The Effect of Explicit Teaching of Collocations on Students’ Writing Achievement

The Case of Third Year Students at Hihi Lyamin Secondary School, Ain Lbida-Oum El bouaghi

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Language Sciences in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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Dedication

In the Name of Allah, the Most Merciful, the Most Compassionate

My work is dedicated:

To the memory of my Father, may Allah bless his soul
To my Mother

Her affection, love, encouragement, and prays of day and night make me able to get such success and honor. Throughout my life, you have been the person that I have always looked up to. And I would proudly say, I love you every day and now I will miss you every day.

To my brothers

Faycal, Nacer, Toufik, Slimen, Abd Razak, and Saddam for their love, support, and guidance through life
To my sisters

Karima, Nabila, Latifa, and Aida who gave me their entire love, who were always supportive and encouraged me to go on every adventure

To my brothers’ wives

Saliha, Safa, and Loubna for their love and support
To my adorable nephews and lovely niece Aness, Nazim, Kossay, AbdRahmen, and Rahma
To my friends who have supported me ...

to my lovely friends who have supported me and were always my source of happiness
to Fatima, Wahiba, Marwa, Zineb, and Houda...

We shared smiles, we wiped tears, and through the years our friendship has grown along us...

You are truly a wonderful gift in my life.
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I express my thanks to all my teachers at Larbi Ben M’hidi University without exceptions.

I appreciate the participation of all the teachers and the students in the experiment.
ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the role of explicit teaching of collocations in raising foreign language writing achievement. Students of English as a Foreign Language are facing a variety of problems that make their writing not proficient. One major problem is the lack of appropriate vocabulary which could be related to the ignorance of collocations. Thus, we hypothesize that a correlation may exist between explicit teaching of collocations and writing proficiency. To prove this hypothesis, an experimental study has been conducted. Two groups have constituted our sample: an experimental group and a control group. A pre-test has been administered to examine students' use of collocations through paragraph writing in form of a letter. The results of the pre-test have shown a limited knowledge of collocations. An experiment has been conducted to raise students' writing proficiency by developing their collocational competence mainly through an explicit teaching of collocations. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test has been administered by assessing students’ writing of the first examination paragraphs. The results of the post-test have confirmed our hypothesis that a strong linear correlation exists between writing proficiency and teaching collocations. Thus, we recommend the adaptation of a Communicative-Collocational Approach to teaching writing which entails teaching writing through a communicative approach by developing students' collocational competence.

**Key Terms:** Explicit teaching, collocation, writing proficiency, communicative-collocational approach, communicative approach, collocational competence.
List of Abbreviations

C-R: Consciousness-Raising

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

EI: Explicit Instruction

FL: Foreign Language

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Vs: versus
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General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Writing is a necessary skill that has to be developed since it is a manifestation of the learners’ performance in a foreign language. Being a complex skill, EFL students find it difficult to master. The mastery of this skill is very important intellectually speaking, for it enables the individual learner a mastery of the written discourse, therefore of communication, particularly when using adequate stylistic and linguistic aspects such as idioms, paraphrasing, collocations, etc. Importantly, collocations are combinations of words in a language that occur very often as prefabricated chunks. They, therefore, must be taught and given much importance since they constitute an essential category of lexis and an available stock of vocabulary use. Collocations would help learners not only understand lexis, but also provide them with a helpful device in writing. It could make them more precise and more natural and sound like native speakers. This study sheds some light on the issue of explicit teaching of collocation and its effect on the writing achievement of third year secondary school students of Hihi Lyamine Ain beida, Oum El Bouaghi.

2. Aim of the Study

The present study aims at investigating the effect of explicit teaching of collocations on the enhancement of EFL students’ writing achievement. It also aims at developing their collocational competence and consciousness-raising.

3. Research Questions and Hypothesis

3.1 Research Questions

This study addresses the following questions:

- Does explicit teaching of collocation affect learners’ writing production?
Do English learners make use of collocations when writing?

Do collocations lead to the enhancement of the students’ writing achievement?

3.2 Research Hypothesis

In order to investigate students’ use of collocations and its influence on their writing achievement, we hypothesize that:

Explicit teaching of collocations would lead to the improvement of EFL learners’ writing achievement.

Explicit teaching of collocations would not lead to the improvement of EFL learners’ writing achievement.

