



Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies



**Investigating the Impact of Lexical Collocation on Improving
University Students Paragraph Writing (A Case Study of AL -
Noor Collage Gezira State 2020- 2021)**

**تقصي أثر متلازمات المفردات اللفظية في تحسين كتابة الفقرة
للطلاب الجامعيين (دراسة حالة كلية النور - ولاية الجزيرة 2020-2021)**

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الاستهلال

قال تعالى:

((يَرْفَعُ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا مِنْكُمْ وَالَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْعِلْمَ دَرَجَاتٍ))

صدق الله العظيم

سورة المجادلة الآية (11)

Allah Said quranic Verse:

*((Allah will exact in degrees those of you who believe
and those have been granted knowledge))*

Dedication

I dedicate this study:

*To all teachers, specially **Ustaz Hamid Suleiman** who encouraged and motivated me to learn English Language.*

To my parents

To my sisters

To my friends

To my brothers and relatives.

Acknowledgments

First I thank Allah for all this gifts, my thank also to my supervisor professor: *Ahmed Mokhtar ALmardi* for this valuable guidance to complete this study, and my thank extended to professor assistance Dr. *Alsadiq Osman Mohammed* for his encouragement and patience throughout this study and his colleague Dr. *Mohammed Toum* for helping me by his discussion. My special thanks to Thatcher: Abdu El Rahman Amir the Dean of Al-Nour College of Science and Technology and Dr. Sally for offering me this chance to accomplish my study, and to their students who answering my tests, also my thanks is extended professors who judged my test and questionnaire, and to the teachers and doctors who reviewed it, my grateful thanks to the staff of Sudan, Khartoum and Gezira Universities who responded my questionnaire and to library team.

Abstract

The study investigated the impact of lexical collocation on improving students' vocabulary and paragraph writing. The problem of the study was summarized in the main question; to what extent can lexical collocation improve vocabulary and paragraph writing what are University teachers' attitudes toward using lexical collocation in developing students writing? To what extent are EFL learners aware of lexical collocation (verb + noun) (adjective + noun) knowledge when writing paragraph the study investigated the University teachers attitudes toward using lexical collocation on improving students' paragraph writing via questionnaire by hand from the teachers' perception during teaching process the result was positive the study also tested the undergraduate students who studying English as a foreign language of Al-Nour College focusing on (verb + noun) (adjective + noun) collocation via pre and post tests the results showed that students in the pre test facing many difficulties of collocation but in the post test they did well by concentrating on teaching collocation, teachers resolve the problems of writing as general and paragraph writing particular, EFL learners are not aware of lexical collocation when they proceed to higher levels . The study also recommended a number of recommendations, including teachers should enable students to be aware of collocation through making more emphasis on collocation while teaching process.

المستخلص

استقصت الدراسة أثر المتلازمات اللفظية وتجميعها المعجمي في استيراد المفردات وتحسين الكتابة لدى الطلاب وتتلخص مشكلة الدراسة في السؤال الرئيسي. إلى أي مدى تقوم بالتدقيق في تطوير كتابة الفقرة لدى الدارسين وما هو موقف أساتذة الجامعة تجاه استخدام المتلازمات اللفظية في تحسين كتابة الطلاب؟ وإلى أي مدى يصير متعلمو اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على دراية بمعرفة متلازمات المفردات اللفظية عند كتابتهم للفقرة. تناولت الدراسة آراء ومواقف أساتذة الجامعات تجاه استخدام المتلازمات اللفظية في تحسين كتابة الفقرة بواسطة الاستبيان الذي تم تناوله باليد ومن ملاحظاتهم أثناء عملية التدريس كانت النتيجة ايجابية كما اختبرت الدراسة الطلاب الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في كلية النور بالتركيز على (الفعل والاسم) و(الصفة والاسم) عن طريق الاختبار القبل و البعد و قد واجهت الطلاب صعوبات جمة في الاختبار القبل ولكن تحسن الأداء في الاختبار البعد وبالتركيز على تدريس المتلازمات اللفظية يقوم المعلمون بحل مشاكل الكتابة بشكل عام وكتابة الفقرة بشكل خاص كما قامت الدراسة بعدد من التوصيات بما في ذلك حث المعلمين على جعل الطلاب أكثر وعياً بهذه المتلازمات أثناء عملية التدريس.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Background

1.0 Introduction

Writing skill is a significant part of a language and communication - which allow people to develop their messages with clarity and ease to a far large audience. Therefore, people with good writing skill are generally seen as more credible, because writing is the most important aspect in such professions which are required writing to occupy them. So there is an important aspect in writing process which is concerning the University students of English exactly in the domain of paragraph which is a common aspect in University according to such observations through teaching and studies, the students of University encounter a great deal of problems in paragraph writing, these problems due to a number of reasons and the most common aspect which the students lack of is what is so-called collocation. The idea of collocation was first put forward by Firth (1957).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The problem which recent study attempts to investigate, is that the lexical collocation in paragraph writing, which is marked as a serious problem among University students, according to a number of observations during teaching and researching those students face a profound problem in their writing paragraph which requires knowledge of vocabulary, and collocation but among these aspects lexical collocation which is considered a crucial problem that requires a radical solution so as to help students to develop their collocation knowledge and to improve their paragraph writing as well. Therefore the problem which the research wants to investigate is collocation knowledge which rises up in their writing paragraph and to

shed some light on this problem due to find out some solutions and suggestion for both students and teachers.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The present study is considered significant for the following reasons:

1. To find out how lexical collocation can improve students' paragraph writing among University students.
2. To discover University teachers attitudes towards using lexical collocations in developing students writing.
3. To investigate how EFL learners are aware of using lexical collocation knowledge when writing paragraph. (verb +noun , adjective +noun)

1.3 Questions of Study

The present study attempts to provide answers for the following questions:

1. To what extent can lexical collocation improve students' vocabulary and paragraph writing?
2. What are University teachers attitudes toward using lexical collocation (verb +noun, adjective +noun) in developing students writing?.
3. To what extent are EFL learners aware of lexical collocation (verb +noun, adjective +noun) knowledge when writing paragraph.

1.4 Hypotheses of the study

The present study proposes the following as its hypotheses:

1. Lexical collocation can improve vocabulary and paragraph writing among University students.
2. Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation to teach paragraph writing.

EFL learners are not aware of lexical collocation (verb +noun, adjective +noun) when writing paragraph.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The present study is considered significant for the following reasons:

1. The lack of lexical collocation (verb +noun, adjective +noun) knowledge among University students which negatively affects on their writing paragraph. It is obvious that those students un able to combine words in writing paragraph due to the lack of lexical collocation which gives the words their correct combination and reflect the real sense of sentences within the paragraph, so, lexical collocation(verb +noun , adjective +noun) takes a great importance among the elements of writing.
- 2.The significance of the present study associated of the importance of teaching paragraphs as authentic materials that used in improving vocabulary and its lexical collocation, (verb +noun , adjective +noun) besides the importance of this technique in the curriculum.
3. The significance of the present study also arises from the observations the stress on the importance of teaching and learning lexical collocation as well as assistance for both student and teachers to improve their awareness of lexical collocation (verb +noun, adjective +noun) in writing paragraph, the present study will be as a guidance for those who interested in this field and offers some suggested solutions to students to overcome this profound problem.

1.6 Methodology of the study

Since the present study adopts the experimental and descriptive methods; the researcher will use two instruments to conduct this study. Firstly: pre test and post test for two groups of second third and fourth year students. Secondly: a questionnaire will be distributed among University teachers who are teaching English language at different Sudanese universities.

1.7 Limits of the study

The current study attempts to measure only the investigating lexical collocation (verb +noun , adjective +noun) on improving paragraph writing among University students, so the students of University will be the participants of the study, and the second third and fourth year students of ALNOUR College– will be the sample who will be about (41) students. English language teachers of universities will be the second sample of the study who will respond the questionnaire.

The study will be applied at Gezira State / ALNOUR COLLEGE OF SCIENCE and TECHNOLOGY – Madani. The study will be limited to academic year 2020-2021.

1.8-Study Terms

- Collocate (s) -Noun- depend word (s) in collocation that is-are semantically and structurally subordinated to and regulated by anode.
- Node: The main word in collocation that is functionally semantically and structurally independent from its collocating.
- Span: The number of word components that precede the node “The distance between collocations components”.
- Frequency of occurrence: The number of times a word combination appears in corpora “it’s usually measured by raw or norm frequency per million.
- Frequency of Co – occurrence: The number of time words are used together in corpora; Semantic and associative links between words, it is usually measured by mutual information.
- SLA: Second Language Acquisition .
- Chunk. Term was coined by Miller 1956 to refer to permanent sets of associative connection in long – term short.

- Approximation: it means that learners use a un correct vocabulary item or structure which shares enough semantic features in common with the desire item to satisfy the speaker. Carone 1981 as cited in Liu (1999:491).
- Idiomatic: in the Oxford Advanced Learner Dictionary (OALD) Hornby P: 24) defines adjective idiomatic as referring to “using” containing, or denoting expression that are natural to a native speaker. He spoke fluent, idiomatic in English. An A.EFL learner how even may produce some expressions that are described as grammatical not necessary idiomatic.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RELATED STUDIES

Chapter Two

Literature Review Previous Studies

2.0 Introduction

This study is concentrated on knowledge of collocation as general and lexical collocation (verb + noun) and (adjective + noun) particular that are used in various types of paragraph writing also the study dealt with the difficulties that face EFL learners in the use of collocation in learning English and do not produce like native speaker when they using the language despite of the fact that they have been studying English for about more than 8 years. One reason for this is the lack of the knowledge of collocation in speech and writings.

Accordingly collocation is now considered an important aspect of foreign language learning and necessary for knowing how to combine words to make other special meanings. Firth says: “you shall know a word by the company it keeps”. In cohesion in English Halliday and Hassan (1976) argue that: collocation a mean of cohesion is the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in same way or other typically associated with one another, because they tend to occur in similar environment. The word doctor implies such word as: nurse, midiron, symptoms, hospital etc., and the word night closely related with darkness. Collocation in this sense is overlapped with the so-called some semantic field. Words occurring in collocation or in the same field exists as a group fit in a given situation but the presence of one word does not necessarily lead to the occurrence of others in the group. Hatch (1992) agreed that collocation is a type of cohesive tie for lexical items which means , if the speaker says a word the listener will think of all alternatives that have relationship with this word as when: somebody says *flower*, the listener normally will think of ‘stem’ the ‘petal’ and the ‘leaf’

and so on. Obviously collocation is an important aspect in vocabulary acquisition and also it is a universal linguistic phenomenon. Words are always used together; they always present themselves in collocation. In fact words seldom occur in isolation. Collocation is not only a necessary element of language but also an outstanding feature that make language specific and correct. Therefore, to learn English learners should attach much importance to collocation. In teaching vocabulary the linguists emphasized that: to know a word in a target language may the ability to used it a word if correctly goes with i.e. in the correctly collocation indeed, among many items of a word listed in dictionaries the usage containing collocation is very valuable and helpful. The aim of learning a new word is to put in practical use and to make sentences. It explicitly suggested in some dictionaries of collocation that students choosing the right collocation will make his her speech and writing sound more natural more native speaker likes, even when basic intelligibility does not seen to be at issue. Collocation also provides a good way to memorize new word. According to what has been mentioned above, the term collocation refers to syntagmatic and pragmatic relations of words, on the other hand, collocation can be seen as a type of word combinations. As it has been mentioned previously collocation is the most significant aspect in language teaching, besides its significance as wholly. Accordingly, the students of University lack of lexical collocation knowledge which negatively affects on their paragraph writing. Therefore collocation knowledge has become as a hot issue which should be cared enough during teaching vocabulary.

As Lewis (2000) highlights the importance of collocation in language use by proving that both native speakers of a language and successful EFL advanced learners have a high level of collocation competence.

The study is related English collocation in general and lexical collocation (verb + noun), adjective + noun) especially that are identified by the most

educationists, practitioners, and educational methods used to enhance and motivate learning English as foreign language. For this purposes of the study the researcher will build on what have been mentioned above and utilize the whole setting of lexical collocation (verb +noun , adjective +noun) in describing how EFL learners in AL-Nour University utilize it to improve paragraph writing competence.

2.1 Review of Literature

Fan (2009) indicates that learners of English encountered several difficulties in the use of collocation in speech and writing, she concludes that *(non-native speakers tend to use relatively fewer collocates when speaking in than native speakers)*.

The failure of SL/FL learners to produce collocation in the proper order, the form does not follow a prescribed patterns or rules, while the native speakers learn them throughout the normal acquisition process.

Bahns (1993) indicates to possibility of acquiring all collocations originates from the lack of collocational competence of ESL/EFL learners and Crystal (1999) adds:*(it is related to their lack of intuition which is defined as the ability of native speakers in confirming rules of grammar and use of language)*.

This problems inspired many researchers in second and foreign language and many studies have done on collocations'; knowledge of collocation, collocational competence, lexical and grammatical collocation, collocational proficiency, collocational errors...etc. ... in India Zhang (1993). Knowledge of collocation, Biskup (1992), collocational's errors- Polish and German students, Al-Zahrani (1998), knowledge of lexical collocation Saudi Fl learners of English, Hsu (2003), lexical collocation, Taiwanese students, Sung (2003), lexical collocation Pennsylvania,

Nesselhauf (2003) verb + noun collocation Advanced German learners of English.

Brashi (2006) receptive and productive knowledge of verb + noun collocation Saudi, Alsakran (2011) productive and receptive knowledge of lexical and grammatical collocation Colorado University.

In Iran (2001) Eftikhar and Rahimi delexicalization verbs and levels of proficiency Tehran/Rahim and Momeni (2011) teaching collocation Tehran University, (2019) Mahvelatic Collocational Teaching Iran University, (2011) Bazzaz verb + noun collocation in writing short stories, (2012) Bahridoust lexical collocation Iran (2010) Nyuyen and Webb knowledge of (verb + noun) and (adjective + noun) collocation Vietnames EFL learners. (2011) Hong, Rahim, Hua and Salahuddin collocational errors, Malaysia. (2008) Siyanova and Schimtt: production and processing of adjective + noun collocation in second language Russian learners of English. (2012) Migdad: lexical collocation (verb + noun and adjective + noun) collocation. (2009) Mohamed, M, adjectival collocation, Yemen at Hodeida University, (2011) Laufer and Waldman: (verb + noun) collocation Hebrew.

Most of the researchers indicated that knowing collocations will help you to express your-self easily and you will have the chance to choose alternative from the language and therefore your language sound or writing seem to natural – native like – to a void pitfalls or incorrect constructions. McCarthy (1990) state.

(Collocational knowledge is part of native speaker's competence and can be problems for leaners in cases where collocability is language – specific and is not solely determine by universal semantic restrictions)

2.2 Meaning of words

It is easy to agree that the meaning is the heart of language, without capacity to express the meaning then the language loses one of its essential aspects, there are many different views and ways of meaning and

collocation is one of this ways which tells us about the meaning or is a part of the meaning of a word: J.R Firth(1957) who proposed that the meaning of a word is at least partly determined by its contextual environment or by meaning of collocation. Firth (1957: 179) (*You shall know a word by company it keeps*).

Meaning is very vague term in English; it refers to a variety of different relations between the world, language and speakers, since the term *meaning* is difficult to define, to clarify, to use or to explain, it has been talked in a various fields by: philosophers, linguists and behaviorists.

2.2.1 Philosopher's views

According to philosophers views meaning is looked as *naming* word in language refers to thing in the real world, and the relation between word and object is known as the relation of reference, for example: the word *book* evokes the subject *book Ahmed* refers to a *person Khartoum* refers to a *town*. In other words: the word referred to object and the object be a name of thing or person or place that have referents. The theory is described incomprehensible because there are many words in the language have no referent at linguistic such as **soul, angel** no one can say these words refer to. Also there are some words which refer to abstract nouns such as **brave honest** no existence in the real world.

2.2.2 Linguists' views

To palmer, H(1933) the linguistic views consider the relation of the words, indirect thing but there is a connection between the language and physical world, and the relation occurs through the mind. Words are related to concepts and the concepts related to object **referent**. This view explained in **Semiotic Triangle** Odgen and Richard (1923): Some researchers agree with Odgen and Richard like palmer (1933), But also criticized by some linguists; one of the main criticism it is difficult to identify the concepts of some words such as **will, pain, happy** the second

one it also fail to identify two words which have same meaning as **start** **begin** or one word may has many meaning **bank, date**.

2.2.3 Behaviorisms views: word, stimulus, response

From palmer F,R(1981 56 - 57) According to Behaviorism: the relation between words and their meaning is based on the relation: **stimulus** and **response**. Bloomfield (1933) indicated that meaning can be guessed from the situation in which speech is used. He suggests that the meaning of utterance can be analyzed in certain situation in which speaker utter it, he gives an example of his suggestion: a boy called Jack and a girl called Jill. He illustrates his view → as Jill is hungry: sees an apple and with the use of language gets Jack to fetch it for her. If she had been alone, she would have produce first received STIMULAS (S) which would have produce REACTION (R)-The term RESPONSE is more usual – she would have made a move to get the apple. This can be diagrammed: S →R.

However in many situations it is difficult to demonstrate what is the relevant features of **stimulus** and **response** are. It is impossible to find the relevant of a certain stimulus, response especially in the events are not visible in extra- linguistics words such as expression of feelings or abstract words and there are many situations where the response does not act as we expected his or her.

2.3 Lexical Meaning

Zgusla (1971:23 – 24) the nature of lexical meaning become controversial area among linguists. Some linguists refer to lexical meaning as a property of linguistic form, while other refers to lexical meaning: regularity with which words are used. And the third group, of linguists believed that words have no meaning except when they are used in a context.

The definition of words in a dictionary is called **denotative meaning**. Accordingly to Taylor (1971) a thing or event that a word refers to is called

denotative meaning for instance **mother** the connotative meaning is a female parent while the connotative meaning can be excessive femininity, loveable, emotional, refinement.

All semantists agreed on the concepts of denotation and connotation; that the relation between words in an extra-**Linguistic** world is called **denotation**. While the meaning of words beyond its denotation is known as **connotation**. In other word it is related to emotional, reactions, and attitudes of the user toward what is the word refers.

Collocations are important in defining the meaning of individual words or phrases as Firth (1957) famously put it (*you shall know a word by the company it keeps*). J.R Firth who proposed that the meaning of a word at least partly determined by its contextual environment or by meaning of collocation.

2.4 Collocation

An article written by Fontenelle (1994) attracted my attention to it. What On the Earth are Collocations

((.....why can we say an egg is rotten and addled while milk can go or turn to sour rotten, and butter become rancid can all be combined with nouns denoting food stuff but are no mean interchangeable; this mean: That some words are more likely to combine with specific item to form natural sounding combinations. While other types of combinations are simply not found. The aim of this article is to outlines the properties of these accepted combination, and to clarify this phenomenon generally known as collocations)).

2.5 Historical background of the term collocation

The origin of the word collocation from SLA- is from Latin word **collocare** which means to arrange/together/to place. Palmer (1933) considered as pioneer in studying collocation. He states that (*the meaning of words can*

be equal to the meaning of one word) and he defines collocation as: *(succession of two or more words that must be learned as integrals whole and not pieced together from its component parts)*.like the word **dark** collocates with **night**.

2.6 Collocation's Definition:

The first linguist who draw attention to the fact that meaning is not restricted to single lexical unit was the British linguist J.R Firth (1957), he considers the father of collocation. He proposed that the meaning of a word is at least partly determined by its contextual environment or by collocation and he defines collection as:

Firth (1957: 85)"(*Statements of the habitual or customary places of that word*). He also says (*you shall know a word by the company it keeps*).

Firth looked at the collocation as combination of words and the meaning of these combinations was lexical meaning at syntactic level. Firth (1957 - 81) example word an **ass** can collocates with **silly**, **obstinate**, **stupid**, and **awful**. He understood collocation as convenient first approximation to the meaning at purely lexical level that can be operationalized.

The same notion is emphasized by Leech (1974-20) but in different words: Leech states that (*collective meaning consists of the association a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tends to occur in its environment*) Leech gives an example of pretty and handsome share the good looking, but they are distinguished by range of nouns with which they occur.(*Pretty girl, handsome man*).

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) (*collocation is an aspect of lexical cohesion which embraces relationship between lexical items that regularly co-occur*) example: the word **doctor** implies such words as: **nurse**, **midiron hospital**, **symptoms**. Their definition rests on a tendency of lexical items to occur in the same context because it belongs to the same semantic field.

Sinclair (1991) defines collocation as *(a frequent combination between some words which happens more often than other words that cannot keep company with each other)*. He also states (1991: 179) *(collocation is the co-occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a context)*.

Sinclair (1991: 170) considers collocations as strings of words formed, node, and span: and collocates, Node the main item can collocates with different items. Span is the number of referent lexical item in each side of the node, collocate(s): is – are- the item(s) found within the span: example white coffee. White is the collocate and coffee is **anode**. Seretan (2011:30) the **base** is the main element he uses the word base instead of **node**. The last element arbitrary and unpredictable. It is not possible to predict them, in the above example **white coffee** one cannot predict after white what?!

Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986: 253), they define collocation

Loosely fixed combination of the type to (commit murder) taking up a position between idioms on one hand, and free combinations on the other collocations are psychological salient fixed phrases, differing from idioms in being semantically transparent and from free combinations in being frequent and not freely variable by means of synonyms:

Collocations are words that occur together with high frequency and refer to the combination of words that have a certain mutual expectancy. Jackson (1986:96). *(The combination is not affixed expression but there is a greater than chance like hood that will co-occur)*.

There is another definition of collocation that is provided by Choueka (1988), collocation is.

a sequence of two or more consecutive word that has characteristic of syntactic and semantic unit and whose exact unambiguous meaning cannot be derived directly from the meaning or connotation of its components.

For Firth collocations are seen as lexical proximities in text, while in Choueka are syntactic and semantic units and to Curse (1986:40) (*sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur*).

MC Carthy(1990 : 12) has a definition as the same as Curse collocations are sequence of lexical items which habitually co-occur **MC Carthy (1990)**” he also adds collocations” *marriage contract between words*”:

Baker (1992:47) defines collocation as (*semantically restricts which do not follow logical from proposition meaning of a word*) “another way of looking at collection isIn term of tendency certain of words to co-occur regular in a given language. For example (to pay) (to perform) the most common collocation **to pay a visit** but not **perform a visit**.

An excellent overview compelling definition of collocation and their historical development is a given by Bartish (2004:76) interestingly: she takes a middle road with her working definition as (*lexically or pragmatically constrained recurrent co-occurrence of at least two lexical items which are in a direct syntactic relation with each other*)

Lewis (1997) collocation as (*combination of words which occur naturally with greater random frequency*). Lewis understands collocation is: the way in which words naturally occur rather than how they are put together. Lewis (2002:8); improves his definition by adding :(*this phenomenon happens when certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency*).

To Ghazal (2006:65) :(*“Collocations are words that are usually found next to the other words or are co-located with other one*).

Oxford Advanced Learner Dictionary (OALD) (2005: 293) defines collocations as (*“a combination of words in a language that happen frequency than would happen by chance*)) **resounding success and crying shame** are English collocations!”).

According to Oxford Dictionary (OD) (*collocation is: the habitual juxtaposition of particular word with another word or words with frequency greater than chance*). Most researchers who define collocation agree that it is lexical unit consisting of a cluster of two or three words from different part of speech.

