communicators wrongly associate the combination of words within a context that doesn't relate with a specific cultural context. Moreover, when people inaccurately apply linguistic expressions that are bound to a specific culture, or when language is insensitively used to cultural aspects, customs, or conventions.

Misinterpretations, misconceptions, or offenses can be caused by cultural errors in communication, specifically in intercultural interactions.

Here are a few examples of cultural collocation errors:

### **1) Inappropriate Use of Idioms or Proverbs**

Using idiomatic expressions or proverbs from one culture in a different cultural context can lead to misunderstanding or confusion. Considering idiomatic expressions at the surface meaning, for instance, "raining cats and dogs" or "hit the hay" into another culture without noticing cultural correlation can result in illogical or inappropriate use of language.

### **2) Misuse of Cultural References**

Inappropriate use of specific cultural holidays, festivals, or customs without considering their cultural relevance or significance can also involve cultural collocational errors. For example, denoting "Eid al Fitr" in a non-Muslim context or referring "Lantern festival" outside of China culture that does not celebrate this holiday may be unsuitable or wrongly understood.

### **3) Incorrect Use of Politeness Norms**

Using politeness norms in a context or setting that is inappropriate can lead to cultural collocation errors. For example, the use of overly formal phrases or language in an informal setting or the use of inappropriate style or titles when speaking to someone can be perceived as disrespectful or impolite in specific cultures.

### **4) Insensitive Language Choices**

Insensitive or violent language use in a certain culture that doesn't match can result in cultural collocation errors. This may include using insulting terms, stereotypes, or culturally violated language that is considered disrespectful or incorrect within a specific cultural context.

## **5) Inaccurate Use of Food-Related Terms**

Cultural collocation errors can involve using food-related phrases or terminologies without knowing cultural differences in cuisine or dietetic routine. Considering that all Chinese cuisines are similar or assuming food preferences on the basis of cultural stereotypes can be inappropriate and violent.

The knowledge of a specific cultural sensitivity, awareness, and understanding can help to avoid or reduce cultural collocation errors. Correspondents should endeavor to know about the cultural standards, values, and customs of the people or cultures they are communicating with and familiarize their use of language consequently evading misinterpretations and endorsing effective communication across cultures.

### **1.2.5 Register Collocation**

Certain combinations of words or phrases that are usually used within a specific linguistic register or style are known as register collocation. In linguistics, the register can be defined as a way of talking in which a speaker uses a variety of language in different social contexts, circumstances, audiences, and purposes of communication. Formal, informal, technical, academic, and colloquial registers are the types of registers. Each register has its own set of vocabulary, grammar, terminology, and collocation patterns.

Register collocations help to choose the appropriate language within a specific register and are crucial for meaningful communication in different contexts. These register collocations assist convey the appropriate tone, formality level, and cultural appropriateness in conversation.

Some examples of registered collocations in different linguistic registers are given below:

#### **1) Formal Register Collations**

"Conduct an investigation"

"Facilitate communication"

"Implement policies"

"Compose a formal letter"

## **2) Informal Register Collocations**

"Hang out with friends"

"Cash somethings"

"Grab a bite to eat"

## **3) Technical Register Collocations**

"Compile data"

"Analyze statistics"

"Program algorithms"

"Conduct experiments"

"Troubleshoot technical issues"

## **4) Academic Register Collocations**

"Formulate hypothesis"

"Conduct research"

"Present findings"

## **5) Colloquial Register Collocations**

"Piece of cake"

"By the bullet"

"Break the ice"

Register collocations differ from context to context, audience, and purpose of communication. Register collocations contribute to the general relevance and effectiveness of language use in different contexts. Appropriate use of register collocations leads speakers and writers to deliver their target meaning accurately and appropriately within a certain social or professional setting.

Language learners, speakers, and writers need to know how to use register collocation, as they steer numerous linguistic registers in their communications. Command in the use of register collocations allows people to regulate their language use accordingly. The demands of different communicative circumstances, thus strengthening their communicative competence and effectiveness in various contexts.

#### **1.2.5.1 Register Collocation Errors**

The use of phrases or combinations of words that are unsuitable for the specific linguistic register or style they are pointing to can result in register collocation errors. These errors can be an outcome of the absence of awareness of the suitable language choices within a certain register or from misinterpretation of the context, audience, or communication purpose. Miscommunication, ambiguity, or undetermined language use can be causes of register collocation errors.

Here are a few examples of Register Collocation Errors

##### **1) Formal Register Errors in Informal Contexts**

The use of formal language in an informal context can be measured as a registered collocation error. Complex or technical vocabulary in informal conversations with friends or family may cause unnatural ambiguity.

Example: "I hereby extend an invitation for you to join us for a meal" (overly formal)

"Hey, want to grab lunch together?" (informal)

## **2) Informal Register Errors in Formal Contexts**

In contrast, the use of informal language in a formal setting can also sound problematic and unclear. This may happen in professional contexts such as business meetings, academic presentations, or official communication.

For example, "Hey guys, what's up" "Let's dive into this report!" (informal).

"Good morning, colleagues. "Let us now proceed to examine the report" (formal).

## **3) Mismatched Technical Vocabulary**

Register collocation errors can occur when speakers or communicators use technical vocabulary or specialized terms in a context where it is not suitable. This may also take place when interacting with people who are not aware of the technical terminology being used.

Example: "The system experienced a critical failure due to an unforeseen anomaly."  
(Technical)

"The crashed because something unexpected happened." (Less technical)

## **4) Inappropriate Academic Language in Everyday Conversations**

Register collocation errors can be observed in the use of academic language or formal terminologies in casual interactions, particularly when talking with friends or at family gatherings.

Example: "In my estimation, the probability of that happening is quite low."  
(Academic)

"I don't think, that's very likely." (casual)

### **5) Colloquialisms in Professional Writing**

Conversely, the use of informal expressions or slang in professional conversation such as official letters, notifications, or reports can be measured as register collocation error. These errors may weaken professionalism and clarity.

Example: "I'll shoot you an e-mail later about the details." (Colloquial)

"I will send you an e-mail later regarding the specifics." (formal).

Effective communication may be hindered by register collocation errors which can impact how the speaker or writer is perceived by others. To avoid register collocation errors people must have an awareness of appropriate language choices within different registers to regulate their language use according to specific registers to ensure clear and meaningful communication in different settings.

Some collocations may be appropriate for one style or register of language and may not be appropriate in another context where they are being used, it can lead to register collocation errors. For instance:

"He kicked the bucket" (Incorrect, Formal context)

"He passed away." (Correct, Formal setting)

"He passed away" (Incorrect, Informal Context)

"He kicked the bucket." (Correct, Informal setting).

### **1.2.6 Grammatical Collocation**

Grammatical collocation refers to the phenomenon in a language where certain words frequently appear together due to the constraints of grammar. These combinations of words are considered customary, expected, or idiomatic within a particular linguistic context. Grammatical collocations contribute to the naturalness and fluency of language use, and they are an integral aspect of mastering the language syntax.

Some key points regarding grammatical collocation:

#### **1) Syntactic Patterns**

Grammatical collocations adhere to specific syntactic patterns or structures dictated by the grammar of the language. These patterns may include verb-noun, adjective-noun, noun-preposition, verb-preposition, or other syntactic combinations.

#### **2) Fixed and Semi Fixed-Expressions**

Grammatical collocations can be either fixed, meaning that the combination of words is rigid and cannot be altered, for example, "make a decision," or semi-fixed, allowing for slight variations while preserving the overall structure, (e.g., "take a decision," "reach a decision").

#### **3) Part of Speech Compatibility**

Grammatical collocations involve words that are compatible in terms of their parts of speech and their roles within a sentence. For example, in the collocation "heavy rain," "heavy" is an adjective modifying the noun "rain," and this combination follows the typical adjective-noun pattern in English.

#### **4) Conventional Pairings**

Grammatical collocations are conventional pairings of words that native speakers of a language use habitually. Through language usage, these pairs or combinations can be formed and are measured as standard or idiomatic expressions within the language.

### **5) Constrained by Grammar Rules**

Grammatical rules and structures of a language limit the grammatical collocation. Certain word combinations may be grammatically incorrect or unnatural even if they are semantically plausible.

#### **1.2.6.1 Examples of Grammatical Collocations**

Verb-noun collocations "make a decision," "take a break," and "have a conversation."

Adjective-noun collocations "strong coffee," "beautiful scenery," and "deep sleep."

Verb-preposition collocations "listen to music," "depend on," and "someone agrees with something."

Noun-preposition collocations "interest in art," "awareness of danger," "preference for tea."

Understanding and mastering grammatical collocations are essential for language learners as they strive to produce natural and idiomatic language. Proficiency in grammatical collocations enhances fluency, comprehension, and effective communication in both spoken and written contexts. Learners can improve their command of grammatical collocations through exposure to authentic language usage, practice, and study of the grammatical structures and patterns within the target language.

"Collocation errors are common among language learners especially those who are still in the process of acquiring fluency in a second language recognizing and understanding

collocations can significantly enhance one's language proficiency and communication skills language learners can improve their collocation all accuracy through exposure to authentic language use practice and feedback."

### **1.2.7 Lexical Collocational Errors**

Lexical collocation errors occur when words are combined in a way that deviates from the typical or natural pairings that are commonly used in a language. Lexical collocations refer to the habitual Co-occurrence of certain words or phrases, where the choice of words is influenced by convention, usage, or idiomatic expression. Errors in lexical collocation can lead to awkward or unclear language use, hindering effective communication. Understanding lexical collocation errors involves recognizing inappropriate word combinations and their impact on the clarity and naturalness of language.

The following reasons can lead to lexical collocation errors:

#### **1) Inappropriate Word Pairings**

The use of collocations or combinations of words in a way that does not refer to usual or expected combinations in a language may cause lexical collocations. Insufficient knowledge of common collocations or inappropriate application of language rules can lead to lexical collocation errors.

#### **2) Semantic Incompatibility**

Lexical collocation errors may involve words that are semantically incompatible or mismatched. Certain words naturally collocate with others based on their meanings, and using them in conjunction with unrelated words can create confusion or ambiguity.

#### **3) Violation of Idiomatic Expressions**

Lexical collocation errors can also involve the misuse or misinterpretation of idiomatic expressions. Idioms are fixed phrases with meanings that cannot be inferred from the individual words, and altering or misusing them can lead to semantic distortion or misunderstanding.

#### **4) Unnatural Language Use**

Lexical collocation errors often result in language use that sounds unnatural, forced, or awkward. Native speakers of a language intuitively recognize appropriate word combinations, and deviations from these norms can be noticeable and distracting.

#### **5) Impact on Communication**

Lexical collocation errors can impede effective communication by obscuring intended meanings or causing confusion for the listener or reader. Clear and accurate expression relies on using words in combinations that convey the desired message accurately and fluently.

Examples of lexical errors are under;

- i. Using "Strong decision" instead of "Firm decision."
- ii. Saying "Bitter weather" instead of "bitter cold."
- iii. Writing "quick food" instead of "Fast food."
- iv. Using "Fast shower" instead of "Quick shower."

To avoid lexical collocation errors, language learners should familiarize themselves with common word combinations and idiomatic expressions

In the target language. Exposure to authentic language use, vocabulary-building exercises, and practice with collocation activities can help learners, develop a natural and intuitive understanding of lexical collocations. Additionally, consulting dictionaries or

language resources that provide information on typical word pairings can assist in avoiding lexical collocation errors and improving overall language proficiency.

### 1.3 Grammatical vs Lexical Collocations

According to Lewis (2000), collocations can be categorized into two primary syntactic classes Grammatical Collocations and Lexical Collocations. In grammatical collocation nouns, verbs, and adjectives frequently come together with a grammatical item, normally they come with preposition. For example, by chance, by grace, excuse for etc.

Conzett (2000) observed that native speakers tend to unconsciously associate and use lexical items together in a logical manner, with minimal effort. However, this is not the case for second language learners who have to consciously learn what words go together, which puts more pressure on their L2 production. Ying and O'Neil (2009) also noted that L2 learners need to be aware of the syntactic relationship between lexical items to improve their collocation skills.

This study will concentrate on lexical collocations (LCs), which consist of typically two-word combinations that lack any grammatical words like prepositions, clauses, and infinitives. The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English was one of the initial dictionaries to highlight English collocations for teachers and learners. Benson et al. (2010) outline seven types of LCs in their dictionary.

| Lexical Collocations | Collocation Types | Examples |
|----------------------|-------------------|----------|
|----------------------|-------------------|----------|

|     |                                                              |                                                                            |
|-----|--------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| LC1 | Verb+ noun (denoting creation and/or activation)             | <i>Reach a verdict, display bravery and cause damage, etc.</i>             |
| LC2 | Verb+ noun (denoting eradication and/or nullification)       | <i>Break a code, ease tension and reverse a decision, etc.</i>             |
| LC3 | Adjective+ noun                                              | <i>Strong tea, weak tea and aptitude test, etc.</i>                        |
| LC4 | Noun+ verb (verb names an action characteristic of the noun) | <i>Bee's buzz, bombs explode, and blood circulates, etc.</i>               |
| LC5 | Noun+ of+ noun (units associated with a noun)                | <i>A bit of advice, article of clothing and a bouquet of flowers, etc.</i> |
| LC6 | Adverb +adjective                                            | <i>Sound asleep, keenly aware and deeply absorbed, etc.</i>                |
| LC7 | Verb+ adverb                                                 | <i>Appreciate sincerely, apologise humbly and amuse thoroughly, etc.</i>   |

## 1.4 Statement of the Problem

Lack of appropriate knowledge about collocation results in committing mistakes in spoken and written discourse. Efforts have been made to overcome this issue but the problem still exists. Cohesion and coherence cannot be achieved in speech and writing without having a sound knowledge of collocations (Kuiper, 2007). Therefore, the present study is an attempt to enhance the knowledge of the required skill by teaching about collocations, types of collocation, collocation errors and how to minimize these errors. The researcher has followed a proposed plan of action to impart knowledge about collocations through devised lesson plans to the selected participants for five weeks to prove or negate his stance and improve writing skills.

## 1.5 Hypothesis

A hypothesis is an assumption formed based on certain evidence, serving as the starting point of any investigation by translating research questions into predictions. It encompasses elements such as variables, the population, and the relationships between the variables. A research hypothesis specifically aims to test the relationships between two or more variables. "The availability of large amounts of scientific data renders the need for pre-existing hypothesis obsolete (Anderson, 2008)". "A tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test its logical or empirical consequences is called hypothesis". In Glass (2006) view a hypothesis is an appropriate way to frame experiments.

Due to not having adequate knowledge and proper familiarity with the English language, the intermediate students frequently make collocation errors that, eventually cause less accuracy and minimum fluency concerning the English language. Therefore, the targeted instructional interventions can be developed to significantly improve and enhance the English language learners' collocation proficiency regarding collocation knowledge and collocation usage by analyzing and identifying frequent collocation errors.

## 1.6 Research Objectives

The research objectives of the present study are as follows:

- To investigate the impact of explicit intervention on the intermediate students' knowledge of Lexical collocations in writing
- To investigate the impact of an explicit intervention on the intermediate students' usage of Lexical collocations in writing

## **1.7 Research Questions**

1. Does explicit intervention significantly impact intermediate English language learners' knowledge of Lexical collocations in writing?
2. How does explicit intervention significantly impact the intermediate English language learners' usage of Lexical collocation in writing?

## **1.8 Research Design**

The present study has used quantitative methods to analyze data. Quantitative research is a systematic investigation that emphasizes quantifying relationships, behaviors, and phenomena using statistical, mathematical, or computational methods. It involves collecting and analyzing numerical data to test hypotheses, measure variables, and identify patterns or correlations. This type of research is usually used to generalize results from a sample to a large population, facilitating predictions and comparisons (Creswell, J.W 2014).

The data has been collected from intermediate students. Frequency-based approach has been used and data has been collected through pretest and posttest which comprised multiple choice questions and fill-in-the-blanks. The collocated data has been analyzed through the SPSS model. (Statistical packages for Social Science) SPSS is computer software which is developed by IBM and often used for statistical analysis in quantitative research. It is also known as IBM SPSS Statistic.

## **1.9 Significance of the Study**

For more than a decade, there has been a range of opinions regarding the most effective approach to teaching second language collocations. Some experts, such as Krashen and Shen (2004), believe that the best way to learn pre-made and individual chunks

is through incidental exposure to language input. However, other researchers argue that explicit instruction and exposure (known as Form-Focused Instruction) is beneficial for learning vocabulary (Ellis, 2001b; Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Webb & Kagimoto, 2011), and using authentic discourse as a source for teaching materials (Leech, 1997; O'Dell & McCarthy, 2017). There is a limited number of studies that have explored explicit learning of collocations in EFL learners, despite its importance. There is no adequate measure of collocation knowledge before and after the treatment in either study. The current research aims to investigate an explicit approach to the acquisition of academic LCs, focusing on learners' engagement with consciousness-raising activities and measuring the effect of such treatment. Consciousness-raising tasks aim to make learners notice targeted collocations and construct awareness of them, while knowledge includes the ability to use collocations in novel situations. The theoretical framework combines the Language Awareness and Focus-on-Forms approaches, and the specific targeted linguistic feature is academic LCs in six grammatical categories proposed by O'Dell and McCarthy (2017).

### **1.10 Delimitation of the Study**

The present study is a quasi-experimental study conducted at an intermediate level. The intermediate students participated in the present study. All participants belong to rural areas and their age group ranges from 16-19 years. The current study is quantitative in nature and quantitative tools have been used for data collection and data analysis.

### **1.11 Organization of the Study**

Chapter One: This chapter provides a background of the study and explains the importance of acquisition of academic LCs, focusing on learners' engagement with consciousness-raising activities and measuring the effect of such treatment. The research

problem and objectives are also outlined, along with the research questions and research methodology. The significance of the study and its delimitations are also discussed.

Chapter Two: This chapter provides an overview of the existing literature on collocation and its empirical implication in applied linguistics with its different trends. Furthermore, it illustrates collocation, types of errors, and causes of errors. Operational definitions of the key terms are also given.

Chapter Three: This chapter outlines the research design, research questions, research objectives, hypothesis, problem statement, participants, instruments, procedures, and data analysis techniques employed in the study. The study adopts quantitative approach to glean a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. This choice stems from the recognition that a singular method may not sufficiently capture the complexity of the research questions. The quantitative element allows for a more nuanced exploration, offering both depth and breadth to the findings.

Chapter Four: This chapter presents an in-depth data analysis of the radiance of the devised research model for the present study. It provides the systematic and structured world of numerical data, employing the quantitative research method (IBM SPSS 29.0) to extract meaningful insights from the vast data set at our disposal. It aims to harness the power of participants to address specific research questions, discern patterns, and contribute robust evidence to overall data analysis. This chapter is structured to cover the essential components of the research methodology. In this chapter, numeric data; collected through pre-test and post-test, has been analyzed through SPSS.