5. Methodology

5.1. Population and Sampling

The population of this study involves 161 third year secondary school students of Hihi lyamine Ain beida, who have been studying English for 7 years, which implies that they possess some knowledge about collocations, or may use them unconsciously. The sample of 60 students is selected randomly to participate in the experiment.

5.2. Management of Data Collection

This research has been conducted through the quasi-experimental method as an appropriate way of investigating our hypotheses stated above. On the basis of these givens, an experiment is conducted with third year students at the secondary school of Hihi lyamine, Ain beida. The participants have been divided into two groups, the experimental and control groups. The experiment has started with a pre-test administered to both groups in order to test their level. During the treatment period which lasted 4 sessions, the experimental group received explicit instruction about collocations, whereas the control group subjects were given writing exercises without collocations. Finally, to compare the results and to determine the
efficiency of explicit teaching of collocations, a post-test, identical to the pre-test, was administered to both groups equally.


This dissertation includes three chapters. The first chapter is devoted to the literature review, and is divided into two sections: The first section is devoted to writing skill and paragraph writing. It also deals with the difference between L1 and L2 writing and strategies for producing successful writing. In addition to approaches to teaching writing, EFL students’ difficulties are covered, ending up with the causes of writing problems and the assessment of the students’ writing. The second section tackles the definition of explicit instruction and the difference between explicit and implicit teaching, along with its role in FL classroom. The second chapter deals with the concept of collocation, explains its origin, the history of collocation use, definitions, categorizations and types in relation to previous research related to the actual investigation. It addresses collocations for EFL learners, in addition to techniques to raise students’ awareness of collocation and its importance with a precise reference to adequate previous research works, ending up with the relation between the aforementioned sections. On the other hand, the third chapter which is practical contains data collection tools, population and sampling. The interpretation of the data driven from both the pretest and the post-test to see whether the experiment has led to any changes in the performance of the experimental group in contrast to the control group, the analysis of the qualitative data, and the results of the analysis, are all covered here. Finally, the general conclusion tackles the pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.
Chapter One

Theoretical Background

Section One: Writing Skill

Introduction

This section tackles the writing skill, starting from its definition, moving to the difference between L1 and L2 writing, paragraph writing and its parts, in addition to strategies for producing successful writing. Importantly, this section includes approaches to teaching writing. Also, EFL students’ writing difficulties are considered. Finally, the section ends up with causes of writing problems and the assessment of the students’ writing skill.

1.1.1. Definition of Writing

Meille A (as cited in Coulmas F) mentioned that “The men who invented and perfected writing were great linguists and it was they who created linguistics”. Writing played a crucial role for several thousand years, and still important than ever. Consequently, today, more communication takes place in the written form than in the oral mode. Many definitions of writing have been proposed by many writers.

What is presumably the most frequently cited meaning of writing was given by Aristotle. The second part of his propositional logic, Peri Hermeneias, starts with some essential clarifications about things, concepts and signs. Before talking about nouns and verbs as parts of sentences that can be true or false, Aristotle talks about how these semantic elements identify with thoughts and to things of the material world. He clarifies:

Words spoken are symbols of affections or impressions of the soul; written words are symbols of words spoken. And just as letters are not the same for all men, sounds are not
the same either, although the affections directly expressed by these indications are the same for everyone, as are the things which these impressions are images. (1938).

The notion of writing is defined as a physical and a mental activity (Nunan, 2003, p.88). It is classified as a physical activity because the writer should be able to express the message utilizing the physical act of producing words. As a mental activity, Nunan (2003) explains that the act of writing focuses on the way of expressing these words in organized statements or paragraphs which make the message understandable for the reader. For Crystal’s definition of writing, “most obviously, writing is a way of communicating which uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface. It is one kind of graphic expression” (1995, p. 257). From the previous definition, we can describe writing as a mechanical activity, whereas Bell and Burnaby (as cited in Nunan, 1989, p 36) state that writing is a complex cognitive activity. In addition, Nunan (1989, p.36) stated that “writing is an extremely complex, cognitive activity for all which the writer is required to demonstrate control of a number of variables simultaneously”. So, writing may be considered as an integration of many skills and sub-skills regarding its complexity.

1.1.2. The Difference Between L1 and L2 Writing

In the earliest days of 1970’s, research on SL writing was strongly influenced by previous research on native language writing. Assumptions were made that the writing processes in both instances were similar if not identical. But it is imperative for teachers to understand that there are in fact many differences between the two, as Silva (1993) so clearly demonstrated in a comprehensive survey of L2 writing. Silva found that L2 writers did less planning, and that students were less fluent (used fewer words), less accurate, (made more errors), and less effective in stating goals and organizing materials. Differences in using appropriate
grammatical and rhetorical convention and lexical variety were also found among other
features.