Various definitions of the term **collocation** have been presented since its appearance as linguistic concept: However these seem to be no general agreement and a specific definition of collocation as Granger and Paquout (2008) state that: (*The diversity in defining collocation are attributed to various reasons such as the nature of collocation and various perspectives from which this linguistic phenomenon has been viewed*).

After Firth's death linguists in a particular lexicography have paid much attention to the way in which words habitually group together in clusters that are not considered idiom but are yet felt to be frequent units of language comprising more than one word. Despite this attention the concept of **collocation** is still somewhat vague and needs a clear demarcation.

2.7. Collocation's classifications:

Many various names of the term **collocation** has represented since its appearance as **linguistic** concept. The term has been labeled a variety of ways e.g. formulair sequences, ready-make utterances, multi-word units, conventionalized form. (Wray 2009:9). Natural co-occurring, strings of words Chian ∞ Liou (2005) and word partner ships Mudraya (2006). Also called frequent word combination, prefabricated, composed chunks Lewis (1997) and chunk.

In the older discipline of phraseology research collocations are usually considered a particular type of multi-word expression (MWE(s)). Since MWE(s) pervade natural language, their identification is pertinent for range of tasks within lexicography terminology and language technology.

Linguistically MWS's' comprise several phenomenon ranging from Idioms, semi fixed expression, and technical terminology. Saget et, al (2002), MWFS are sometimes referred to as, *a pain in the neck*, because their meanings, usually, cannot be determined compositionally from the meaning of individual words Howarth (1998) Cistaki (1999). The principal argument for making this distinction is that the meaning of some of them are tangled that that their constituent words unpredictable (pull strings).

In the present study the classification is based on the categories of collocation proposed by Benson (1985). He classifies collocation into two groups: lexical collocation and grammatical collocations .In (1986: 6) Benson, M, Benson, E, and Ilson. R: gave this definition (*In English as in other language there are many fixed identifiable, non-idiomatic phrases and constructions, such groups are called recurrent combinations, jexed combinations or collocation*)They also classified English collocation into two major groups: *Lexical collocation and grammatical collocation*. Benson (1985:6) illustrates that collocation consist of the dominant words like *verbs*, *nouns*, or *adjectives* followed by, functional words like *prepositions* or *particles*.

Cowie, Mackin, and MC Caig 1983 the compiler of Oxford Collocation Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English classify collocation into two groups according to their idiomatically namely *restricted* collocation, and *opened* collocation. *Restricted* collocation are collocation that one element is used in non-literal sense, and the other used in its normal meaning like **under shadow** while **open** collocation involved elements which are freely combine and elements has its literal sense such as *mad dog*.

Baker (1992) classifies collocation into **open** and **restricted** collocation. Open collocation are the **nodes** that can go with wide range of other words e.g. *big house, beautiful house, small house*, and the like.

Sinclair (1991) divides collocations into two categories: the *upward* and *down ward* collocation.

The *upward* consists of words which are habitually collocate with the words more frequently used in English than they are themselves, e.g. *back* collocates with **at, down, from, into,** and **on** all of which are more frequent words than **back**...similarly *down ward* collocations are words which are habitually collocate with word that less frequently than they are e.g. words **arrive, bring** are less frequently occurring .Collocates of **upward** mostly, preposition, conjunctions, pronouns, this form grammatical frame, while elements of **down ward** commonly; nouns adverbs or verbs, by contrast give a semantic analysis of a word-Lexical collocation.-

Carter (1998) divides collocation into four terms:

- a. **Unrestricted collocation** is the collocation which contains the lexical items that are free to be combined with a wide range of words as in word ‘take’: ‘**take a letter**’, **take a time** – **take a notice** ‘**take a look**’ **take a holiday**.
- b. **Semi restricted** collocation include the lexical items whose is more determined like harbor grudge ,doubt; uncertainly, suspicion,
- c. **Familiar collocation**; includes the lexical items that keep a regular company they are considered as type of fixed expressions an example from Carter: innocent bystander, unrequited love, un migrated disaster. But In Baker1998:70) example (Luke warm reception)
- d. **Restricted collocation** which are fixed and inflexible like **lean meat** ,**putrid fish** ,**dead drunk**,

in the case of restrictions, scholars have two type of restricted collocation **semantic** and **syntactic** restrictions.

Semantic Restrictions: Robinson (1981) there are some restrictions on words combination which are semantically divided into: **selectional** and **collocational**. *Selectional restriction* Carter (1998: P56-57). Is

semantic in which the meaning of a word determines the other word with which it comes- so the semantic features of a word restrict the number of words with which it can come, for example: the *stream danced*, this example is semantically unacceptable because the subject of the verb danced should be **animate**. Curse and Croft (2004) P: 249

The *other collocational restriction* Curse and Croft (2004) P: 249 is **haphazard**: that is to say: there is no reason for the restriction. The restriction is basically lexical, so the collocated words might be semantically acceptable (*make a visit*) but collocational unacceptable another example is *addled* and **rancid** the two words have the meaning of *stale* – and *rotten* but the word **addled**- comes with **eggs** and **rancid** comes with **butter**.

Carter (1998:17). **Syntactic restriction**: the construction of collocated words has a degree of restriction that is divided into:

- a. **Flexible** which means that the two collocated words can come in any type of syntactic structures e.g. **break some body heart**.
- b. **Irregular** consists of the collocated words that are fixed in terms of syntactic structures in **to go on better**.
- c. **Regular**: with certain construction: means that there are some collocated words that are more fixed than flexible and less fixed than irregular like **to drop a brick**.

Lewis (1997) divides collocation into **strong** and **weak** according to their **fixedness** and **restrictedness** and distinguishes collocation from **frequent** and **infrequent** one, due to their frequency of co-occurrence in corpora. **Strong** collocation is known as closely linked phrases that usually act like single words example **stark naked** on the contrary **weak** collocation is combined with many other words as: **nice day** and **good play**.

According to EL Hassan (2004), collocations are **strong** and **weak**, **strong** such as **addled eggs** and **rancid butter**: .Good users of it are the native, **speaker** and **weak** collocation more predictable as in **white wine**.

Hill (2000) as cited in Meral Melek (2014) discusses four different collocations regarding collocation strength

a) **Unique** collocation: in the unique collocation the verb is not used with many other nouns examples “**to foot the bill, to shrug one’s shoulder.**

b) **Strong collocation:** in the strong collocations one element incomplete without other one because it collocates with only a small number of nouns as in **rancid butter, trenchant criticism.**

c) **Weak collocation.** These weak collocations are completely free and predictable to the students because words collocate with each other in random sense. E.g. the adjective **big** collocates with *car, decisions. Mistake, failure* and *boy.*

d) **median– strength,** the combination of the medium either free or completely fixed which make up a large part of our spoken and written discourse: example. **To hold a meeting.**

2.8. Words combinations:

The combination of words determines the way they can be combined to convey meaning. The meaning that resulting from the association cannot be predictable from of associated words. But in the case of collocation the meaning often – predictable example: **blond** as an adjective, referring to colour it is highly restricted in its distribution ,**blond** is associated with hair and not with door even if the colour of the door is blond, therefore, there is blond hair but not blond door.

Lewis (8000) asserts that learning words in combination better helps language learners develop communicative competence than learning words in isolation.

2.9 Types of word combinations:

2.9.1 Idioms:

To Carter (1998 - 152) an idiom also called frozen expression. In the past an idiom is considered a type of collocation but later scholars and linguists make distinctions between an idiom and collocation, idioms are typically identified: as **fixed** expression consisting of multiple morphological words that just when they occur together, have non-compositional interpretation, for example **break a leg** is an idiom is different from collocation (break the law) because the meaning of idiom is not compositional, that is to say: the meaning of the whole cannot be predicated from the meaning of the other part like, **to have cold feet**. The meaning of this phrase cannot taken literally as, **frozen feet**, or **chilly feet**, but idiomatically ,**to be afraid of** Schutze (1999: 172:1).new study attempts to differentiate between idiom and collocation: the basic features of idioms are non-compositional non modification al non- substitution ally, Manning and Pasta (2004): adopt two criteria for distinction between collocations and an idiom: semantic transparent and highly frequency of use for collocation and semantic opacity and fixed structure for idioms.

Some researchers like Conklin ∞Schmitt (2008), Turan (2001) perceive collocation as sub-classes of idioms or routine formulair Gistaki (1996) Krishnanthy (2006) consider idioms sub types of collocations.

Generally collocations determine by its lexical combination, restrictedness, semantic transparency and predictable meaning. Idioms is figurative expression, the interpretation is not derived from the individual meaning of the words comprising non literal interpretation.

2.9.2 Free combination

Free combinations have the properties that each of the words can be replaced by another without seriously modifying of the overall meaning of

the composite unit, and if one of the word is omitted a reader cannot easily infer it from the remaining ones. For example. **Buy a pen** where buy can be replaced by: sell, select etc., and pen by ticket, book, etc. is free combination. Grammatically acceptable and semantically clear, the combination of ‘buy’ and pen is accidental depending on the meaning the speaker wants to express.

2.9.3 Collocation:

Collocations are words that occur together with high frequency and refer to the combination of words that have a certain mutual expecting. Sinclair (1991), states (*collocation is used to refer to binary of lexical combinations that occur physically together or stronger chances of being mentioned together*).

In the present studies the classification of collocation is based on the categories of collocation proposed by Benson (1985). He classifies collocation into two groups’ **grammatical** collocation and **lexical collocation**. (1986) Benson, M, Benson, E and Ilson, R also classify collocation into two groups’ grammatical collocation and lexical collocation.

2.9.3.1 Grammatical collocation

Benson in (1985) illustrates grammatical collocation: it consists of the dominant words like “noun, a verb or an adjective followed by functional words like preposition, particles or “to” plus infinitive or that clause: e.g.

1. Verb + preposition: abide by, abstain from, and aim at.
2. Noun + preposition: access to / admiration for amazement at.
3. Adjective + preposition: absent for / afraid of / angry (about, with, at).
4. Preposition + noun: by accident/
5. Adjective + that clause: it was imperative that I be here.
6. Adjective + to – infinitive. It’s nice to be here.

Note: The preposition in this kind of collocation is not predicable.

- **Colligation**

To Crystal (1997:69) and (ibid) the term *colligation* is used in Firthian linguists to differentiate between collocations and co-occurrence of syntactic elements. It refers to syntactic aspects of collocated words. So if a collocation is typically co-occurrence of words, colligation will be a typical co-occurrence of syntactic elements.

Crystal says (1997) (*it denotes the process or result of grouping a set of word on the basis of their similarity entering into syntagmatic grammatical relationship*) For example a set of verbs which take a certain kind of compliant constructions e.g. **agree: choose** etc.: colligate with to + infinitive construction as opposed to (ing) form, as I **agree** to go vs I **agree** going.

In colligation there are no individual lexical items in contrast of collocation. It is difficult to study collocation a way from grammar because the words that come together are automatically related by grammar.

2.9.3.2 Lexical collocation

To Morton Benson (1985) Lexical collocations in contrast to grammatical collocation, contains no clauses, infinitives or prepositions and do not include subordinate elements, and they are composed of two lexical components. In the lexical collocation there are **fixed** combination, and **loose** combination. Especially in the **verb + noun** combination. The fixed combination in which the choice of words that collocate each other is define such as: a **make an assumption** and **do business**, and these combination” **do an assumption**, and **make a business** unlikely. This **fixed structures** are idiomatic, their meaning are still predictable from the element of the combination. In contrast to **loose** combination the collocates are freely combined such as (practice, study) → law. (Analyze witness, study) → murder.

There are fixed combinations consisting of several lexical items which are relatively frozen expressions whose meanings are sometimes hardly derivable from their component words. This is called, Idiom.

Lexical collocation or semantic collocation, as many linguists and scholars named it, has many types but the major types are:

(**verb + noun**) collocation and (**adjective + noun**) collocation. But also can be (**noun + verb**) bees string (**adverb + noun**) Truly mad / absolutely right (**adverb + adjective**) strikingly different, or (**noun + noun**) flock of sheep/ herd of cows / school of whales/ many linguists consider this type: grammatical collocation (**verb + adjective**) turn grey / go blind / keep clean (**verb + adverb**).

The researcher study concentrates on the lexical collocation (**verb + noun**) and (**adjective + noun**) rain heavily / argue heatedly / appear suddenly.

- 1) **Verb + noun collocation**: in this case the noun carries most of the meaning of construction e.g. *do an experiment* *make progress* *to have a try*, *take a bus*, *get a friend*, there is a fixed combination in some verbs: *take a path* *commit crimes* instead **do** (a path, crime) unacceptable **Pass**, **respect**, **break**, and **introduce** collocate with **law**. **Speak** and **tell** collocate with the **truth** and **say** the truth is unlikely.
- 2) **Adjective + noun**: in the case of adjective + noun may be more than one adjective can collocate with some nouns *pretty*, girl, picture **fast**, collocates with (*car*, *train*, *food*, *computer*), **quick** collocates with look, *glance*, *answer*, *decision* *shower* **rapid** collocates with growth, change, progress, increase, movement ...the adjective dry in dry hair the opposite is **greasy** as in greasy hair and **dry** in dry skin” the opposite of dry is oily as in *oily skin*: that means” hair collocates with **dry** greasy and *skin* collocates with **dry oily**, also skin it collocates with smooth, rough:
- 3) **Noun + verb collocation**: bees string

4) Adverb + noun.

Truly mad / absolutely right.

5) Adverb + adjective: strikingly different.

6) Noun + noun: flock of sheep/ herd of cows / school of whales/ many linguists consider this type: grammatical collocation.

7) Verb + adjective/ turn grey /go blind / keep clean.

8) Verb + adverb / rain heavily / argue heatedly /appear suddenly.

2.10 Characteristics of collocation:

It may be very hard for a learner to predict the actual combination of each word in a foreign language. In English for example: **quick glance fast food** however there is no reasonable reason: why '**fast**' go with **food** rather than **quick** should go with **food**? One of the most examples is called "binominals" which mean some familiar stereotypes have meanings that can be easily expected from component words such as *salt* and *pepper* it is always used by native speaker.

(Hatch 1992) ((when a speaker says a word the listener will think of all: alternatives that have relationship with this word, as: when somebody says *flower* the others will think of the *petal stem* and the *leaf* and so on: Yule (1996: 123) agreed with Hatch and adds: if someone hears **a hammer** most people connect it with **a nail** ,this simple way to organize word knowledge is named collocation. The notion of collocation provides distinction between native and non-native and the good learner who master the language and the one who lack of it. Knowing a language is no only knowing what words mean, but what their typically collocations.

Aghbar (1990). *Collocations are possibility of two or more words combining together in a native memory in a well-linked way in order to construct combinations*)).

According to Sung(2003): (*collocations are word combinations take place in native speakers mind intuitively*). In addition to all above collocations are characterized as:

2-10-1Arbitrary:

MC Keown ∞ Radev (2006:3): The arbitrariness captures the fact that substituting synonym for one of the words in a collocational word pair may result in an infelicitous lexical combination, for example: A phrase such as: **make an effort** is acceptable, and **make an exertion** is not **do an effort** also is not

MC Carthy and Dell, state that,

(words are used with each other or collocate in fairly fixed ways in English and exemplify this point by mean of the word a fair. Fair is synonymous with light, blond, pale, colourless, and bleached. Therefore it is possible to describe hair as: fair , light and blond or bleached but not as pale or colorless, skin for example: can be 'fair light and pale but not describe as 'blond' colourless or bleached: colourless would be perfect quality of gas and liquid)

Baker(1992: 481). (*collocations have features of being, largely arbitrary and independent of meaning*) Gramely and Patzold from Bernentt (1988: 277): the most important point about collocational meaning is that: each lexeme makes an independent contribution to the meaning of the whole collocation e.g. the adjective **white wine, white snow, while paint** clearly, but **white lie harmless** or **white night sleepless white coffee, with milk**, are far remote from the central meaning of white.

Benson and Ilson stated that, as cited in Migdad (2012).

(Collocations are arbitrary and non- predictable Non-native speakers cannot cope with them. They must have a guide. They have no way of knowing that one says in English (make an estimate) but not (make estimation) (commit treason)

but not say: (commit treachery). In English one can say (commit fraud) and perpetrate fraud. However only the collocation commit suicide is possible; one does not say perpetrate succide. One can say bake a cake but make pancakes not (bake pancakes).

2-10-2 Compositionality

We can call natural language compositional if the meaning of expression can be predicted from the meaning of its part as Meaning and Schutze (1999:191): assert that as in **shrug, shoulder, nod, head**. Collocation is described as being compositional or predictable but not fully. In that there is usually an element of meaning added to the combination. e.g. **strong tea**. Strong has acquired the meaning of *rich* in some active agent which is closely related. Example like: **run a program** is not predictable.

2-10-3 Frequency

Frequency is one of the main properties employed in defining and identifying collocation. Collocations are generally characterized by their recurrent appearance in spoken and written language. Frequency of co-occurrence: the number of times a word combination appears in corpora. Example: **wide spread** (existing or happening in many places or among people) collocates strongly with a lot of words relating to either **attitude** *widespread interest, wide spread support, or problem wide spread damage, wide spread poverty*. Example there has been wide spread support for the governments new policy on education.

2-10-4 Negative and positive connotation

Negative and positive connotation restricted to Stubbs, (1995: 33 - 141)He .points out some other interesting properties of collocation. One important note about positive or negative connotation they carry, because words have distinctive semantic **profiles** or **parodies** which makes semantic relation

between the node and its collocates. He gives example of word **cause** of unpleasant it is *negative* connotation using data from his analysis of corpora: **cause** mainly collocates with words including **problems, trouble damage, death, pain, and disease**. On the other hand, **provide** collocates with words having *positive* connotation like: **aid, assistance, help, support and food**.

2-10-5 Delexicalised verbs

Lewis 1997” Delexicalised verbs, such as *do, make, get, keep, take, have* and *give*, are crucial in determining the meaning and the use of collocation because these verbs have little or no meaning out their contexts of a particular use

2-10-6 Modern invention

In the recent studies researchers take advantage of the fact that collocations are often domain specific: which do not participate in a collocation in everyday language often form part of a collocation in technical language. Thus **file** collocates with verbs such as *create delete, save*, when discussing computer but not in other sub-languages.

2.11- Importance of collocations:

2.11.1 Collocations and vocabulary

One of the important tasks that language learners face is acquiring an extensive vocabulary. Traditional way of memorizing the meaning and pronunciation of a new word is far from meeting the need of the learners with expansion of the size of vocabulary, so, the acquisition of vocabulary considers as key aspects in second and foreign language process especially when it comes to its incidental learning. In his input hypothesis (Krashen 1989), argues that the incidental acquisition of the vocabulary naturally occurs by providing the learners with comprehensive input and by

collocation also he states that: the acquisition occurs only when learner's attention is focused on the meaning rather than on the form.

From 1950 – 1970 vocabulary has been neglected in language learning and teaching. Brown (1974) warned out ESL, EFL field about the danger of ignoring vocabulary construction. Also there is growing of awareness of the significance of vocabulary acquisition, David Wilkin (1972 P: 111) (*without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed*). Level (1989: 181), starts to notice the importance of the vocabulary in education of English as second or foreign language he states: (*the assumption that the lexicon is an essential mediator between conceptualization and grammatical and phonological will be called the lexical hypothesis*).

At the beginning of the 1990 two influential books appeared: Paul Nation's Teaching and Learning Vocabulary (1990) and John Sinclair Corpus Concordance and Collocation (1991) which stimulated research into vocabulary and more especially into collocation. Lewis (1993) develops the basic principles in the communicative approach to language learning, and this considered as born of lexical approach. In this approach achieving proficiency depends to target extend on words and their combinations.

The lexical approach puts vocabulary acquisition and collocation in a central role in second language acquisitions.

Lewis (1997) points out that: word does not exist in isolation. It is not always to put any word in any place in a sentence even if the result is a grammatical sentence. The choice of a vocabulary item often determines the following words and grammatical structure: as Liwes puts it (*language is grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar*). Lewis (1993) in other words lexis is essential in creating meaning, grammar plays a minor role.

There are many classical techniques using in teaching vocabulary such as: definition: synonym, antonym, mother tongue, translation, words families and formal grouping.

Many linguists have focused on the combination of words in term of **productively** instead of focused on each word in a sentence. Therefore collocation has become one of a particular area of vocabulary research which has attracted learners' attention theoretically and practically, Taylor (1983), proposes various reasons for studying words in collocation. He claims that *(the words naturally associated in text are learned more easily than those not so associated and that vocabulary is best learned in context)*. Many studies investigated teaching vocabulary through classical techniques. The result: students do not reach the meaning of the new words and they probably will not remember the meaning of new words. Furthermore they want be able to use the new words they have learned even if they remember the meaning because they won't know the suitable collocates. Acat (2008) a verse that:

(Mechanical vocabulary learning just memorizing new vocabulary word by word without interaction with existing knowledge does little to enrich students' vocabulary also teaching vocabulary through classical techniques can cause confusion and take more time and effort than expected).

To Erten and Tekin (2008): teaching vocabulary through collocation provides a good way to memorize new words. Taylor is quoted by Nation (2004 p: 38) giving the reason for studying words in collocation, (***words which are naturally associated in the context are learnt more easily than those not associated; vocabulary is the best learn in the context***); context alone is insufficient without deliberate association...the context and the deliberate associations including collocations provide connection that help learners to deeply understand a word's meaning and furthermore to add it to his/her current vocabulary.

Many researchers aimed of finding out if teaching new words using collocation: the results of teaching vocabulary through collocation are better than learning vocabulary using classical techniques such as definitions, synonym...etc.

Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) state that (*the development of word lists for English based on frequency distribution directed the attention of teachers, EFL, practitioners and curriculum specialists*).

Altinok (2000) conducted study on collocation. The purpose of her study to investigate whether teaching vocabulary in collocation will result in better vocabulary learning than teaching vocabulary using definitions; the participants were from Cukurova University, Center of Foreign Languages Department. In the study there were 65 students. Participating, one central groups and two experimental groups. According to the results of her study; teaching words in collocations did not produce anti statistically significant difference in learning new vocabulary items. She stills suggests that the idea that collocates of word should be taught when presenting new vocabulary particularly Turkish students have difficulty in finding appropriate collocate words. She states: that purpose of my is to find out whether the learners learn the lexical items better in collocation than individually. This study will give a chance to gain an insight about teaching and learning collocation and compare it with teaching word in isolation.

2.11.2- Collocation and fluency

Many scholars consider collocation's acquisition as one of the key for EFL and EFL learners to achieve fluency in language productions and most learners of EFL believe that one of the major problems of learning a language is to use appropriate word chunks while speaking and writing, and collocation among these chunks. In this case language learners fail to select and combine the lexical items like native speaker a like production and usage instead they may know a good command of grammatical patterns

and large receptive of vocabulary but they lack confidence when it comes to selection and combination. Although more recent EFL text books include some collocation words. This work is rarely systematic and the associated activities are often too few.

Benson, Benson and Ilson (1997, 11) state that:

(Learners of English as second or foreign language like learners of any language traditionally devoted themselves to mastering words—their pronunciations, forms, and meanings. However if they wish to acquire active mastering of English fluency and accurately in speech and writing, they must learn to cope with combination of words into phrases and texts)

Nattinger (1983: 69–70): combination words make special meaning and draw learner attention to the combination words or collocation,

not only these combinations assist the learners in commenting words to memory, also aid in defining the semantic area of a word and also permit people to know what kind of words can expected together.