Chapter Five: This chapter deals with the findings of the study. The participants' utilization of various language functions (such as organizational, judgmental, informative, interrogative, and responsive) demonstrates their cognitive, social, and emotional

involvement in the consciousness-raising tasks. A discussion regarding the effectiveness of the instructional approaches employed in the study with both groups is also elaborated in this section.

Chapter Six: This chapter summarizes the findings of the study in connection with or in contrast to prior research. It also elaborates their implications for the representation of religious ideologies in primary English textbooks in Pakistan. Additionally, emphasis was placed on underscoring the importance of the present study. This chapter briefly revisits the findings concerning the research questions. These responses shed light on the characteristics of second language learners' effective word learning, as well as the importance of explicit vocabulary teaching.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covers different definitions of "collocation" and its empirical implication in applied linguistics with its different trends. Furthermore, it illustrates collocation, types of errors, and causes of errors. In addition, the second chapter of this study discussed the previous work already done.

#### 2.1 Collocation

Numerous scholars have offered diverse definitions of collocations, making it a captivating subject for researchers and linguists alike. While these definitions generally share similarities, there are subtle variations among them. According to Firth (1957: 181), collocations of a specific word can be understood as "statements of the habitual or customary places of that word." Firth discussed collocations as word combinations, where the significance of these combinations pertained to lexical meaning on the "syntagmatic level" (Firth, 1957).

Collocation is "the way in which words co-occur in natural text in statistically significant ways," according to Lewis (2000). He added in "2002" to improve his definition, when "certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency," (Lewis, 2002). Nation (2001) defined collocations as "items which frequently occur together and have some degree of semantic unpredictability." Furthermore, according to O'Keeffe et al. (2007) "Collocations are not absolute or deterministic, but are probabilistic events, resulting from repeated combinations used and encountered by the speakers of any language."

Sinclair, a prominent scholar, popularized another definition. He described collocation as "the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. "In Sinclair's view, collocations consist of word strings where one word, acts as a "node," with other words appearing before or after it to create collocations; these accompanying words are referred to as collocates. Furthermore, these word combinations occur frequently enough to be quantified through repetition in language usage.

Furthermore, some scholars approach collocations from a grammatical perspective. Kjellmer (1987) characterized collocation as "a sequence of words that occurs more than once in identical form in a corpus, and which is grammatically well structured." This interpretation suggests that collocations are word combinations defined lexically and constrained grammatically. According to this definition, a collocation is typically composed of two or more lexical words or a lexical word combined with a function word appearing in an identical sequence (Quping, 2012). Cowie (1994) similarly argued from a grammatical perspective, stating that "collocations are associations of two or more lexemes (or roots) recognized in and defined by their occurrence in a specific range of grammatical constructions (Cowie, 1994). "This definition implies that a word combination is not considered a collocation unless it adheres to grammatical structure.

Knowing a single word or a word family is not the only thing that makes up vocabulary. It entails being aware of the additional terms that frequently appear together. These word groups, known as collocations, are composed of two or more words that frequently occur together. Nattinger (1988) supported this by arguing that "a word's meaning has a great deal to do with the words with which it commonly associates." Thus, competency in these specific word pairings and word groupings is crucial for expanding one's vocabulary and word knowledge.

These word associations and groups aid learners in memorizing vocabulary and grasping the semantic nuances of words. Consequently, it's crucial for second language (L2) learners to acquire collocations; failing to do so can result in linguistic irregularities that mark their writing or speech as non-native. For instance, native speakers commonly use "rancid butter" to describe spoiled butter, where "rancid" serves as the collocate of "butter." However, it's important to recognize that while "rancid" typically collocates with "butter," the reverse association is not as strong—meaning "butter" weakly suggests "rancid," and "rancid" doesn't commonly co-occur with other words as "butter" does. Consequently, the word restricted in the combination, such as "rancid," is termed the keyword of the collocation. Nonetheless, it's worth noting that the keyword isn't always the first word in the combination.

Collocations can occur as sequences of many words, ranging in length from three to five words, and are not always pairings of words like "Adj+N." An additional reason is that a collocation's keyword needs not be restricted to the single word it pairs with; it might appear in a variety of terms. "Rancid" can therefore occur with other words, such as "rancid lard, rancid oil, etc." Though the keywords might occur with a variety of other words, it is important to remember that they cannot occur with any other word; for instance, "rancid cheese" is not a collocation. It may appear that these limitations are a barrier to learning issues at first look, but they normally lead to learning language or building vocabulary skills.

One approach to overcoming this learning challenge involves focusing on the semantic context of words. Taking the earlier example, "rancid" typically pairs with "butter," "lard," "oil," etc., all of which share a common semantic characteristic: they are "oily" in nature. Therefore, educators can utilize this semantic connection among

collocations to effectively teach them, contextualizing them and fostering students' awareness of the semantic relationships between them.

Regarding the syntactic aspects of collocations, they can be categorized into two main groups: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. In grammatical collocations, a word like a noun, verb, or adjective combines with a grammatical element, such as "by accident." In contrast, lexical collocations don't involve a grammatical element but rather pair with other lexical items like nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, as seen in "Spend money." Occasionally, these types of collocations may lead to errors due to the influence of the learner's native language (L1). Therefore, instructors should identify problematic collocations and prompt students to compare them in both L1 and L2, helping them recognize any differences.

Fontenelle (1994) offered an alternative perspective on collocations, drawing on Cowie's (1986) classification which distinguishes between free (or open) collocations and restricted collocations (Cowie, 1986). He elucidated that in free collocations, one component can be substituted with another word without altering the semantic meaning of the other component. For instance, "eat" can pair with a multitude of direct objects like "cake," "rice," "chocolate," etc. Additionally, "eat" can be interchanged with synonyms such as "devour," "munch," "gobble," etc. Kuiper (2007) proposed that "restricted collocations entail the preferential selection of word combinations that are often arbitrary and may also be idiomatic, lacking semantic compositionality." Consequently, in restricted collocations, one component is utilized in a figurative or specialized manner, as seen in the figurative usage of the verb "blow" in "one can blow a fuse" (Fontenelle, 1994).

It is clear from all of the aforementioned definitions that scholars cannot agree on a single definition for collocations. Grammatical and semantic aspects, as well as lexical co-

occurrence, have drawn increasing attention among the many factors. The following sections go over these collocation errors.

## **2.2 Difference between Errors and Mistakes**

Learning a language involves mastering proficiency in all four language skills, and errors are an inevitable aspect of this process. Neither the teacher nor the learner should overly dwell on them. However, it's beneficial for both parties to understand the common types of errors in written English, as they are often the most easily rectified. In error analysis (EA), the term "error" carries a distinct meaning different from that of "mistake." Corder (1981) makes a clear distinction between 'errors' and 'mistakes'. He defines errors as "failures of incompetence," whereas mistakes are deemed "failures in performance." Errors are systematic, unlike mistakes, as they reflect the underlying linguistic comprehension of language learners. Errors in competence typically stem from a lack of knowledge, while performance errors arise from issues like carelessness and fatigue (Chomsky, 1969).

Based on the aforementioned distinction, it can be argued that mistakes do not occur systematically and are influenced by physical, emotional, or psychological factors, whereas errors occur systematically due to a lack of knowledge, rather than external factors. Learners' verbal or written slips are categorized as 'mistakes' if they are self-corrected, without external aid, but as 'errors' if not. Despite the effort to differentiate between errors and mistakes, Ellis (1997) notes that it may not always be feasible to make a clear-cut distinction between them.

## **2.3 Collocation Errors**

Both first-language learners and second-language learners, despite often being at different stages of life, frequently encounter similar errors during the language acquisition process. They may undergo comparable stages and cognitive processes as they develop

language system understanding. Contrastive analysis focuses on identifying disparities between the first and second languages, leading solely to predictions of potential learning difficulties. It is quite apparent that a comprehensive approach to error analysis surpasses constructive analysis. During the language acquisition process, errors are practically unavoidable. Brown argued an error highlights a noticeable departure from the native speakers' proficient grammatical norms, indicating the learner's level of interlanguage competence. Applied linguistics discusses how an error broadly denotes to the learner's inappropriate use or misunderstanding of the second language. Indicating, incorrect usage of linguistic elements perceived as flawed or incomplete by fluent or native speakers. Vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and misinterpretation can lead to errors of a speaker, or the failure to achieve the intended communicative effect due to the improper use of speech acts or speaking conventions.

These errors, far from hindrances, are integral to the learning process, serving as valuable learning experiences. Consequently, errors can be regarded as a form of learning activity inherent to the learner's journey. Moreover, a learner's errors offer unique insights, providing researchers with evidence regarding language acquisition processes, strategies employed by learners, and the underlying mechanisms of learning.

When analyzing errors, two significant sources emerge. The first is interlingual transfer, wherein errors stem from language transfer originating from the speaker or learner's first language. The second one is known as intralingual transfer, which holds incomplete or faulty acquisition of the second language instead of language transfer. The influence of one target language element on another denotes Integral errors. Additionally, other major sources are the socio-linguistic context of communication, psycho-linguistic or cognitive strategies, and numerous affective variables.

Richards identified errors committed by second language learners attributed to the interference of the first language, suggested as interlingual errors. Contrastive analysis' weak version hypothesis was often referred to many errors. However, it was spotted that second language learners made plenty of similar errors, these errors termed as intralingual errors by Richards. In an influential paper learners' errors in second language acquisition, proved invaluable for understanding the process of language learning. After the classification of these errors, researchers gained insights into second language acquisition strategies. This led to the development of various error catalogs (Richards, 2014).

Overgeneralization is another reason for errors. Overgeneralization indicates learners' failure to adhere to rule boundaries. Others were attributed to simplification or redundancy reduction, such as omitting a plural marker from a noun after a cardinal number. Some errors were categorized on the basis of communication errors, arising from the implementation of communicative strategies. Additionally, errors could be induced by a teacher presenting two linguistic items in a manner confusing to the learner.

Collocations represent combinations of words that learners may incorrectly use, despite understanding the meaning of each component within the collocation. These errors in collocation usage can generally be classified into two main categories: interlingual errors and intralingual errors, as outlined by Gass and Selinker (2008).

## **2.4 Causes of Collocation Errors**

To clarify, collocation errors can be understood through two main principles. Firstly, interlingual errors occur when learners apply characteristics of their mother tongue (L1) to produce the target language (L2), resulting in errors that may reflect features of the L1. Conversely, intralingual errors involve the misuse of the rules of the target language itself.

To expand on this, Hong et al. (2011) identified several underlying factors contributing to collocation errors among EFL students. These factors encompassed elements such as language transfer, overgeneralization, disregard for existing structural rules, and approximation.

## **2.5 Interlingual Errors**

In the realm of applied linguistics, there's an understanding that the exploration of second language acquisition mirrors that of first language acquisition in many respects. This phenomenon is termed "interlanguage," denoting the distinct linguistic system developed by second language learners. Interlanguage occupies a structural middle ground between a learner's native language and the target language they are acquiring. Essentially, it represents the linguistic output of individuals in the process of learning a second or foreign language. This concept of interlanguage posits that, learners construct their own system for the second language based on their first language.

Interlingual errors arise from the influence of the learner's first language (L1), where they apply certain features of their native language to produce words or structures in their second language (L2). This phenomenon appears to be a significant factor contributing to collocation errors among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, as noted by Nesselhauf (2003). Odlin (1989) also attributes collocation errors to cross-linguistic influence or language transfer. Gass and Selinker (2008) further elaborate that EFL learners tend to draw comparisons between their native language and the target language (L2). For instance, French learners may produce sentences like "We just enjoyed moving and to play," mistakenly applying French grammar rules where verb complements are in the infinitival form without "-ing". This error reflects the transfer of French language principles, resulting in the collocation error "enjoyed to move" instead of "enjoyed

moving". Similarly, Thai EFL learners may exhibit delexically collocational errors due to L1 transfer, such as using "find/look for money" instead of "make/earn money," as observed by Yumanee (2013).

## 2.6 Intralingual Errors

Another significant source of errors is intralingual transfer, where an intralingual error arises from imperfect or incomplete acquisition of the target language rather than from language transfer. For instance, the sentence "She must goes" illustrates this, likely stemming from the blending of structures learned early in the learning process. Here, both the modal verb and the standard third-person singular "-s" suffix are incorrectly used, demonstrating an overgeneralization of the rule that in the present simple tense, there are no suffixes except for the third-person singular.

Intralingual errors may arise due to the complexities inherent in the second language (L2), leading learners to encounter difficulties within the L2 environment. As suggested by Scovel (2001), learners might experience confusion when encountering new patterns or structures in the L2 that contrast with their native language. James (1998) further emphasizes that intralingual errors can occur as a result of misapplication of the rules of the target language, influenced by the learners' prior experiences. Additionally, the misuse of collocations is plausible among EFL students; for instance, Thai EFL speakers may use "on free time" instead of "in free time," possibly stemming from confusion regarding the rules governing prepositions, as highlighted by Onubol (2013).

Intralingual errors are often made by intermediate learners. While error analysis is effective in analyzing errors made by second language learners, it has both advantages and drawbacks. Brown argues that error analysis overly emphasizes learner errors, overemphasizes production data, fails to consider avoidance strategies, and may

excessively focus on specific languages rather than universal language aspects. Therefore, a broader perspective, such as performance analysis, can also be useful in examining errors within the context of the learner's overall interlanguage performance.

## 2.7 Over Generalization

Overgeneralization occurs when individuals extend a rule to cover instances where it doesn't apply, and this phenomenon can manifest in various aspects such as semantics, syntax, morphology, or behavior. It is a systematic process that children instinctively employ, showcasing a strong contrast to the notion of mere imitation. It is regarded as a creative process, as stated by Marcus (1992), who emphasizes the creative nature of the psychological processes involved.

Overgeneralization leads to many errors. Consider the sentence "Today's news of troubles in the Middle East is very disturbing." Here, the learner mistakenly employs "are" instead of "is" due to not recognizing "news" as a singular collective noun, resulting in the correct sentence being "Today's news of trouble in the Middle East is very disturbing." Similarly, in "The police are investigating the case and hope to make an arrest soon," the learner uses "is" instead of "are," incorrectly treating "police" as a singular noun when it is actually plural.

Another example is "People should help each other," which although less typical, still occurs in student compositions. The error arises from overgeneralizing the rule of passive voice, as the student may believe that individuals in need are assisted by those around them.

Numerous theories exist regarding language acquisition. For instance, the relational frame theory Hayes (2001), adopts a selection perspective, building upon Skinner's behaviorist approach, which asserts that language acquisition is influenced by the type and

duration of linguistic interactions. The child's psychological experiences, including emotions, thoughts, and behaviors, play a significant role in language acquisition. Another theory, the Imitation Theory, suggests that children learn language by mimicking the speech of those around them, memorizing words and sentences to infer grammatical rules. While partially valid, this theory fails to explain the presence of errors in children's speech, which often occurs due to the complexity of language.

Moreover, some approaches take a neutral stance, considering both environmental and biological influences. For instance, Emergentist theories, like MacWhinney's competition model (2005), propose that language acquisition results from the interplay between biological factors and environmental stimuli. These theories suggest that the acquisition process emerges from the competition among various linguistic forms, such as syntax, vocabulary, and phonology.

However, these perspectives face challenges from theories that view language acquisition as an innate ability. Chomsky's generative grammar (1957, 1965, 1980) is a prominent example, positing that language acquisition is both innate and universal, driven by inherent cognitive structures.

According to Baker (2001), children possess inherent linguistic tools necessary for language acquisition, with other factors being of minimal significance. Supporting this perspective is the concept of Poverty of the Stimulus, as articulated by Lenneberg (1967) and Stromswold (2009). This argument questions how a child can generate utterances they've never heard and produce an infinite variety of sentences when their exposure to language is inherently limited. In essence, despite the restricted input, how do children develop such complex linguistic outputs? Moreover, why do children make errors such as saying 'goed' instead of 'went,' even though they likely heard 'went' but never 'goed'? This perspective revolutionized the study of language acquisition, showcasing that even very

young children can manipulate intricate sentences, challenging the notion that language acquisition is solely based on imitation. While Chomsky's idea is compelling, it must reconcile with the theory of imitation, acknowledging that children do indeed mimic certain aspects of language.

Other theories of language acquisition, such as chunking theories proposed by Freudenthal, Pine, and Gobet (2005), as well as Jones, Gobet, and Pine (2007), suggest that a child's linguistic input is influenced by the surrounding environment. These theories posit that learning involves acquiring meaningful chunks of linguistic constituents, such as phonemes, words, and syllables, which in turn facilitate syntactic and phonological production. These chunks form the foundation of a child's grammatical and phonological knowledge.

## **2.8 Causes of Over Generalization**

As previously discussed, overgeneralization can manifest in various forms. In the subsequent discourse, instances of overgeneralized tokens are classified into semantic, syntactic, and morphological categories.

### **2.8.1 Semantic Perspective**

The semantic aspect pertains to the relationship between words and their meanings. According to Shipley and McAfee (2008), a child typically acquires a vocabulary of fifty words or more by the age of 18 months. By the age of three, a child's vocabulary primarily consists of nouns or noun-like words, with some verb and adjective-like words. These words often denote properties, actions, greetings, or brief responses. Here are examples of overgeneralized words, focusing on nouns and adjectives:

Colors: The child predominantly used two colors to describe various objects: "red" and "brown." These colors were often used interchangeably, even for the same object.

Additionally, although the child didn't vocalize them, other colors were associated with specific objects. For instance, yellow and similar shades were linked to taxi cabs.

Numbers: At this age, it is uncommon for a child to accurately count numbers. The child only used three numbers: "one," "two," and "twenty." Interestingly, the child often combined the first two numbers as a compound (e.g., "one-two") for various purposes, including indicating plurals. Furthermore, the child humorously used "twenty" in place of "money," referring to cents or dollars as "twenty" regardless of the actual amount.

People and their titles: The child categorized all unfamiliar adult strangers as either "[amo]" (uncle) or "[khalto]" (aunt) based on their appearance. Any individual carrying a weapon or wearing a uniform was referred to as "[šotah]" (police). Similarly, all children were simply labeled as "[dada]." For example, upon seeing the neighbor's children playing outside, the child remarked: "[Mammy dada waha-nein]" (There are many children).