1.1.3. Paragraph Writing

It is found in Kocaeli university (2014) that a paragraph is a group of sentences that
develop one topic or idea. It has three main parts. The first part is the topic sentence, which
states the topic or the subject of the paragraph. The second main part is the supporting
sentences. The supporting sentences develop the topic. This means that they explain the topic
sentence in detail. The last part is the concluding sentence. It summarizes the paragraph and/or
adds a final comment. A clear academic paragraph requires all of these parts.

1.1.4. Parts of the Paragraph

1.1.4.1. The Topic

A topic is the general statement of a paragraph. It is what gives the answer to the question
“What is the paragraph about?” For example, Biochemistry, Physiology and Anatomy are all
examples of the topic Medical subjects.

1.1.4.2. The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of a paragraph. It contains the main idea
which is developed in the rest of the paragraph. A topic sentence must be a complete sentence,
a statement of intent, opinion or a mixture of both. It should be neither too broad (Football is
very popular in the world) nor too narrow (Gold is very valuable). The topic tells us the
subject (what the paragraph is about) and the controlling idea makes a specific comment about
the topic (what the paragraph is going to say about the topic / the writer’s attitude or idea
about the topic). In other words, the controlling idea shows the reader what the rest of the
paragraph will say about the topic; it limits the topic to a specific area to be discussed in a
single paragraph.
A topic sentence has two main parts: topic and the controlling idea.

\[
\text{Topic Sentence} = \text{topic} + \text{controlling idea}
\]

1.1.4.3. Supporting Sentence

The supporting sentences in a paragraph explain or develop the topic sentence. The supporting part can be narratives, details, facts, examples, explanations or statistics. All of the supporting sentences relate to the main idea stated in the topic sentence and show why it is true.

1.1.4.4. The Concluding Sentence

The conclusion of a paragraph signals the end of the paragraph, summarizes the main points of the paragraph and relates them to the topic sentence. It gives a final comment on the topic and leaves the reader with the most important ideas to think about. It can make a suggestion or a prediction.

A concluding sentence is very helpful to the reader since it signals the end of the paragraph and reminds the reader of the important points. The concluding sentence often closes the paragraph by returning the main idea of it. They do this by repeating a keyword or phrase from the topic sentence.

1.1.5. Strategies for Producing Successful Writing

Writing effectively is a hard task for both native and non-native speakers, because it comprises many aspects such as content, organization, purpose, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling…etc. Even people who write for living sometimes struggle to get their thoughts on the page. Although writing is to be presented at elementary levels, learners are still attempting to write, especially for academic writing, which is most required in educational settings, with some aims of genuine communication of messages. Fairly, no magic formula will make
writing quick and easy; however, one can use strategies to manage writing assignments more easily. Some of the selected strategies from Steve and Dolores (2007) are as follows:

1.1.5.1. Using the Writing Process

To complete the writing project successfully good writers, use some variation of the following process:

Prewriting: in this step, the writer generates ideas to write about and begins developing these ideas.

Outlining a structure of ideas: in this step, the writer determines the overall organizational structure of the writing and creates an outline to organize ideas. Usually this step involves some additional fleshing out of the ideas generated in the first step.

Writing a rough draft: in this step, the writer uses the work completed in prewriting to develop a first draft. The draft covers the ideas the writer brainstormed and follows the organizational plan that was laid out in the first step.

Revising: in this step, the writer revisits the draft to review and, if necessary, reshape its content. This stage involves moderate and sometimes major changes: adding or deleting a paragraph, phrasing the main point differently, expanding on an important idea, reorganizing content, and so forth.

Editing: in this step, the writer reviews the draft to make additional changes. Editing involves making changes to improve style and adherence to standard writing conventions—for instance, replacing a vague word with a more precise one or fixing errors in grammar and spelling. Once this stage is complete, the work is a finished piece and ready to share with others.