However there are no motivational for the most combination, but in the collocation the conceptual meaning can be realized by different words, so people talk **to tall woman, long ruler, high tree.**

Fluency has become an important part in learning foreign language, Sumules (1974) indicates that **(fluency contains two major components: word recognition and reading speech)** then Nation adds (2001:38)...**(all fluent and appropriate language use requires collocation knowledge)**. If some of one says I did a few mistakes s/he will be understood, whereas a fluent speaker of English will says: I made a few mistake. O' Dell and McCarthy(2005 P: 8.22), Other examples **(do an experiment, make progress, have a break ,take a holiday ,get a grade.**

Collocation is one of the most important aspects of knowing a word: the learner of English who want to understand the language as native fluency

s/he must know word and its collocation. **Bad** always been together as antonym of **good** as in: *good bad*-news when we say bad performance *incorrect* to talk about bad performance, poor *performance* is correct. Red in the *face meaning embarrassed* blue in the face meaning **angry**. It is not a common expression for someone to be a yellow or green in the face. Yellow and green in the face are mistakes. Experts in ELT point out that the correct use of collocation is assign of growth and maturing in the use of foreign language. Men (2018)

Important of collocation knowledge lies in the fact that is key to native-like production,. That is to say: a good command of collocation knowledge helps to achieve the native – like production through promoting fluency. Hill (1999): What differentiates between native and non-native speakers is that: the native speakers have–accrued more examples of the language and are consequently able to speak a relatively fast pace because of their calling a vast repertoire of ready – make language in their long – term memory.

Brown (1974) was one of the first few pioneers who propose the incorporation of collocation in the EFL classroom, she underscores that learning collocation not only increase EFL learners knowledge of collocation but also improve learners oral fluency used by native speakers in speech and writing and enables learners gradually to realize language chunk and to use word in natural combination with other words as well. Channel (1981) supports Brown statement and affirms that heightening learner’s awareness of collocations is a very efficient way of increasing their communicative power.

2.11.3 Collocation and Meaning

The combination of words which are naturally occur in context are easily learnt, because it permit the learners to know what kind of words can expected together, and here collocation provide a good way to memorize new words Sinclair (1991: 108).(*Most everyday words do not have*

independent meaning or meanings but are components of rich repertoire of multi – word patterns that make up text). If you use the word **ball** separately with no other words around, our listeners might probably imagine small / big round object at first. However subsequently their imagination would go further to another meanings and the communication would break down. **Ball point, ballroom**

Nattinger 1988) states that:

The meaning of a word mostly depends on the other words that it collocates with, by the help of these collocates; the learners keep the words in memory and can easily infer the meaning of the context).

As Firth (1957) indicates(*you shall know a word by the company it keeps*), meaning of a word determined by the characteristics of its collocates .For example from Oxford Dictionary(2003): a part of the meaning of the word **dark** is knowing by its accompany with the word **night** which means little or no light as dark can mean different senses in different lexical contexts, e. g **dark green** dark ‘approaching black in shade’ **dark secret, scandal dark mysterious ,dark L** dark = velarized from the sound of letter’ Oxford Dictionary (2015), other example from Oxford Collocation Dictionary for student of English (2003:511) (...the precise meaning in any context is determined by that context: by the words that surround the combine with core word – by collocation: example **handsome** can be used in different contexts. A handsome man is a good looking man/ a handsome woman is physically strong woman/ a handsome present is generous present, only one meaning of handsome can be realized by specific collocates in a given context.

2.12- Collocation Problems

Collocations are pair or group of words that used or combined together these combinations of words are naturally and frequently used by native speakers, while non-native English speakers have to make special effort to learn and to use them – learners of English face many problems in using collocation and how to combine words.

2.12.1 Nature of collocation and native

Collocation is considered as one of the most difficult phenomenon in English language acquisition as second or foreign language. Native acquire it naturally, gradually, subconsciously also effortlessly. But foreign language learners do not have guide lines to follow considering the admissibility of collocation. So the native English speakers automatically know: when, where and how to use collocation in acceptable manner. As Bazzaz and others (2005) mentioned that collocation is considered as an available clusters which can easily remembered. The language learners who try to fulfill the mother tongue eloquence must be concerned in collocation in order to produce familiar sentence that resemble the ones that spoken by the native speakers. Since collocation is stored in the native **memory** it is easier to recall and use it axiomatically and difficult to second and foreign learners. Native use *rancid butter* to refer to *spoiled* butter rancid collocates with butter and rancid cheeses is not collocation. Second and foreign language learners find difficult to acquire collocation as they lack the quality of using or hearing English daily.

2.12.2 Definitions and classifications

Collocation is type of fixed expressions and it is difficult to make a clear – cut between it and other type of combinations, the meaning of collocated words can be derived from constituent parts, but sometime they cannot, so collocation can carry literal and non-literal meaning. Other reason that

make collocation difficult to define: the term is expressed through **open** rather than **closed**.

Collocation is considered controversial phenomenon among linguists and researchers Fontenelle (1994) Meaning ∞ Schutze (1999). There is no one definition for collocation and there is number of studies and approaches to collocation described it in different fields of studies. Thus definitions in syntax is different from semantic and the like.

Pencia (2009:22) asserts that;

There is no commonly accepted definition of collocation. Thus collocation is understood as meaningful and grammatical words Combination: constrained by extensionally, specified restriction and performance.

This a view is also supported by other scholars Martiyemiska, M,(2004 p: 51).there is no exhaustive and uniform definition or categorization of collocation, there for it tends to be one of the most problematic and error generating area of vocabulary, There is no limit to the item that can be used to express collocation and to classify it. The definition and classification are based on the view of every researcher.

2.12.3 Culture, translation and collocation

Learning collocation is not easy in learning foreign language because cultural differences can influence the nature of lexical relationships. Therefor translating collocation is an area of a great difficulty due to discrepancies in the cultural and linguistic structures between second and foreign language. New (1988) has affirmed that the translators will have to deal with various problems of different sorts rendering collocations.

Baker (1999) like others: relate these problems to the relative variation like cultural linguistic collocability from one language to another and which collocate in one language does not necessarily collocate in other. Baker

gives the example of the verb **drink** whereby in English it collocates with liquids like Juice and **milk** but does not collocate with **soup**. Arabic for example: say: drink **soup**, and not eat **soup** catch fish and not catch **cold**, strong tea translate in Arabic to **heavy tea** pregnant women to **carrying woman** this collocate in English incorrect.

2.12.4- Synonym or near-synonym and collocation

Near synonym and synonyms are not easy in application by learners of English, they are difficult to recognized because they cannot allow substitution for the components of collocation example **strong** and **powerful** but **strong tea** correct, **strong car** incorrect: **powerful** car is correct. **glad** and **happy**, *happy* ending is correct *glad* ending incorrect.

Farrokh (2012) for example: notes the absence of any logic: why good chance, high probability and strong likelihood acceptable collocation in English, while strong chance, good probability and high likelihood are not. Another observations made by Sinclair (1991): we can say **break rules** but not **break regulations**, **hold a funeral** but not **hold a burial**, **make an attempt** but not **have an attempt** and **have a try** but not **make a try** ‘the arbitrary nature of collocation cause this serious difficulty.

Although collocation studies are on the dramatic increase, Hoey (2005) still views definitions and properties of collocation as vague and rather complex, and therefore adds that (*lexis is complexly and systematically structured and that grammar is an outcome of this lexical structure*) Erser & Eraogan(2016) New perspectives to collocation studies still remain to be developed. Since the term **collocation** covers a very heterogeneous collection of combinations of lexical items, it is important to produce alternatives and solutions to these problems .Another problem with collocations is that this is taken into consideration without the analysis of current linguistic theories. The previous researchers did not focus on lexical from the perspective of certain linguistic theories. Rather those studies

viewed collocations as only a subpart of vocabulary. In the current studies except a few, collocations are still, to a large extent related to only lexis.

2.13 Collocations Trends

Most studies have focused on three trends namely lexical compositional trend, semantic trend and structural trend:

2.13.1 Lexical compositional trend

The lexical approach claims that: the word acquires its meaning by the text in which it occurs. Firth (1957), who assumes that words gain their meaning from word co-occur with them. Firthian's linguists focused on the frequency of co-occur principles when they dealing with collocation. Halliday (1976) Sinclair (1991) consider collocation to be combination of words whose constituent elements habitually co-occur together regardless of any grammatical structures – Sinclair (1991:70) states that (*...the attention concentrated on lexical co-occurrence more or less independently of grammatical positional relationship*).

In this trend lexical analysis is in depend from grammar and considered lexis autonomous entity choosing its own collocation which can be enumerated and classified in lexical sets such as **rancid butter, make cake, do your homework**.

Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy (1988) suggest that (*language is basically a compositional process in which many of its words co-occur together forming single unit of meaning*), he calls these as: lexical phrase, a word combination and collocation are many other term of lexical phrase.

2.13.2 Semantic trend

Decarrico, (2001: 7). The semantic approach tries to find semantic features based on the meaning of lexical unit that would enable the prediction of their collocation. The supporters regard semantic properties of words as the basis for deciding which word can be combined with other words .In other

words, the goal of this approach to find out why words collocate with certain other word: e.g. why we say **blond hair** but not **blond car**. One can say **pay attention** or *pay a visit* but not **pay a greeting** or: **welcome** and in the same way *die* and *pass a way* have the same meaning but *pass away* used for human beings and *die* is used for all living beings, person, animals and plants.

Robinson (1987: 21) :(*word meanings do not exist in isolation, and they may differ according to the collocation in which they are used*).

According to Gistaki (1996): there are a large number of idiosyncratic co-occurrences or combination that arbitrary restricted not based on their semantic properties. This was one of the weakness of the semantic approach resulted in problems in the way of analyzing collocation through the theory of lexical field which were unexplained by the semantics.

2.13.3 Structural trend:

Michel (1971: 510). According to structural approach collocation is determined by structure and occurs in patterns. Therefore the study of collocation should include grammar and lexical form like **write**, **writer** and **writing**. Michel abstract's the common elements of each word, forms, and labels that as *root* e.g. **drink** and **heavy** are collocation: e.g. heavy drinker drink heavily.

To researcher: this trend is belonged to grammatical collocation out of my research, but it is important.

2.14 Teachers' attitudes toward teaching collocation:

Over the past few years collocations in a second or foreign language teaching and learning contexts have the centre of attention of second/foreign language practitioners, researchers and teachers.

In an early study Brown (1974) underscores that collocation enhance improvement of learners oral communication, listening comprehension and

reading speech, and that teaching collocation enables learners to be aware of language chunk used by native speakers in speech and writing.

Aghbar (1990) in his study emphasizes the important of collocation and indicates that the reason EFL learners have poor performance in the test of short formulaic expressions is not simply a lack of vocabulary proficiency but insufficient acquisition of language chunks. He argues that the knowledge of formulaic language consisting of idioms, proverbs, sayings, collocations, short expressions, and long set expressions is a vital element of language speakers and non-native speakers – Zhang (1993), in her study states that collocations are parameter of L₂ learner writing quality. Further she suggests that the use of collocation distinguishes between good and poor, and native and non-native writings.

Another problem of L₂ learners is the application of near-synonyms- that a pair of word with similar meaning but different collocation- strong and powerful is two examples of near – synonyms are not easily to recognized and fail to be acquired by learners. She advocates: teachers need to incorporate collocation in their syllabuses.

Lewis (2000:53) one of the teachers and curriculum designers (*language knowledge requires collocational knowledge, collocations are everywhere, collocations are found in up to 70% of everything, we say, hear, read or write in a real life*). He indicates that the teacher plays a vital and essential role because s/he has to enlighten the learners with different types of collocations either in the first or second language. Nattinger (1988) asserts that collocations are helpful in improving comprehension for the word combinations that aid learners in committing words to memory as well as allowing learners to predict what kind of lexical items could occur together. Laufer (1988) maintains that collocations represent crucial aspect in the vocabulary knowledge of learners and can also aid the development of self-learning strategies such as guessing. For instance, when hearing the word

“intense” speakers are aware that it is combined with either pressure, heat, light or feeling. Yorio (1988:438) claims that (*conventionalized language forms, including collocation make communication more orderly because they are regulatory in nature*). Channel (1988) agrees with Yorio; he asserts that: increasing learners’ awareness and knowledge of collocation is a very effective of heightening communicative competence, and Cowie (1992) maintains that: lexical phrases and collocations serve communicative needs and allow learners to receive and produce institutionalized units.

Ying (2009, conducted that there is a relation between collocation and coherence in writing. As a result writing will become more fluent, precise and meaning full because learners know collocations needed for writing. Amel Salih, Yazdandoos and Kafipour (2014) indicate that knowledge of collocation can be a predictor for all language skills. An interesting observation is made by Dremir (2017: 75) who argues that: as learner's progress to intermediate levels they tend to make fewer collocations errors stagnates as they still depends on prefabricated routines they acquired before.

Martynska (2004: 11) she states (*learning individual words and their meaning does not sufficient to achieve great fluency in second language. Knowing the way words combine into chunks characteristic of the language is imperative*). She suggests that drawing learners attention to the use and to the role of collocation in expressing meaning should be practiced consciously and explicitly as a result the learners can be asked to prepare relevant glossaries. Monolingual and bi-lingual collocation dictionaries should be made available.

According to Warning (1997) instead of learning individual words, our mind tend to use chunks in a way that when we are going to speak or write, it is more efficient to remember chunks or phrases rather than constructing

single words at once. Additionally he states that native speakers will consciously predict what they are going to say. Therefore, if a non-native, speaker uses unusual phrases it becomes hard to comprehend. An increase in students' knowledge of collocations results in the improvement of their oral and reading comprehension. It means since grammar, vocabulary and meaning work together to make a learner competent in language it will be a mistake to neglect any of them or not to pay enough attention to them.

The researcher Gamal El-Din Hussein (2015), recommends learners, teachers and syllabus designers to pay particular attention to the teaching of lexical collocations because of the (I) learners' general weakness in producing this kind of collocations (II) the teaching of collocations inevitably needs to be integrated with the teaching of vocabulary, (III) teaching collocations should start from the early stages of language teaching (IV) students should make their own lists of all the collocations they encounter in L₂. (v) Syllabus designers should take collocation into consideration through proposing suitable materials and programs for teaching collocations in schools.

Zorana Vasiljevic: teachers play an important role in qualifying students to appreciate the importance of collocational knowledge and students should be introduced to different ways of making collocation notes and promoted to discuss their strengths and weaknesses. They should also be encouraged to experiment with various collocation recording formats until they develop the style that best suits their needs. Class practice should be complemented with homework activities designed to promote more autonomous learning. For example, students could be asked to keep journals in which they reflect on their learning. These reflections of collocation knowledge should prompt learners to reexamine their learning strategies and make adjustments where necessary. Additionally, teachers should help the learners to use

dictionaries and other reference materials and which strategies they employ to master 12 collocations.

Amina Abu Ashiba (2017): EFL teachers should make students aware of lexical collocation and provide authentic materials in real life situation. Using collocation dictionaries help students to make sense of language item and spare students' time and effort when they want to produce language items correctly. Teachers need to use appropriate activities for teaching collocation as well as the needs abilities of the learners.

The important of collocational knowledge appear in Nation (2001: 321) opinion he asserts that (*language knowledge is collocational knowledge because the stored sequences knowledge of words are the bases of learning knowledge and use*) he also stresses that (2011 – 3181) that *some degree of correct use is important in regard achieving fluency, and all fluent and appropriate language require collocational knowledge*).

Gistaki (1999), Deveci (2008) agree that: to have an immense knowledge of vocabulary is not sufficient because words cannot stand alone, Deveci insisted on teaching collocations and teachers should teach their students' collocation which word goes with other.

Majority of the studies conducted in the field of collocation support the role of teaching collocation: Channel (1988) in his study, states that (*the students failed to produce most of the acceptable collocations, although they were familiar with words in isolation*). He suggests that (*to present all the possible and highly frequent collocates at the moment a word is first acquired*). However an interest in collocations in language learning and teaching was sparked in (1980s) when researchers such as Pawley and Syder 1983 convincingly demonstrated that collocations play an important role in characterizing real language proficiency, this observation made by Cowie (1998), Grang (1998) Howarth (1998), Gistaki (1999), Bonk (2001) Wray (2002), and others. Another observations that many foreign language

practitioners unanimously agreed that collocation should be taught explicitly and systematically (Nattinger and De-Carico 1992) Lewis (1993). (1997) (2000). Wei (2000), Martynska (2004) Nesselhauf (2005) Boreas et al (2006) @ Zaki (2011).

Teaching words in chunks can largely enhance range of the words one can apply in process of meaning negotiation (Nattinger and De-Carico (1992).

2.15 How to teach collocation?

Teaching EFL today is focusing its attention on teaching vocabulary, dictionaries makers for example are not concentrate on words' function, pronunciation and basic meaning only, but also other important aspects related to words such as their multiple meanings synonym, connotation, register, and how word's collocates with each other's as well. Hill (2000:P:60) states that (*collocation should play an important part in our teaching from lesson one*).

The explicit teaching collocation has been supported by number of researchers, Farghal & Obeidat (1995) Hus (2007) for instance point that the practical issue of teaching collocation has been neglected by much researchers. There is a lack of research devoted to method of teaching English collocation at University and Sudan is one of the examples.

2.15.1 .Approaches to study collocation:

There are many approaches to study collocation and on the top of these approaches, the phraseology approach or statistical approach also called corpus based approach Seretan & Branbook et al (2013).

2.15.1.1. The phraseology approach:

Emphasized: syntactic and semantic relation elements of a collocation. Nesselhauf (2005). As a result: the identification and analysis of collocation in phraseology is based on grammatical structures and the degree of semantic transparency of collocated word. Word combinations

based on two criteria: transparency and commutability. Howarth 1998). Transparency refers whether the meaning of whole combination can be deduced from the meaning of the individual elements, while commutability refers to restrictions of co-occurring words. Some scholars like Cowie (1981 - 1994) Gistaki (1999) and et al who are highly influenced by Russian phraseology, it views collocation as being constrained by specific rules governing their structures grammatical structures, semantic transparency and substitutability of component items. Researchers in this field created corpus based collocational dictionaries such as Cobuild English language Dictionary.

2.15.1.2.The frequency based approach:

In the frequency based approach collocation are generally characterized by their recurrent appearance in spoken and written text. This approach is used by many linguists who analyze collocation based on frequency, distance, and range, Firth (1975), Halliday (1960), Hoey (2003) (2005). Based on this approach collocation defined as “tendency of certain word to co-occur regularly in a language. Baker (1992).

Furthermore the space of collocation often set term “Span” of 4:4 which means that the most collocation can be found in range of four words and after the “node” Sinclair (1991).

The significant correlation between the knowledge of collocation and writing fluency and accuracy has highlighted the importance of teaching collocation in language learning settings there are more than 20 million words written of collocation in English language. It is impossible to teach them all or near to be taught and it is difficult to determine which one to select to teach. Instead we must know how words’ combine and how to teach collocations.

To gain a better understanding of collocation there are many dictionaries and books for collocation.

2.15.2 Dictionaries and Book to Study Collocation:

2.15.2.1 Michael MC Carthy & Fecticity O'Dell books:

MC Carthy and O'Dell books "English Collocations in Use Cambridge Series books. All; these books contain a variety of topics like:

Business Tests and smell, Everyday verbs, Register Texture, change, Number and frequency, war and peace, Example:

The page 24 from their book English Collocation in use illustrates on the page this title "synonyms and confusable words.

Synonyms and confusable words I

A Common synonym pairs

The (a) and (b) words in each pair in the table have similar meanings. Sometimes either word can be used in a sentence to give the same meaning, but in the collocations below only one word is possible.

synonyms	(a) example	(b) example
(a) close (b) shut	The chairperson closed the meeting at 4.30. [We close meetings/discussions/conferences , etc.]	She was very rude. She said ' Shut your mouth! ' [impolite way of telling someone not to speak] A dentist might ask you to close your mouth . Shut is generally more informal.
(a) start (b) begin	It was a cold morning and I could not start my car . [Start, NOT begin , is used for engines and vehicles.]	Before the universe began , time and space did not exist. [Begin is preferred in more formal and abstract contexts.]
(a) big (b) large	It was a big decision to make. There were some big problems to solve.	I wanted the sweater in the large size but they only had medium.
(a) end (b) finish	The film ended with the hero dying. They ended their relationship a year ago. [End here means decide to stop.]	I haven't finished my homework yet. [Finish here means complete.]

B Groups of words with similar meanings

Words meaning 'old'

I met an **old friend** the other day. It's a very **old building**.
She studied ancient history. In **ancient times**, life was very hard.
This shop sells antique furniture. She collects antique jewellery. [old and valuable]
I helped an **elderly person** who was trying to cross the road. [*elderly* is more polite than *old*]

Words meaning 'with no one or nothing else or with nothing similar'

Donna is a **single parent**; it's difficult for her to work full time.
He lives in a very **lonely place/spot** up in the mountains.
At first I felt **desperately lonely** when I moved from London to the countryside.
I live alone, but I don't like **travelling alone**; it's nice to be with someone.
There was just one **solitary figure** on the otherwise deserted beach. [one person on their own]
She was the **sole survivor** of the crash. Everyone else died. [only survivor]
I am an **only child**; I sometimes wonder what it would be like to have a brother or sister.
This is a **unique occasion**, with three past Prime Ministers all together in one room.

C Other synonym pairs

synonyms	(a) example	(b) example
(a) charge (b) load	I need to charge my phone . [used for batteries, electrical items]	They loaded the lorry and drove away. [used for cargoes, lorries, vans, ships, etc. and for weapons]
(a) injure (b) damage	Three injured people were taken to hospital after the accident. [collocates with words to do with people]	The shop tried to sell me a damaged sofa but I noticed it just in time. [collocates with words for things]
(a) grow (b) raise	In the south the farmers grow crops . [collocates with crops, plants]	In the north the farmers mostly raise cattle . [collocates with animals, children]

These books can be used in the class room and as self-study. The book “English Vocabulary in use” elementary (1999) for example: is a good introduction to collocation, containing on one hand expressions with hot verbs, e.g. have, go, come, take, bring and on, and also grammatical construction with conjunctions, and prepositions, while on the other hand the concentrating on topics that are useful for the learners at this levels.

Finally “MC Carthy and O’Dell English Collocation in Use-(2008) *Advanced Learners*, points out the different connotations of the collocations: “”formal and informal use, and also draw attention to possible common errors related to their use: e.g:

Make research “instead of “do research”.

2.15.2.2. BBI Dictionary.

The BBI = Benson, Benson and Ilson- Dictionary; it focuses on lexical and grammatical collocation. The main purpose of the dictionary is to provide guidance to how English words are, and can be combined to form lexical and grammatical expressions, also offers information regarding these combinations: synonymous expressions, definitions, paraphrases, illustrative phrases usage notes, and styles” British or American English” colloquial, formal, lage, et.

2.15.2.3.NTC’s Dictionary:

NTC’s Dictionary by Richad Spears (1996) is a dictionary of phrasal verbs and other idiomatic expressions. It covers 2, 796 verbs and 13,870 definitions or paraphrases of their collocational usage with different prepositions. Even though the focus of this dictionary is primarily on idiomatic collocations (1) since its primary audience includes learners of English as a second language it is also includes a large number of commonly collocations.