The child's linguistic errors are further demonstrated through overgeneralization in various semantic categories:

- i. Vehicles: Prior to receiving his first small bike, all vehicles, including bikes, motorcycles, and cars, were referred to as "[an-an]," while larger vehicles were labeled as "[baas]" (bus). Despite acquiring the bike, the child still struggled to differentiate between other vehicles, continuing to classify them as "[an-an]."
- ii. Animals and Insects: The child categorized animals based on size, using "[how-how]" for small animals like dogs, and "[san]" (horse) for larger animals. Insects were uniformly labeled as "[do-do]," regardless of species. Flying birds were called "[foor]" (bird), while non-flying birds were identified as "[tei?a]" (chicken).
- iii. Animal-like toys with Fur: Toys without fur were identified as dogs and horses, while those with fur, particularly a favorite rabbit toy, were called "[anoob]."

- iv. Flowers and Trees: All plants, including trees and flowers, were referred to as "[wada]" (flower), even artificial plants.
- v. Meals and Food: The child used the term "[ghada]" (lunch) to refer to all meals, disregarding their respective times. Additionally, he used the term "[amia]" for food, particularly rice, and differentiated candy sizes using "[neiha]" and "[nestala]."
- vi. Demonstratives: The child used "na" for "this" and "nak" for "that," assigning different meanings than intended. For instance, "this" referred to "now," while "that" represented "yesterday and tomorrow."

The absence of overgeneralization in verbs may be attributed to their limited number compared to nouns and adjectives, making it easier for the child to select the appropriate verb for each context. In contrast, the extensive variety of nouns and adjectives presents a challenge for the child, leading to the overextension of simpler terms to encompass others.

### **2.8.2 Syntactical Perspective**

Syntax primarily concerns the arrangement of words in a sentence and the structure of sentences themselves. Therefore, while not much is typically expected from children at Moodi's age in terms of constructing sentences, he should have demonstrated some basic syntactic understanding by now.

Arabic, as Moodi's first language, differs significantly from English in terms of syntax, particularly in word order within sentences. In Arabic, statements typically follow a VSO (Verb-Subject-Object) structure, and questions do not use auxiliaries, with the verb preceding the subject. Additionally, in adjective-noun ordering, the noun typically comes

before the adjective. This difference in word order presents a common challenge for Arabic learners of English as a foreign language.

### **2.8.3 Morphological Perspective**

Morphology, the study of word forms, varies between languages. Arabic stands out for its intricate morphology, attributed to its richness. For instance, plural forms can be created in multiple ways for a single word, each form carrying a distinct meaning. For example, the word for "writers" can appear as [kutab], [katabah], or [katateeb]. For young children, distinguishing or intentionally using a specific form for its intended meaning may seem daunting. Consequently, children often develop their own methods for forming plurals.

## **2.9 Language Transfer**

Gass (1983) elucidates how one's native language influences the use of a target language. For instance, a German speaker might construct English sentences like "What want you?", mirroring the sentence structure of German, "Was möchtest du?"

Wang & Shawn (2008) observed problematic collocations in the essays of Chinese and Swedish speakers, attributable to the influence of their native languages. For example, Chinese speakers used expressions like "do a great effort" instead of "make a great effort" and "make the damage" instead of "do damage," while Swedish speakers employed phrases like "do changes" instead of simply "changes" and "make the cleaning" instead of "clean." This phenomenon can be attributed to the tendency to apply the principles of their native languages (L1) in the target language (L2).

Furthermore, Baker (2011) suggests that EFL learners may resort to word-for-word translation when encountering unfamiliar collocations in the target language, leading to incorrect usage.

## **2.10 Violation of Rules**

Na-ngam (2005) uncovered that ignorance of rule restrictions can stem from misunderstandings regarding established structures. For instance, learners might use "I made her to do" instead of the correct form "I made her do it."

López (2016) demonstrated that students at the Catholic University of Cuenca (UCACUE) in Ecuador, whose first languages are Spanish and Shuar, make collocation errors in their essays. Some of these errors arise from ignorance of rule restrictions, such as using "do an effort" instead of "make an effort" or "a bunch of dogs" instead of "a pack of dogs."

## **2.11 Approximation**

Tang (2004) argued that EFL learners with limited proficiency in collocations tend to resort to synonyms and approximate translations from their native language to expand their vocabulary in the second language. This approach can lead to errors in selecting English synonyms. Additionally, Jing (2018) demonstrated that the use of a synonym's strategy can contribute to collocation errors among Chinese EFL learners, based on data analysis.

Onubol (2013) highlighted that Thai EFL students often make collocation errors due to reliance on approximation and synonyms. They frequently opt for words with similar meanings, such as "fix the problem" instead of "solve the problem" or "gain money" instead of "earn money." This indicates that students sometimes create phrases without considering the precise meanings in English.

## 2.12 Previous Studies

Angkana Mongkolchai (2008) assessed the collocation proficiency and patterns among 57 third-year English majors at Srinakharinwirot University. The study utilized a test comprising sentence completion and multiple-choice formats to collect data. Findings indicated a moderate proficiency level among students, with the highest competency observed in noun + noun patterns (68%) and the lowest in adverb + adjective constructions (36.18%).

Chittinan Yumanee (2011) examined collocation errors among Thai EFL students at different proficiency levels, involving 60 high school students. The study categorized errors into nine types of collocations and identified predominant misuse of noun + noun collocations among both high- and low-proficiency students. Error sources were attributed to various factors including synonymy strategies, learner invention, paraphrasing, and limited grammatical collocation knowledge.

Reina Becerra López (2016) investigated the collocation abilities and error causes among B1 level EFL students at the Catholic University of Cuenca, Ecuador. Analyzing essays on a given topic, findings revealed varying levels of competency across different collocation patterns, with errors stemming from literal translation, rule ignorance, overgeneralization, and conceptual misunderstandings.

Wanida Maneewan (2017) assessed the collocation competence of Thai EFL learners, focusing on common error types. The study involved 51 master's degree students and utilized questionnaires and cloze tests for data collection. Results indicated moderate competency levels among participants, with verb + noun errors being the most prevalent.

Ni LuhPutu Setiarini (2018) examined collocation errors among Indonesian EFL learners, involving 52 English majors at Universitas Gunadarma. Errors were

predominantly attributed to interlingual transfer for lexical collocations and intralingual errors for grammatical collocations.

Fatima Muhammad Shitu (2015) investigated lexical collocation errors in ESL learner essays, based on data from 300 advanced-level students. The study identified verb + preposition errors as the most frequent, with causes including native language influence and overgeneralization.

Hong et al. (2011) analyzed verb + noun collocation errors among Malaysian students, drawing from a corpus of 130 essays. Preposition errors were the most prevalent, with sources attributed to rule ignorance, approximation, L1 interference, and overgeneralization.

Thidakul Boonraksa & Supravadee Naisena (2022) conducted a study on collocation errors committed by Thai EFL students. This study utilized a qualitative approach to gather data on the collocation proficiency of Thai EFL students in their second year of the BA English and Business English programs at Northern Rajabhat University. The researchers administered a collocation proficiency test with 54 questions, taken from the Oxford 3000™, which included both multiple-choice and Thai-to-English translation questions. The data collected from the test was analyzed to identify collocation errors, which were then compared among three groups of students based on their proficiency levels. The researchers found that high-proficiency EFL students made moderate levels of Grammatical Collocation errors, whereas medium and low-proficiency students made high levels of such errors. All three groups of students made high levels of Lexical Collocation errors. The study also revealed that the main causes of collocation errors were language transfer from the student's first language, synonyms, and a lack of collocation competency. The most common Lexical Collocation error found in all groups was Adverb + Adjective. For Grammatical Collocation, Verb + Preposition was used better than Noun + Preposition

across all groups, and the high and medium-proficiency students were found to struggle the most with Adjective + Preposition, while low-proficiency students performed better with this type of collocation.

Hawraz q. Hama (2010) focused on collocational errors made by Kurdish senior students of Koya University's College of Languages located in Northern Iraq. The study collected quantitative data through the collocation completion test to spot the primary origins of collocational mistakes made by the said participants. Furthermore, the researcher gathered qualitative data via think-aloud protocols to determine the potential key source(s) of collocational errors. The study utilized two different tools to collect data and address the research question. The first tool was a test where participants had to complete collocations, and the second was a protocol where participants were asked to think aloud retrospectively. The results of the study confirmed that frequent collocations and interference from the learner's first language were the main reasons behind their collocational errors. The study was unable to differentiate the impact of part of speech and frequency on the correctness of collocations due to limitations in the collocation completion test. The findings also revealed that learners' errors in collocations often involved the use of synonyms for the collocates. Additionally, the study found that the mutual information and frequency of collocation components were not significant factors in producing correct collocations, as they did not result in collocational errors.

Mai Abdullah Alqaed (2022) conducted a study to investigate the explicit effect of the awareness-raising approach on lexical collocation awareness and knowledge. The study adopted a theoretical framework that combined the Language Awareness and Focus-on-Forms approaches, as proposed by Ellis (2001b). The former approach was used to empirically operationalize Svalberg's (2009) engagement with language construct, which analyzes learners' cognitive, social, and affective engagement with form-focused tasks. The

study examined the receptive and productive knowledge of second language learners. The findings indicated that the experimental group exhibited improved awareness and knowledge of lexical collocations compared to the control group. Additionally, the experimental group demonstrated higher engagement levels with lexical collocations, while the control group lacked cognitive, social, and affective engagement. The experimental group exhibited significant improvement in their test results, enriched peer interaction, and positive attitudes toward the intervention. Thus, the explicit awareness approach had a positive impact on enhancing lexical collocations learners' awareness and knowledge of the targeted lexical collocations.

Amal Barzanji (2016) conducted a study to explore the primary writing mistakes made by undergraduate students from Saudi Arabia, with a particular emphasis on the five most common ones. The study collected data from a large co-ed university located in the western region of Saudi Arabia, during a scheduled Short Essay Writing course. The class had two sections (Ln4-Ln5), with a total of 67 students, comprising 27 in one section and 40 in the other. The study found that the most prevalent writing error was missing/unnecessary words (17.86%), followed by spelling errors (15.66%), incorrect word choice (14.00%), article misuse (7.68%), and incorrect noun forms (6.68%). The research further revealed that the type of writing prompt had no impact on the overall number of errors. Nonetheless, it did affect the frequency and types of errors, as demonstrated in the differences between the last two categories of the five most common errors found in prompts A and B.

Dalal A. Al-Dubib (2013) conducted research to examine the English writing errors made by level-four students at the Languages and Translation College of Prince Noura University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The study uses error analysis techniques to identify and explain the errors and their sources. The corpus of the study comprises 6-7 essays from

each of the 20 Saudi female students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) at the university. The essays cover various types, such as short paragraphs, short stories, compare-and-contrast essay, a cause-and-opinion essay, a personal narrative essay, and a descriptive essay about their favorite dish. The findings show that the students face challenges in applying subject-verb agreement (SVA) rules in their written work, with 103 errors identified in relation to the present verb to be is (82 errors), are (17), and am (4). The research further indicates that a lack of knowledge of English grammar is the primary cause of the student's errors, accounting for 63.2% of the total errors found. The study concludes that the students need to improve their knowledge of subject-verb agreement (SVA) rules and English grammar to minimize the errors in their written production.

Noor and Adubaib (2011) conducted a study to evaluate the productive English collocational knowledge of 88 Saudi undergraduate English students at Taibah University. The test comprised contextualized translation and fill-in-the-blank tasks, and the collocations were selected using specialized collocation dictionaries, corpus examination, and native speaker intuition. The findings indicated that intermediate and advanced learners still faced difficulties in producing L2 collocations, consistent with previous research. The authors suggested that while L1 transfer may play a role in learners' errors, other intralingual factors may also contribute to poor collocational knowledge.

### **2.13 Empirical Investigation of Collocation in Applied Linguistics**

Gitsaki (1996) carried out a comparative investigation aimed at assessing learners' awareness of collocations across three tasks: essay writing, translation, and fill-in-the-blank exercises. The study involved ESL learners at three proficiency levels: post-beginner, intermediate, and post-intermediate. Results indicated a positive relationship between proficiency level and collocational knowledge. Additionally, the study found that

commonly occurring types of collocations were more readily acquired by second-language learners.

Jian, Chang, and Chang (2004) outlined an algorithm that utilizes both linguistic and statistical analyses to identify instances of "Verb+Noun" collocations from extensive corpora. Through this algorithm, they focused on extracting specific instances rather than general types, leveraging linguistic data from chunks and clauses. Additionally, they noted the presence of other patterns, including "Verb+Preposition+Noun" and "Verb+Noun+Preposition," which hold the potential for enhancing machine translation and computer-assisted language learning techniques.

Nesselhauf (2005) aimed to investigate the usage of collocations among advanced learners. The study had several objectives:

1. To pinpoint challenges faced by advanced learners in producing collocations.
2. To identify the factors contributing to these challenges.
3. To uncover the strategies and resources learners employ in generating collocations.
4. To propose recommendations for language instruction based on the findings.

The participants were German-speaking learners of English, with the study focusing specifically on verb-noun combinations in argumentative essays. The corpus comprised 150,000 words of learners' written work, from which approximately 2,000 verb+noun collocations were manually extracted. Results revealed that around a quarter of these collocations were incorrect, and a third was considered deviant, indicating errors or questionable usage. Furthermore, the study found that while prolonged exposure to English in English-speaking environments had a slight impact on collocational accuracy, the duration of classroom instruction had no discernible effect. Thus, increased exposure marginally enhanced collocational performance. Additionally, neither consulting

dictionaries nor time constraints significantly influenced the number of collocations produced or the occurrence of deviations, suggesting that learners were often unaware of collocational issues and lacked consistent control over their collocational productions.

Furthermore, it appeared that learners lacked spontaneous control over collocation production and did not employ collocations as frequently as native speakers to enhance fluency, particularly when writing under time constraints. Regarding problematic factors identified, approximately half of the cases of deviation were attributed to incongruence between the learner's intended expression in the second language (L2) and the corresponding expression in their native language (L1). Additionally, a significant proportion (over 60%) of verb-noun collocations exhibited word-for-word equivalence between German and English, further complicating collocation usage. The level of restriction associated with a collocation, alongside various production circumstances and usage patterns, was also correlated with deviations. Notably, L1 influence was evident in roughly half of the non-native collocations, contributing to various types of deviation. The study concluded that individual learner characteristics, such as motivation, language aptitude, and preferred learning strategies, likely played a role in collocational proficiency. Examination of learners' collocation production strategies revealed that "transfer" was commonly employed, although it was acknowledged that transfer could not be disentangled from other language production processes, as the produced output is typically influenced not only by the L1 but also by related expressions in the L2. Finally, it was noted that different types of transfer exhibited varying strengths across word classes, with verbs being more frequently affected by the transfer of formally related elements compared to nouns.

Moehkardi (2002) explored various types of English collocations and the challenges faced by Indonesian learners in acquiring them, as well as proposed solutions to address these difficulties. The researcher identified verb transitivity and phrasal verbs as significant

problems in learning grammatical collocations. Specifically, learners often struggle with distinguishing between transitive and intransitive verbs, understanding when certain verbs can be transitive in certain contexts, and determining the appropriate structure (infinitive with or without "to," gerund, or that clause) to follow certain transitive verbs. Additionally, Verb+Adverb combinations were highlighted as another source of confusion. Regarding lexical collocations, learners may feel more flexibility in combining words to form lexical collocations due to their nature. However, the challenge lies in the transfer of elements from their native language (L1), which can influence the formation of lexical collocations. As a solution, Moehkardi proposed increasing learners' awareness of these types of word combinations and assisting them in using them accurately and effectively. This approach aims to facilitate easier and more fruitful learning of collocations.

Nesselhauf (2003) examined the utilization of Verb+Noun collocations among advanced German learners of English. Thirty-two essays from these learners were gathered via a free writing activity. Analysis of the data revealed a significant influence of learners' native language (L1) on their Verb+Noun collocation usage. The most prevalent type of collocational error observed was the incorrect selection of verbs.

Bhumadhana (2010) aimed to investigate the common types of collocational errors and their origins among undergraduate students majoring in English at Walailak University. Additionally, she compared the use of verb collocations among three groups categorized by their English language proficiency—low, moderate, and high—and examined the correlation between the use of academic verb collocations and writing proficiency. Employing a writing assessment comprising 21 items, she administered it to 155 students across the three proficiency levels. The study revealed that the most common type of error was Verb+Noun collocations, with approximation identified as the primary source of these errors. Furthermore, students with higher English proficiency achieved notably higher

scores on the assessment. Lastly, a significant association was observed between the writing competence of students at the moderate proficiency level and their utilization of academic verb collocations.

## **2.14 Empirical Investigation of Collocation in Other Disciplines**

Gulec and Gulec (2015) examined the usage of Verb+Noun lexical collocations across the fields of health, physical, and social sciences within the academic written genre. Their objective was to identify both similarities and differences among verbs and their associated collocations. Employing frequency and Chi-square tests, they analyzed texts from these disciplines. The findings revealed 165 frequently used verbs across the three corpora. Notably, there were more similarities observed between health and physical sciences, while social sciences exhibited significant differences from both health and physical sciences. Specifically, collocates in social sciences displayed greater variation in their attachment to identified verbs compared to collocates in health and physical sciences. Moreover, the number of verbs attracting collocates was more restricted in health and physical sciences than in social sciences.

In a separate study, Giacomini (2015) conducted corpus-based research on collocational variation in language for special purposes (LSP), an area she believed was largely overlooked in bilingual LSP lexicographic resources. Analyzing terminological variation at both formal and semantic levels, she utilized a balanced monolingual (LSP) corpus containing texts from technical domains, specifically the building and energy subfields. This corpus was compiled through specialized translation tasks at Heidelberg University's Department of Translation. Giacomini aimed to identify recurrent patterns in collocational behavior. Her findings indicated that existing lexicographic resources often inadequately accounted for variational models in collocations.

Gledhill (2000) explored lexico-grammatical patterns in language, highlighting how these patterns, including lexical collocations, idioms, and phraseology of grammatical items, could signify the prototypical phraseology of a specific genre. His aim was to explain "the phraseology characteristic of the research article genre" using a computer-based approach. He specifically investigated collocations of grammatical words, considering both the "textual function of collocation and the significance of fixed expressions within the discourse community" (2000). Gledhill (2000) conducted his study by analyzing the "introduction" sections of 150 cancer research articles. His analysis led to the conclusion that collocations served diverse functions within these specialized texts. He observed that collocation sometimes pertained to terminology, reflecting the recurring semantics of the specialist domain, while in other instances, it revealed the predominant discourse strategies employed in research articles. Gledhill suggested that these lexico-grammatical correspondences specific to the cancer research article genre could be applicable across various levels of specialization and time periods. Ultimately, he argued that collocational patterns signify a broader relationship extending beyond individual texts, reflecting an evolutionary process that has shaped the conventions of numerous phrases within the language of cancer research.