1.1.5.2. Managing your Time
It is very important for students to have the freedom to manage their time; hence, it is an increasing responsibility upon them. Learners are required to plan sessions of writing time. Students will plan, think better, and write better if they space the steps. Ideally, students should set aside at least 3 separate blocks of time to work on a writing assignment: one for drafting, one for revising, and one for editing. Raimes (1983) thinks that time is a crucial element in the writing process an element that distinguishes writing from speaking. Time may also be a factor over organization and coherence. In addition, students feel that writing under pressure cannot lead them to produce compositions that are truly representative of their capabilities (karrol, 2003)

1.1.5.3. Setting Goals

One key to succeeding as a student and as a writer is setting both short-and long-term goals for oneself. Defining the career goals or the chosen major is a consequence of good grades in certain subject particularly writing. According to Zamel (1997), the writing class should take into account the learners’ purposes for writing. Writing tasks can develop rapidly when students’ concerns and interests are acknowledged.

1.1.5.4. Creative Writing

Joanna (2015) pointed that creative writing is the study of writing (including poetry, fiction, drama, and creative non-fiction) and its context through creative production and reflection on process. It is very important in improving ways of thinking and helpful for students to achieve goals never achieved before. In order to be familiarized with varied tools for thinking through writing, like journals, blogs, on-line discussion, dialogue journals, and others along with new types and genres.

1.1.6. Teaching Writing
Douglas (2000) stated that it is quite observable that teaching method used in the writing instruction has a great qualitative impact on the students’ written compositions. Students do not write very often and most of their writing is classroom-bound. The most important factor in writing exercise is that students need to be personally involved in order to make the learning experience of greater value; we need to shift from the teacher centered approach to the learner centered approach, encouraging students to participate in the exercise while at the same time referring to the instructor. With both the target area and the means of production, clear in the teachers’ mind, the teacher can begin to consider how to involve the students by considering the types of activities which are interesting to the students.

1.1.7. Approaches to Teaching Writing

Since the mid 1960’s, teachers shifted from the controlled composition and the sentence level to the discourse level; therefore, they put the focus on the paragraph and composition and their types of development. There are many suggested approaches to name but a few of them are:

1.1.7.1. The Controlled-to Free Approach

Nemouchi (2014) declared that in the 1960’s, when the audio-lingual method won, writing was instructed just to strengthen discourse. It was trusted that the authority of systematic standards could promote to that of the outside language, particularly in its talked frame. This conviction energized the instructing of sentence structure in the time dispensed to writing. It comprises basically giving the learners bit of composing, such as sentences or paragraphs and requires them to make some grammatical or lexical changes. This type of exercise makes the learners write frequently and give them the opportunity to produce their own personal correct writing because their writing is strictly controlled.
Crookes and Chaudron (as cited in Nemouchi, 2014) illustrated the main differences between controlled and free techniques in the practical stages of a lesson:

**Table 1**

The Difference between Controled and Free Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTROLLED</th>
<th>FREE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-centered</td>
<td>Student-centered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipulative</td>
<td>Communicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Open-ended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicted-student responses</td>
<td>Unpredicted responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-planned objectives</td>
<td>Negotiated objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set curriculum</td>
<td>Cooperative curriculum</td>
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1.1.7.2. The Free Writing

Free written work is of two sorts: when it is engaged, it answers an address or a theme proposed by the understudy himself. The instructor’s impedance is exceptionally constrained in light of the fact that he gives his guidelines at the start of the practice and permits the understudies to compose openly. He normally demands the flexibility to compose without agonizing over language structure or spelling as they are not of essential concern. Truth be told, when the educator peruses the understudies' structures, he remarks on the thoughts communicated in the organization without remedying the missteps (Raimes, 1983). The demonstration of free-written work permits the understudies to consider the content being composed without the weight of having an audience. While writing, the learner can choose
what thoughts are usable, what sentences require to be changed and which ought to be tossed out. Free-written work does not continuously create "interesting" or great material.

1.1.7.3. The Power Writing Approach

The birthplace of this approach steps back to 1989 when Sparkles (1989) of the University of Southern California distributed his book "Power Writing”. Customary Power Writing, as indicated by Sparks, depends on a numerical way to deal with the structure of writing. It eradicates and replaces the perplexing and vague conceptual phrasing with a numbered structure that students can easily remember. Students know how to arrange their contemplations before they participate in the process of writing. Organized written work is constantly gone before by organized considering. These ideas are educated with an accentuation on sorts of practices which are progressively unpredictable and which add to build up the students' abilities to extend unpredictability in their reasoning and writing.