2.15.2.4 COBUILD Dictionary 1987:

Collins Birmingham University: International language Data Base (CONILD) is the largest collocational dictionary whose CD-ROM version gives access to 140,000 English collocation and 2,600,000 examples of how these collocations are used, the Bank of English contains 320 million written and spoken English words which have been collected from a wide range of different sources written texts come from newspaper, fiction and non-fiction books, reports leaflets, brochures, magazines and so on. Spoken texts come from transcriptions of daily conversations radio broadcast, meeting, interview, discussion and so on, these texts consists of British English about (70) , American English about (25%) and about (5%).Other native varieties of English.

COBUILD provides an on line service Cobuild direct that provides access to both Concordances and collocation from its corpus Cobuild is available from ([http://titania Cobuild. Collins. COUK/-direct-info-html](http://titania.Cobuild.Collins.COUK/-direct-info-html))

2.15.2.5 The Macmillan Collocation Dictionary :

(MCD) is important in how word in English combine with each other and with other words to form natural sounding and this make especial useful tool for people taking the IELTS – International English Language Testing- Exams. The purpose of IELTS: to assess the students' , competence in using it. Students are not a warded to pass or to fail, but their scores are reported on scale ranging from (Non-User) to (Expert – User). Ideal special focus on academic professional and creative writing with information or register provided where appropriate.

The manipulating of words to create the kind of combination that a fluent speaker would produce naturally is what makes MCD an ideal comparison for students as they prepare for IELTS-exam.

The MCD focus on students' productive needs with collocations for over 4/500 carefully selected keywords.

2.15.2.6. Oliveira s 1000 English Collocation in 10 minutes a day (2013).

This dictionary starts each unit with a short story or explanation including many useful collocations, example:

The process of creating friendship is called:

- a. Getting friends.
- b. Earning friends.
- c. Making friends Olivera(2013:6)

2.15.2.7. Marks and Wooders' Check your Vocabulary for Natural English Collocation (2007).

This dictionary contains a variety of exercises ranging from, matching parts of collocation, cross words, looking for the opposite of a certain expression, choosing the most natural collocation, correcting mistakes, etc.

Example: This of these expressions is not possible to complete the sentences.

The dog was running...in the park.

- a. Side to side
- b. Round and round.
- c. Up and down. Marks and wooder (2007:7).

2.15.2.8. Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary CALD.

CALD is a good dictionary that gives learner information's on collocation .Common and useful collocations are given in bold type look at the CALD entry for the word (pain) as Carthy and O'Dell (2005) illustrated it in their book English collocations in use as in page (10)

3

Using your dictionary

A good learner's dictionary will give you information on collocations. Sometimes the information is highlighted in some special way. In other cases, the examples used in the dictionary include the most common collocations.

In the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (CALD), common and useful collocations are given in bold type. Look at the CALD entry for the word *pain* and note how useful collocations are highlighted in bold.

pain ɪ /peɪn/ noun [C or U] 1 a feeling of physical suffering caused by injury or illness: *Her symptoms included abdominal pain and vomiting.* ◦ *Are you in (= suffering from) pain?* ◦ *She was in constant pain.* ◦ *These tablets should help to ease the pain.* ◦ *I felt a sharp pain in my foot.* ◦ *He's been suffering various aches and pains for years.* 2 emotional or mental suffering: *It's a film about the pains and pleasures of parenthood.* ◦ *The parents are still in great pain over the death of their child.*
 ● a pain (in the neck) INFORMAL someone or something that is very annoying: *That child is a real pain in the neck.*

CD-ROM versions of dictionaries are useful because you can usually search for a lot more information very quickly indeed. The CALD CD-ROM has a special button labelled **Collocations** in many entries. Clicking on this button gives you a list of collocations. Here are the verb collocations for *pain*. The dictionary also gives adjectives and nouns which are used with *pain*.

Collocations | CALD?

Collocations

pain

Verbs

experience / feel / suffer pain

I experienced chest pains and dizziness.

alleviate / ease / lessen / relieve / soothe pain

A hot bath may help to relieve the pain.

cause / inflict pain

He deliberately inflicted pain on his pupils.

complain of pain

She came in complaining of stomach pains.

pain subsides

As the pain subsided, I began to relax.

be racked with pain

He is emaciated and racked with pain.

A good dictionary will also tell you if a collocation is formal or informal. For example, CALD indicates that to take somebody up on an offer is an informal collocation (accept an offer would be a more formal alternative).

offer ɪ /'ɒf.ə/ ⓘ /'ɑ:.fə/ noun [C] when someone asks you if you would like to have something or if you would like them to do something: *"If you like I can do some shopping for you."* *"That's a very kind offer."* ◦ *I must say the offer of a weekend in Barcelona quite tempts me.* ◦ INFORMAL *One day I'll take you up on (= accept) that offer.*

TIP

When you buy a dictionary, make sure it gives good, clear information about collocations. When you look up words, if you don't know the collocations, highlight them in your dictionary or transfer them to your vocabulary notebook.

2.15.2.9. English Dictionary off line:

It includes more than 170.000 words, 180.000 senses and 49.000 sample sentences as well as a “Hong on, man game” and flash card system to facilitate learning. It also includes grammar lessons.

There is also long man collocation Dictionary & Thesaurus (2013), and Oxford collocation Dictionary for Students of English (ODCSE) “2002” and so on.

2.16. Criterion was used to find collocation:

There is more than 20 million of collocation in English. It is impossible to teach them all or near to be taught also difficult to determine which one to be select to teach. To day studies have been mainly interested in findings answer to which collocations to teach? Based on what techniques? at which learning stages?. Cowie, (1998) Granger and Meunier (2008).

Instead of teaching and or investigating specific collocation we must know Chinese proverb that say, don't give me a fish but learn me how to fish.

- **Corpora:**

Corpora- plural of corpus- is defined by MC-Energy and Wilson as (*a body of text which carefully sampled to be maximally representative of a language or language variety*). This means that any principled collection recorded instances of spoken or writing language can be compiled as a corpus.

An important advantage of corpus linguistic methods is that: It offer natural language data and can show the largest context of specific word or construction with the help of concordance programs that turn electronic texts into databases it is possible to look up any word, parts of words a well as word combinations.

After the advent of corpora (1965s) – which are computerized organized as large scale text for certain purpose- as result many words and phrases have

been investigated easily and objectively via computers. One of the most famous computerized databases is **British National Corpus** (BNC) which sample 100 million words presented spoken and written British. It is made up of 4/124 different texts or number of short related texts of sustained sample of a long text and it gives researchers and material writer's access to powerful tools, (BNC) considered a mixed type of corpus because it contain with 90% written and 10% spoken part. Good examples based on the BNC are English dictionaries such as Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (OLAD). Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Dictionary "DOCE", and

Beside BNC corpus which is mixed between written and spoken there is only written corpus Australian corpus of English (ACE), the Brown Corpus, the Freiburg- Brown (Frown) Corpus (WWC). The written corpora includes. Newspaper, magazines, articles...etc). Thus the written corpus consists of a variety regional English corpora but spoken corpus is only made of British English data because there are few such large spoken corpora available. There are also monolingual multilingual corpora as well as synchronic and dichromic corpora. An example of a dichromic corpus is Helsinki – Corpus of English text, and Corpus of Contemporary of American English (COCA) with more than 560 million words. For the study of certain rare linguistic phenomenon, the COCA would yield better results for the analysis of collocations both corpora are suitable.

Other databases that can foster the acquisition of collocation are online dictionaries.

Beside traditional one- such as bad. La(<https://en.bad.la/distionary/>) or online resource that contain collocation ending tool <https://pro.writingaid.com>- free –online Collocation Dictionary. Finally, Ozdic, the online English Dictionary which is based on the British National Corpus and

includes over 150,000 collocations is also useful tool for showing multi word constructions.

2.17. Writing:

Speaking skill has played a vital role in communication between people from different nations, and empowers people to communicate orally, writing skill should be learned to facilitate communication through writing. In writing and speaking skills the language learner is engaged in communicating his/her ideas and feelings. In the case of speaking a kind of give and take situation exists between the listener and speaker. But in the case of writing the message communicated is higher and to be effective.

Bacon 1981: rightly said: (*Reading makes a full man conference, ready man, and writing an exact man!*).

Like speaking writing is productive skill it is involves productive language rather than receiving it, also it involves a message; writing also is an act of forming letters or character and artfully putting them together so as to express ideas. The latter skill is not limited to daily routine communication but, also be used in different discourses including academic writings, business letters, and medical correspondences.

Sampan (1985: 26): there are numbers of scholars who have different views and thoughts on writing and writing skill, writing is a system for representing utterance of speaker language by means of permanent visible marks). Steven Roger (2001) stresses that (*No one definition of writing can cover all writing systems that exist and have ever existed*).

Lado (1971) says: (*writing is a graphic representation of a language and information conveyed through the written medium by the use convention graphemes*).

Writing proficiency is an essential component of language competency as well as an aspiration of non-native writer.

The purpose of writing is to give information as examples: articles: textbooks; to persuade, like advertisements and to entertain; like drama, novels, and short stories.

The purpose of writing: is to give information as examples articles and text books, to persuade like advertisements and to: entertainment like drama, novels and short stories.

A variety of writing activities help the learners to develop their writing skill.

2.17.1. Paragraph writing:

In academic writing: paragraph is often between five to ten long, but it can be longer or shorter depending on the topic, and teachers, should motivate students to write.

Motivation is an essential element successful language acquisition and a good way of enhancing students to write , also provides opportunities through refocusing classes to make them relevant to their social and cultural context as well as designing writing task which have meaning and interest them and offer opportunities for social interaction and self-express .

Attention has been given to educators to discover motivational strategies that can captures student's attention and improve their attitudes in learning as well as their self confidence in language.

Liu, Wang and Rayan (2016-p1)(*motivation can be defined as a force that activates , directs and sustains goal direct behaviour*) also they indicate ,it is essential to understand the role of motivation on students behaviour in the process of educating students to become autonomous learners :

Knowing how to write a good paragraph is very important in our era , to express opinion on certain subject , convincing other people that we are right , so motivation plays a prominent role in writing development and performance is acknowledged in the most contemporary models of writing

.Heyes (1996) ,Zemmerman & Risennberg (1997) motivation is not a unitary construct but rather is comprised of several related components including self –efficacy , beliefs , interest perceived task , values , attitudes , goals ,orientation ,and attribution for success and failure .

Learners may face many difficulties in writing process but one of the duty of the teacher, to facilitate these difficulties by helping the learners to arrange the ideas and develop them into a good paragraph, and the language learners should be able to choose the suitable topics to write

2.17.1.2. What is paragraph:

Paragraph is defined as: a group of sentences organized around a central topic, it must serve constitutive idea. Olike Sheima and Hosue (1997) state that. (*Paragraph is a group of related sentences which a writer develops about a subject. The starting sentence explains the certain idea, while the other sentences are stated to support it*). They also say (*Paragraphing is the way of breaking up a text into topics and subtopics*). Not a way from Sheima and Hosue Zemach (2003: 11) states (*a paragraph is a group of sentences about a single topic. The sentences of the paragraph explain the writer's main idea about the topic*).

Mokhamer (2016) defines English paragraph as: (coherent related sentences dealing with a single topic).

Al-Haj (2005) defines the paragraph as (*a group of sentences connected with relevant construction words that focus on the main topic*) from all the above definitions, they all agreed on that: paragraph is a group of sentences around one topic.

A successful paragraph begins with a main idea, this idea developed and reinforced in the paragraph with evidence provided. (Sentences follow smoothly, connecting to each other and to the essay as a whole as Olice and House (1997) mentioned.

In Zemach (2003): a good paragraph reflects three main characteristics *first*: central idea, it supports by many sentences to enrich the reader in understanding the main idea which is known as unity of paragraph.

Zemach: 2003: 78) states (*unity in writing is the connection of all ideas to a single topic*) *second*. A writer should design a careful plan for writing to insure reader understanding of intended meaning. *Third*: time sequence must be taken into consideration.

2.17.2. Parts of paragraph:

A paragraph is made of a few sentences that talk about ONE single topic, it should be at least five to seven sentences in the paragraph, it must have a topic and the topic can have some evidence or examples to support it, but these should all be related to each other.

2.17.2.1 Topic sentence:

A topic sentence is a sentence that tells the reader what is the paragraph about, that is to say: it contains of the main idea which is developed in the rest of the paragraph.

2.17.2.2 Supporting sentences:

Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence it can be narratives, details, facts, explanations or statistics. All of the supporting sentences relate to the main idea stated in the topic sentence.

2.17.2.3 Concluding of paragraph:

The concluding of paragraph summarizes the main parts of paragraph and relates them to the topic sentence it does not introduce anything new.

2.17.3 Types of paragraph:

Usually the type of paragraph will depend on the purpose for writing. The writer's purpose for writing paragraph may be to entertain the readers or to inform the readers about something or many use persuasion to influence the readers, but famous types are:

2.17.3.1 Narrative paragraph:

The narrative paragraph used to tell a story or sequence of events, usually chronological order; most of short stories newspaper's article is examples of narrative writing.

2.17.3.2. Descriptive paragraph:

Descriptive paragraph is a paragraph that describes a scene, a thing or person; it aims at giving a vivid picture of an object.

2.17.3.3. Expository paragraph:

Expository paragraphs are used to provide information and explanation. They can list facts, give directions or explain ideas, also used to define terms, make comparison and show cause and effect. The information's in expository writing usually be put into categories.

2.17.3.4 Persuasive paragraphs:

Persuasive paragraphs used to share an opinion about a particular subject. Writers of persuasive paragraph to convince readers to agree with the opinions in the paragraphs or take actions.

2.18 Previous Study:

2.18.1 Introduction:

Learning English as a foreign language has become one of the necessities and the need for effective communication has increased due to the technological advances in every facet of the modern human life especially in education. Accordingly research aiming at developing learning English has increased rapidly. Researcher in the field of learning English need to produce proper collocation to meet this challenge. Significance of collocation in developing learners, language proficiency has been increasing underscored in the last three dictates or between (1990 – 2020). However some previous studies show some contradictory results. Accordingly this situation requires more investigations into how this

influence outlines or directs the general collocational knowledge and development of the foreign or second language.

The study has generally focused on the lexical collocation (adjective + noun) and (verb + noun). In this case of the non-native the co-occurrence items are felt to represent arbitrary associations more difficult to acquire and to master at production level, the learner may fail to identify entirely ignoring a governing role or may produce deviant form due to interference Fan, 2009.

Over the past few years linguistics and in a particular lexicography has paid much attention to the way in which word habitually group together in clusters that are not considered idioms but are yet felt to be frequent units of language comprising more than one word. Despite this attention the concept of collocation is still somewhat vague and needs a clear demarcation.

2.18.2 Previous Study on Paragraph Writing:

Challenges Face Arab Student's in Writing Well Developed Paragraphs in English Language Teaching.

Abu Rass, R. (2015).

The study aimed to investigate problems facing Palestinian Arab students from Israel who are majoring in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in developing well-written paragraph in English. They usually transfer the stylistic features of their first language Arabic to the target language English. For example they tend to write long sentences with coordinating conjunctions (Al-Khatib (2001) repeat themselves and argue though presentation and elaboration (Al-Mehmadi 2013) and often talk around the topic and repeat phrases before stating the main points (Al-Samadani (2010). The data had been accumulated for the last fourteen years include samples of 205 students, which show similar repeated types of mistakes and errors made by the participants of the first year Writing

Course. The accumulated data show that students face many problems in writing good topic as well as concluding sentences, supporting details by adding examples and reasons and using discourse markers appropriately.

To help these learners write good samples of paragraphs in English, a variety of approaches such contrastive analysis, error analysis, and process approach have been employed. The findings indicated that, by the end of their first school year most of them succeed in writing topic and concluding sentences. The results showed that (1) providing supporting details including examples and reasons is not fully mastered (2) the style of English is not completely acquired (3) developing a cohesive paragraph using the right coordinators and transition words still need a lot of practice.

2.18.3 Previous Studies: on collocations:

The First Study:

Investigating Sudanese English as a Foreign Language University Student; Collocational Knowledge Khartoum University:

Younis, M, (2008)

The researcher aims to investigate Sudanese EFL learner's collocational knowledge. Mainly it seeks to find out how far Sudanese EFL learners can deal with the amount of collocation knowledge they have. The researcher also attempts to elicit and assess the major causes of learner's collocations' problems, with a view, to propose some practical solutions. The participants of the study consisted of 312 Students' University, in their final B-A year at six Sudanese Universities. Only one instrument was used to collect data; a collocation test of 42 items to 312 students. The data analyzed by the SPSS programme. The conclusion was reached that there was deficiency in the subjects' collocation knowledge and remarkable significant differences in in the subjects' performance in the four collocation patterns. The result can be attributed to the following reasons:

(I) The subjects have been exposed to insufficient quality and quantity of

English input (II) Reliance of the subjects on lexical over generalization (III) negative intralingual transfer as the most influential factors (IV) synonyms.

The researcher recommends the sufficient dosage of lexis should be incorporated into learning materials collocations must have to priority in English cause. Language courses should adopt effective ways to raise their learners awareness of collocation.

Second study:

Assessing English collocational knowledge among Sudanese EFL University Students.

Omayma Nasr EL-Hadi Mustafa (2011).

Sudan University – Case study Khartoum of University.

This study attempts to investigate the knowledge of collocation after recommendation for both teachers and learners in order to improve the processes of teaching and learning the language.

The participants of the study are one hundred and fifty students drawn from second, third and fourth years majoring in English from Khartoum University – faculty of Arts. A collocation test of 50 items was used to collect data. The data have been statistically analyzed using the SPSS package.

The findings of the study indicated that the subject's knowledge of collocation is poor Results of the statistical analysis indicated that there is a significant difference in students' knowledge of collocation between three levels. It revealed that, the adjective + noun is the easiest, while the verb + noun is found to be the most difficult one. Based on the research findings. The study recommends that teachers should enable students to be aware of collocation through making more emphasis on collocation while teaching process.

The Third Study

Collocation a neglected variable in EFL

Farghal, M. Obeidat, H. 1995:

The purpose of their study to investigate the issue of collocations as a neglected variable in EFL classroom, especially the basic collocation on the topics: food, colour and weather are problems for learners of English. The participants were 57 Jordanian 34 English majors at Yarmouk University ,and 23 English majors and the higher College for Certification of Teachers .Two test instruments were used in the study : A fill- in- the blank test an Arabic - English translation task . A total of 22 common English Collocations (adjective + noun) collocations related to topics such as clothes, weather and food were used in both tests. The blank-filling test included 11 Sentences testing collocation pairs, moreover, the translation task, which is an Arabic versions of the blank - filling test, consisted of translating the given Collocation from Arabic to English. The blank-filling test, was giving to 34 English majors, at University and the translation task administered to 23 English majors at the Higher College. The first test gave a word in English and asked the participants to produce its collocation. The second test gave an expression in Arabic and asked the participants to translate it to English.

The result showed that in the both groups unaware of the fundamental existence of collocations as multi-word units because they are taught vocabulary as single - word units. This teaching method resulted in both groups being unable to produce acceptable collocations on the two tests. In the absence of collocational knowledge, the subjects resorted to different strategies of lexical simplification these are:

1- Synonyms: The authors attribute the heavy use of this strategy to the subject lack of knowledge of the collocational knowledge of the collocational restrictions of some lexical items as well as the direct

application of the open choice principle. For example the target collocation **rich food** was substituted with oily /greasy food

2- Avoidance: they choose other lexical items that fail to reflect the intended meaning. For example: the elicited collocation soft / little food was substituted for the target collocation light food.

3-Transfer: this strategy yielded both positive and negative transfer, positive transfer occurs when there is convergence between the Arabic language and English language allowing the subjects to do well on predicating the target collocations e.g. (striped shirt). Negative transfer for the other hand occurs when there is divergence between the two languages in which the target collocations become unpredictable for example heavy tea instead of strong tea.

4-Paraphrasing: this strategy appears more in the translation task group.

The fourth study:

The Lexical Collocational Competence of Arab Undergraduate EFL Learners:

Dina Abdul Salam EL-Dakhas-

Prince Sultan University; Raydh; Saudi Arabia Date; (2015).

The purpose of the study examines the collocational competence and to assess learners productive knowledge of English collocation .The participants of the study constituted of 90 undergraduate Arab students studying at private Saudi University where English is the medium of instructions .The Participants were recruited from three stages of university education,30 participants from preparatory year programme,30 participants from second year of university education, and 30 students from the fourth year of university education .All Participants were female, Arab learners ranging in age between 17-25.

The study assessed the student's productive knowledge of English collocation through productive filling and translation. The first exercise

consisted of 15 sentence each of which with of missing verb. The participants were required to fill in the missing verb per sentence relying on their understanding of the sentence, in addition to an Arabic equivalents provided for the missing verb. The second exercise also consisted of 15 sentence ,each of which a missing adjective, similar of the first exercise, the participants had to write the missing adjective based on their understanding of the English sentences and provided Arabic equivalents of the adjectives. The finding showed that collocational competence of learners was notably unsatisfactory despite of the fact the English is medium of instructions at university. It is also was found that the collocational competence improves with increased language exposure but at slow rate and that the learners were more confident in their use of (verb + noun) collocations than the (adjective +noun) collocation: The study also revealed that learners produce intralingual than in-trilingual errors of collocations

The Fifth study:

Lexical collocation errors in writing of Iraqi EFL learners

Riyhani – Aabdul Riha, N, Sa Basra University(2011)

The study investigates the lexical collocational errors in the writing of Iraqi EFL learners, It concerns only whether the learners are choosing the right words to match the collocation in a certain semantic field.

The participants were 40 Iraqi students of third stage from the College of Education, Department of English, and University of Basra .They have been taught English as a foreign language for approximately 10 years, and they were similar age rating from 19-21 years old.

The participants were asked to write in different topics examples: (Stranger on the Bridge/ Smoking /Advantage and Disadvantage of Mobile, etc)..Over100 of pieces of essays students did not know that their writing

are going to be under the investigation . The 100 essays were collected and analyzed to check various lexical collocational errors.

The results showed that that the lexical collocational transfer errors are mainly due to the negative transfer from Arabic. The results also showed that the sub types of lexical errors with the highest frequencies may be the most difficult for EFL learners to use while it is not necessary that those with lower frequencies are regarded as the easiest to EFL learners to use.

Depending on the findings of this research some practical and effective ways are suggested to increase the learner's knowledge of lexical collocation.

The Sixth Study:

English Collocations;. A novel Approach to Teaching the Language's Last Bastion

Zaabalawi, R, S and Gould, A, M,(2017)

Zaabalwi and Gould (2017) have sought an answer to this question: will students who have been introduced to and practiced specific collocations in reading texts be inclined to naturally use such exemplars appropriately in novel/un-familiar subsequent contexts?

They used a field experiment pre-test and post test paradigm focusing on 70 Kuwaiti students aged 18-21 .The procedure derived data from a pre-intervention test and a post -intervention test; each taken 35 experimental and 35 control group participants .The course test intervention consisted of 48 taught hours each group (control and experimental) were given the assignment of rewriting, in class, two reading texts distributed evenly over 16 weeks, three hours per week. Students in experimental group were taught about collocations and were informed of the importance of using such expression; while the notion of collocation was deemphasize control in control groups. Students in the control group were not exposed to vocabulary collocation applications, Instead vocabulary was taught

conventionally in the sense that instructor explained the meaning of each individual unfamiliar words through synonym; antonym whole definition and students were encouraged to make a list of this words and review them for the subsequent use.