Ackermann and Chen (2013) undertook a study to create and assess the Academic Collocation List (ACL). They analyzed the written portion of the Pearson International Corpus of Academic English (PICA), which encompassed more than 25 million words. This corpus covered various academic disciplines, including applied sciences and professions (such as architecture, business, education, engineering, health sciences, media studies, and law), humanities (history, linguistics, literature, arts, general humanities, philosophy, and religion), social sciences (anthropology, archaeology, cultural studies, gender studies, politics, psychology, and sociology), and natural/formal sciences (earth

sciences, chemistry, physics, computer sciences, mathematics, biology, and ecology). The development of the ACL involved four main stages: initial computational analysis of the corpus, refinement of data considering both quantitative and qualitative factors, evaluation of the data by experts, and systematic organization. While they acknowledged the value of statistical analysis in identifying and prioritizing collocational items derived from the corpus, Ackermann and Chen argued that human intervention was essential to ensure the pedagogical effectiveness of the resulting collocation list for academic purposes. By employing a mixed-method approach that combined computational analysis with expert judgment and systematic organization, they successfully created the Academic Collocation List. This resource is intended to assist English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students and instructors in focusing on mastering common collocations relevant to their respective fields of study.

Akbar, Pathan, and Shah (2018) emphasize that mastering the four fundamental language skills is crucial for learning English, with writing being particularly important. Effective writing enables individuals to clearly express their ideas (Sadiku, 2015; Kumar et al., 2021). According to Chandio, Khan, and Samiullah (2013), creative writing involves using imagination and innovation, requiring strong thinking skills. Writing also heavily relies on vocabulary, not just knowing words individually but understanding words that frequently occur together (Murcia, 2001; Çakmak et al., 2021). Collocation is defined as the habitual co-occurrence of words within a certain context (Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013), making it an essential aspect of vocabulary knowledge.

Akhtar & Dr. Nur Rasyidah Mohd Nordin (2020) Teaching and learning collocations can be challenging, especially for foreign language learners Ucar & Yükselir, (2015). Effective communication in a foreign language requires the appropriate use of collocations, which is why recent attention has focused on their importance for EFL

learners Ariffin & Abdi, (2020). EFL learners often struggle with English writing because it is not their first language, leading researchers and writing specialists to seek methods to improve their creative writing skills (Ismail, 2011; Kumar, 2020). Studies indicate that teaching and learning collocations significantly enhance writing skills Ashouri & Mashhadi Heidar, 2015; Mounya, 2017; Sadoughvanini, (2012).

Iqbal & Sheharyar (2024) The environment also significantly influences idea generation, with negative environments hindering creativity. Essex (1996) emphasized that a supportive and independent environment fosters creativity, whereas a restrictive environment stifles it. In many classrooms, the teacher is the sole authority, imposing their ideas on students, which can be dull and restrictive. This approach discourages students from developing their own ideas. According to Harmer (2004), broad thinking is crucial for creativity; narrow-mindedness impedes creative growth. Both creativity and creative writing require time, dedication, and an open mind. Harmer further explains that students should be free-thinking individuals, unrestricted by rigid boundaries, to excel in creative writing. Limiting their thoughts prevents them from being effective creators. Similarly, Tarnopolsky (2005) notes that a broad-minded learner is essential for becoming a creative writer. The impact of collocations on creative writing among Pakistani college students. Using a corpus-based approach, the research revealed that collocations significantly enhance the quality of creative writing. Specifically, the findings indicated that employing collocations enabled learners to produce more natural and fluent language, which is crucial for effective communication. Additionally, the study demonstrated that corpus-based tools, such as AntConc, are highly effective in assisting learners to identify and utilize collocations in their writing. These results have important implications for teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Pakistan, suggesting that a corpus-based approach can greatly improve learners' writing skills.

Rehman & Hussain (2021) Dictionaries are a vital resource for language learning, and their importance and effectiveness in education and pedagogy are undeniable. In Pakistan, English holds a prestigious status as an official language. Pakistani English, a localized variety reflecting cultural traits, is used for both internal and external communication. However, Pakistani English is under-researched, with limited studies available. This study focuses on developing features for a Pakistani English dictionary of collocations. Learners of Pakistani English focus on mastering vocabulary, forms, pronunciation, and meanings. To achieve fluency in Pakistani English, EFL learners must understand phrase, sentence, and text combinations. The co-occurrence of words, known as collocation, involves the habitual pairing of words (Firth, 1957). Halliday (1961; 1966) provided a mathematical description of collocation, defining it as the syntagmatic relationship of words quantifiable by their likelihood of co-occurrence. Benson (1989) argued that collocations are arbitrary word combinations that cannot be translated or predicted separately. Studying collocations is relatively new and can be confusing for EFL learners. Therefore, it's essential to emphasize these word combinations in EFL classrooms. This study investigates Pakistani English collocations from a lexicographic perspective. Although not exhaustive, it aims to motivate further research and new approaches in developing Pakistani English dictionaries of collocations, opening new horizons for English language learning and teaching.

Anwar & Akhlaq (2012) Phonology, orthographic, and grammatical aspects are considered significantly, whereas the lexical level receives comparatively less attention. Teachers often overlook students' lexical challenges, concentrating more on paradigmatic relationships rather than the syntagmatic aspects of lexical items. This study recognizes lexical errors as equally important, if not more critical, than grammatical errors in hindering communication. Sonaiya (1988) notes that native speakers perceive lexical errors as more

serious because word choice greatly impacts communication. ESL learners lacking collocational competence tend to focus on isolated lexical items as found in dictionaries, often struggling to articulate ideas using simple vocabulary one word at a time. McCarthy (1990) states that "Knowledge of appropriate collocations is part of the native speakers' competence." Therefore, teaching collocations should be central to second language instruction. Research from the past two decades emphasizes that a lack of collocational knowledge causes significant problems for language learners. Collocation refers to the relationship between individual terms and the words that frequently co-occur with them in a particular language. For example, the term "educational institution" commonly brings to mind words like students, teachers, and books, but not words like criminals, cooking, or fashion. The research concludes that students struggle with learning collocations. It is vital to not only expose ESL learners to language through reading and listening but also to provide ample opportunities for them to creatively use this knowledge in speaking and writing tasks. A survey of English language textbooks used in Pakistan's preparatory and secondary levels reveals a lack of emphasis on teaching collocations, contributing to the scarcity of collocational knowledge even at advanced levels. McCarthy (1990) explains that "knowledge of collocation is based on years of experience with large amounts of data," highlighting the need for learners to be given sufficient data and exercises on collocations to build their competence. The results show that while students had less difficulty with activities based on receptive knowledge, they struggled to apply this knowledge in writing tasks. Therefore, it is crucial for syllabus designers and teachers to create more activities that enhance students' creativity, as effectively using learned knowledge is key to mastering a language.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter outlines the research design, research questions, research objectives, hypothesis, problem statement, participants, instruments, procedures, and data analysis techniques employed in the study. The purpose is to provide a detailed account of how the research conducted, ensuring the study's validity and reliability. The study adopts quantitative approach to glean a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. This choice stems from the recognition that a singular method may not sufficiently capture the complexity of the research questions. The quantitative element allows for a more nuanced exploration, offering both depth and breadth to the findings.

The participants have been selected for this study constitute a critical element in ensuring the generalizability and applicability of the results. The sample consists intermediate students. Students are from the rural backgrounds and their age groups between from 16 to 19. All participants came from different private and governmental schools. All participants are girls. The non-random sampling method is applied.

Instruments have been utilized in the study are carefully selected to align with the research objectives and ensure the collection of robust data. To collect data pretest and posttest are conducted. The questionnaire is used for both the pre- and post-tests. Test comprises of 50 various multiple-choice questions and each question offers four choices. The close-ended nature of the questionnaire makes it possible for participants to select an answer from one of the four options provided in order to collect the data.

The systems have been utilized in the review are carefully illustrated to ensure consistency and replicability. Moral contemplations, including informed assent and member classification, are foremost. Members are furnished with clear data about the

review's motivation, methods, and their freedoms, and their willful support is stressed. Thorough moral rules are complied with all through the information assortment and examination stages.

To gain useful insights from the data that has been gathered, data analysis methods are selected with care. Quantitative information goes through measurable examinations, including spellbinding measurements and inferential tests, connections, and genuinely critical connections.

This section gives a nitty gritty work of the examination plan, members, instruments, methods, and information investigation procedures utilized in the review. The fastidious preparation and execution illustrated in this highlight the obligation to leading a thorough and solid examination. By elucidating each facet of the research process, this chapter lays the foundation for robust findings that contribute meaningfully to the existing body of knowledge in the field.

### **3.1 Research Design**

The research design of this study is quasi-experimental. A quasi-experimental design allows both pre-test and post-test, random assignment and two groups; experimental group and control group. Both groups have pre-test and post-test. In quasi-experimental design, the experimental group receives treatment; in contrast, the control group has no treatment. After treatment completion, both groups have post-test.

According to the above explanation, the current research is quasi-experimental research. There are two groups in this study; experimental group and control group. The experimental group has a pre-test; in addition, experimental group has received treatment and has a post-test. In the other hand; control group has a pre-test and post-test but has no treatment.

**Table no 3.1**

| <b>Groups</b>      | <b>Tools</b> | <b>Treatment</b>                                        | <b>Tools</b> |
|--------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Experimental group | Pre-test     | Experimental treatment (using paper notes, white board) | Post-test    |
| Control group      | Pre-test     | No treatment received                                   | Post-test    |

### **3.2 Setting**

The research has taken place at intermediate students of academic year 2023-2024. The majority of the students come from rural backgrounds and their first languages are Punjabi, Saraiki and Urdu. The research has been conducted during 2024.

### **3.3 Participants**

#### **3.3.1 Selection Criteria**

The selection and characterization of participants are pivotal elements in the study, shaping the representativeness and applicability of the findings. The research draw participants from two distinct groups of intermediate-level students situated in Multan, Southern Punjab, providing a geographically specific lens to the investigation. The city's cultural and linguistic context adds a layer of richness to the study, acknowledging the influence of local nuances on language learning experiences.

Participants were selected non-randomly from the said population. The participants were selected on the basis of their matriculation marks in English subject. Students who scored 40 to 50 percent marks in English subject were selected. Further, these students were divided into two groups. The first was an experimental group and the second was control group.

The control group, comprising 15 students, has experienced traditional classwork reflective of conventional class activities. These activities might incorporate standard educational plan conveyance, text-book based learning, and traditional classroom activities. The rationale behind choosing a control group unveiled traditional strategies lies in laying out a pattern against which the viability of the collocation-centered showing mediation can be estimated. By having a similar gathering with regular openness, the review intends to perceive the particular effect of the mediation on collocational capability.

On the other hand, the 15 students in the experimental group have received a focused teaching intervention that focused on collocations. An educational program explicitly intended to expand mindfulness, information, and use of collocations is instructed to this gathering. Creative educational methodologies, specific informative materials, and intelligent exercises are all important for the intercession to assist understudies with acquiring a more profound perception of collocations. The experimental group's unwavering focus on collocations aims to separate and evaluate the effect of this particular showing technique on members' collocational ability.

Also, the consideration of middle level understudies as members improves the review's profundity. This populace has been decisively decided to address a phase of language capability in which understudies have gained major language abilities yet may experience issues dominating more mind-boggling ideas like collocations. To amplify its effect on members' collocational skill, the mediation is planned to harmonize with this essential stage in language advancement.

It is critical that the geographical distinction of Multan, Southern Punjab, contributes a significant perspective to the study. Members' opportunities for language development may be affected by the phonetic and social environment of the area, which may also affect their receptivity to specific teaching methods. This regional spotlight gives

a nuanced perspective on the genuine nature of the intercession inside a specific sociolinguistic setting, working on the research external authenticity.

### **3.3.2 Sampling**

The non-random technique has been used to select participants. To guarantee the gatherings are similar at the start, members are chosen in light of predefined measures, like language capability, scholarly foundation, and segment qualities. Non-random strategies have utilized to appoint members to the control and exploratory gatherings, limiting expected predispositions and improving the inside legitimacy of the review. To enable a more precise evaluation of the intervention's impact, the intention is to establish homogeneous groups at the beginning of the study.

## **3.4 Instruments**

### **3.4.1 Pre-test and Post-Test**

A pre-test and post-test are regulated to the two groups to gauge the pattern collocation blunders and survey the effect of the educating intercession. The tests are comprised of numerous multiple-choice questions, where members are expected to distinguish and address collocation. This perspective warrants investigation into the elements affecting the determination of less traditional collocations and the likely effect on in general language capability.

All in all, the nuanced examination of members' reactions in the benchmark group reveals insight into the complexities of collocational information obtaining. The noticed varieties in underlining methodologies, capability in distinguishing assembles, and the joining of collocations in free composing highlights the powerful idea of language learning. The foundation for improving instructional strategies, addressing specific areas of need,

and fostering a stronger collocational competence among language learners is this comprehensive comprehension.

### 3.5 Teaching Intervention Materials

A structured teaching intervention based on identified collocation errors has been given to the experimental group. The materials included like activities, models, and exercises intended to improve collocation mindfulness and right utilization.

### 3.6 Procedure of Data Collection

#### 3.6.1 Data Collection for Experimental Group

##### Pre-Testing

Before the intervention, experimental group undergoes a pre-test to establish initial level of collocation proficiency. Pre-test provides a baseline for comparison with the post-test results.

**Table No. 3.2**

| <b>Lecture</b> | <b>Tool</b> | <b>Topic</b> | <b>Indicator</b>                                                                                                                       |
|----------------|-------------|--------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| I              | Pre-test    | collocation  | Multiple choice questions<br>Noun+verb<br>Verb+Noun<br>Adjective+Noun<br>Noun+Noun<br>Adverb+Adverb<br>Verb+Adverb<br>Verb+preposition |

### 3.7 Teaching Intervention

#### 3.7.1 Introduction

In the context of L2 language classrooms, Nation (2001) suggests that vocabulary learning is one of the primary goals. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) emphasize the importance of L2 learners acquiring a large number of lexical items for effective language learning,

while Read (2000) notes that many learners perceive it as a challenging goal. Having a comprehensive knowledge of vocabulary items has been proven to be essential for mastering other language skills, including writing, reading, listening, and speaking. Joe, (1995); Huckin& Bloch, (1993); Laufer, (2001); Hsu & Hsu, (2007); Hsu & Chiu, (2008) conversely, lacking vocabulary knowledge can negatively impact L2 learners' receptive and productive language skills Webb & Nation, (2017), and advanced learners may experience difficulty in their communicative ability due to 'lexical gaps' (Read, 2000). The experimental group has received the collocation-focused teaching intervention over a specified period, incorporating various teaching techniques such as paper notes, group activities, and individual exercises. Experimental group received five weeks treatment; three lectures has been delivered in a week and each lecture lasted 40 minutes.

### 3.7.2 Collocation

The term 'collocation' originated in Late Middle English and was derived from the Latin word collocation which refers to the habitual placement of a particular word alongside another word or words with a frequency greater than chance. This linguistic phenomenon involves placing words side by side or in a specific position. The Longman Collocations Dictionary and Thesaurus describe collocations as words that are often used together. While these dictionaries provide a broad definition, they emphasize the regular and frequent occurrence of words. However, there are more definitions and characteristics of collocations beyond what these dictionaries have presented. The following table summarizes the description of collocations found in the vocabulary literature.

**Table No. 3.3**

| <b>Author(s) name, year and page number</b> | <b>Collocation definition</b>                                            |
|---------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| (O'Dell & Broadhead, 2014)                  | "It is important to know which words collocates (commonly go together)." |

|                           |                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| (Webb et al., 2013)       | “Co-occurrence of words within a given span demonstrating a statistical strength of co-occurrence.”                                                                                                                         |
| (Laufer & Waldman, 2011)  | “Habitually occurring lexical combinations that are characterised by restricted co-occurrence of elements and relative transparency of meaning”.                                                                            |
| (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009) | “The relationship a lexical item has with items that appear with greater than random probability in its context.”                                                                                                           |
| (Shin & Nation, 2008)     | “A group of two or more words that occur frequently together, and it is not restricted to two-or three-word sequences.”                                                                                                     |
| (Nesselhauf, 2003)        | “The term ‘collocation’ is used in a phraseological rather than in a frequency-based sense, which means that it is used to denote a type of word combinations... rather than the co-occurrence of words in a certain span.” |

Several linguists, including Lewis and Conzett (2000) and O'Dell and McCarthy (2017), have suggested a similar classification of the seven categories of LCs discussed earlier. Although Benson et al. (2010) do not describe the reasoning behind this thematic classification in their dictionary, it can be used in many empirical studies.

On the basis of definitions and types of collocations in the literature, it can be supposed that they all consider the syntagmatic relationship between two or more words is collocation that occur together frequently, habitually, or statistically. Following paragraph will illustrate an approach based on frequency.

### 3.8 The Frequency-Based Approach

The term "collocations" was first coined by J.R. Firth, an eminent British linguist who proposed that a collocation can be understood by the co-occurrence of words. The many-sided and nonstop improvement of information in light of language recurrence in the field of etymology has involved a few researchers throughout the long term. One of the

trailblazers in this space was George Kingsley Zipf, an American etymologist eminent for his measurable examination of language. In the 1930s and 1940s, Zipf made the idea that a language's structure and organization could be learned from its frequency of words and linguistic structures. In his book "Human Way of behaving and the Standard of Least Exertion," which was distributed in 1949, he introduced his thoughts on the connection among language and human way of behaving and presented the idea of "Zipf's regulation." As per this regulation, the recurrence of a word is conversely corresponding to its position in a recurrence table. From that point forward, numerous etymologists and scientists have developed Zipf's work, refining the apparatuses and strategies used to look at language.

For more than a decade, there has been a range of opinions regarding the most effective approach to teaching second language collocations. Some experts, such as Krashen and Shen (2004), believe that the best way to learn pre-made and individual chunks is through incidental exposure to language input. However, other researchers argue that explicit instruction and exposure (known as Form-Focused Instruction) is beneficial for learning vocabulary (Ellis, 2001b; Laufer&Girsai, 2008; Webb & Kagimoto, 2011), and using authentic discourse as a source for teaching materials Leech (1997) O'Dell & McCarthy (2017). There is a limited number of studies that have explored explicit learning of collocations in EFL learners, despite its importance. Some researchers, such as Jiang (2009), Ying and O'Neil (2009), and Peters (2009), have investigated the effectiveness of awareness-raising approaches in developing learners' collocational knowledge. Jiang's study focused on raising learners' awareness of collocational usage in two different corpora, using contrastive approaches and designing receptive and productive collocation awareness tasks. The participants reported positive attitudes towards the tasks and felt that they had developed a sense of collocational awareness. Ying and O'Neil's (2009) study used reflective journal writing to explore learners' awareness of collocations over five months.