Poulton (as cited in Nemouchi, 2014) sees that once the structure is aced, all writers can expound, change and make able written work. More grounded they will twist and revise the arrangement to permit their aptitudes and innovativeness to bloom. Weaker writers will form a well-thought out efficient bit of writing that incorporates sentence variety, raised word decision and voice. No longer will you have writers who have amount yet no quality, and those who have not one or the other amount nor quality. All writers will get to be distinctly capable in each sort of writing.

1.1.7.4. The Product-Oriented Approach

Extensively, a process oriented approach, as the title demonstrates, is worried with the last aftereffect of the written work prepare. It offers priority to classroom exercises which require from the learner to be occupied with emulating and changing model writings. In different words, the product approach has its cause in the conventions of rhetoric and centers its review
around model texts keeping in mind the end goal to make writers mindful of the content components. It comprises examining the students' written work with a specific end goal to recognize and measure their qualities and shortcomings. It is clear that when such an approach is received it prompts to precision. In reality, it endeavors to make the understudy acclimated with the traditions of writing through a model, before he gets his last draft. R.V. White (1988) points out that “such a model-based approach remains popular in EAP for one very good reason – much EAP writing is very product-oriented, since the conventions governing the organization and expression of ideas are very tight” (p. 6).

1.1.7.5. The Process Approach

Amid the mid-1980s, an imperative move from the product approach to deal with the process approach happened. This new pattern in the educating of writing comprises essentially focusing on writing as a procedure furthermore, de-stressing writing as a product. With the ascent of the process approach, the focal concentration is no longer on the completed content, yet on the steps that make up the demonstration of writing. Some of these means still can't seem to be recognized. The following diagram explains the process approach stages:
The above model shows the process of writing in which "reviewing on" is a focal step in which the learner revises his/her draft. In this way, the learner assesses the draft along with a specific end goal to produce more sentences that express better his/her thoughts. Structuring relies upon the reviewing of the draft according to the writers' aim. Besides, rectification is not accentuated from the beginning since it prohibits communication. It can be done at the last stage which is "revising" or 'reviewing'. Different from product approach where the instructor is the main corrector, feedback in the process approach is gotten from both the teacher and the learner. In this regard, the language skills rather than the linguistic features are developed.

1.1.7.6. The Genre Approach

Since the 1980s, the 'genre approach' to teaching writing occurred under various structures in various parts of the world. It has had diverse fundamental objectives and in addition concentrated on various instructing circumstances. In Britain and the United States, for instance, instructors have been generally worried about the utilization of the genre approach in ESL classes. The genre way to deal with teaching writing is mainly concerned, as the name shows, on teaching specific classifications that students require control of keeping in mind the end goal to prevail specifically circumstances. This may incorporate an accentuation on the substance of content and additionally the setting in which the content is produced. The crucial rule that underlies the genre based approach is that language is utilitarian; that is, it is through language that we accomplish certain objectives. Another essential part of this view is the one that considers language to be happening specifically social and social settings, and in this way, can't be comprehended outside its unique situation.

Specific classifications are used to satisfy social capacities in specific settings. Language, then, is not to be isolated from the social and social setting in which it shows up. The target of
receiving this sort of approach is to empower writers to utilize suitable registers which are imperative for them.

In the field of second language writing, ‘The Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning’ has characterized the genre approach as "a system for language guideline» (Byram, 2004). To clarify more, Swales (1990) referred to genre as “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes” i.e., there are some rules that are governed by nature by the writers’ purpose.

1.1.8. EFL Students Writing Difficulties

Douglas (2000), “How is writing like swimming?”. The psycholinguistic Eric Lennberg (1967) once noted, in a discussion of “species specific” human behavior, that human beings universally learn to walk and talk, but that swimming and writing are culturally specific learned behaviors. We learn to swim if there is body of water available and usually only if someone teaches us. We learn to write if we are members of a literate society and usually only if someone teaches us. Just as there are non-swimmers, poor swimmers and excellent swimmers, so it is for writers. Writers don't write all the time and a large portion of what they compose is classroom-bound. The most critical figure writing activities is that students should be included in the teaching-learning process keeping in mind the end goal to make the learning background of valuable production.