By the end of 16 weeks course, students in experimental group as appose to their peers in the control group had realized that their English would sound more natural if it incorporated collocations.

The results of this study suggest that exposure to collocation in reading texts does lead to natural inclination to use them appropriately in subsequent novel settings. This using a methodology of reading texts in combination with measures of spontaneous use is the efficacious to teach EFL learners collocational combinations, specifically compared with using of convention exercise. The study method's a pear to have special utility in promoting natural and spontaneous use of collocations.

The seventh study:

Transfer and Universality: Collocation Use in Advanced Chinese and Swedish Learner English.

Ying Wang, Uppsala University.

Philip Show Stockholm University

The researchers decided to test whether wrong collocation are due to transfer from L1 and to describes the use of verb plus noun collocation in a corpus of advancing English learners. The participants were University students Swedish and Japanese. They were at undergraduate levels. The students from each environment wrote a short essay based on the same prompt. The researcher used Corpus linguistics. Two-teamer English corpora or essays by Chinese Speaking Learners of English (CSLE) and Swedish Speaking Learners of English (SSLE) receptively were built up for the purpose of comparison in the present study. They are of familiar size, each consisting of 100 essays of around 200 words which were written

by the two groups of subjects with 30 minutes time limits in class without preparation in advance or access to any language tool when performing the task. The researchers chose the most frequent verbs in Corpora and analyzed their collocations in a collocation dictionary to determine if the collocations were correct or erroneous. Through analyzed the obtained data the researchers identified the most common verbs and then occurrences of the verbs + noun collocation with the verbs ((have, do, take and make)) They found that the two groups of participants - Swedish and Chinese - had similar tastes in choosing sets of noun collocates in both corpora. Accordingly they made similar types and production of errors. This implies that intralingual factors should be considered as important as transfer in learning and using collocation.

The eighth study:

The Effect of Lexical Collocation Awareness on Iranian EFL Learners writing Skills.

Edian, F.

Gorjvan, B.

Aghvane, F.

Islamic Azad University, Abadan Iran (2014)

The purpose of the study was to measure up the impact of lexical collocation awareness on pre-intermediate Iranian language learner's proficiency.

Participants of this study 50 male of Iranian studying at Ahraz Islamic Azad University who were studying English as foreign language were selected. They were randomly divided into experimental groups and control groups.

The control group was taught based on conventional methods of writing and the experimental group received treatment based on lexical collocation awareness in writing one paragraph essays.

The design of the research was based on pre-test and post-test methods. Pre-test was lexical collocation test which included 35 items focusing on collocations proposed in MC Carthy and O' Dell (2005) pre-test was administered before the treatment period to insure the researchers 'about the groups' homogeneity on lexical knowledge in writing paragraphs. During treatment period five topics were administered to students to write one paragraph essay for each topics having done the treatment, the researchers administered a post - test on lexical collocation consisting of 35 items of multiple choice, matching, and cloze task dealing with lexical collocation acquired the treatment the researchers administered a post-test on lexical collocation consisting of 35 items of multiple-choice, matching, and cloze task dealing with lexical collocations acquired through the treatment. Then, the results of the tests were analyzed through statistical analysis of Independent Samples t-test. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the scores of the participants in the control and experimental groups. In addition, all the one paragraph essays of the study were analyzed through analyzing the components of writing including grammar, vocabulary, fluency, relevance and mechanics based on the checklist extracted from Heaton (1990). The results also showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of control and experimental groups in writing these components ($p < 0.05$). Lexical collocation awareness developed the writing components of vocabulary and mechanics rather than grammar, relevance, and fluency in writing one paragraph essays.

Ninth Study:

Should We Teach EFL student collocation?

Bahns, Jens & Eldaw, Mojra 1993:

The purpose of the study to investigate the knowledge of verb plus noun collocations in advanced learners of English. They used close task and translation task focused on (verb + noun) collocations. The participants were German advanced EFL student productive knowledge of collocations. They were 58 English majors at a University in German. They were grouped into two groups, 24 of the students who took the close test which consisted of 10 sentences each contain a verb + noun collocation with the verb missing, while the remaining participants 34, completed a German English translation task consisting of 15 sentences each include a collocation in a text that should be translated into German.

The results of the study showed that the students performed poorly on both tests. In the translation task advanced students mistranslated (46: 1%) of the collocations in the close sentence task more than 50% of the collocation were enounce this indicated insufficient knowledge of lexical collocation among the subject. The researchers found that some collocations were more difficult to paraphrase than others.

Although in the translation task there was more freedom to write, learners still could not paraphrase collocational phrases correctly in addition to lack of lexical collocation.

They summed up that the students collocational knowledge did not develop with their overall knowledge of vocabulary and did not expand with general of vocabulary. Thus the researchers conducted that (I) collocations were component for mastering of communicative English (II) teachers concentrate on only highly frequent collocations and (III) learners knowledge of collocation did not outstrip their vocabulary knowledge in general.

Tenth Study:

The lexical Collocations and Their Relation to The Online Writing of Taiwanese College English – Major and Non-English Major

Hsu, J (2007) National University of Singapore:

The aim of the study investigate the use of English lexical collocation and their relation to the online writing of Taiwanese EFL learners of English majors and non-majors in one a month.

Participant 41 majors and 21 non-majors English at National University of Science and Technology in Southern Taiwan. He used intensive, business English work shop, the researcher also examined different relevant materials including the participants writing tests, the teachers class note, pre and post tests and video tapped records of the participants and class room activities, each student was asked to take a 45 – minute online English writing test to examine the subjects use of lexical collocation frequency and variety. The test was also used to measure writing scores of two students' groups test results were examined to answer two majors questions for correlation between the subjects frequency of lexical collocations and their writing scores and between the subjects variety of lexical collocations and their writing scores. The study findings indicate that (1) there seemed to be a significant correlation between Taiwanese college EFL learners frequency of lexical collocation and their online writing scores and (II) there also seemed to be a significantly positive correlation between the their online writing scores. This present study further reports on a pattern of lexical collocation development observed among writing of different score, ranging from the lowest to highest. The researcher conducted that collocation must be explicitly in EFL class room to support learners efforts to master L

Eleventh Study:

Examining ESL learners' knowledge of Collocation

Rafidah Kamar El-din

Rosina Abul Aziz.

Shazla Abdullah

Malaysia 2020

The purpose of the study investigates the overall collocational knowledge of Malaysian ESL learners, but more specifically their productive and relative knowledge of lexical and grammatical collocation particular (verb + noun, adjective + noun, verb + proposition).

The participants a total of 21 students from a selected public university in Malaysia participated in the study. They consist of 10 male and 11 female students undertaking a Diploma in Food Technology Program, and their English language proficiency is generally at the intermediate level. There are 2 instruments used in this study, the receptive collocation test and productive collocation test. The same 45 target collocations are used in both tests. In order to assess the participants' receptive knowledge of collocation, a receptive test is adopted, the test is comprised of 75 items (48 target collocations. 27 items at mismatched collocation, that act as distractors). The test items consist of lexical collocations such as verb+ a noun. The participants have to evaluate whether the underlined part of each sentence is acceptable or not. Then they have to circle the number corresponding to the unacceptable sentence.

The second instrument is a productive English collocations test which is to measure the participants' productive collocational proficiency.

The productive test consists of gap-filling items, which include the 48 target collocations that examine three different types of collocations: verb + noun, collocation (16 items, adjective + noun) collocations (16 items) and the (verb+ preposition) collocations (16 items). The initial letters of

collocation are provided as clues to the right answer.

In the (verb – noun) and (adjective – noun) collocation items, the initial letters of the target collocations are given as a clue and the verb – preposition items, the meanings of phrasal verbs are provided. This to ensure that the participants choose only the target word and to prevent guessing.

All the items in both tests are manually checked and marked as correct or incorrect since all items only allow one possible answer.

The results indicate that the mean score for the receptive test is very much higher (46:14) than that of the productive test (28: 90). The result shows that the mean score for the 3 types of collocation (verb +noun, adjective + noun and verb + preposition) collocations, findings indicate that (verb + preposition has the lowest mean score (8:48), while the highest mean score is for the (verb + noun) (10 : 9). This indicates that there is a difference in the leaners performance in relation to the 3 difference types of collocation investigated.

Twelfth Study:

Investigating the Sudanese EFL under graduates knowledge and use of collocation.

Asma Ali Ahmed (2017)

The study discussed the effect of knowledge and the use of collocation at under graduate level namely Sudan university of Science and Technology.

The study also attempts to direct EFL teachers toward the importance of collocation while teaching process to improve the university students' standard of English language.

The study instruments employed were two questionnaires:

1- Teachers' questionnaire

A questionnaire which was distributed to randomly selected group of Sudanese English language teachers at Sudan University of Science and

Technology was adopted to collect the recent study. 15 item questionnaires with four components moderately touching on issues connected with teachers' training, methods of teaching English as foreign language as adopted by Sudanese teachers in handling their classes, students, abilities and the type of English language curriculum institutions.

Teachers' questionnaire consisted of four under related parts to surveying teachers teaching of collocations, and the learners response to the teaching of collocation in the classroom setting the main question that needed to be answered teaching collocation in general can be considered significance us to improve the university students' standard of English language and teaching collocation is totally ignored at under graduate level at Sudanese universities.

The majority of respondents (70%) explained that teaching collocation is completely ignored at under graduate level which is badly reflected on overall standard of the students that they are always incapable of communicating fluently either in writing or oral delivery.

2- Students' questionnaire

Two students' questionnaires are the second tool used in this study. The first consisted of 20 English collocations to be translated into Arabic. The second had 9 English collocations with four choices for each along with their Arabic translation equivalents and the respondents were requested to choose the best collocation for each base, the respondents had no access to any references.

The participants were the third year under graduate students' college of language and translation.

Students were amounting to as many as a forty-five asked to complete these sentences without using dictionaries.

The study is reveals that the general weakness of the students in understanding and translation English collocation. An explanation for this

might be the fact respondents rely on conjecture rather than reliable knowledge. In addition to this they rely on literal transfer from their mother tongue.

This study is similar to my study.

2.19 Summary of the chapter:

This chapter handled two sections in the following order, review of literature and previous studies: review of literature discussed: the meaning of words in three stages; philosophers' views, linguists' views and behaviorism views. After that: lexical meaning, historical background of the term 'collocation' definition of collocation, the classification of collocation, words combination and the types of collocation, collocation characteristics, importance of collocation, collocation's problems, trends of collocation, after the trends the teachers' attitudes toward teaching collocation and their suggestions to curriculum designers, then how to teach collocation and approaches to study collocation, dictionaries and books that are used to study collocation, how to find collocation by corpora. Last item writing handled: paragraph writing, definition of paragraph, parts of paragraph and types of paragraph, the second section dealt with previous studies which varied according to the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.0 Introduction:

This chapter will describe the methodology of study. In that is will describe the methods and tools employed, the population, the samples tools of data collection, namely a questionnaire, Test, instrument and procedures of data analysis.

3.1 procedure & data collection:

This chapter includes a detailed description of the research methodology that was utilized in the study. The chapter is organized into several sections that provide a framework within which to describe the research procedures, the researcher used the descriptive analytical method and (SPSS) for the analysis. This kind of research is defined by Kothari (2004:3.4) as "descriptive research includes survey and fact finding enquiries of different kinds. The major purpose of descriptive research is description of affairs as it exists at present". In addition, he states that "the researcher has no control over the variable, he can only report what has happened or what is happening", the researcher thinks this method is appropriate for this study.

The researcher used the descriptive analytical method. The questionnaire was used to collect data for investigating the impact of lexical collocating on improving paragraph writing, Questionnaire will be used for the unversed through pre-test and post-test for the group as tools to collect data and information for the impact of lexical collocation on paragraph writing

3.2 Study area:

The population used in this study is chosen from different English language teachers and students at universities.

3.3 Study population:

The subjects of this study of 100 English language Teachers who teach at different universities beside questionnaire of the study.

3.4. Sample size:

The study participants for this study are 40 students from all over college of Science and Technology Gezira state Madani The test was used to collect data a lexical collocation test consisting of 60 the sub types of lexical collection (verb + noun) and (adjective +noun) Each one consists of 30 sentences fist question multi choice of 10 sentence second one fill the gab and the third write the missing word.

3.5. Tools of data collection:

The researcher used two tools for data collection, the questionnaire for English language teachers from different universities and test for university students (pre-test and post-test) for the group of students.

3.3.1 Questionnaire:

The main tools used in this study to collect the required data area questionnaire for teachers and analytical achievement test for students. The questionnaire was distributed to (100) universities teachers. This questionnaire includes a covering page which introduces the topic of the study and it uses Likert-5point scale (strongly agree,agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree).

First of all , the researcher forwarded the letter to the principals of participating university actual administration of the questionnaire was done at the university, the questionnaire was piloted at on university pre-testing of the questionnaires through a small piloted study enabled the researcher to discover unforeseen problems in the administration, coding and analysis

of the questionnaire .As a result of pre-testing, the researcher revisited the questionnaire and rephrased some of the questions , brought some changes to the sequences of the questions ,and corrected some grammatical errors .It also enabled the researcher to draw up a schedule of visits to the schools and to devise mechanisms for collecting the questionnaires from Universities .

Part A of the questionnaire includes close-ended questions are mainly used for the purpose of referencing or cross-validation of the text responses of questions in B, which deals with the open-ended questions. The data analysis and interpretation are in the same order and sequence as the questionnaire.

At some universities. the principals handed out the questionnaires to the teachers for completion, but at other universities the researcher was asked to explain, administer the handing out and completion of the questionnaires. The collection of the questionnaires after completion was done by the researcher himself. The process of data analysis was done by the researcher himself. The process of data analysis was done, firstly, by categorizing data on the questionnaire from the part of the data highlights the bibliographical information of the participants in this study. The second part represents data of the close-ended questions and the third part deals with the responses to open-ended questions.

3.6 Procedure

At some Universities, the principals handed out the questionnaires to the teachers for completion, but at other universities the researcher was asked to explain, administer the handing out and completion of the questionnaires himself. The collection of the questionnaires after completion was done by the researcher

The process of data analysis was done, firstly .by categorizing data on the questionnaire form.

1-3. The first part of the data highlights the bibliographical information of the participants in this study. The second part represents data of the close-ended questions and the third part deals with the responses to open-ended questions.

3.6.1 Primary data:

A Questionnaire that filled by teachers at universities who teach English as foreign language (E F L) in Khartoum state, and Gezera state . The tests will be taken by EFL students at university in Medane Gezera State.

Secondary data:

This data was collected from books, articles, previous studies and internet sources.

3.7 Data analysis:

The data was analyzed by Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25, the simple test (chi-square), mean, and standard variation.

3.8 Time frame:

This study was carried out during the period of October, 2020 until December 2020.

3.9 Cleaning data:

As far as validating, the data used in the analysis is concerned, before evaluating the psychometric properties of the various data, it is therefore necessary to describe and understand the descriptive statistics of the data. Whereas, the primary goal of using descriptive statistics for data is to ensure the accuracy of the data entry process; it measures the standard deviation of the respondents' responses and reveals the extent of data dispersion or lack thereof Alternatively, data cleaning that deals with discovering and removing errors and inconsistencies that occur during data

entry in order to improve data quality. Dealing with lost data as data loss is a common and expected thing in the process of collecting and entering data due to lack of focus or misunderstanding of the respondents of the questions, or the lack of an answer to those questions. Failure to deal with this lost data can cause several problems. That is, the loss of a lot of data, i.e. leaving it unanswered by the respondent, generates many problems, meaning that it sometimes represents the bias of the respondent towards the specific question or forgetting the respondent to that question. The general rule in dealing with lost data is that it does not exceed 10% of the size of the questions. In addition, the questionnaire must be completely disposed of as unfit for analysis. Therefore, the average method is used to deal with it. If it falls below the acceptable limit, it will be deleted. And to make sure the missing data does not affect the results of the analysis.

3.10 Study scale:

3.10.1 Questionnaire:

The degree of possible responses to the paragraphs was measured to a five-point gradient according to the Likert scale, in the distribution of the weights of the answers of the sample members, which is distributed from the highest weight for which he was given (5) scores and which represents in the answer field (strongly agree) to the lowest weight For him who was given a score of (1), which was represented in the answer field (strongly agree), and there are three weights in between them. The purpose of this was to allow the sample members to choose the exact answer according to the discretion of the sample members. As shown in Table (3-1)

Table No. (3-1) approval rating scale

Degree of approval	Relative weight	percentage	Statistical significance
Strongly agree	5	5 out of 80% or more	Very high approval rating
Agree	4	From 70% to less than 80%	high degree of agreement
Neutral	3	from 50% to less than 70%	Medium approval score
Disagree	2	20% to less than 50%	Low agreement
Strongly disagree	1	Less than 20%	Very low approval rating

Source: Prepared by the researcher from field study data 2020

Accordingly, the hypothetical mean of the study (3), and accordingly, if the mean of the statement is greater than the hypothesis mean, this indicates that the sample members agree to the statement.

3.10.2 Tests:

A number of (70) test were distributed The tests will be taken by EFL students at in Alnour College of Science an Technology . , the purpose of this was to allow the sample members to choose the exact answer according to the discretion of the sample members. As shown in Table (3-2)

Table No. (3-2) approval rating scale

Degree of approval	Relative weight	percentage	Statistical significance
Greater than or equal 22.5	6	6 out of 90% or more	Very high approval rating
Greater than or equal 20	5	5 out of 80% to less 90	Very high approval rating
Greater than or equal 17.5	4	From 70% to less than 80%	high degree of agreement
Greater than or equal 15	3	from 60% to less than 70%	Medium approval score
Greater than or equal 12.5	2	from 50% to less than 60%	Low agreement
than less than 12.5	1	Less than 50%	Very low approval rating

Source: Prepared by the researcher from field study data 2020

Accordingly, the hypothetical mean of the study (3), and accordingly, if the mean of the statement is greater than the hypothesis mean, this indicates that the sample members agree to the statement.

3.11 Reliability and validity:

3.11.1 Validity

It was very important to define precisely what information could be obtained from the questionnaire. Content validation of the questionnaire was done to make sure that the information obtained from the subjects was relevant to the purpose of the study and could be used to confirm or disconfirm the hypotheses postulated to answer the study questions or provide a neutral feedback. Content validity of the questionnaire is usually based on experts, judgment. For this reason, the questionnaire was distributed to a number of experts; most of them were staff members in universities in Sudan University of the science and Technology. They were

kindly requested to comment on wording of the questionnaire, the clarity of the statements and their suitability to elicit information relevant the purpose of the study.

3.11.2 Reliability

The process of checking the reliability of the questionnaire was conducted after its content validity had been confirmed by the experts. Copies of the questionnaire were delivered by hand to ten English Language teachers in Khartoum universities. Their experience ranges from 2 to 25 years. Eight of them were males and two were females. A week later, their responses were collected.

The Statistical Package for Science (SPSS) was used calculating the correlation between the two halves of the questionnaire.

The responses on to set of papers were finally compared and reliability coefficient calculated and found to be (94%) which was a reassuring result of reliability.

After making positive comments, the researcher approved its contents layout. The responses were recorded on tables prepared for that pure pose according to liker scale.

To ensure face reliability of the questionnaire they were taken the following steps:

First: The spilt-half method was used to compute the reliability coefficient by correlating the scores on the two halves of the questionnaire. The person product moment correlation coefficient formulas used for this purpose as indicate of below

$$r = \frac{n_{xx} - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{n_{xx} - (ex) | ey - (ex)}}$$

Where; R= the correlation coefficient for half of the questionnaire.

N= the number of scores

X= the number items

Y= the even- number items

Second: the reliability of only half questionnaire, to estimate the reliability of the whole questionnaire. The Spearman

$$r = \frac{2r_{oe}}{1+r_{oe}}$$

Where: r= the reliability of the whole questionnaire

Roe= the reliability coefficient obtained by correlating scores on the scores on the event item.

R= the result

Reliability:

Investigating the impact of lexical collocations (verb+ noun, adjective +noun)on improving students paragraph writing.

Table (3-3): Shows the correlation coefficient of lexical collocations (verb+ noun, adjective +noun)on improving students paragraph writing

Hypotheses No (1)	N	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Hypotheses No (2)	N	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students	1	0.793	Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing	1	0.706
	2	0.804		2	0.795
	3	0.810		3	0.736
	4	0.715		4	0.660
	5	0.628		5	0.602
	6	0.828		6	0.659
	7	0.696		7	0.741
	8	0.657		8	0.619

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

From the above table, it can be seen that the Cronbach's Alpha of all the items are statistically significant at the level of greater than (60.0%).

Validity:

Identify the validity for the dimensions scores and the overall score of the scale of Identify the level of Investigating the impact of lexical collocations (verb+ noun, adjective +noun)on improving students paragraph writing that used in improving vocabulary. The researcher applied Cronbach's alpha and the spearman-brown formula to the data of the primary sample. This procedure yielded the results shown in the following table.

Table (3-4): Validity

Scale	Validity		
	N-Item	Alpha	R-value
Sudanese universities have adopted positive attitudes towards online education	8	0.736	0.858**
The bulk of Sudanese universities lack well-built infrastructures for coping with online education	8	0.809	0.899**
Total Adjustment	16	0.743	0.862**
** sig (0.01)			

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

From the above table, it can be seen that the validity coefficient on the scale of Investigating the impact of lexical collcation (verb+noun , adjective+noun) as authentic materials that used in improving vocabulary individuals is more than (0.40), which Emphasizes the suitability of this scale in its final draft to measure the adjustment in the Identify the level in the present study.

3.12 Summary of the chapter

This chapter present information about the data corpus used in the research including instruments of data collected and methods of presenting data, and the research instruments adopted for data collection. Also it's provided a detail description of all the procedures about each instrument, including population, sample, validity and reliability of the instruments.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter Four

Data Analysis Results and Discussions

4.0 Introduction

In this topic the researcher deals with a precise description of the method and procedures that I follow in carrying out this study, and this includes a description of the study community, the method of preparing the tool represented in the questionnaire, the procedures that were taken to ensure its effectiveness and impact, the method followed to apply it, and the statistical treatments by which the data were analyzed, and extract the results.