The results showed that the participants developed a metacognitive level of collocation awareness. However, there was no adequate measure of collocation knowledge before and after the treatment to verify the development of learners' collocational knowledge. Peters (2009) applied consciousness-raising activities to "English" as a foreign language (EFL) student and found that they did not have a significant effect on the participants' use of collocations in the post-test, contradicting previous research. She also found that both groups tended to use single words more often. The validity of Peters' study is unclear due to some limitations. The optimal approach for developing second language collocation knowledge in an instructional setting is a topic of debate. While some researchers argue for implicit and incidental exposure to language input, others favor explicit instruction and exposure, including using authentic discourse in pedagogical and textbook material. Despite the interest in explicit instruction, there are relatively few studies exploring the acquisition of collocations under these conditions. Some studies that have been conducted used an awareness approach to develop learners' collocational knowledge. However, the effectiveness of these approaches has not been adequately measured.

One study has used a contrastive approach to raise learners' awareness of collocations and found positive feedback from participants. Another study used reflective journal writing to explore learners' awareness of collocations and found that participants developed a met cognitive level of awareness. However, there was no adequate measure of collocation knowledge before and after the treatment in either study. Another study found that consciousness-raising activities did not have a significant effect on learners' use of collocations in a post-test.

### **3.9 Frequency and Usage**

This approach to collocations focuses on their role in applied linguistics, the study of grammar, phonetics, and phonology, and their predictability in word combinations. Different etymologists, including Halliday and Sinclair, have based upon Firth's work and fostered the neo-Firthian way of thinking. Sinclair characterizes collocations as the event of at least two words inside a short space of one another in a text, with the "short space" being characterized as four words to the left and right sides of the hub. Nesselhauf further elaborates on Sinclair's notion of collocation span and node position, where words that frequently occur with a particular node are considered collocates. Sinclair distinguishes between casual and significant collocations, where the latter occur more frequently and in closer association in a text. The definition of collocations varies across studies, with some researchers emphasizing frequency as a component of collocation co-occurrence, while others are more cautious with the term. The different attitudes towards defining collocations under the notion of habitual co-occurrence can make it challenging to develop an ideal definition.

Evert (2008) aligned with the Neo-Firthian school's view on collocations and expanded on the concept of co-occurrence, which refers to the short span of lexical items that constitute collocations. Evert (2008) identifies three types of co-occurrences surface, textual, and syntactic.

### **3.10 Collocation Knowledge of ESL Learners**

Studies examining the proficiency of ESL learners' understanding of collocations can be categorized into these categories traditional pen and paper studies, and psycholinguistic investigations. These areas of research have been applied to advanced L2 learners to explore their comprehension of multi-word expressions such as collocations and

idioms. Other researchers have concentrated on the utilization of multi-word expressions in writing. Specifically, Granger (1998) and Nesselhauf (2003) have explored this area of research. In the forthcoming sections, this research domain of collocational knowledge in EFL contexts is further discussed.

### **3.11 Traditional-Paper and Pen Studies**

The second type of research on ESL learners' collocational knowledge involves using paper and pen tests. The "paper pen approach" in linguistics refers to the manual transcription and analysis of data on spoken language using pen and paper. This procedure has been utilized by numerous etymologists throughout the long term, and its improvement can't be credited to a solitary person. Be that as it may, William Labov, a noticeable language specialist, broadly used this strategy in his exploration. Labov is famous for his spearheading work in the field of sociolinguistics, and has led various examinations on language variety and change in different networks all through the US. A few of these investigations depended on the paper pen way to deal with decipher and examine communicated in language information. Many other linguists have used mentioned technique in their studies like Deborah Tannen, Erving Goffman, and Dell Hymes, and many others.

Bahns and Eldaw (1993) conducted a study on advanced German EFL learners' productive knowledge of verb + noun collocations using translation and cloze tasks. The results showed that even advanced learners struggle with collocations, and inadequate knowledge of collocations can affect their overall vocabulary.

The conducted tests used in the study consisted of two tasks, multiple choice and fill-in-the-gap. The researcher investigated the difficulties to a lack of L2 collocational knowledge, L1 transfer, and irregularities between L1 and L2 collocations.

### **3.12 Lexical Collocations (LCs) Awareness-raising Activities**

Over the last decade, there has been an increase in the availability of language learning resources that focus on vocabulary, such as those created by Barlow & Burdine (2006), Folse (2011), and McCarthy & O'Dell (2005). However, these materials often fail to address the difficulties that learners encounter when using vocabulary inappropriately, particularly in the context of collocations. Consequently, there is a requirement for educational resources that help learners recognize and overcome these problematic issues when acquiring collocations.

### **3.13 The Importance of Teaching Collocations**

However, other scholars such as Jiang (2009) and Lewis and Conzett (2000) have suggested that learners should focus on acquiring collocates that are already stored in their mental lexicon, thereby extending their knowledge of collocations. In a well-known study by Webb and Kagimoto (2011), L2 Japanese learners' ability to produce collocations was evaluated, and the results suggested that explicit instruction and practice are necessary for learners to acquire this language feature the learners responded positively to a specific limited set of node words and their various collocates, compared to a list of collocations. This approach helped expand their awareness and proficiency in the targeted collocations.

### **3.14 Approaches to Teaching Collocations**

Learners view teachers as important facilitators in language learning, and they rely on their guidance. Hill (2000) suggests that teachers should teach not only new words but also the collocates that go with them. However, this should be done with intermediate learners since low-level learners may not be able to comprehend too much lexical information related to a lexical item (Nation, 2001). Therefore, it is important to consider learners' cognitive processing abilities when teaching collocations.

Furthermore, teachers should make learners awareness of the importance of chunking in language learning (Ellis, 2001b), directing their attention to multi-word expressions rather than individual lexical items. According to Lewis and Conzett (2000), learners who acquire collocations are better equipped to produce language that is natural and fluent. Teachers are important for facilitating language learning, as they provide extensive input for learners. Hill (2000) suggests that teachers should inform learners of collocates when teaching new words. However, this should be done with consideration of learners' cognitive processing, as too much information can be overwhelming for low-level learners (Nation, 2001).

Collocation dictionaries, such as The Longman Collocation Dictionary of Contemporary English and the Oxford Learner Collocation Dictionary, can be valuable resources for learners to enhance their collocation knowledge. However, Boulton (2008) and Nesi (2014) note that language learners often underuse and underestimate the value of dictionaries. Corpora and concordances are also identified as a richer and more authentic source for learners to learn collocations (Sinclair, 1991). Johns (1990) proposed the use of corpora for language learning, known as Data-Driven Learning (DDL), but it has limitations.

Note-taking is another resource in collocation learning (Schmitt, 1998; Woolard, 2000), where learners record and revise collocations that they come across. Woolard (2000) describes this resource as "the notebook is not just a decoding tool, but a resource which individuals can use as an encoding instrument to guide their production". This strategy can push learners to become more independent in choosing the collocations they need, although it may be perceived as old-fashioned. Learners nowadays have the option to use their electronic devices such as computers or smartphones to keep a digital record of collocations

or utilize collocation applications. To sum up, learners require guidance from teachers in the early stages of learning to prepare them for self-directed learning in the future.

### **3.15 Choosing which Collocations to Teach**

Teachers must carefully select which collocations they teach to their students. Woolard (2000) recommends focusing on collocations that are difficult for learners. Teachers can also help learners become aware of their mistakes by highlighting errors made by other learners. Consciousness-raising activities targeting learners' weaknesses can be helpful in this regard (Thornbury, 1999).

In selecting which collocations to teach, the strength of the collocation should also be considered. Collocations can be unique, strong, medium-strength or weak (Hill, 2000). Unique collocations are fixed collocates with strong associations, while strong collocations have a node that is strongly associated with the collocate, with no other options. Medium-strength and weak collocations have more flexible associations, with medium-strength collocations being particularly important for learners, as they constitute a large portion of collocations and are often seen as individual lexical items.

Another approach to select collocations is to present learners with synonymous words, which can help expand their vocabulary and provide a deeper understanding of collocations (Hill, 1999; Woolard, 2000). When L2 learners are aware of the range of meanings associated with collocations, it can positively impact their learning. However, Webb and Kagimoto (2011) argue that presenting Japanese learners with collocates of synonyms had a negative effect on their ability to develop collocations.

In selecting which collocations to teach, researchers and teachers should consider their learners' needs, such as identifying underused collocations, difficulties in acquiring

them, or errors in their discourse. The targeted collocations should be chosen with the learners' needs in mind.

**Table No. 3.4**

| <b>Lecture</b> | <b>Treatment</b> | <b>Topic</b>                                         | <b>Content</b>                              |
|----------------|------------------|------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| II             | Treatment I      | Introduction of collocation<br>Types of collocation  | Definitions<br>Brief explanation            |
| III            | Treatment II     | Noun+Noun collocation                                | Definition<br>Brief explanation<br>Examples |
| IV             | Treatment III    | Adjective+Noun<br>Verb+Noun collocations             | Definition<br>Brief explanation<br>Examples |
| V              | Treatment IV     | Verb+Preposition<br>Adverb+Adjective<br>Collocations | Definition<br>Brief explanation<br>Examples |
| VI             | Treatment V      | Verb+Adverb<br>Noun+Verb<br>Collocations             | Definition<br>Brief explanation<br>Examples |

### 3.16 Lexical Collocation Resources

In most classrooms, dictionaries are considered a primary resource for vocabulary learning (Webb & Nation, 2017). Learners consult dictionaries to check the meaning of words they have encountered while reading or intentionally learn new words, their usage, and collocations. Both hard-copy and online dictionaries are available to learners. Examples of hard-copy LCs dictionaries are The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (Benson et al., 2010), Longman Collocations Dictionary and Thesaurus (Mayor et al., 2013), and Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (2009). The first combines phraseology, grammar, and LCs and is organized according to seven types of LCs, while the others present each word entry and its collocates separately.

### 3.17 Post-Testing

After the intervention, experimental group has a post-test to evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching method in reducing collocation errors. The post-test is similar to the pre-test to ensure consistency in evaluation. The post-test phase represents a critical juncture in the study, serving as the primary means of assessing the impact and efficacy of the implemented intervention. This section delves into the intricacies of the post-test design, elucidating its alignment with the pre-test, the rationale behind its structure, and the measures in place to ensure a comprehensive evaluation of the teaching method's effectiveness in reducing collocation errors.

**Table No. 3.5**

| Lecture | Tool      | Topic       | Indicator                                                                                                                                 |
|---------|-----------|-------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| VII     | Post-test | Collocation | Multiple choice<br>Questions<br>Noun+verb<br>Verb+Noun<br>Adjective+Noun<br>Noun+Noun<br>Adverb+Adverb<br>Verb+Adverb<br>Verb+preposition |

### 3.18 Data Collection for Control Group

#### 3.18.1 Pre-Test

Control group has been given a pre-test to assess the knowledge of collocation of control group participants. The pre-test of control group is same as experimental group. There are multiple choice questions in the pre-test.

**Table No. 3.6**

| Lecture | Tool | Topic | Indicator                    |
|---------|------|-------|------------------------------|
|         |      |       | Multiple choice<br>Questions |

|   |          |             |                                                                                                           |
|---|----------|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| I | Pre-test | Collocation | Noun+verb<br>Verb+Noun<br>Adjective+Noun<br>Noun+Noun<br>Adverb+Adverb<br>Verb+Adverb<br>Verb+preposition |
|---|----------|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

### 3.19 Treatment

The current study is experimental study. There are two groups in the experimental research; experimental group and control group; furthermore, control group has no treatment in experimental study. Control group undergoes traditional teaching method.

**Table No. 3.7**

| Lecture | Tool      | Topic       | Indicator                                                                                                                                 |
|---------|-----------|-------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| II      | Post-test | collocation | Multiple choice<br>Questions<br>Noun+verb<br>Verb+Noun<br>Adjective+Noun<br>Noun+Noun<br>Adverb+Adverb<br>Verb+Adverb<br>Verb+preposition |

### 3.20 Data Analysis

Transforming raw data into insights and conclusions is the process of data analysis. Since this study has employed quantitative methodologies, the data has been processed following this strategy to answer the research questions. The tests have first been examined to reveal insights deductively, and then concepts have been extracted from the data inductively.

Quantitative data, primarily derived from pre-test and post-test scores, undergoes rigorous analysis using statistical tools renowned for their efficacy in educational research.

SPSS (statistical program for social science) has been used to analyze the collected data. The comparison of mean scores between the control and experimental groups, gauging the statistical significance of any observed differences. The quantitative analyses provide numerical insights into the extent of improvement in collocational competence, offering a quantitative lens through which the effectiveness of the teaching method can be assessed.

### **3.21 Pre- and Post-test Analysis**

Quantitative analysis has been performed on four sets of test scores obtained from the pre-tests and post-tests of the experimental and control groups. First, it was crucial to confirm that the data followed a normal distribution to choose the appropriate statistical tests to compare the test results of the individuals in the two groups (Dörnyei, 2007). Shapiro-Wilk's test revealed that the participants' test results have a normal distribution ( $p > .05$ ) (Hartas, 2010).

The test performance of the participants has been analyzed descriptively, employing measures such as mean and standard deviation. However, to compare the awareness and knowledge of LCs between the two groups in the pre-test and post-test, and to determine any significant impact of the independent variable on the dependent variables, a paired t-test has been applied. Both descriptive and inferential analyses have been conducted using SPSS V.25 (IBM Statistical Package) with complete data sets, ensuring no missing data.

The p-value has been evaluated, and if it falls below the predetermined significance level, it has been rejected the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis has been accepted, specifying a difference between the two groups. Conversely, if the p-value exceeds the significance level, it "fails to reject" the null hypothesis, although this doesn't necessarily imply the alternative hypothesis (Larson Hall, 2016). This procedure has been

employed to compare the performance of tests between the experimental and control groups, helping in addressing the research questions.

### **3.22 Validity and Reliability of the Study**

Dörnyei (2007) suggests that validity and reliability are essential components of any research. However, a study's validity is largely dependent on how reliable the research is conducted; a research instrument's reliability does not always reflect its validity. The study's validity and reliability measurements have been discussed in the following sections.

### **3.23 Reliability**

Mackey and Gass (2013) suggest that achieving consistency in measurement results can be attained through either rater reliability, instrument reliability, or both. Rater reliability can be ensured through inter-rater reliability, involving multiple raters scoring a given instrument, or intra-rater reliability, where a single rater scores an instrument on two different intervals (Fred, 2011; Mackey & Gass, 2013).

In this study, the researcher has opted for an inter-rater reliability approach with both tests to ensure the internal consistency of measurement results (Fulcher, 2013). This has been achieved by providing a scoring scale or answer sheet for the research tools. To reduce subjectivity, one score or point has been awarded to rightly answered questions in the tests.

Instrument reliability can be observed through two main approaches: test-retest reliability and parallelism of tests, as noted by Fulcher & Davidson (2007) and Mackey & Gass (2013). The test-retest reliability method involves administering a test to a particular sample of participants and then re-administering the same test to the same participants after some time. Ideally, the results from the two administrations should exhibit similarity or only minimal variation (Bryman, 2012).

On the other hand, the parallelism of tests is evident in the similarity level of research tools and materials (Mackey & Gass, 2013). It's considered unreliable to have multiple versions of a test that might not equally measure the same treatment outcomes, potentially leading to artificially low or high results, thereby impacting reliability.

To ensure the reliability of the instruments in this research, the parallelism of tests has been employed. This involved using the same test items in the pre-tests and post-tests.

### **3.24 Validity**

The concept of validity revolves around the idea that a study is considered valid "if it measures what it is supposed to measure" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 51) and aligns with the researcher's intended meaning. However, the notion of validity is more complicated than it may seem, as it encompasses the significance of the results and the integrity of the research conclusions (Mackey & Gass, 2013). Consequently, numerous research methodology texts outline various types of validity to ensure the proper application of this concept in research. These include construct validity, content validity, face validity, internal validity, and external validity, among others (Mackey & Gass, 2013). The following sections explore the internal and external validity, which include several forms of validity.

Ensuring internal validity is crucial in research studies that examine cause-and-effect relationships (Fred, 2011). The degree to which the dependent variable's results are solely due to the independent variable is known as internal validity (Mackey & Gass, 2013). According to Dörnyei (2007), it's critical to keep study factors under control to ensure that the results are unaffected. Therefore, any element that might undermine internal validity should be under the researcher's control (Mackey & Gass, 2013). Additionally, triangulating data sources and verifying instances ensures internal authenticity (Heigham & Croker, 2009). This has been taken into account in the current investigation.

Participant attrition is one of the factors that threaten internal validity (Dörnyei, 2007). This is particularly problematic when several sets of measurements are used to assess participants' development over time, including pre and post-tests (Mackey & Gass, 2013). Therefore, only those individuals in the experimental group who attended every intervention session were taken into account for analysis. Furthermore, a further concern regarding internal validity is the comparability of the assessment instruments, including the degree of similarity between the items in the pre and post-tests (Mackey & Gass, 2013). The test items in this study have been fixed.

Content validity concerns how well our measurement instruments capture the specific phenomena under investigation (Mackey & Gass, 2013). The objective of this study is to enhance L2 learners' understanding of academic language conventions (LCs) and to examine their involvement in them. The LCs, tasks, and teaching methods were all designed to ensure that LCs were adequately represented in the tasks and to allow learners sufficient time to engage with them, thereby enhancing their awareness and knowledge of the phenomena. Therefore, it can be concluded that the study exhibits content validity.

According to Mackey and Gass (2013), face validity is influenced by the participant's perception of the study's viability. This kind of validity is centered on how well the participants completed the assignments in class and how well they accepted the responsibilities. It thus concentrates on how the research instruments are perceived by the participants.

### **3.25 External Validity**

(Mackey & Gass, 2013) argued that external validity ensures internal validity as external validity is a prerequisite of internal validity. According to Fred (2011), external validity entails the ability to generalize research outcomes to a broader population. Dörnyei

(2007) adds that if research findings are only applicable to a specific sample or context, the study lacks external validity. Consequently, studies must utilize samples that adequately represent and match the target population in size to enable comparison with other representatives (Mackey & Gass, 2013). In this research, non-random sampling is used, results (they are externally valid and appropriate) of non-random sampling can normally be generalized to the population. Generalizability can be defined by describing its representative, (Mackey & Gass) discussing research done in a university that might not be valid or appropriate in a high or secondary school.

### **3.26 Ethical Considerations**

#### **3.26.1 Informed Consent**

It is essential to follow procedures to ensure ethics while conducting research involving participants, argued (Dornyei). Participants are fully informed about the nature of the study, and consent is obtained before their inclusion in the research. Before the study, the participants have been informed about the goals of the research, and their permission has been obtained.

#### **3.26.2 Confidentiality**

Participants data should be kept private, and any private identifiers eliminated from the information during investigation to guarantee obscurity. Mackey and Gass (2013) emphasized the importance of informing participants that there would be two groups, in addition (experimental group and control group), a group might not receive any treatment. Participants of the current study have been informed that the control group would not participate in any treatment; in contrast, the other experimental group would receive treatment.

### **3.26.3 Voluntary Participation**

Participants in the review have deliberately participated, and participants might have been removed at any stage without confronting any results. They have been told that they could quit the study at any time and that they are not required to participate. They have also been informed that their grades and assessments in any other course would be unaffected by this investigation.

### **3.27 Limitations**

While the exploration plan and execution are carefully arranged, vital to recognize potential impediments that might affect the review's extension, generalizability, and by and large legitimacy. These limits are inborn to the exploration cycle and warrant thought to give a decent translation of the discoveries.

The presence of time constraints is one prominent limitation. The length apportioned for the mediation and information assortment is confined because of viable contemplations, like scholastic schedules or strategic limitations. A compacted course of events might restrict the profundity and maintainability of the mediation, influencing the degree to which members can incorporate and apply the recently procured collocational information. Furthermore, a shortened period might impact the drawn-out maintenance of abilities, possibly yielding a quicker yet transient effect on collocation blunder decrease.

The accessibility of participants represents another likely impediment. Regardless of utilizing purposive testing to guarantee a different and delegated test, unexpected difficulties in enlistment might emerge. Factors like participant wearing down, booking clashes, or restricted admittance to explicit member profiles could influence the review's capacity to keep a strong example size. Subsequently, a more modest or less different example might restrict the generalizability of the discoveries to more extensive populations.

Outside factors impacting the learning environment comprise one more area of possible impediment. Different uncontrolled factors, like simultaneous instructive mediations, outside language openness, or individual contrasts in learning styles, may unintentionally impact participants' reactions and the general review results. The study's internal validity could be compromised by these external factors, which could introduce variability that is difficult to account for in the analysis.

To address these limits, the review integrates a few moderating systems. A careful checking of the mediation execution, combined with normal evaluations of participant commitment and progress, takes into consideration continuous changes by upgrading the viability of the showing strategy inside the given time requirements. Moreover, careful documentation of member socioeconomics and qualities supports contextualizing the discoveries and recognizing possible wellsprings of fluctuation.

Recognizing that the study's results provide valuable insights within the specified constraints is just as important as addressing the limitations. Recognizing potential impediments clearly improves the review's believability and works with a nuanced translation of the discoveries. The exploration group's cautiousness in exploring these difficulties supports the academic thoroughness of the review and gives an establishment to future examination tries pointed toward refining and extending how it might be interpreted collocational capability in language learning settings.

### **3.28 Summary**

This section has illustrated the exploration plan, member choice, instruments, methodology, and information examination strategies for the review.

## CHAPTER 4

### DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis involves a structured approach to gathering, refining, restructuring, explaining, modeling, and understanding data, often utilizing statistical methods. It plays a crucial role in both scientific inquiry and commercial endeavors, with a growing emphasis on leveraging data for informed decision-making. By employing various analytical methods, data analysis enables the extraction of valuable insights from datasets, facilitating operational decision-making and informing future research directions. The rise in "Big Data" has led to the accumulation of vast datasets in extensive databases and warehouses, underscoring the necessity of employing data analysis to derive insights from datasets that exceed the processing capabilities of conventional tools.

Longman Dictionary of applied linguistics defines Error analysis as the study and analysis of the errors made by second and foreign language learners. Corder argued that error analysis is a type of bilingual comparison, a comparison between the learner's interlanguage and the target language. It has several objectives. Firstly, it tries to find out how well the learner knows the second language. Then, it aims to find out how the learner learns the second language. In addition, it obtains information on common difficulties in second language learning, as an aid in teaching or the preparation of teaching materials. Lastly, it provides data from which inferences about the nature of the second language learning process can be made.

Once data have been gathered and cleansed effectively, they can undergo analysis, employing a range of methodologies. The analysis typically commences with descriptive and exploratory techniques. Descriptive analysis utilizes statistical measures to arrange and summarize data, facilitating comprehension of the dataset's overarching characteristics. The exploratory analysis aims to uncover insights by examining distributions, central

tendencies, or variations within individual data fields. Exploring relationships between two or more fields can reveal additional insights. Visual aids like histograms or stem-and-leaf plots are often utilized during this phase to represent data graphically. Analysis frequently progresses from descriptive to predictive, where future outcomes are predicted using predictive modeling techniques. Predictive modeling involves machine learning, regression analysis, and classification methods to discern patterns and connections among variables (Dependent variable and independent variable), facilitating predictions about future trends.

In this section, the researcher delves into the systematic and structured world of numerical data, employing the quantitative research method (IBM SPSS 29.0) to extract meaningful insights from the vast dataset at our disposal. As the researcher navigates through this chapter, aim to harness the power of participants to address specific research questions, discern patterns, and contribute robust evidence to overall data analysis. The present research endeavors align with specific objectives within the broader scope of data analysis. To guide the quantitative research process, this chapter is structured to cover the essential components of the research methodology. In this chapter numeric data; collected through pre-test and post-test, has been analyzed through SPSS.

IBM SPSS Statistics furnishes a robust array of data analysis tools, facilitating swift analysis through a simple point-and-click interface, allowing the extraction of analytical insights. In an era marked by rapid transformations necessitating agility, embracing data-driven decision-making is essential for enhancing business outcomes. Organizations across various sectors have relied on IBM SPSS Statistics for years to tackle diverse business and research challenges. SPSS Statistics encompasses a broad spectrum of capabilities supporting the entire analytical journey, from data preparation to analysis and reporting. Its user-friendly menu-driven interface simplifies and expedites data analytics, enabling users to glean insights with minimal effort and without the need for coding.

The researcher has given two tests; pre-test and post-test to both groups, the control group and the experimental group. Data has been collected through above mentioned tests and statistically analyzed to calculate mean values, standard deviation, and possibility values (p).

#### 4.1 Mean Value

The mean of a dataset denotes its average value, providing insight into the dataset's central tendency.

The formula for calculating Mean (Average)

Average= Sum/ count (N)

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

Here

$x_i$  refers to individual values of the dataset

N indicates the total number of values of the dataset

#### 4.2 Standard Deviation

The standard deviation of a dataset indicates the dispersion of values within it, offering an indication of the proximity of observations to the mean.

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

Here

$x_i$  denotes individual values

$\bar{x}$  represents mean value

N indicates the total number of values

### **4.3 Probability Value**

Probability values or "p" values lead to hypothesis testing. It helps to denote whether the null hypothesis is rejected or accepted. If the value of "p" is 0.05 or more than 0.05, denotes the null hypothesis is accepted.

### **4.4 Analysis of Experimental Group Data**

The experimental group consists of 15 students. All participants have been given pre-tests and post-tests. The experimental group has given pre-test, and after receiving treatment experimental group has given post-test. Pre-test and post-test scores of experimental groups are shown in the given tables:

#### 4.4.1 Experimental Group's Pre-test Marks

Table No. 4.1

| <b>Sr No.</b>  | <b>Roll No</b> | <b>Participants' label</b> | <b>Pre-test marks</b> |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 01             | 01             | Student 01                 | 17                    |
| 02             | 02             | Student 02                 | 21                    |
| 03             | 03             | Student 03                 | 24                    |
| 04             | 05             | Student 04                 | 31                    |
| 05             | 11             | Student 05                 | 24                    |
| 06             | 14             | Student 06                 | 25                    |
| 07             | 16             | Student 07                 | 35                    |
| 08             | 19             | Student 08                 | 11                    |
| 09             | 22             | Student 09                 | 16                    |
| 10             | 24             | Student 10                 | 21                    |
| 11             | 25             | Student 11                 | 12                    |
| 12             | 26             | Student 12                 | 15                    |
| 13             | 28             | Student 13                 | 13                    |
| 14             | 29             | Student 14                 | 19                    |
| 15             | 30             | Student 15                 | 18                    |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                |                            | <b>302</b>            |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                |                            | <b>20.13</b>          |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                |                            | <b>35</b>             |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                |                            | <b>11</b>             |

The experimental group has given a pre-test, marks of pre-test of participants are shown in the above-mentioned table. The minimum score is "11"; while the maximum score

is "35." In addition, by using the "mean value formula" mean value is calculated, and the result is "20.13."

#### 4.4.2 Experimental Group's Post-test Marks

**Table No. 4.2**

| <b>Sr No.</b>  | <b>Roll No</b> | <b>Participants' label</b> | <b>Post-test marks</b> |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 01             | 01             | Student 01                 | 34                     |
| 02             | 02             | Student 02                 | 38                     |
| 03             | 03             | Student 03                 | 34                     |
| 04             | 05             | Student 04                 | 39                     |
| 05             | 11             | Student 05                 | 39                     |
| 06             | 14             | Student 06                 | 40                     |
| 07             | 16             | Student 07                 | 46                     |
| 08             | 19             | Student 08                 | 42                     |
| 09             | 22             | Student 09                 | 32                     |
| 10             | 24             | Student 10                 | 42                     |
| 11             | 25             | Student 11                 | 32                     |
| 12             | 26             | Student 12                 | 39                     |
| 13             | 28             | Student 13                 | 33                     |
| 14             | 29             | Student 14                 | 37                     |
| 15             | 30             | Student 15                 | 37                     |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                |                            | <b>564</b>             |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                |                            | <b>37.6</b>            |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                |                            | <b>46</b>              |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                |                            | <b>32</b>              |

The experimental groups' post-test marks are shown in Table 4.02. The minimum score of Post-test is "32," on the other hand, the maximum score is "46." Moreover, the mean value of post-test is "37.6."

#### **4.5 Analysis of Control Group Data**

The control group consisted of 15 students as well as the experimental group. The control group has also been given a pre-test and post- test. The experimental group has received treatment before post-test; on the contrary, the control group has not received treatment. Data from the control group is shown in Tables 4.03 and 4.04.

#### 4.5.1 Control Group's Marks of Pre-test

Table No. 4.3

| <b>Sr No.</b>  | <b>Roll No.</b> | <b>Participants' label</b> | <b>Pre-test Marks</b> |
|----------------|-----------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 01             | 04              | Student 01                 | 18                    |
| 02             | 06              | Student 02                 | 12                    |
| 03             | 07              | Student 03                 | 17                    |
| 04             | 08              | Student 04                 | 13                    |
| 05             | 09              | Student 05                 | 23                    |
| 06             | 10              | Student 06                 | 24                    |
| 07             | 12              | Student 07                 | 21                    |
| 08             | 13              | Student 08                 | 14                    |
| 09             | 15              | Student 09                 | 13                    |
| 10             | 17              | Student 10                 | 23                    |
| 11             | 18              | Student 11                 | 16                    |
| 12             | 20              | Student 12                 | 21                    |
| 13             | 21              | Student 13                 | 22                    |
| 14             | 23              | Student 14                 | 12                    |
| 15             | 27              | Student 15                 | 17                    |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                 |                            | <b>266</b>            |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                 |                            | <b>17.73</b>          |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                 |                            | <b>12</b>             |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                 |                            | <b>24</b>             |

The control group has participated in both pre-test and post-test. The minimum score of the control group's pre-test is "12" and the maximum score is "24". Furthermore, the mean score of pre-tests is "17.73."

#### 4.5.2 Control Group's Post-Test Marks

Table No. 4.4

| <b>Sr No.</b>  | <b>Roll No.</b> | <b>Participants' label</b> | <b>Post-test Marks</b> |
|----------------|-----------------|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 01             | 04              | Student 01                 | 23                     |
| 02             | 06              | Student 02                 | 08                     |
| 03             | 07              | Student 03                 | 24                     |
| 04             | 08              | Student 04                 | 12                     |
| 05             | 09              | Student 05                 | 14                     |
| 06             | 10              | Student 06                 | 18                     |
| 07             | 12              | Student 07                 | 22                     |
| 08             | 13              | Student 08                 | 25                     |
| 09             | 15              | Student 09                 | 14                     |
| 10             | 17              | Student 10                 | 27                     |
| 11             | 18              | Student 11                 | 25                     |
| 12             | 20              | Student 12                 | 17                     |
| 13             | 21              | Student 13                 | 32                     |
| 14             | 23              | Student 14                 | 14                     |
| 15             | 27              | Student 15                 | 21                     |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                 |                            | <b>296</b>             |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                 |                            | <b>19.73</b>           |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                 |                            | <b>08</b>              |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                 |                            | <b>32</b>              |

Table No 4.4 shows the Post-test marks of the control group. The student's minimum score is "08" and the maximum score is "32." The mean value "19.73" is shown in the above-mentioned table.

#### **4.6 Experimental Group and Control Group Improvement Data**

The experimental group and control group has given pre-test and post-test. The experimental group has received treatment before post-test; in contrast, the control group has not received any treatment. The difference or improvement marks can be seen in their respective tables below:

#### 4.6.1 Improvement Marks of Experimental Group

Table No. 4.5

| <b>Sr No.</b>  | <b>Roll No</b> | <b>Participants' label</b> | <b>Pre-test Marks</b> | <b>Post-test Marks</b> | <b>Improvement Marks</b> |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 01             | 01             | Student 01                 | 17                    | 34                     | 17                       |
| 02             | 02             | Student 02                 | 21                    | 38                     | 17                       |
| 03             | 03             | Student 03                 | 24                    | 34                     | 10                       |
| 04             | 05             | Student 04                 | 31                    | 39                     | 08                       |
| 05             | 11             | Student 05                 | 24                    | 39                     | 15                       |
| 06             | 14             | Student 06                 | 25                    | 40                     | 15                       |
| 07             | 16             | Student 07                 | 35                    | 46                     | 11                       |
| 08             | 19             | Student 08                 | 11                    | 42                     | 31                       |
| 09             | 22             | Student 09                 | 16                    | 32                     | 16                       |
| 10             | 24             | Student 10                 | 21                    | 42                     | 21                       |
| 11             | 25             | Student 11                 | 12                    | 32                     | 20                       |
| 12             | 26             | Student 12                 | 15                    | 39                     | 24                       |
| 13             | 28             | Student 13                 | 13                    | 33                     | 20                       |
| 14             | 29             | Student 14                 | 19                    | 37                     | 18                       |
| 15             | 30             | Student 15                 | 18                    | 37                     | 19                       |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                |                            | <b>302</b>            | <b>564</b>             | <b>262</b>               |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                |                            | <b>20.13</b>          | <b>37.60</b>           | <b>17.34</b>             |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                |                            | <b>35</b>             | <b>46</b>              | <b>08</b>                |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                |                            | <b>11</b>             | <b>32</b>              | <b>31</b>                |

In the above-mentioned table, it can be seen the participants' scores have increased after receiving treatment. The improvement score is from "08" to "31." The average improvement score of the experimental group is "17.34."

#### 4.6.2 Improvement Marks of Control Group

Table No. 4.6

| <b>Sr No.</b>  | <b>Roll No.</b> | <b>Participants' label</b> | <b>Pre-test Marks</b> | <b>Post-test Marks</b> | <b>Improvement Marks</b> |
|----------------|-----------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 01             | 04              | Student 01                 | 18                    | 23                     | 05                       |
| 02             | 06              | Student 02                 | 12                    | 08                     | 04                       |
| 03             | 07              | Student 03                 | 17                    | 24                     | 07                       |
| 04             | 08              | Student 04                 | 13                    | 12                     | 01                       |
| 05             | 09              | Student 05                 | 23                    | 14                     | 09                       |
| 06             | 10              | Student 06                 | 24                    | 18                     | 06                       |
| 07             | 12              | Student 07                 | 21                    | 22                     | 01                       |
| 08             | 13              | Student 08                 | 14                    | 25                     | 11                       |
| 09             | 15              | Student 09                 | 13                    | 14                     | 01                       |
| 10             | 17              | Student 10                 | 23                    | 27                     | 04                       |
| 11             | 18              | Student 11                 | 16                    | 25                     | 09                       |
| 12             | 20              | Student 12                 | 21                    | 17                     | 04                       |
| 13             | 21              | Student 13                 | 22                    | 32                     | 10                       |
| 14             | 23              | Student 14                 | 12                    | 14                     | 02                       |
| 15             | 27              | Student 15                 | 17                    | 21                     | 04                       |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                 |                            | <b>266</b>            | <b>296</b>             | <b>78</b>                |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                 |                            | <b>17.73</b>          | <b>19.73</b>           | <b>5.2</b>               |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                 |                            | <b>12</b>             | <b>08</b>              | <b>01</b>                |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                 |                            | <b>24</b>             | <b>32</b>              | <b>11</b>                |

The improvement marks of the control group are shown in table 4.04. The minimum improved mark is "01," while the maximum improvement marks secured are "11." In addition; the average improvement marks of the control group are "5.2."