4-1 demographic characteristics

1/ Gender

Table (4-1) the distribution of the study sample according to Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
male	41	41.0%
female	59	59.0%
Total	100	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

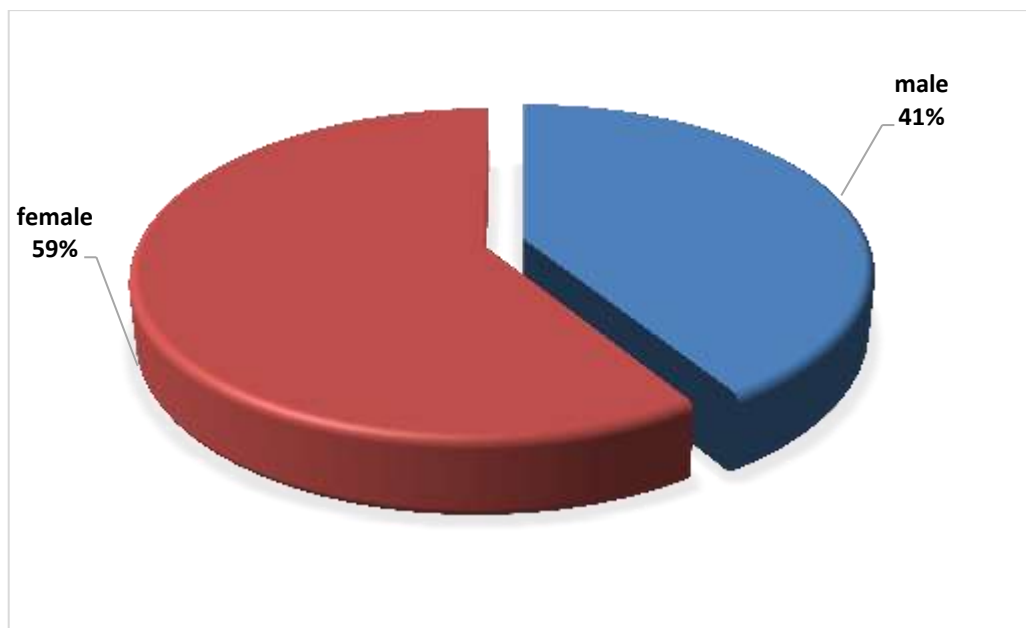


Figure (4-1) the distribution of the study sample according to Gender

Looking at the table and the figure, we note for that the sample of the study is distributed according to the gender; the majority of the participants are of the gender group with female a ratio 59.0%, and the lowest percentage among the participants from male 41.0%.

2/ Age:

Table (4-2) the distribution of the study sample according to the age

Age	Frequency	Percent
26-35 years	8	8.0%
36-45 years	40	40.0%
46-55 years	28	28.0%
More than 55 years	24	24.0%
Total	100	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

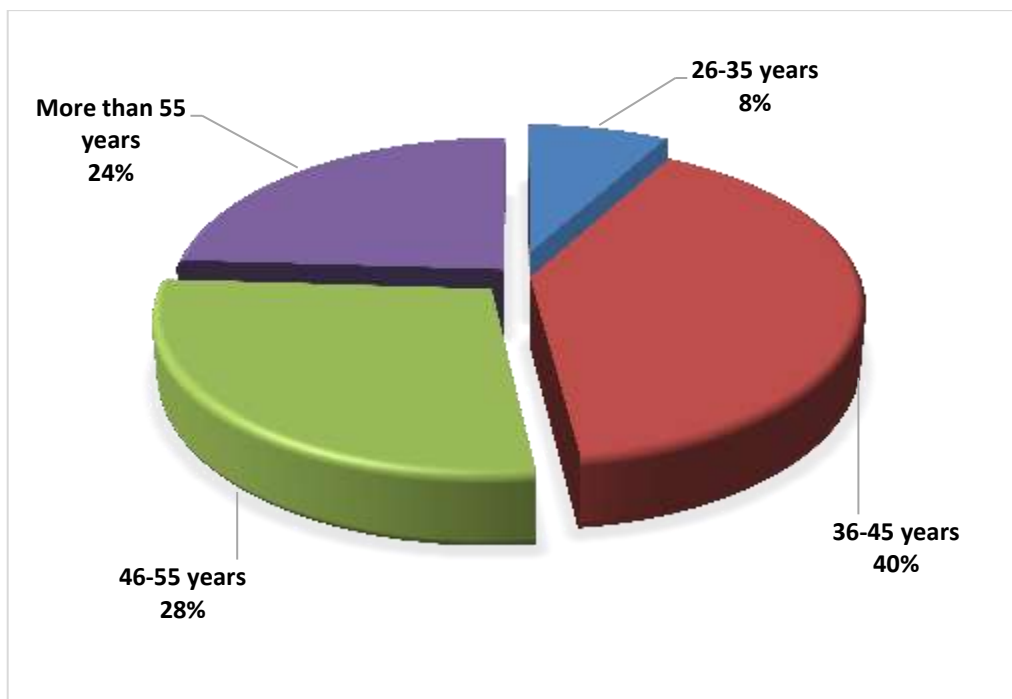


Figure (4-2) the distribution of the study sample according to the age

Looking at the table and the figure, we note for that the sample of the study is distributed according to the age; the majority of the participants are of the age group with (36-45 years) a ratio 40.0%, the age group with(46-55years) a ratio 28.0%, the age group with (more than 55years) a ratio 24.0%, and the lowest percentage among the participants from (26-35 years) a ratio 3.0%.

3/ Graduation Degree:

Table (4-3) the distribution of the study sample according to Graduation Degree

Graduation Degree	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor	13	13.0%
Post-graduate Diploma	57	57.0%
Masters	27	27.0%
Ph.D.	3	3.0%
Total	100	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

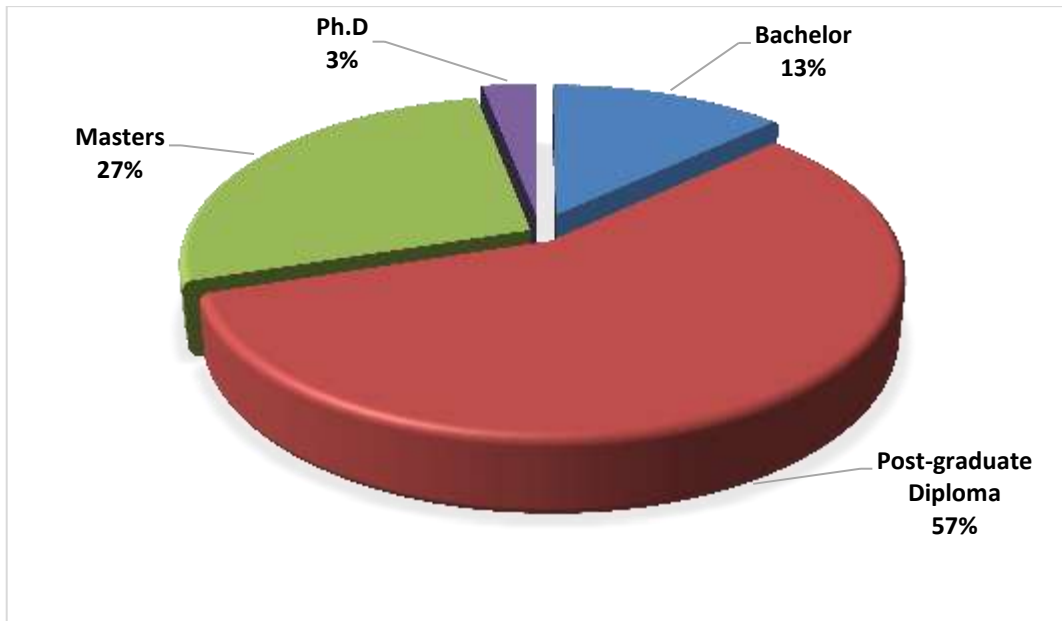


Figure (4-3) the distribution of the study sample according to Graduation Degree

Looking at the table and the figure, we note for that the sample of the study is distributed according to the Graduation Degree; the majority of the participants are of the Graduation Degree Group Post-graduate a ratio 57.0%, the Graduation Degree Group Masters between study sample a ratio 27.0%, the Graduation Degree Group Bachelor a ratio 13.0%, the Graduation Degree group others and the lowest percentage among the participants the Graduation Degree Group Doctorate a ratio 3.0%.

4/ Teaching Experience:

Table (4-4) the distribution of the study sample according Teaching Experience

Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percent
1- 3 years	36	36.0%
4 – 6 years	53	53.0%
7 - 10 years	7	7.0%
More than 10 years	4	4.0%
Total	100	100.0%

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

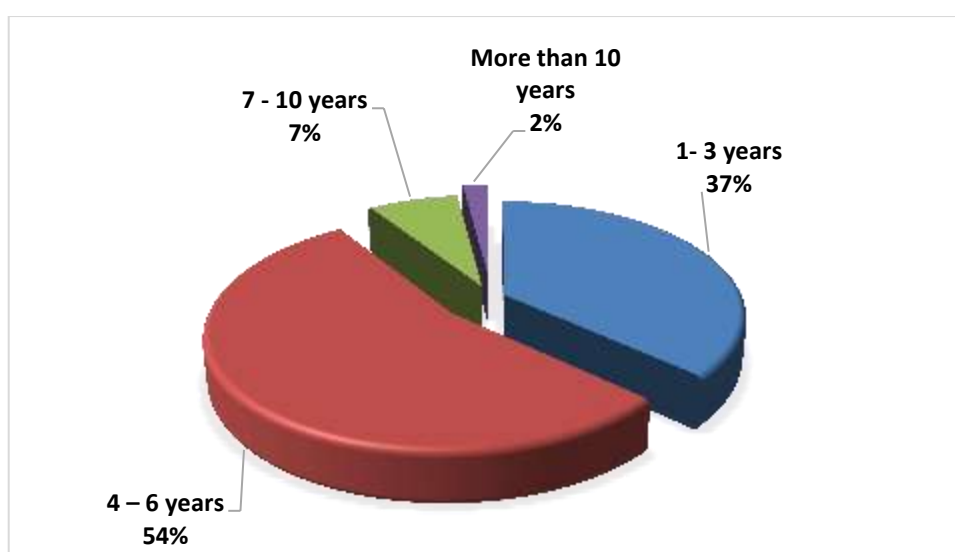


Figure (4-4) the distribution of the study sample according Teaching Experience

Looking at the table and the figure, we note for that the sample of the study is distributed according to Profession the long have you being working at the area; the majority of the participants are of the working at the area group with(6-10 years) a ratio 45.0% , the working at the area group with(1-5 years) a ratio 26.0%, the working at the area group with(11-15 years) a ratio 16.0% , the working at the area group with(16-20 years) a ratio 7.0% , the working at the area group with(above 20 years) a ratio 4.0% , and the lowest percentage among the participants from (less than one years) 2.0%.

4.2 Data Analysis:

4.2.1 Questionnaire analysis

1) The first dimension

Presentation and interpretation of the results of the answer to the first question of the study, and it states "lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students?" To answer this question, the researcher calculated the arithmetic means and standard deviations of the responses of the sample members on the first dimension (lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students), as shown in Table (4-4):

Table (4-5) the mean, standard deviation, and the items of phrases on the first dimension: lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students

Item	Frequency					Mean	Std. Deviation	N%	Phrase
	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	strongly dis agree				
lexical collocations contributes effectively to improve writing paragraph among University students	38	37	3	20	2	4.11	1.180	75.0%	4
lexical collocations enhance students knowledge of vocabulary,	42	31	2	24	1	4.11	1.222	73.0%	5
Lexical collocations are essential to university students when they want to write naturally	36	28	3	21	12	3.45	1.459	64.0%	8

Applying Lexical collocations activities help students to master writing paragraph	28	48	1	19	4	4.43	1.281	76.0%	3
The lack of lexical collocation knowledge affects negatively among University students	26	42	20	8	4	4.22	1.050	68.0%	7
Lexical collocations makes learners more competent in writing English paragraph	42	37	8	12	1	3.83	1.138	79.0%	2
Lexical collocations develop learners' awareness.	62	26	12	0	0	4.19	1.125	88.0%	1
Lexical collocations allows learners investigate how meaning beyond the words can be understood	28	42	13	12	5	3.72	1.147	70.0%	6

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

The following table shows:

Phrase No. (7), which states (lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students) came first among the expressions of the first dimension (Lexical collocations develop learners' awareness), mean (4.19) and a standard deviation of (1.125), that is, a degree of response (acceptable), while the statement No. (6), (Lexical collocations makes learners more competent in writing English paragraph) came second among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.83) and a standard deviation of (1.138), that is, a degree of (acceptable) ,while the statement No. (4), (Applying Lexical collocations activities help students to

master writing paragraph) came third among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (4.43) and a standard deviation of (1.281), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (1), (lexical collocations contributes effectively to improve writing paragraph among University students) came fourth among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (4.11) and a standard deviation of (1.180), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (2), (lexical collocations enhance students' knowledge of vocabulary) came Fifth among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (4.11) and a standard deviation of (1.222), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (8), (Lexical collocations allows learners investigate how meaning beyond the words can be understood) came Sixth among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.72) and a standard deviation of (1.147), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (5), (The lack of lexical collocation knowledge affects negatively among University students) came Seventh among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (4.22) and a standard deviation of (1.050), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (3), (Lexical collocations are essential to university students when they want to write naturally) came last among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.45) and a standard deviation of (1.459), that is, a degree of (acceptable) response .

The results of the first dimension responses (strongly agree, agree) show that it is statistically highly acceptable.

2) The second dimension

Presentation and interpretation of the results of the answer to the first question of the study, and it states " Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing?" To answer this question, the researcher calculated the arithmetic means and standard deviations of the responses of the sample members on the second dimension (Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing), as shown in Table (4-6):

Table (4-6) Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing

Item	Frequency					Mean	Std. Deviation	N%	Phrase
	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	agree	strongly agree				
in my opinion learners have negative attitude toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing	15	6	10	45	24	3.71	1.221	70.4%	7
University syllabus does not help you to apply lexical collocation in paragraph writing	5	10	7	45	33	3.28	1.043	79.6%	2
applying materials contained of lexical collocation help Teachers to facilitate learning process	2	19	10	37	32	3.37	1.179	70.4%	8
lexical collocation help you to train students to be	10	10	6	16	58	4.38	1.135	75.5%	3

more competent in writing paragraph									
Workshop in lexical collocation support university Teachers to teach in a better way	6	13	10	34	37	4.29	1.131	72.4%	5
University Teacher has little time to develop materials for developing writing paragraph	11	10	6	27	46	3.94	1.186	74.5%	4
Teacher uses authentic materials such as newspapers, stories, essays to facilitate writing paragraph	2	13	7	45	33	4.04	1.064	79.6%	1
Teacher focus on fluency rather than accuracy	2	19	8	47	24	3.71	1.103	72.4%	6

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

The following table shows:

Phrase No. (7), which states (Teacher uses authentic materials such as newspapers, stories, essays to facilitate writing paragraph) came first among the expressions of the first dimension (Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing), mean (4.04) and a standard deviation of (1.064), that is, a degree of response (acceptable), while the statement No. (2), (University syllabus does not help you to apply lexical collocation in paragraph writing) came second among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.28) and a standard deviation of (1.043), that is, a degree of (acceptable) ,while the statement No. (4), (lexical collocation help you to train students to be

more competent in writing paragraph) came third among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (4.38) and a standard deviation of (1.135), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (6), (University Teacher has little time to develop materials for developing writing paragraph) came fourth among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.94) and a standard deviation of (1.186), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (5), (Workshop in lexical collocation support university Teachers to teach in a better way) came Fifth among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (4.29) and a standard deviation of (1.131), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (8), (Teacher focus on fluency rather than accuracy) came Sixth among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.71) and a standard deviation of (1.103), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (1), (in my opinion learners have negative attitude toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing) came Seventh among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.71) and a standard deviation of (1.221), that is, a degree of (acceptable), while the statement No. (3), (applying materials contained of lexical collocation help Teachers to facilitate learning process) came last among the expressions of the dimension, with an arithmetic mean of (3.37) and a standard deviation of (1.179), that is, a degree of (acceptable) response .

The results of the first dimension responses (strongly agree, agree) show that it is statistically highly acceptable.

4.3 Test analysis

In this topic the researcher deals with a precise description of the method and procedures that I follow in carrying out this study, and this includes a description of the study community, the method of preparing the tool represented in the pre-test and post-test, the procedures that were taken to ensure its effectiveness and impact, the method followed to apply it, and the statistical treatments by which the data were analysed, and extract the results.

Table (4-7) comparison between the means of the pre-test and the post test

Group	Question	Pre-test		Post-test		Different mean	result
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Experimental group	write	1.00	1.071	3.90	1.841	2.90	Very high
	fill	1.07	1.264	3.85	1.740	2.78	high
	mult	1.24	1.435	3.66	1.825	2.42	Medium
	Mark	1.11	1.694	3.68	1.171	2.57	high
Control group	write	1.00	0.730	3.90	2.095	2.90	Very high
	fill	1.00	0.811	3.90	2.095	2.90	Very high
	mult	1.29	0.716	4.07	1.456	2.78	high
	Mark	1.07	0.802	3.94	2.053	2.87	Very high

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

Looking at the table, we note that results of the pre-test and post-test correction in the Experimental group first question of write in pre-test the mean (1.00) and SD (1.071), while in post-test mean (3.90) and SD (1.841) There is a difference between the means of an intermediate level, in the second question of fill in pre-test the mean (1.07) and SD (1.264), while in post-test mean (3.85) and SD (1.740) There is a difference between the

means to a very high level , in the Third question of mult in pre- test the mean (1.24) and SD (1.435), while in post-test mean (3.66) and SD (1.825) There is a difference between the means to a very high level, and the pre-test and post-test correction in the Control Group first question of write in pre-test the mean (1.00) and SD (0.730), while in post-test mean (3.90) and SD (2.095) There is a difference between the means of an intermediate level, in the second question of fill in pre-test the mean (1.29) and SD (0.716), while in post-test mean (4.07) and SD (1.456) There is a difference between the means to a very high level , in the Third question of mult in pre- test the mean (1.07) and SD (0.802), while in post-test mean (3.94) and SD (2.053) There is a difference between the means to a very high level .

4.3.1 Group (1) Experimental group

4.3.1.1 Experimental group Pre-test

1/ write:

Table (4-8) showing write scores in the pre-test

Pre-test write	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	36	87.8%	87.8%
50% to less than 60%	5	12.2%	100.0%
60% to less than 70%	0	00.0%	100.0%
70% to less than 80%	0	00.0%	100.0%
80% to less 90	0	00.0%	100.0%
90% or more	0	00.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

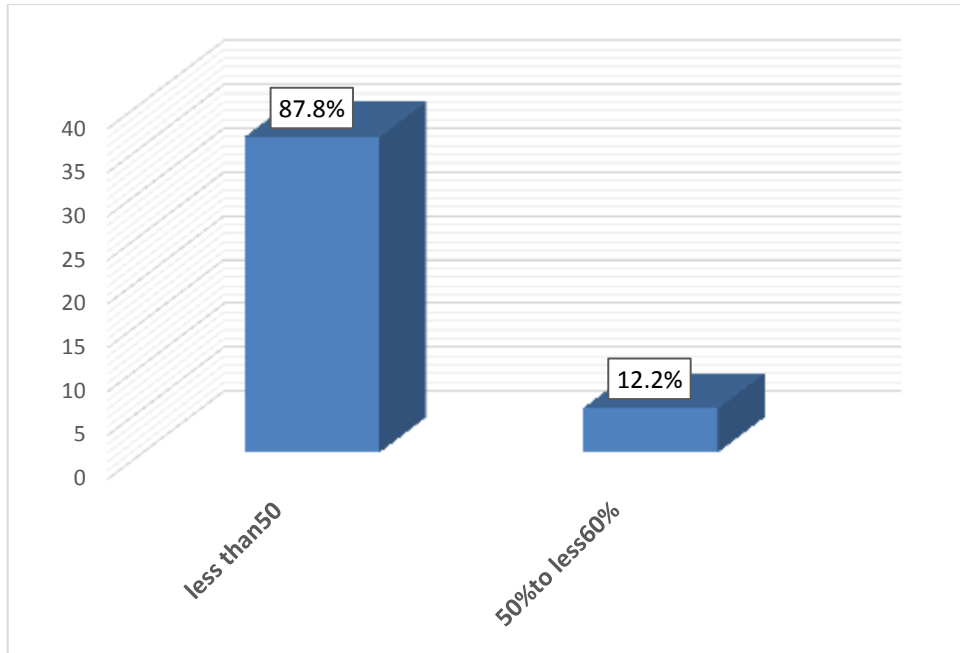


Figure (4.5) showing write scores in the pre-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the first question of write Less than 50% (36) a ratio 87.8%, 50% to less than 60% (5) a ratio 12.2%.

2/ fill:

Table (4-9) showing fill scores in the pre-test

Pre-test fill	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	38	92.7%	92.7%
50% to less than 60%	3	7.3%	100.0%
60% to less than 70%	0	00.0%	100.0%
70% to less than 80%	0	00.0%	100.0%
80% to less 90%	0	00.0%	100.0%
90% or more	0	00.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

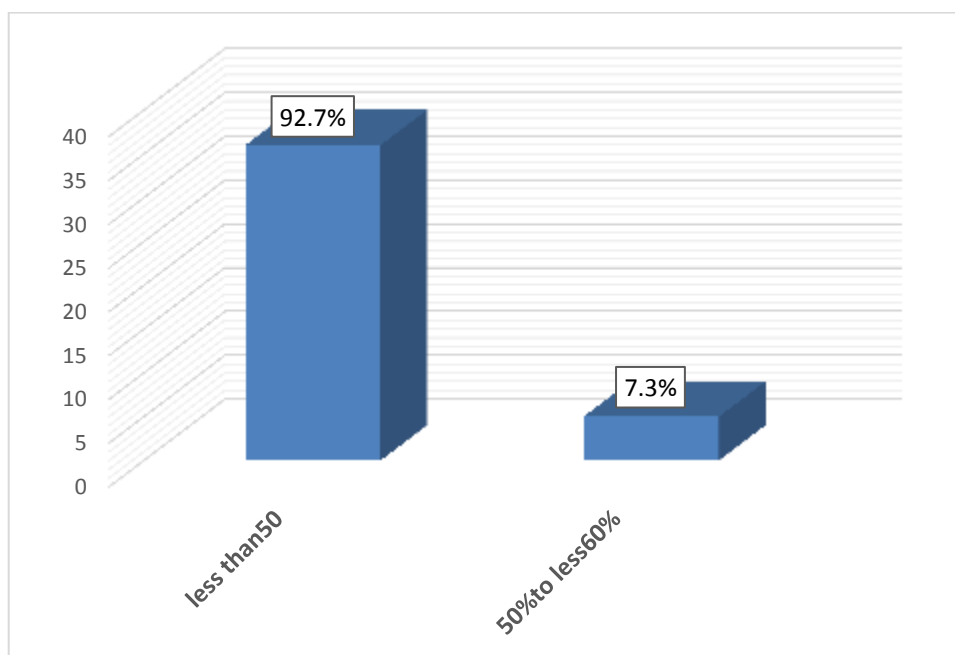


Figure (4.6) showing fill scores in the pre-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the second question of fill Less than 50% (38) a ratio 92.7%, 50% to less than 60% (3) a ratio 7.3%.