Furthermore, the comparison of improved marks can be seen below in the table 4.07:

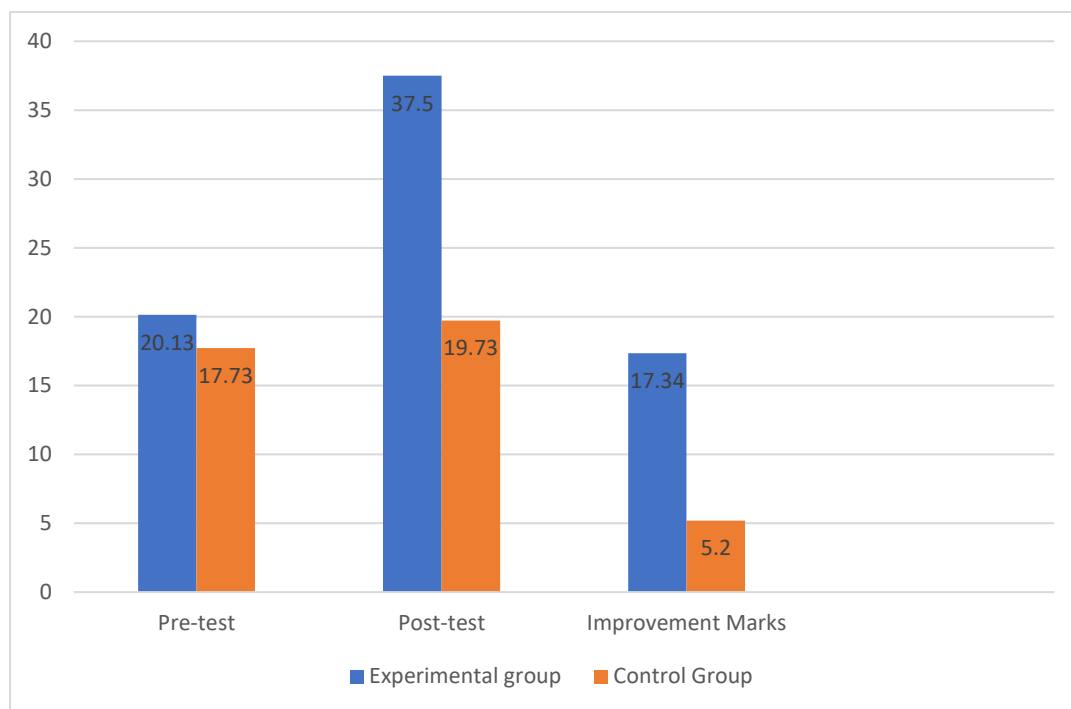
#### 4.6.3 Comparison of Improvement Marks of Both Groups

Table No. 4.7

| Sr No.         | Participants' label | Experimental group Marks | Control group Marks |
|----------------|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 01             | Student 1           | 17                       | 05                  |
| 02             | Student 2           | 17                       | 04                  |
| 03             | Student 3           | 10                       | 07                  |
| 04             | Student 4           | 08                       | 01                  |
| 05             | Student 5           | 15                       | 09                  |
| 06             | Student 6           | 15                       | 06                  |
| 07             | Student 7           | 11                       | 01                  |
| 08             | Student 8           | 31                       | 11                  |
| 09             | Student 9           | 16                       | 01                  |
| 10             | Student 10          | 21                       | 04                  |
| 11             | Student 11          | 20                       | 09                  |
| 12             | Student 12          | 24                       | 04                  |
| 13             | Student 13          | 20                       | 10                  |
| 14             | Student 14          | 18                       | 02                  |
| 15             | Student 15          | 19                       | 04                  |
| <b>Sum</b>     |                     | <b>262</b>               | <b>78</b>           |
| <b>Mean</b>    |                     | <b>17.34</b>             | <b>5.2</b>          |
| <b>Minimum</b> |                     | <b>08</b>                | <b>01</b>           |
| <b>Maximum</b> |                     | <b>31</b>                | <b>11</b>           |

In this comparative analysis, a comprehensive investigation has been made with the utilization of two distinct groups; a control group and an experimental group. The control group has scored a minimum "01" mark and the maximum marks was "11." In addition, the mean value marks of the control group are "5.2". On the other hand, the minimum marks of experimental group are "08" and the maximum marks are "31". The control group has played a pivotal role in providing a baseline against which the effects of the experimental intervention could be measured. The experimental group has undergone the specified treatment being studied. This design aims to enhance the reliability and generalizability of

the findings, facilitating a more robust understanding of the impact of the experimental intervention in comparison to the control condition. The comparison can be seen in the below diagram:



**Figure 4.01 Comparison of pre-test and post-test of experimental and control group**

Histogram shows that the mean score of the experimental group's post-test is 37.5; on the other hand, the mean score of the control group's post-test is 19.73. It clearly shows that the mean score of experimental group (experimental group received treatment) is greater than the mean score of the control group (did not receive treatment).

To realize the outcome of the treatment, the result of post-test of the both groups has been calculated. Where two variables are taken; one is the dependent variable (experimental group) and the second one is the independent variable (control group). The dependent variable received six-month treatment of lexical collocation and the control group has not gotten any teaching.

## 4.7 Analysis of Data

The researcher performed normality test before the t-test calculation. The purpose of the normality test is to determine whether the data is normally distributed or not. IBM SPSS Statistic 29.0 is used for data analysis. The result of the normality test is shown in the following.

## 4.8 Normality Test

Before the performing of t-test, some protocols have to be fulfilled, normality is one of them. A normality test is performed to check the distribution of data. The normality test ensures whether the distribution of data is normal or not. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk are used to check the normality of data. The following tables show the result of the normality test:

The table 4.08 shows the result of the experimental groups' pre-test and post-test.

**Table No. 4.8**  
**Normality Test of Experimental Groups' Pre-Test and Post-Test**

|                   | Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup> |    |                   | Shapiro-Wilk |    |      |
|-------------------|---------------------------------|----|-------------------|--------------|----|------|
|                   | Statistic                       | df | Sig.              | Statistic    | df | Sig. |
| Experimental Pre  | .116                            | 15 | .200 <sup>*</sup> | .948         | 15 | .491 |
| Experimental Post | .145                            | 15 | .200 <sup>*</sup> | .949         | 15 | .513 |

The mentioned table shows that the data of experimental groups' pre-test and post-test is normally distributed as  $p > \alpha$  ( $0.200 > 0.05$ ). The value of p can be confirmed through Kolmogorov-Smirnov table. The following Table 4.09 illustrates the result of the control groups' pre-test and post-test.

**Table No. 4.9**  
**Normality Test of Control Groups' Pre-Test and Post-Test**

| Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup> |           |    |       | Shapiro-Wilk |    |      |
|---------------------------------|-----------|----|-------|--------------|----|------|
|                                 | Statistic | df | Sig.  | Statistic    | df | Sig. |
| CPre                            | .175      | 15 | .200* | .906         | 15 | .117 |
| CPost                           | .143      | 15 | .200* | .973         | 15 | .905 |

The result of the control group is quite appropriate as like experimental group. The table unveils that the data of control group is also normally distributed. The table discloses the  $p > \alpha$  ( $0.200 > 0.05$ ). If the data is higher than the value of significance  $t=0.05$  it means the data is normally distributed. It can be summed up that the data of both groups is normally distributed.

#### 4.9 Paired Sample T-Test

This section revealed the descriptive statistics for the variables measured before and after treatment. The following table highlights the detailed statistics of the experimental group before and after intervention.

**Table No. 4.10**  
**Paired Sample T-Test Experimental Groups' Pre-Test and Post-Test**

|        |         |         |    |         |         |
|--------|---------|---------|----|---------|---------|
| Pair 1 | ExpPre  | 20.1333 | 15 | 6.83339 | 1.76437 |
|        | ExpPost | 37.6000 | 15 | 4.06729 | 1.05017 |

### Paired Samples Correlations

|        |                |    |      |      |
|--------|----------------|----|------|------|
| Pair 1 | ExpPre&ExpPost | 15 | .552 | .033 |
|--------|----------------|----|------|------|

Paired samples correlation examines the relationship between, before and after measurement. Pair 1 (exp pre and exp post) demonstrates the stronger positive correlation (.552) between pre and post-intervention measurement, reaching statistical significance (p.033).

### Paired Samples Test

#### Paired Differences

|        |                  | Mean      | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference<br>Lower |
|--------|------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| Pair 1 | ExpPre - ExpPost | -17.46667 | 5.70547        | 1.47315         | -20.62625                                          |

### Paired Samples Test

|        |                  | Paired Differences                        |         |    |                 |
|--------|------------------|-------------------------------------------|---------|----|-----------------|
|        |                  | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |         |    |                 |
|        |                  | Upper                                     | t       | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| Pair 1 | ExpPre - ExpPost | -14.30708                                 | -11.857 | 14 | .000            |

#### 4.10 Paired Sample Test-Difference

In this section, the mean differences are analyzed. In pair 1 (ExpPre, ExpPost) there is a substantial mean decrease of -170.46667, pointing a considerable improvement in scores post-intervention.

#### 4.11 Paired sample Test-Significance

In this section statistical significance of the differences observed. The value of p in pair 1 is 0.000. it indicates highly significant differences, implying that the intervention led to a significant improvement score. Based on above-mentioned results, it can be summed up that  $H_a$  is accepted; in contrast,  $H_0$  is rejected. Because when the value of p is less than 0.05 the null hypothesis is rejected. Here the value of p is 0.000, it shows  $0.000 < 0.005$  therefore  $H_a$  is accepted. The findings suggest that pair 1 (Exp-pre Exp-post) demonstrates a significant improvement. The results revealed the effectiveness of the intervention.

#### 4.12 Control groups' Statics Description

This section reveals the descriptive statistics of the control groups' pre-test and post-test. Statistical results of control group are shown in the following tables:

**Table No. 4.11**

##### **Paired Sample T-Test Control Groups' Pre-Test and Post-Test**

|        |          | Mean  | N  | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|--------|----------|-------|----|----------------|-----------------|
| Pair 2 | ContPre  | 17.73 | 15 | 4.334          | 1.119           |
|        | ContPost | 19.73 | 15 | 6.552          | 1.692           |

### Paired Samples Correlations

|        |                  | N  | Correlation | Sig. |
|--------|------------------|----|-------------|------|
| Pair 2 | ContPre&ContPost | 15 | .453        | .090 |

As per the table, in pair 2 ( ContPre and ContPost) the correlation coefficient of 0.453 indicates a moderate positive relationship between the two values, albeit is not statically significant ( $p = 0.090$ ).

### Paired Samples Test

|        |                    | Paired Differences |                |                 | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |
|--------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------------|
|        |                    | Mean               | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | Lower                                     |
| Pair 2 | ContPre - ContPost | -2.000             | 6.000          | 1.549           | -5.323                                    |

### Paired Samples Test

|        |                    | Paired Differences |        |    | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |
|--------|--------------------|--------------------|--------|----|-------------------------------------------|
|        |                    | Upper              | t      | df | Sig. (2-tailed)                           |
| Pair 2 | ContPre - ContPost | 1.323              | -1.291 | 14 | .218                                      |

In the above-mentioned tables, the differences in mean values are observed. Pair 2 (ContPre-ContPost) demonstrates a mean decrease of -2.000, indicating a slight decline in score after getting the result of post-test.

### **4.13 Paired Sample Test-Significance**

This area deals with the statistical significance of the differences analyzed. The p-value of 0.218 suggests that the observed difference is not statistically significant, indicating that the intervention didn't take place and there is no significant change in score. Based on SPSS findings, the control groups' pre-test and post-test scores have no significant improvement in the mean value; as the mean value of pre-test is 17.73 and the post-test mean is 19.73.

### **4.14 Explanation of Intervention**

The intervention of the experimental group consisted of five weeks. There were 3 lectures in a week and the duration of each lecture was 40 minutes. Seven types of lexical collocations were taught. Furthermore, two tests pre-test and post-test were conducted on both groups; the experimental group and the control group.

In the first week, the introductory lectures on collocation and its types were delivered. After the introductory lectures, students were divided into two groups; experimental group and control group. pre-test was given from the both groups (experimental group and control group). After five weeks, when intervention was done a post-test was taken from both of the groups. Data was collocated from both groups and analyzed both pre-test and post-test. For statistical analysis, IBM SPSS 29.0 was used.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION**

The primary aim of this research is to examine how explicit instruction and a Language Awareness (LA) approach impact second language (L2) learners' awareness and understanding of language collocations (LCs). The intervention allowed learners to actively participate in consciousness-raising tasks. A quantitative research methodology was employed to address the research questions. The preceding section focused on data analysis, while this section presents the findings of the study.

The participants' utilization of various language functions (such as organizational, judgmental, informative, interrogative, and responsive) demonstrates their cognitive, social, and emotional involvement in the consciousness-raising tasks. Through discussions and task execution, they actively constructed their awareness of language collocations (LCs) and engaged in deeper cognitive processing, demonstrating problem-solving abilities. However, there were three instances of silence indicating participants' disengagement from the tasks and consequently, from language. Collaborative activities and peer tutoring facilitated social engagement, while instances of argumentation and dominance revealed social and cognitive conflicts with the tasks and language, presenting another aspect of peer interaction not frequently discussed. The participants' affective engagement was evident in their willingness, positive attitude, and humorous remarks, which enhanced their emotional processing. These processes collectively heightened learners' awareness and improved their understanding of LCs. A discussion regarding the

effectiveness of the instructional approaches employed in the study with both groups is discussed below.

### **5.1 Implicit Acquisition of Lexical Collocations**

In the control group, the approach employed was meaning-focused instruction (MFI), which emphasizes directing learners' attention toward content to convey an idea. Regarding second language vocabulary acquisition, MFI suggests that learners can acquire lexical items without direct instruction, Laufer (2003, 2005b). Studies on children's second language vocabulary acquisition have demonstrated the efficacy of this indirect instructional method in vocabulary development. This approach is grounded in two primary assumptions: the repeated exposure assumption and the retention assumption. While these assumptions may apply to young learners, given that repetition is typically integral to their learning environment, it may be impractical to provide adult learners with texts containing repeated language collocations (LCs) as in the current study.

Implicit instruction on language collocations (LCs) has generally not shown to be effective in prior research. Laufer's (2003) three experiments demonstrated that participants who received explicit instruction and engaged in productive writing tasks performed better than those who received reading texts and comprehension tasks. Implicit learning of collocations is inadequate due to the infrequent occurrence of LCs in texts, as observed in studies by Webb and Kagimoto (2009), and it is also time-consuming (Norris & Ortega, 2000). Second language (L2) learners often do not pay attention to lexical items while reading, resulting in a lack of acquisition of new words (Laufer, 2005b). Research suggests that L2 learners need exposure to targeted LCs at least ten times to acquire them successfully (Webb et al., 2013). Previous studies in this area have noted that vocabulary

knowledge can develop implicitly through L2 reading and listening but at a slower pace of learning (Al-Seghayer, 2017; Alqahtani, 2009).

However, participants denoted that before intervention they had previously acquired vocabulary and collocations implicitly, which appears to be the standard approach to vocabulary learning in the research setting. Ying and O'Neil (2009) similarly found that their learners had minimal awareness of collocations, with previous learning concentrating solely on individual words. Many English teachers as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors tend to adhere to conventional vocabulary drills and methods, neglecting activities like consciousness-raising tasks and input enhancement, which can enhance learners' ability to recognize words (Al-Seghayer, 2015, 2017; Albousaif, 2011). Participants in the current study echoed these observations, reporting similar experiences.

There exists a difference between the explicit instruction that learners require and the existing teaching methods, which often neglect to intensify second language (L2) learners' awareness of linguistic elements. This discrepancy is likely to impede their L2 language development (Alharthi, 2015). This situation can be viewed as an expressive problem, as the teaching approach fails to meet learners' expectations for explicit instruction, potentially leading to reduced cognitive engagement (Svalberg, 2009).

## **5.2 Explicit Acquisition of Lexical Collocations**

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings, direct instruction is more advantageous compared to an implicit approach (Ellis, 2012). The favorable outcome of explicit language collocation (LC) instruction in the present study aligns with Laufer's concept of "Planned Lexical Instruction" (2005a, 2005b), which emphasizes that the primary environment for second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition is within a structured language learning classroom. Laufer (2003, 2005b, 2006) further asserts that the number

of lexical items acquired under explicit instructed conditions (FFI) is notably higher than in any other instructional setting.

Several comparative studies (e.g., File & Adams, 2010; Horst et al., 2005; Laufer, 2010; Sonbul& Schmitt, 2010) exposed supportive results.

Only a few empirical investigations have delved into the acquisition of language collocations (LCs) under explicit conditions compared to alternative methods (Marton, 1977; Peters, 2014; Sonbul& Schmitt, 2013; Szudarski, 2012; Szudarski& Carter, 2016; Toomer & Elgort, 2019; Webb & Kagimoto, 2009; 2011). These researchers have observed that explicit collocation tasks direct learners' attention to collocations, aiding them in forming initial connections between form and meaning in their mental lexicon. While most of these researchers acknowledge the significance of reading and repeated exposure to lexical items in second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition, they have noted that the learning process is slow due to the infrequent occurrence of LCs in text.

Similarly, participants' perceptions of learning vocabulary and language collocations (LCs) following the explicit awareness approach were favorable. They believed that explicit instruction had enhanced and deepened their awareness and understanding of LCs in other reading materials, a sentiment also echoed by Ying and O'Neil (2009). They acknowledged that explicit LC instruction could enhance their awareness of LCs, a point also underscored by Eckerth (2008). Participants emphasized that explicit vocabulary activities were more advantageous than reading and completing comprehension tasks, indicating a preference for explicit learning over implicit methods. Their perspectives align with those of proponents of explicit second language (L2) vocabulary instruction in the literature, such as Laufer (2003, 2005b).

The explicit awareness approach employed in this study resembled previous research efforts that aimed to introduce unfamiliar language collocations (LCs) to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. However, many studies have restricted explicit LC instruction to a limited timeframe, potentially impacting outcomes, as demonstrated in Peters's (2009) 40-minute task, which did not yield positive results, possibly due to the constrained instructional duration. Sonbul and Schmitt (2013) found that their second language (L2) participants developed their collocation knowledge more effectively under explicit conditions compared to implicit conditions. They highlighted that implicit knowledge did not yield significant results due to the brief treatment duration. The specific duration of treatment and learners' interaction were not specified but were likely brief, given the experimental nature of the study. To address these limitations, the current study employed a longitudinal treatment approach with peer interaction within a classroom setting.

### **5.3 Consciousness-Raising Activities**

The consciousness-raising tasks were a key component of the explicit awareness approach, designed to direct learners' attention to the targeted language collocations (LCs) within the texts. Several researchers have asserted that consciousness-raising tasks can support the learning process and promote language awareness (LA) (e.g., Cintrón-Valentín & Ellis, 2016; Eckerth, 2008; Ellis, 1997b, 2018; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Simard & Wong, 2004). In this study, consciousness-raising tasks facilitated learners in achieving an explicit understanding of LCs. Additionally, they contributed to initiating and sustaining peer engagement, which in turn facilitated affective, social, and cognitive English as a World Language (EWL) development. These tasks involved interacting with LCs, utilizing methods such as bubble diagrams, and constructing LCs in new sentences. Consequently,

the tasks in this study enhanced and promoted learners' awareness, knowledge, and interaction with LCs.

The process of selecting appropriate language collocations (LCs) to introduce to second language (L2) learners has sparked debate (Nation, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Webb & Kagimoto, 2011). Some advocate for correcting learners' LC errors, while others propose focusing on the most commonly used LCs in the L2 language. However, Hill (2000) suggested opting for LCs from the medium-strength range, avoiding those that are overly metaphorical or too simplistic, to ensure an enriching learning experience. Consequently, the current study aimed to adopt such an approach by utilizing a recent collocation activity workbook centered on academic topics (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2017). This workbook presented topics across several units, elucidating English collocation phenomena to enhance learners' awareness and usage, making it well-suited for the current study.

Previous studies addressing language collocations (LCs) have typically focused on one or two of the seven types proposed by Benson et al. (2010). For example, Sonbul and Schmitt (2013) introduced "18" adjective + noun collocations, Webb and Kagimoto (2011) targeted "60" adjective + noun collocations, and Szudarski and Carter (2016) presented "20" verb + noun and adjective + noun collocations to their second language (L2) participants. In contrast, this study aimed to enhance participants' awareness and understanding of all seven types of LCs. The assessments also evaluated participants' receptive and productive knowledge across all seven types.