3/ mult:

Table (4-10) showing mult scores in the post-test

Post-test mult	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	31	75.6%	75.6%
50% to less than 60%	10	24.4%	100.0%
60% to less than 70%	0	00.0%	100.0%
70% to less than 80%	0	00.0%	100.0%
80% to less 90	0	00.0%	100.0%
90% or more	0	00.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

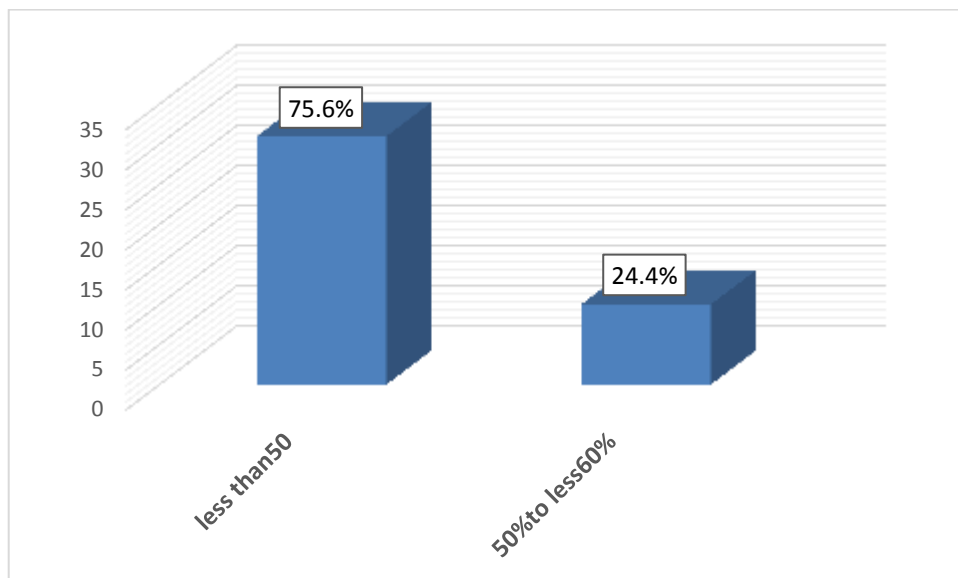


Figure (4.7) showing mult scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the third question of mult Less than 50% (31) a ratio 75.6%, 50% to less than 60% (10) a ratio 24.4%.

4.3.1.2 Experimental group Post-test

1/ write:

Table (4-11) showing write scores in the post-test

Post-test write	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	8	19.5%	19.5%
50% to less than 60%	2	4.9%	24.4%
60% to less than 70%	5	12.2%	36.6%
70% to less than 80%	8	19.5%	56.1%
80% to less 90	7	17.1%	73.2%
90% or more	11	26.8%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

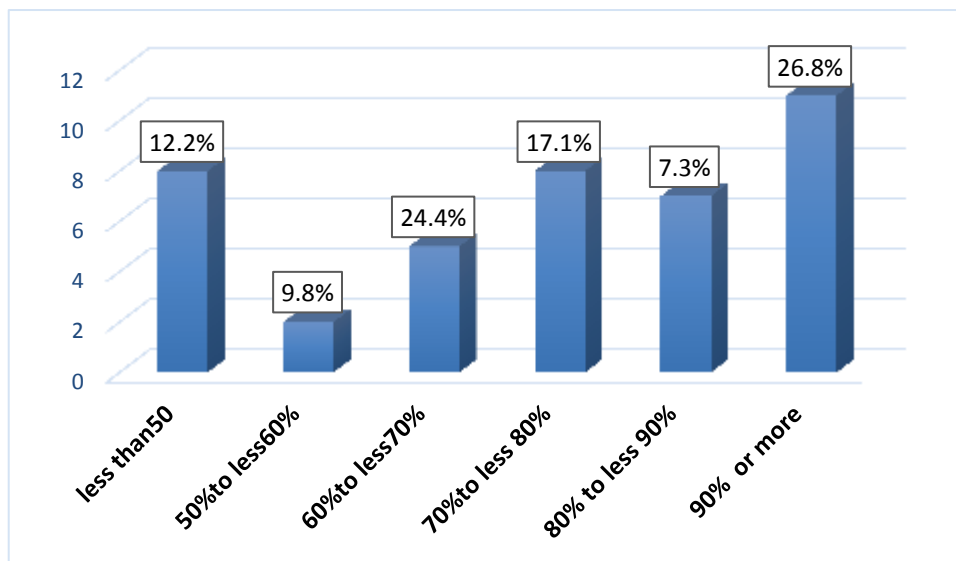


Figure (4.8) showing write scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the first question of write Less than 50% (8) a ratio 19.5%, 50% to less than 60% (2) a ratio 4.9%, 60% to less than 70% (5) a ratio 12.2%, 70% to less than 80% (8) a ratio 19.5%, 80% to less than 90% (7) a ratio 17.1%, 90% or more (11) a ratio 26.8%.

2/ fill:

Table (4-12) showing fill scores in the post-test

Post-test fill	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	5	12.2%	12.2%
50% to less than 60%	4	9.8%	22.0%
60% to less than 70%	10	24.4%	46.3%
70% to less than 80%	7	17.1%	63.4%
80% to less 90%	3	7.3%	70.7%
90% or more	12	29.3%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

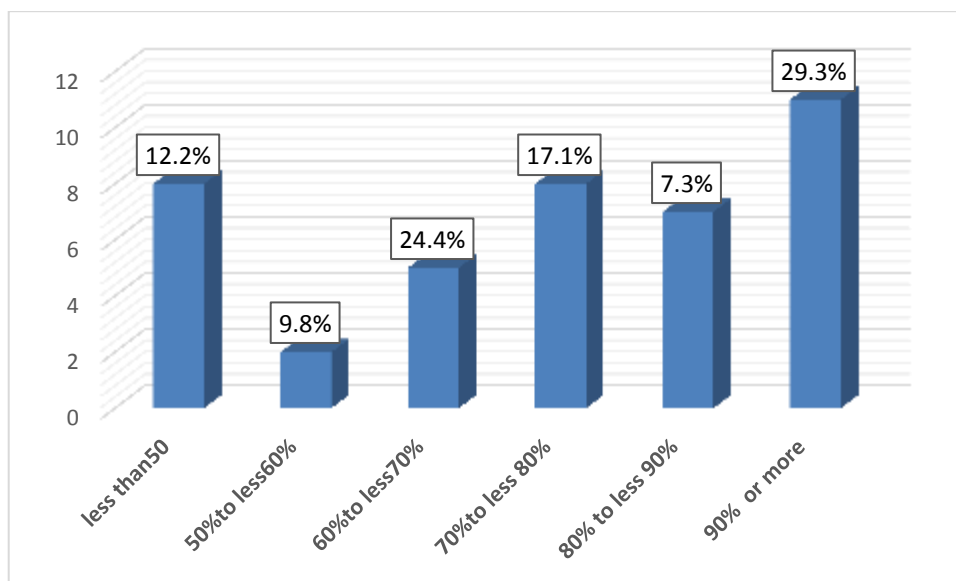


Figure (4.9) showing fill scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the second question of write Less than 50% (5) a ratio 12.2%, 50% to less than 60% (4) a ratio 9.8%, 60% to less than 70% (10) a ratio 24.4%, 70% to less than 80% (7) a ratio 17.1%, 80% to less than 90% (3) a ratio 7.3%, 90% or more (12) a ratio 29.3%.

3/ mult:

Table (4-13) showing mult scores in the post-test

Post-test mult	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	7	17.1%	17.1%
50% to less than 60%	7	17.1%	34.1%
60% to less than 70%	4	9.8%	43.9%
70% to less than 80%	7	17.1%	61.0%
80% to less 90	7	17.1%	78.0%
90% or more	9	22.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

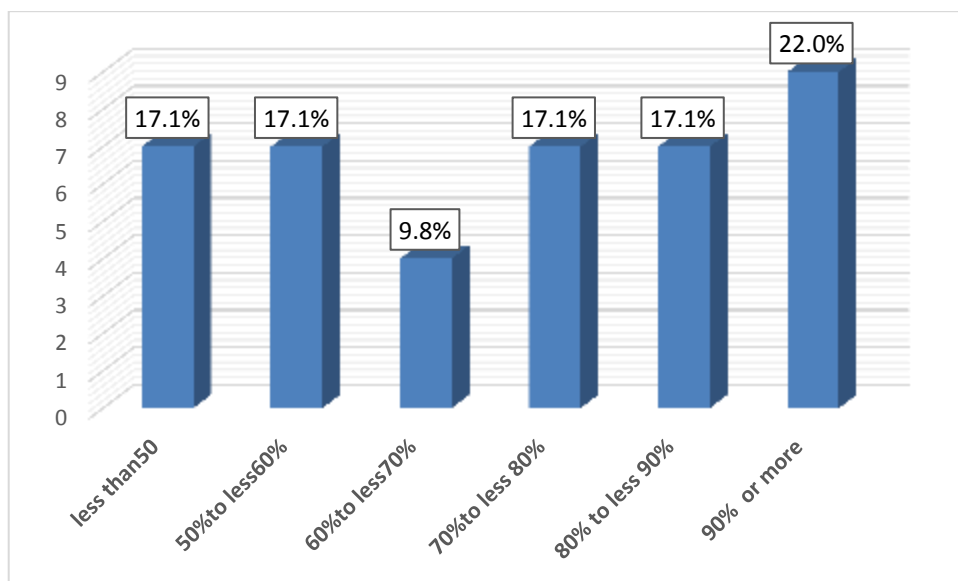


Figure (4.10) showing mult scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the third question of mult Less than 50% (7) a ratio 17.1%, 50% to less than 60% (7) a ratio 17.1%, 60% to less than 70% (4) a ratio 9.8%, 70% to less than 80% (7) a ratio 17.1%, 80% to less than 90% (7) a ratio 17.1%, 90% or more (9) a ratio 22.0%.

4.3.2 Group (2) Control group

4.3.2.1 Control Group Pre-Test

1/ write:

Table (4-14) showing write scores in the pre-test

Pre-test write	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	29	70.7%	70.7%
50% to less than 60%	8	19.5%	90.2%
60% to less than 70%	3	7.3%	100.0%
70% to less than 80%	0	00.0%	100.0%
80% to less 90	0	00.0%	100.0%
90% or more	0	00.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

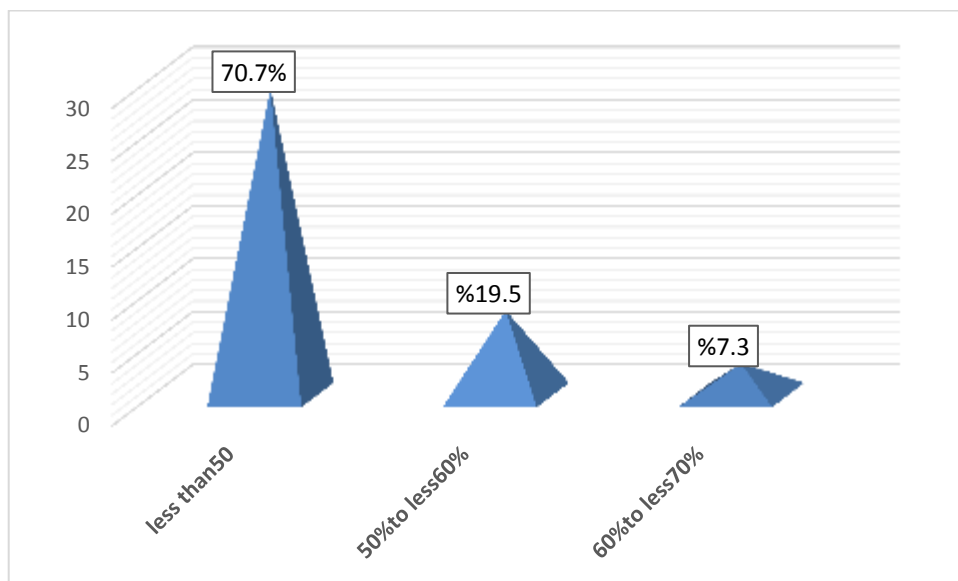


Figure (4.11) showing write scores in the pre-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the first question of write Less than 50% (29) a ratio 70.7%, 50% to less than 60% (8) a ratio 19.5%, 60% to less than 70% (3) a ratio 7.3%.

2/ fill:

Table (4-15) showing fill scores in the pre-test

Pre-test fill	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	30	73.2%	73.2%
50% to less than 60%	11	26.8%	100.0%
60% to less than 70%	0	00.0%	100.0%
70% to less than 80%	0	00.0%	100.0%
80% to less 90%	0	00.0%	100.0%
90% or more	0	00.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

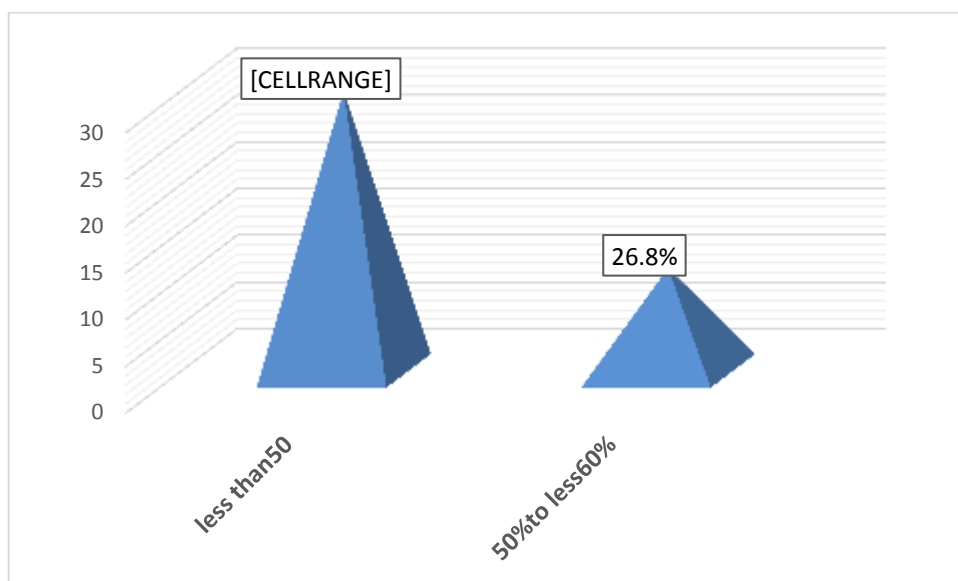


Figure (4.12) showing fill scores in the pre-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the second question of fill Less than 50% (30) a ratio 73.2%, 50% to less than 60% (11) a ratio 26.8%.

3/ mult:

Table (4-16) showing mult scores in the post-test

Post-test mult	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	32	78.1%	78.1%
50% to less than 60%	8	19.5%	97.6%
60% to less than 70%	1	2.4%	100.0%
70% to less than 80%	0	00.0%	100.0%
80% to less 90	0	00.0%	100.0%
90% or more	0	00.0%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

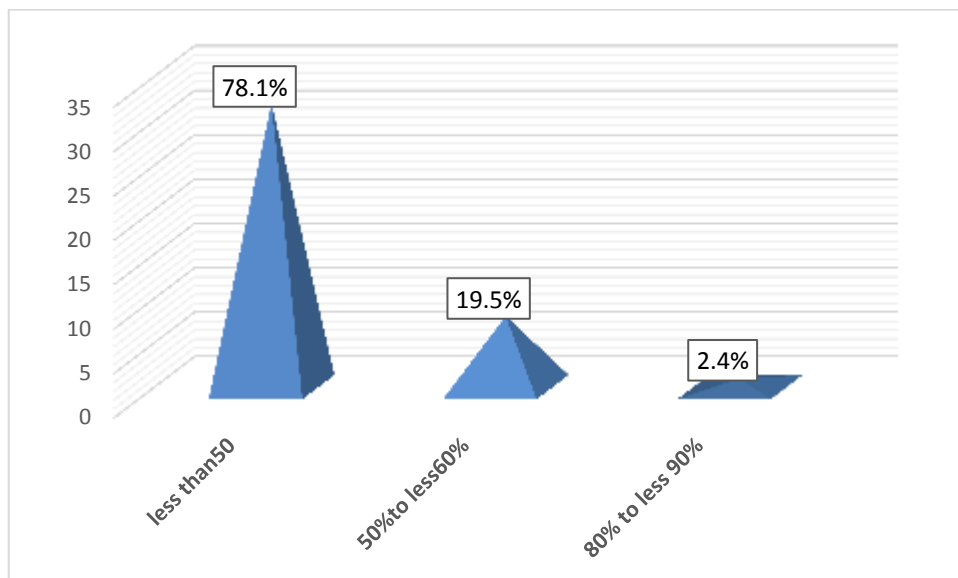


Figure (4.13) showing mult scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the third question of mult Less than 50% (32) a ratio 78.1%, 50% to less than 60% (8) a ratio 19.5% , 60% to less than 70% (1) a ratio 2.4%.

4.3.1.1 Control Group Post-Test

1/ write:

Table (4-17) showing write scores in the post-test

Post-test write	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	10	24.4%	24.4%
50% to less than 60%	5	12.2%	36.6%
70% to less than 80%	5	12.2%	48.8%
80% to less 90	6	14.6%	63.4%
90% or more	15	36.6%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

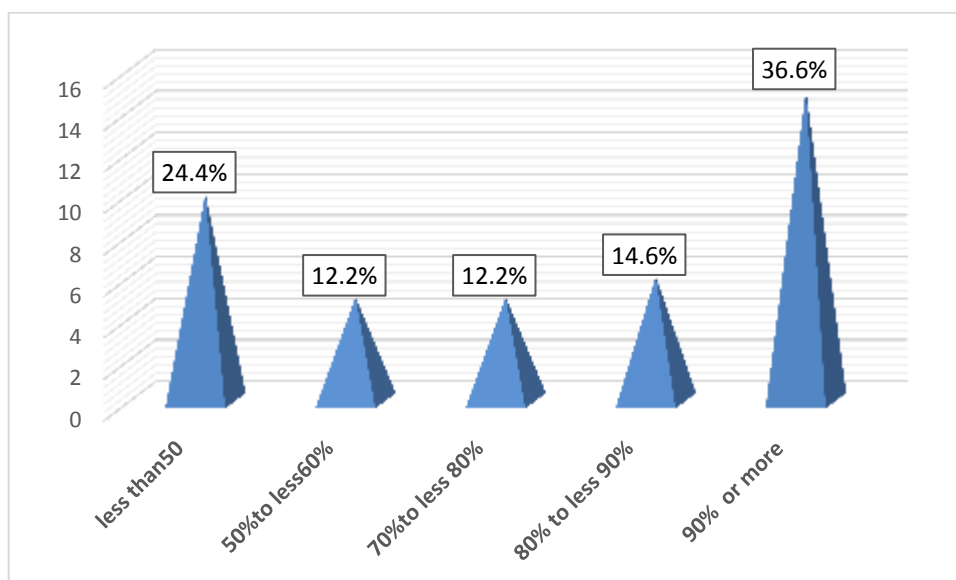


Figure (4.14) showing write scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the first question of write Less than 50% (10) a ratio 24.4%, 50% to less than 60% (5) a ratio 12.2%, 70% to less than 80% (5) a ratio 12.2%, 80% to less than 90% (6) a ratio 14.6%, 90% or more (15) a ratio 36.6%.

2/ fill:

Table (4-18) showing fill scores in the post-test

Post-test fill	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	10	24.4%	24.4%
50% to less than 60%	3	7.3%	31.7%
60% to less than 70%	2	4.9%	36.6%
70% to less than 80%	5	12.2%	48.8%
80% to less 90%	6	14.6%	63.4%
90% or more	15	36.6%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

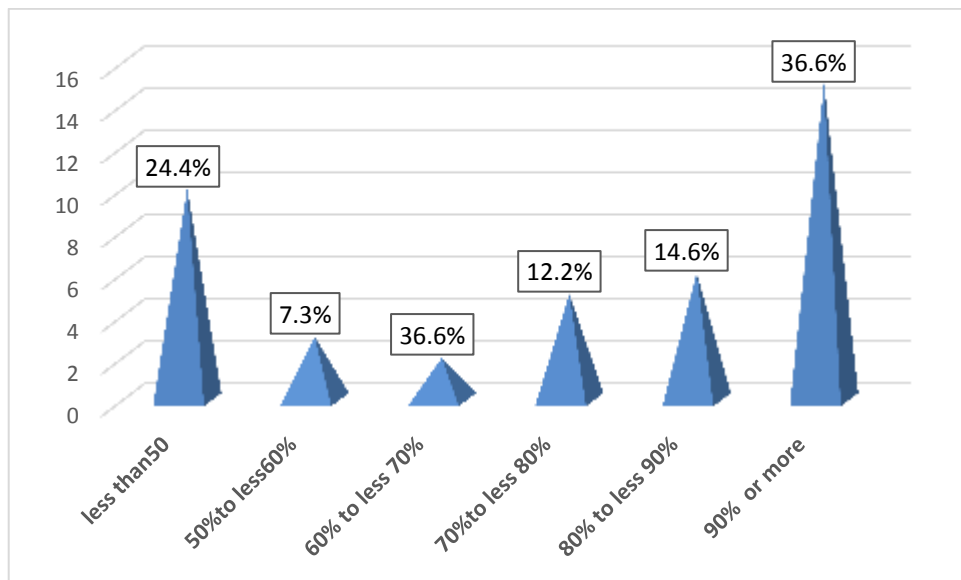


Figure (4.15) showing fill scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the second question of write Less than 50% (10) a ratio 24.4%, 50% to less than 60% (3) a ratio 7.3%, 60% to less than 70% (2) a ratio 4.9%, 70% to less than 80% (5) a ratio 12.2%, 80% to less than 90% (6) a ratio 14.6%, 90% or more (15) a ratio 36.6%.

3/ mult:

Table (4-19) showing mult scores in the post-test

Post-test mult	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 50%	2	4.9%	4.9%
50% to less than 60%	1	2.4%	7.3%
70% to less than 80%	5	12.2%	19.5%
80% to less 90	9	22.0%	41.5%
90% or more	24	58.5%	100.0%
Total	41	100.0%	

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

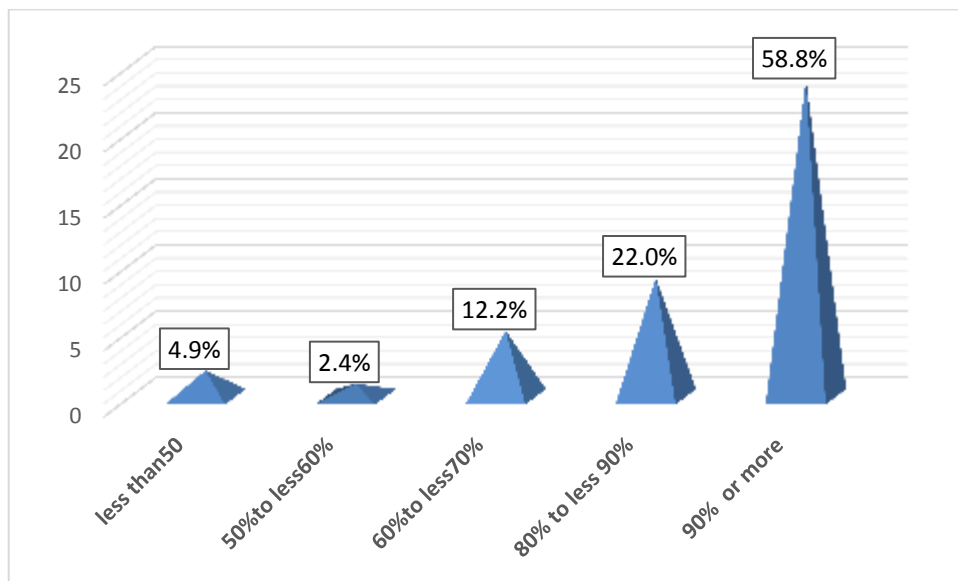


Figure (4.16) showing mult scores in the post-test group (1)

Looking at the table and the figure, we note that the results of the pre-test correction in the third question of mult Less than 50% (2) a ratio 4.9%, 50% to less than 60% (1) a ratio 2.4%, 70% to less than 80% (5) a ratio 12.2%, 80% to less than 90% (9) a ratio 22.0%, 90% or more (24) a ratio 58.5%.

4.4 Testing the Hypothesis:

To examine the hypothesis of the study, the multivariate analysis through was used to test the main and hypotheses in their null form, correlation Pearson, Chi-Square Test in statistically significant ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Hypotheses No (1):

lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students.

Table (4-20)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
lexical collocations contributes effectively to improve writing paragraph among University students	4.11	1.180	61.300 ^a	4	0.000
lexical collocations enhance students' knowledge of vocabulary,	4.11	1.222	65.300 ^a	4	0.000
Lexical collocations are essential to university students when they want to write naturally	3.45	1.459	33.700 ^a	4	0.000
Applying Lexical collocations activities help students to master writing paragraph	4.43	1.281	54.300 ^a	4	0.000
The lack of lexical collocation knowledge affects negatively among University students	4.22	1.050	46.000 ^a	4	0.000
Lexical collocations makes learners more competent in writing English paragraph	3.83	1.138	67.100 ^a	4	0.000
Lexical collocations develop learners' awareness.	4.19	1.125	75.920 ^b	3	0.000
Lexical collocations allows learners investigate how meaning beyond the words can be understood	3.72	1.147	44.300 ^a	4	0.000

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

null hypothesis: lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students.

Alternative hypothesis: lexical collocation can't improve paragraph writing among University students.

It is clear from the above table that the values of chi-square test, all values probability, are greater than 0.05, so we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis, i.e. lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students.

Hypotheses No (2):

Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation to teach paragraph writing. By concentrating on teaching lexical collocation, teachers resolve the problems of writing as general and paragraph writing particular.

Table (4-21)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
in my opinion learners have negative attitude toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing	3.71	1.221	48.100 ^a	4	0.000
University syllabus does not help you to apply lexical collocation in paragraph writing	3.28	1.043	51.800 ^a	4	0.000
applying materials contained of lexical collocation help Teachers to facilitate learning process	3.37	1.179	43.475 ^b	4	0.000
lexical collocation help you to train students to be more competent in writing paragraph	4.38	1.135	92.800 ^a	4	0.000
Workshop in lexical collocation support university Teachers to teach in a better way	4.29	1.131	22.300 ^a	4	0.000
University Teacher has little time to develop materials for developing writing paragraph	3.94	1.186	44.889 ^b	4	0.000
Teacher uses authentic materials such as newspapers, stories, essays to facilitate writing paragraph	4.04	1.064	32.200 ^a	4	0.000
Teacher focus on fluency rather than accuracy	3.71	1.103	60.700 ^a	4	0.000

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

null hypothesis: Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation to teach paragraph writing.

Alternative hypothesis: Teachers have positive attitudes toward using lexical collocation to teach paragraph writing.

It is clear from the above table that the values of chi-square test, all values probability, are smaller than 0.05, so we accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis, i.e. Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation to teach paragraph writing.

Hypotheses No (3):

EFL learners are not aware of lexical collocation when they proceed to higher levels.

Table (4-22)

Group	Test	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Experimental group	Pre- test	Write	1.00	1.071	29.878 ^a	1	0.000
		Fill	1.07	1.264	10.756 ^a	1	0.001
		Mult	1.24	1.435	6.854 ^b	5	0.232
	Post- test	Write	3.90	1.841	9.195 ^b	5	0.102
		Fill	3.85	1.74	1.878 ^b	5	0.866
		Mult	3.66	1.825	38.683 ^c	2	0.000
Control group	Pre- test	Write	1.00	0.73	9.122 ^d	4	0.058
		Fill	1.00	0.811	9.122 ^d	4	0.058
		Mult	1.29	0.716	42.780 ^d	4	0.000
	Post- test	Write	3.90	2.095	29.878 ^a	1	0.000
		Fill	3.90	2.095	10.756 ^a	1	0.001
		Mult	4.07	1.456	6.854 ^b	5	0.232

Source: Prepared by the researcher by SPSS, 2020

null hypothesis: EFL learners are aware of lexical collocation when they proceed to higher levels.

Alternative hypothesis: EFL learners are not aware of lexical collocation when they proceed to higher levels.

It is clear from the above table that the values of chi-square test, all values probability, are greater than 0.05, so we accept the alternative hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis, i.e. EFL learners are not aware of lexical collocation when they proceed to higher levels.

Verification:

The first hypothesis:

EFL learners are not aware of lexical collocation (verb + noun, adjective + noun) when writing paragraph.

The results indicate that learners are not aware of lexical collocation table (4-6) the answers of the question e.g. write in the experimental group; mean in pre-test (1,00) and SD (1,071) while in the control group, post test (3,90) and SD (2,095). There is difference between the means of intermediate level, the result indicate that paragraph writing are higher than predicted percentage and this hypothesis of the study is accepted

- 1- Investigating Sudanese English as foreign language – university students, collocational knowledge. This study similar to the researchers, study in the deficiency in the subjects, collocation knowledge and remarkable differences in the subjects, performance in the collocation patterns.
- 2- Assessing English collocational knowledge among Sudanese EFL university students, this study similar to the researcher study in the subject's knowledge of collocation is poor results, but contradictory finding in (adjective + noun) is the easiest.
In the researcher's study (verb + noun) is the easiest.
- 3- Collocation: a neglected variable in EFL.

This study is similar to the researcher's study students unaware of fundamental existence of collocation and unable to produce acceptable collocation.

- 4- The lexical collocational competence of Arab undergraduate EFL learners.

This study similar to the researcher study in the results that collocational competence of learners was notably unsatisfactory also similar in the (verb + noun) is easier than adjective + noun) collocations.

- 5- Lexical collocation errors in writing of Iraqi EFL learners.

The results of this study showed that the lexical collocational errors are mainly due to the negative transfer from Arabic but the researcher study not seeking in translation.

- 6- English collocations: a novel approach to teaching the language's last bastion this study similar to my study in: the control group had realized that their English would sound more natural if it incorporated collocations.

- 7- Transfer and universality: collocation use in advanced Chinese and Swedish learners' English.

This study contradicts to the researcher study, because the students made similar types and production errors.

- 8- The effect of lexical collocation awareness on Iranian EFL learners writing skills.

The result of the study indicates that lexical collocation awareness developed the writing components of vocabulary and mechanics rather than grammar, relevance and fluency in writing paragraph; it is similar to the researcher study.

- 9- Should we teach EFL students collocation? This study different to my study in its results that showed the students performed poorly on both tests.
- 10- Lexical collocation and their relation to the online writing of Taiwanese college English – major a Non-Major.
The study reports on a pattern of lexical collocation development observed among writing of different score, ranging from the lowest to the highest, this study similar to my study in lexical collocation developed writing paragraph.
- 11- Examining ESL learners' knowledge of collocation. The result of this study indicates that the mean score for receptive test is very much higher than productive test, but my study on productive test only, it also shows that (verb + preposition) has the lowest means score this is out my study, while the highest mean score is for the (verb + noun) is similar to my study.

The second hypothesis

Lexical collocation (verb + noun, adjective +noun) can improve students' paragraph writing among university is students.

This hypothesis is stated as lexical collocation improve student paragraph writing among university students is higher the passing grade more than 60% this shows that the mean was clearly more than middle value, this indicates that writing paragraph are higher than percentage. This hypothesis of the study is accepted.

- 12- Investigating the Sudanese EFL under graduates knowledge and use of collocation.
The result of this study is reveals that the general weakness of the students in understanding and translation English collocation. An explanation for this might be the fact respondents rely on conjecture

rather than reliable knowledge. In addition to this they rely on literal transfer from their mother tongue.

This study is similar to my study.

The third hypothesis

Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation.

The results of questionnaire indicate that this hypothesis is accepted.

13- Investigating the Sudanese EFL under graduates knowledge and use of collocation.

The result of this study is the majority of respondents (70%) explained that teaching collocation is completely ignored at under graduates level which is badly reflected on overall standard of the students that they are always incapable of communicating fluently either in writing or oral delivery.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION, RESULTS,
RECOMMENDATIONS AND
SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Chapter Five

Summary, Finding, Conclusions

Recommendations and Suggestions for Futures studies

5.1 Summary:

This study comprises five chapters:

Chapter one: study the problems, questions of the study, hypotheses, objectives, significance of the study, and the limits of the study and terms of the study .

Chapter two, handles: literature review, it discusses what has been written on collocations like definitions, types of collocations, importance of collocations, the problems of collocations, teachers attitudes toward teaching collocations, paragraph writing etc... .

Chapter three: displays the methodological problems, the sample and the tool which was used for data collection.

Chapter four: aims at presenting both the analysis of the participants, responses and testing the hypotheses of the study.

Finally chapter five: presents the summary findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for future studies.

5.2 Findings:

- It was found out that, those highly motivated students who have come from secondary school with very good knowledge English are better placed to study, understand and apply linking words in the most proper required standards.
- Student scored higher marks in the post test than the first one that indicated to writing skill has been remarkable improved.

- Students willingly need to know the factors that hinder of writing the researcher knew that by their questions and by their feedback at the second test.
- FEL teachers of English face many problems when they want to combine words like (fast, quick) (speak, tell) because this collocates natural to native speaker but the teacher of English makes an effort to learn their students them.
- Implementing collocations can facilitate and solve the problems that face learners in writing paragraph and affect positively on learners' performance.
- Teachers can solve these problems by helping students to use collocation to unite a good paragraph, by using collocation in teaching students enhance writing skill.
- The study also revealed that there are more collocations and vocabulary are above their standards.
- The findings of the study revealed that the teachers of department are not actually involved in the curriculum planning.
- Some textbooks and courses descriptions are made by teachers according to their own beliefs and made to suit their qualification, the students' role in the preparation of courses and descriptions and the choice of the materials and textbooks is completely ignored, and their needs, aims and motivates are also neglected.

5.3 Conclusions

The basic purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of using collocation on teaching paragraph writing to Sudanese EFL learners in Gezira state, Faculty of Education. The study shades the light on the knowledge of collocation particularly focused on acquisition of lexical collocation represented by two patterns: (verb – noun) and (adjective –

noun), this done by comparing the performance of the subjects taught which were in pre and post tests.

The same group were tested before teaching, in the post test student did and achieved well by analysis data of the test using (SPSS) program.

Beside the tests there is a questionnaire given to English Language teachers to examine their perception about learner's, writing skill as general and collocations particular and to clarify the factors that hinder learning method.

The tool of the study indicates that (verb – noun) (adjective – noun) collocation is significant as an EFL teaching method within the teaching process of (v + n) (adj + n) collocation student became familiar with correct joining and use acceptable meaning, Sudanese EFL teachers aware of lexical collocations and they provided a good result.

5.4 Recommendations

- Teachers should enable students to be aware of collocation through making more emphasis on collocation while teaching process.
- The sufficient dosage of lexis should be incorporated into learning materials collocations must have to priority in English course.
- Language courses should adopt effective ways to raise their learner's awareness on collocation.
- Students must know that the aim of learning English not to pass the through the exams or to score high degree.
- Students need to know the factors that hinder writing not grammar or spelling only but there are vocabulary and collocation.
- The goals and adjectives and practices in the department should be match the congruent with student needs must be taken into consideration before introducing or designing any new courses.

- Teachers should be reminded, do not always yield good results in the teaching-learning process.
- Teachers should activate their role in the curriculum planning as a decision-making process.
- The study recommends integrating collocation courses because collocation learn students to combine words as native speaker-a like.
- The content of the curriculum if it includes collocation and vocabulary helps in developing writing skill, participants have ability to choose their meaning they want to express and know how to combine words that give the bravery to practice writing skill inside and outside the classroom.
- Colleges of Education should enrich English language curriculum with language applied issues like collocation.
- To give teachers and learners more attention to productive language skills -writing and speaking- with more intensive courses in these skills.
- Teachers should encourage students to use (verb – noun) and (adjective – noun) collocation and other types to learn correct language.

5.5 Suggestions for further studies

- This type of the study (verb + noun) (adjective + noun) might also be conducted and applied on the series of English collocation (noun + verb) (adjective + adverb) (adverb + adjective) (noun + noun) (verb + preposition) or all grammatical collocation.
- Applying further studies on using (noun + verb)(adjective + noun) collocation for other skills like fluency speaking or accurately.
- Conducting this study in teaching and learning to develop writing skill and paragraph writing particular to enhance EFL performance.

- Providing universities libraries with collocational dictionaries.
- Adopting the use of (noun - verb) (adjective - noun) collocation to improve writing skill among students.

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APPENDICES

Appendix (A)

Questionnaire



University of Sudan
College of Graduate Studies
Teachers' Questionnaire



كلية الدراسات العليا

- This questionnaire is a part of my PhD research in ELT which I am currently conducting at the University of Sudan. I would appreciate your efforts by providing your time and energy to contribute in this study by ticking the options that suit your point of view for each statement below. Your opinions will be treated with complete confidentiality and will be for research purposes only.
- Thank you in advance for your cooperation.
- Teachers have negative attitudes toward using short stories to teach paragraph writing. By concentrating on teaching short stories, teachers resolve the problems of writing as general and paragraph writing particular.

General information about Respondents

Please put (√) in the bracket of your choice.

1- Name: (Not required)

2- Place of work -----

3- Gender a. Male b. Female
4- Age a. 22 -25 b. 26 -35
 c. 36 – 45 d. 46 -55
 e. More than 55

5- Graduation Degree:

a. Bachelor b. Post-graduate Diploma
c. Master d. Ph.D.

6- Teaching Experience:

a. 1- 3 years b. 4 – 6 years
c. 7 - 10 years d. More than 10 years

Instructions:

Tick (√) the answer you think the best.

Each item must be ticked only once.

There is no right or wrong answer and it is important that teachers answer honestly.

Answer keys:

- *Strongly agree, Agree Neutral, Disagree Strongly disagree*
- **The first hypothesis of the study:**

lexical collocation can improve paragraph writing among University students

<i>Statements</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
lexical collocations contributes effectively to improve writing paragraph among University students					
lexical collocations enhance students knowledge of vocabulary,					
Lexical collocations are essential to university students when they want to write naturally					
Applying Lexical collocations activities help students to master writing paragraph					
The lack of lexical collocation knowledge affects negatively among University students					
Lexical collocations makes learners more competent in writing English paragraph					
Lexical collocations develops learners' awareness.					
Lexical collocations allows learners investigate how meaning beyond the words can be understood					

▪ **The second hypothesis of the study:**

Teachers have negative attitudes toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing

<i>Statements</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
in my opinion learners have negative attitude toward using lexical collocation in paragraph writing					
University syllabus does not help you to apply lexical collocation in paragraph writing					
applying materials contained of lexical collocation help Teachers to facilitate learning process					
lexical collocation help you to train students to be more competent in writing paragraph					
Workshop in lexical collocation support university Teachers to teach in a better way					
University Teacher has little time to develop materials for developing writing paragraph					
Teacher uses authentic materials such as newspapers, stories, essays to facilitate writing paragraph					
Teacher focus on fluency rather than accuracy					

Appendix (B)

Test

Verb +noun:

Question (1): choose the best answer:

1- They are hoping to.....a family soon.

- (a)begin (b)start (c) get

2- shall we..... a party for Jane? She's leaving the school next week.

- (a)make (b) get (c) have

3-I was trying to.....her a compliment but she misunderstood.

- (a) Pay (b) make (c) bring

4-The Socialist partycontrol on the National Assembly.

- (a) Won (b) gained (c) earned

5-It is important to have goals even if do not alwaysthem.

- (a) Earn (b) win (c) achieve

6-Now a days John..... a very good salary.

- (a)winning (b)gaining (c) earning.

7- I need to.....my phone.

- (a) Load (b) charge (c) fill.

8- They.....the lorry and drove a way.

- (a) load (b)charge (c)fill.

9-In the South the farmerscrops.

(a) grow (b)raise (c)bring.

10- In the North the farmers mostly..... Cattle.

(a)bring (b) grow (c) raise.

Question (2): use a verb from the box in its suitable place:

Make/ do/ have / swallowed / played /caught / took /break / tell / say

- 1- Janeher pride and admitted that she was wrong.
- 2- The children..... a joke on the teacher by hiding under their desks before she came into the room.
- 3- I got soaking wet and a cold.
- 4- The school can..... Arrangements for pupils with special needs.
- 5- Changing the rules may more harm than good.
- 6- Let'sbreak when you finish this exercise.
- 7- We.....a lot of photographs because it was such beautiful day.
- 8- People dislike the person who..... lies.
- 9- Usually I 5 prays.
- 10-Don'tthe law.

Question(3): complete these sentences with suitable verb:

- 1- All that matters in the exam is to your best.
- 2- They havea mistake in our bill.
- 3- He was very embarrassed and his facered.
- 4- In June I a baby, James.
- 5- My son has to..... his home work straight after school.

- 6- I'm glad, it is you has to the decision.
- 7- She gave up smoking when shepregnant.
- 8- Soraya is a baby next month.
- 9- How do I..... on line.
- 10-.....me the time please.

Adjective + Noun:

Question (1): Choose the best answer:

- 1- Maria gaveperformance of Headers violin concerto last night.
(a) Weak (b) bad (c) poor.
- 2- We had a glance at the menu and went in.
(a)quick (b)fast (c) rapid.
- 3- Unemployment is a problem for the government at the moment.
(a) big (b)major (c) large.
- 4-We had walk before lunch.
(a)fast (b) prompt (c)brisk.
- 5-This car has a very engine.
(a) Strong (b) powerful (c) heavy.
- 6-luke has a passion forcar.
(a)a quick (b) a speed (c) a fast.
- 7- She made a recovery after her operation.
(a) Speed (b) fast (c) prompt.
- 8- There has been..... increase in the tourists visiting the city after the museum was opened.
(a) Speed (b) fast (c) rapid.
- 9-It was dark , when she left the house .
(a) extremely (b)very (c) pitch.

10-This cream is good for oily skin but that one would be better for..... skin.

- (a) dry (b) smooth (c) good.

Question (2):

Choose the best adjective from the box and use it in the suitable

space:

Sole / vivid /greasy / antique / old / ancient /substantial / putrid
/solitary / sharp

- 1- you need to wash hair more often than you need to wash dry hair.
- 2- You have Imagination , but you lose you too easily.
- 3- That shop selling..... furniture .
- 4- She studied history.
- 5- I met friend yesterday.
- 6- She was the Survivor of the crash.
- 7- There was just one figure on the other wise deserted beach.
- 8- Do not eat fishes.
- 9- I need pencil to write well.
- 10- My friends usually invite me to meal.

Question (3):

Complete these sentences with right adjective:

- 1- If someone has a tongue s /he may say unkind thing.
- 2- My friends always climb mountain, that is dangerous.
- 3- Everyone here hopes that your journey hasending.
- 4- 5-The.....winds at the weakened have caused wide spread damage . after the winds.....rain poured down .

6-I saw some fruits in a bucket.

7- she had a Pain in her side and hoped that a hot bath might ease the pain.

8- He made a exit when he saw his wife enter the room.

9- I think I will have shower before going out.

10- It was decision to make.

Validators' schedule:

Name	Academic positions	Academic institutions
1- Dr. Negla Taha Bashari	Professor Assistant	Sudan University of Scenic and technology
2- Dr. Zakir Ahmed Ali	Professor Assistant	Sudan University of Scenic and technology
3- Dr. Ahmed Mokhtar Almardi	Professor	Sudan University of Scenic and technology
4- Dr. Alsadiq Osman Mohammed	Professor Assistant	Omdurman Islamic University

Researchers

The majority of scholars, teachers, researchers curriculum designers who write about collocation are second or foreign writers, because they consider the use of collocation distinguishes between good, poor, native and non native writing.

1. **Thierry Fontenelle** (European Union | EU · Translation Department)

My interest in collocations dates back to the time when I started teaching English to French-speaking advanced students. On the occasion of one of the small tests which spice every teacher's life, my students had to translate the following sentence (among many others) from French into English: "la chaleur avait fait tourner le lait". The main purpose of such an exercise was to check that the students were aware that the structure faire + infinitive in French does not necessarily correspond to make + infinitive in English. Among the many possibilities that had been produced, one attracted my attention immediately, namely "The heat had made the milk rotten". Since I expected something like "the heat had turned the milk" or "the heat had turned the milk sour", I concluded that the student had produced that deviant construction because he or she lacked knowledge of the appropriate adjective to render the idea of absence of freshness.

The problem was that I had to explain to the student that the sentence was syntactically (i.e. grammatically) correct and that any native speaker of English would most certainly understand the meaning of a combination of words such as "rotten milk", but that this very combination was likely to elicit some kind of mocking smile. I then started to think about the reason why we can say that an egg is rotten, bad or addled, while milk can go or turn sour and butter become rancid. The

adjectives bad, rotten, addled, sour or rancid can all be combined with nouns denoting foodstuffs but are by no means interchangeable. This means that some words are more likely to combine with specific items to form natural-sounding combinations while other types of combinations are simply not found, even though they would be possible and understandable, at least theoretically. The aim of this article is to outline the properties of these accepted combinations and to clarify this phenomenon, generally known as collocation.

2. **Paul Nation Victoria** (University of Wellington, New Zealand)

Paul Nation teaches in the School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies at Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. He has taught in Indonesia, Thailand, the United States, Finland, and Japan. His specialist interests are language teaching methodology and vocabulary learning.

During the 1990s interest in vocabulary teaching and research increased. Paul Nation's (1990) *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary* appeared at the beginning of the decade and proved influential in its inclusive review of research on vocabulary while providing pedagogical guidance through interpreting the research in terms of classroom applications. John Sinclair's (1991) book, *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*, and subsequent concordance studies have revealed new understandings of how English works leading to new descriptions of the language. During this same time, Michael Lewis began describing an approach to language teaching, the Lexical Approach, which moved vocabulary to the forefront of language teaching in two books, *The Lexical Approach* (Lewis, 1993) and *Implementing the Lexical Approach* (Lewis, 1997).^[1] This book continues the development of this approach by focusing on a key element in the approach, collocations.

Collocations might be described as the words that are placed or found together in a predictable pattern. Examples range from two word combinations such as *problem child* to extended combinations such as *He's recovering from a major operation*. These language patterns comprise much of speech and writing. But there are many more collocations than words, since many words occur in several different collocations. Consequently, the task of achieving proficiency in a second language is even greater than was thought when vocabulary acquisition was thought of in terms of learning words. In addition, grammar rules are too general to provide guidance for acceptable word combinations. *Teaching Collocation* addresses these problems by providing rationales for focusing on collocations and providing applications that complement the rationales. This book provides teachers with a guide to how to use collocations plus clear explanations of the importance of doing so.

3. John Sinclair, Les Sinclair (Corpus Concordance Collocation. John Sinclair. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1991. xviii, 170pp)

John Sinclair charts the emergence of a new view of language and the computer technology associated with it. Developments in computational linguistics over the past ten years are outlined. There is discussion of corpus creation and exemplification of corpus use. The book goes on to spell out the implications of these developments for an understanding of collocation.

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Michael Lewis has compiled a fine collection of papers that enable us to better understand the Lexical Approach. The collection of articles written by teachers and researchers provides an accessible introduction for those new to the approach, and they provide guidance for those seeking to enhance their understanding and classroom implementation of the approach. The Lexical Approach puts vocabulary acquisition in a central role in language acquisition and this collection skillfully presents the arguments for this role and the practical applications that realize this more important role.