## **5.4 Lexical Collocations Tests**

Previous research on language collocations (LCs) primarily assessed explicit receptive knowledge only (e.g., Peters, 2009; Sonbul & Schmitt, 2010, 2013). However, the current study evaluated both receptive and productive knowledge, following the

recommendation of Nation (2001). The findings demonstrated that participants' understanding of LCs improved as a result of the explicit awareness approach. A detailed examination of participants' scores revealed a notable increase in both receptive and productive LC knowledge in the experimental group compared to their initial proficiency levels. The efficacy of the explicit awareness-raising approach on LC awareness and knowledge between the experimental and control groups allowed the researcher to assert the effectiveness of the instructional treatment employed in this study.

As anticipated, the intervention positively influenced the experimental groups' awareness of language collocations (LCs), particularly in terms of their receptive knowledge. Previous literature suggests that many English teachers as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner have enhanced their receptive collocation knowledge following various forms of receptive tasks, as observed in studies by Peters (2009), Sonbul& Schmitt (2013), and Webb & Kagimoto (2009). These researchers employed methods such as cloze exercises, matching tasks, and enhanced input activities in their interventions. Webb & Kagimoto (2009) and Sonbul& Schmitt (2013) reported a beneficial impact of receptive tasks (e.g., enhanced input, glossed, underlined, and bolded LCs) on the LC knowledge of their second language (L2) learners. However, Peters (2009) did not find positive evidence of LC retention through glossed receptive activities. This study implemented similar consciousness-raising strategies, such as highlighting the targeted LCs. The receptive assessment in the current study evaluated learners' awareness of targeted LCs in context by requesting them to identify LCs, which was deemed advantageous. However, it's important to interpret the findings cautiously due to the limited number of items.

The impact of explicit instruction and the Language Awareness (LA) approach on participants' ability to produce language collocations (LCs) was also evaluated. Previous research has assessed second language (L2) learners' productive use of LCs through tasks

such as L2 translation, sentence writing, and cloze exercises (Laufer, 2003; Lee & Shin, 2021; Szudarski, 2012; Szudarski & Carter, 2016; Webb & Kagimoto, 2011). Many studies have recognized that learners often exhibit insufficient productive LC knowledge compared to their receptive knowledge. Therefore, this study employed various productive tasks, including LC bubble diagrams and word scrambling using LCs. The findings indicated an enhancement in participants' productive lexical collocation knowledge.

## **5.5 Learner's Engagement**

The central point of the present research is the engagement of learners. In this study, participants were provided with opportunities to utilize language as a tool, a central concept in Social Constructivist Theory (SCT) as proposed by Vygotsky (1980), and Swain's (2006) concept of 'languaging.' Through language use, participants worked towards understanding Language Constructs (LCs) by exchanging information to solve problems, as suggested by Mercer (2002). The learners' independent development of problem-solving skills through peer interaction indicated a high level of knowledge construction likely occurring within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), as described by Vygotsky (1978). Additionally, their active learning through social interaction, as discussed by Batstone and Philp (2013), demonstrated the maintenance and expansion of their cognitive awareness during problem-solving activities. Consequently, this study explored the "active involvement of learners in constructing their own Language Awareness," an aspect often overlooked in collaborative group work, as highlighted by Svalberg and Askham (2020).

In this study, peer interaction exhibited characteristics similar to one of Kumaravadivelu's (1994) post-method strategies: 'facilitating negotiated interaction' among learners, involving clarification, turn-taking, repair, and request. Through negotiation, participants connected input with their abilities, enhancing their awareness of

Language Constructs (LCs) and resulting in mostly accurate output and acquisition. According to Scott and Palincsar (2013), learners' knowledge can be developed through interaction, negotiation, and collaboration, aligning with the Social Constructivist Theory (SCT) perspective, which views language as a cognitive tool. Therefore, language learners utilize language for communication and knowledge exchange through collaborative dialogue, as suggested by Mercer (2002). Language that is overly simplistic or overly complex may not develop peer engagement at a cognitive level slightly beyond the learners' current competence, as noted by Walsh (2011). Thus, interaction can facilitate learning, consistent with Long's (1996) interactional hypothesis. Regardless of the strength of their interaction, as discussed by Ellis (1990), the participants' output indicated that learning had occurred.

The participants' utilization of functional language is evident in their verbal exchanges; reflect their cognitive, social, and emotional involvement. These linguistic aspects illustrate how they employed language as a tool. The functions, including informative, organizational, judgmental, interrogative, and responsive, varied depending on the task and engagement requirements. Kumpulainen and Wray (2002) assert that these functions characterize the nature of interaction; for instance, informative language mirrors cognitive processing, while judgmental and responsive functions manifest in social interactions. However, Kumpulainen and Wray (2002) did not specifically address or define learners' effective engagement in their framework. Therefore, Svalberg's (2009) Emotional Working Language (EWL) criteria were incorporated to delineate learners' effective processing and compensate for this gap in the previous framework.

In this study, effectively describing classroom interaction posed a challenge due to the complexity of coding and presenting instances of negotiated interaction while ensuring that individual episodes influencing engagement were not overlooked. The primary aim of

this investigation, rather than solely assessing learning outcomes, was to achieve a comprehensive understanding of participant engagement. The LC learning approach embraced two principles: first, the explicit raising of learners' awareness regarding language features, and second, providing L2 learners with opportunities to engage with LCs on a peer-to-peer basis, thereby awareness and the development of strategies. The forthcoming section offers a detailed explanation of the three categories of engagement observed among participants in the intervention.

## **5.6 Cognitive Engagement**

Introducing learners to LCs has facilitated an understanding of how they develop their cognitive awareness of these tools during activities. Svalberg (2009) characterizes the ideal cognitive state of learners as being alert and focused during task engagement. In this study, while participating in consciousness-raising activities, learners exhibited behaviors such as noticing, planning, testing, and evaluating, indicating a high level of attentiveness (Svalberg, 2009). The participants' sustained awareness and ability to independently solve problems are evidenced by the difference in their performance levels between the pre-test and post-tests, suggesting the effectiveness of the activities.

The findings of this study validate the notion that peer interaction can positively impact learners' development of awareness and understanding of LCs. These results align with previous empirical studies within a similar research context. For instance, Alghamdi (2014) suggests that peer interaction in their study enhanced learners' communicative skills and intake. Additionally, Nash (2016) observes improvement in EFL learners' writing and research skills as a result of collaborative learning. These findings imply that peer interaction is likely to develop positive cognitive engagement among learners, ultimately enhancing learning outcomes and output.

An issue in analyzing learners' cognitive engagement through languaging is its uncertain correlation with learning outcomes. Dobao (2016) observed that even silent learners acquired vocabulary knowledge while engaging with peers, suggesting cognitive involvement in collaborative work. Similarly, in the current study, it was observed where learners remained silent, used private speech, or experienced periods of silence followed by active participation and interaction. This indicates that learners had opportunities to construct knowledge, supported by improvements in their LC knowledge as indicated by test results. Thus, peer interaction appears beneficial for language learning, even for learners who are silent or use private speech.

The relationship between learners' perceptions of learning LCs and their cognitive engagement, such as attention during consciousness-raising tasks, has been explored in previous research (Jiang, 2009; Peters, 2009; Sonbul & Schmitt, 2013) within explicit learning contexts. In this study, participants reported a positive shift in their vocabulary acquisition strategies, facilitating quicker memorization and acquisition of vocabulary.

The following section discusses the participants' social engagement with the LC tasks, which is closely related to their cognitive engagement.

## **5.7 Social Engagement**

Social interaction enhances cognitive engagement with tasks, leading to effective knowledge construction. The belief that learners' development occurs through social interaction is well-supported (Donato, 1994; Schunk, 2012; Vygotsky, 1978). In peer interaction, social engagement is crucial (Baralt et al., 2016; Storch & Aldosari, 2013) as it develops cognitive and affective connections among learners. In this study, participants shared existing social relationships, which made them comfortable seeking clarification from peers (Soler, 2002). Therefore, being classmates, friends, or acquaintances likely

facilitated their social engagement in the learning context (Donato, 1994). In lessons for L2 learners, it's essential to create opportunities for social engagement with tasks, as it is conducive to learning (Batstone & Philp, 2013). The participants preferred interacting with peers during class activities, possibly because they sensed that learning was occurring. This preference was reflected in their positive engagement with language during peer interactions.

Researchers have observed that in social engagement, learners' roles in interaction can vary, leading to learning through collaborative and expert/novice interactional patterns (Storch, 2002; Storch & Aldosari, 2013; Yu & Lee, 2015). The findings of this study strengthen these observations, as participants typically shared turns equally, supported each other's responses, and collaborated to complete tasks effectively. This demonstrates that social engagement positively impacts LC awareness and knowledge, as their collaborative efforts address specific learning needs (Batstone & Philp, 2013).

## **5.8 Affective Engagement**

In the present study, affective engagement was manifested through the participants' readiness and positive disposition. This willingness and positive engagement were observable in their verbal interactions, equitable participation in turn-taking, use of humor, eagerness, and motivation to complete tasks. These affective factors not only elevated learners' cognitive and social engagement during task interactions (Svalberg, 2020) but also resonated with Svalberg's (2009) assertion that learners need to maintain a positive attitude and willingness towards tasks to become autonomous learners.

Before beginning the intervention, the participants presented a positive affective disposition, expressing a desire to acquire new knowledge. Their affective engagement remained positive as they expressed intentions to continue learning LCs, similar to Jiang's

(2009) Chinese participants. Furthermore, they exhibited a preference for collaborative work with peers over lonely work while engaging in tasks, bringing into line with findings from Sato (2013, 2017) and Ballinger (2016). This indicates that learners across various contexts may derive enjoyment from collaborating with peers on consciousness-raising tasks.

The learners responded positively to the intervention, finding it enjoyable and beneficial, similar to the participants in Ying and O'Neil's (2009) study. They appreciated the transparent and advantageous nature of the explicit teaching approach (Ellis, 2001b; Hill, 2000; Laufer&Girsai, 2008). Additionally, they mentioned that the intervention enhanced their autonomy as learners, motivating them to continue learning vocabulary and LCs independently. These perceptions indicate their positive affective engagement in the intervention, as evidenced by their willingness to participate and display autonomous behavior, ultimately benefiting from the intervention.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSION**

The two preceding chapters introduced and examined the results of the current study. In the discussion chapter, an effort was made to portray these findings in connection with or in contrast to prior research. Additionally, emphasis was placed on underscoring the importance of the present study. The concluding chapter briefly revisits the findings concerning the research questions. These responses shed light on the characteristics of second language learners' effective word learning, as well as the importance of explicit vocabulary teaching.

The current study allocated two comparative groups; a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group experienced a method involving explicit awareness and peer engagement. A quantitative approach was employed and quantitative tools (pre-test and post-test) were used to collect data. The difference between the two groups relates to how the intervention was administered, including the provision of handouts and engagement of peers during task performance. Participants in the experimental group demonstrated positive progress in their awareness and understanding of LCs, as evidenced by their performance, interactions, and perceptions. The language engagement strategy provided learners with opportunities to engage with reading texts and tasks aimed at raising consciousness about language constructs. Through consciousness-raising activities and peer engagement, learners had the chance to verbally interact, negotiate, and carry out tasks. These processes illustrated learners' affective, social, and cognitive abilities, demonstrating their use of language both as an object and a means of communication, thereby enhancing their language acquisition (Svalberg, 2009). This enabled the researcher to observe and analyze how learners developed their understanding of language constructs throughout the intervention and the design of tasks.

The performance of the learners was evaluated within the two designated groups. The control group exhibited no notable enhancement in their awareness and understanding of LCs. In contrast, the experimental group goes beyond the control group for two primary reasons: the implementation of the explicit approach and peer engagement. The explicit approach facilitated an increase in learners' awareness of the specific linguistic feature (Lexical Collocation). Additionally, peer engagement in consciousness-raising tasks enhanced learners' cognitive processing and stimulated their affective and social involvement. The present study reflects positive results in the post-test of the experimental group.

The current study draws upon recent theories and research about peer engagement within L2 learning environments and methodologies for assessing classroom interaction. Several scholars advocating the sociocultural perspective have asserted the effectiveness of learner interaction as a catalyst for language acquisition (Donato, 1994; Mercer, 2002; Swain et al., 2015). In this study, peer engagement allowed learners to communicate in the L2, enabling them to articulate their difficulties and provide mutual support in problem-solving, thereby activating their social involvement. Moreover, they participated in task completion and assumed roles in meaningful L2 communication. The emotional involvement of participants empowered them to regulate their learning circumstances by attempting to resolve learning challenges with the available or provided resources. Their interest for engaging in targeted learning processes developed a sense of autonomy. Their involvement with language elements exposed them to linguistic input, thereby stimulating their cognitive processing abilities and directing their attention toward language features. The multifaceted aspects of engaging with language, as delineated in the affective, social, and cognitive dimensions, operate independently yet interact dynamically in a cyclic manner (Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

To address the research questions that motivated this study, it was essential to enhance learners' awareness and understanding of LCs. Numerous researchers have suggested that employing an explicit awareness approach can heighten learners' awareness of the targeted language feature. Additionally, peer interaction can offer opportunities for learners' effective word learning (EWL), thereby stimulating their affective, social, and cognitive engagement. In this study, the intervention implemented an explicit instructional approach to introduce LCs, along with opportunities for learner engagement during consciousness-raising tasks. As a result, the participants who received the treatment demonstrated superior performance compared to the control group.

## **6.1 Future Recommendations**

The present study's findings suggest several recommendations that could be advantageous for future research on the explicit awareness approach and peer engagement with L2 LCs.

1. The current study was conducted on a limited number of intermediate students. Therefore, a comparable study could be conducted on a larger sample of intermediate students or advanced language learners, as well as different age groups. This could assess the rate at which L2 learners acquire LCs about their age. Researchers could implement this intervention with young language learners and compare the outcomes to those of advanced learners to assess the advantages of introducing explicit LC instruction at an early stage.

2. The current study focused exclusively on female learners as a result of gender segregation. Hence, it would be intriguing to conduct a similar study on male intermediate students in order to explore the potential impact of gender on peer engagement. Additionally, a more in-depth examination can be conducted on the level of learners' involvement with LCs when they are paired with groups of the same gender or groups of mixed genders. These studies can examine the cognitive, emotional, and social interactions of learners and their impact on their understanding and knowledge of LCs and other linguistic aspects.

3. Research could investigate the factors that have influenced learners' cognitive, social, and emotional involvement or lack of involvement when interacting with consciousness-raising tasks. These factors may include motivation, attitudes toward social interaction, and the level of exposure to genuine English language input before the intervention.

4. Comparative research studies could be conducted to observe the peer engagement of L2 learners with LCs under various conditions, such as explicit, implicit, and corpora use. The present study utilized both explicit and implicit methodologies. Alternatively, a third group could employ corpus material and actively involve peers to complete the tasks and gather their opinions on this integration of methods.

5. The current study specifically examined learners' written receptive and productive language and culture (LC) knowledge. However, future studies could incorporate a listening and speaking component to enhance and evaluate learners' LC communicational abilities.

6. Research could implement the existing treatment (involving peer engagement with learning communities) within a blended learning setting that combines online and classroom components. This study aims to examine the efficacy of online tools in second-language vocabulary acquisition, with a specific focus on learner corpora. Researchers can incorporate additional tasks that promote awareness into online platforms and then analyze how learners engage with them.

7. This study sought to gather learners' perspectives on the intervention. It would be intriguing to gather teachers' perspectives on implementing an explicit awareness approach and utilizing peer engagement. The perspectives of teachers can be valuable in formulating strategies and methods for implementing explicit instruction with peer involvement in L2 classrooms.

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## APPENDIX

### **Title: A study of collocation errors at intermediate level in Pakistan**

#### (Pretest)

1) \_\_\_\_\_ calm

(a)Keep (b) do (c) have (d) make

2) \_\_\_\_\_ a seat

(a)Gave (b) have (c) make (d) keep

3) The hurricane \_\_\_\_\_ the whole area.

(a)Badly damaged (b) poorly damaged (c) faultily damaged (d) inadequately damaged

4) \_\_\_\_\_ harm

(a)Keep (b) have (c) do (d) take

5) \_\_\_\_\_ a speech

(a)Take (b) make (c) keep (d) have

6) It will take some time for the patient to \_\_\_\_\_.

(a)Completely recover (b) totally recover (c) wholly recover (d) fully recover

7) \_\_\_\_\_ business

(a)Make (b) take (c) do (d) have

8) Has anyone \_\_\_\_\_ found my red fountain pen? I lost it yesterday.

(a)With chance (b) in chance (c) by chance (d) of chance

9) Shorter skirts were \_\_\_\_\_ a few years ago but they're not anymore today.

(a) On fashion (b) of fashion (c) in fashion (d) at fashion

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15. He started composing his own symphonies \_\_\_\_\_ 9.

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16. The negotiator was looking for a way to \_\_\_\_\_ the two sides together.

(a) draw (b) catch (c) bring (d) draw

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35. Several passengers were \_\_\_\_\_ in the accident.

(a) Poorly injured (b) fully injured (c) completely injured (d) badly injured

36. They set off on a \_\_\_\_\_ winter morning.

(a) Very cold (b) bitterly cold (c) heavy cold (d) harshly cold

37. The twins have \_\_\_\_\_ personalities.

(a) Totally different (b) fully different (c) completely different (d) wholly different

38. Tom was \_\_\_\_\_ when spoke about his plans.

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39. The result was not \_\_\_\_\_.

(a) Fully satisfied (b) totally satisfied (c) completely satisfied (d) entirely satisfied

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48. Sorry to hear you're ill. I wish you a \_\_\_\_\_.

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(a) Complete madness (b) entire madness (c) full madness (d) total madness

# **Title: A study of collocation errors at intermediate level in Pakistan**

## **(Post-test)**

**Name:** .....

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ calm  
(a)Keep (b) do (c) have (d) make
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ a seat  
(a)Gave (b) have (c) make (d) keep
- 3) The hurricane \_\_\_\_\_ the whole area.  
(a)Badly damaged (b) poorly damaged (c) faultily damaged (d) inadequately damaged
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ harm  
(a)Keep (b) have (c) do (d) take
- 5) \_\_\_\_\_ a speech  
(a)Take (b) make (c) keep (d) have
- 6) It will take some time for the patient to \_\_\_\_\_.  
(a)Completely recover (b) totally recover (c) wholly recover (d) fully recover
- 7) \_\_\_\_\_ business  
(a)Make (b) take (c) do (d) have
- 8) Has anyone \_\_\_\_\_ found my red fountain pen? I lost it yesterday.  
(a)With chance (b) in chance (c) by chance (d) of chance

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Lesson plan (1).pptx