It is the teacher’s role to empower students’ cooperation in the work out, while in the meantime refining and extending writing abilities, requires a specific pragmatic approach. The instructor ought to be sure about what aptitudes he/she is attempting to create. Next, the instructor needs to settle on which means can encourage learning of the target situation. Once the objective ability zones and method for use are characterized, the instructor can then continue to concentrate on what subject can be used to guarantee students cooperation. By
pragmatically joining these goals, the instructor can expect both enthusiasm and effective learning. With both the objective territory and method for creation, clear in the teachers’ mind, the instructor can start to consider step by step instructions to include the students by considering the kind of exercises which are fascinating to the students: Are they planning for something particular.

1.1.8.1. Causes of Writing Problems

Writing is the most difficult skill to be mastered; here is a list of the most frequent causes for EFL learners’ problems found in Dana and Ayad (2013):

a. Al-Khsawneh (2010) indicated that the students identified that the teaching method and the environment are the main causes of their weaknesses in English. Their Weak qualification in English is either related to the lack of student motivation, or the teacher’s interest. Many learners use their mother tongue because of the isolated culture. Yet, methods of teaching English included the medium of instructions, using Arabic in English classes, writing done in Arabic, teachers’ low proficiency in English, and lack of writing practice in educational institutions.

b. English language learners have limited vocabulary. Therefore, students end up repeating the same words; this hinders creativity. Rabab’ah (2003), clarified that students couldn’t give voice to their thoughts because of the lack of the adequate stock of vocabulary.

c. English language learners don’t use invented spelling and their written texts are restricted to words which they know.

d. The present tense is the only tense used in their writing.

e. The students’ writing is difficult to understand because of the ill-structured sentences in composition.
f. Students are unwilling to share their work with other students and they don’t get the suitable feedback.

g. When the learners read their writing aloud, they couldn’t distinguish whether what they read or write is right or wrong.

1.1.9. Improving Students’ Writing Achievement

As indicated by Kroll (2003) two noteworthy parts that are basic for enhancing students' writing skills in any written work undertaken include: provision of feedback on students’ written assignments and assessment. Moreover, Omulando (2009) attests that teaching and learning assets upgrade teaching and learning process in English language classrooms.

1.1.8.1. Provision of the Feedback on Students’ Writing

Kroll (2003) calls attention to that feedback on ESL students' written assignments is an essential part of enhancing learner's capacity in any L2 writing course. In this way, the objective of feedback is to instruct skills that will push students to enhance their written work capability to the point where they perceive what is anticipated from them as learners. He additionally watches that learners ought to be urged to break down and assess feedback themselves with the end goal for it to be more successful. Essentially, Myles (2002) takes note of that feedback is of extreme significance to the writing procedure without which singular consideration and adequate feedback on errors and change won't occur. Furthermore, it is the teacher's duty to help students to create strategies for self-remedy and control.

1.1.8.2. Assessing Students’ Writing Skill

Assessment is a crucial part of the instructional process in determining student’s progress. It provides guidance for revision, feedback to both the students and teachers that they can use to improve teaching and learning of writing skills (Kroll, 2003). According to Isaacson (1996), assessment of students’ writing abilities is an integral part of effective
teaching and learning. He argues that a teacher cannot ensure students’ success and make necessary adjustments in instruction without engaging in frequent assessment. He further asserts that self-assessment helps students take ownership for their own writing and enables them internalize the skills they are learning. In addition, effective assessment of a student’s writing requires the teacher to have a conceptual model of written expression taking into account purpose, process and product.

**Conclusion**

Actually, nobody is born with a huge knowledge about how to write appropriately. Writing is a stage that comes after a long period of practice starting with the knowledge about alphabets, then words, after that the use of those words in meaningful sentences to produce correct wholes. Writing is a matter of the combination of different aspects such as vocabulary, grammar, ideas, and punctuation. In the next section, we will deal with explicit teaching in general since it is one of our interests.
Section Two: Explicit teaching

Introduction

Building a culture of learning inside today's classrooms requires teachers and students to mutually take part in instructing and discovering which is intentional, important and unmistakably characterized. In contemporary instructive media, explicit teaching has been highlighted as an approach to deal with proficiency instructional method that straightforwardly impacts proficiency learning. Understanding what explicit teaching is calls for teachers knowing how the social measurement of classroom life (through the setting of classroom connections) enters the teaching method of proficiency and develops the learning condition. The second section attempts to shed light on explicit teaching, and the reason behind choosing it, in addition to the different definitions provided by many researchers and scholars, and the difference between explicit and implicit teaching. The section ends up with the role of EI in FLA classroom.

1.2.1. Definition of Explicit Teaching/Instruction (EI)

It is stated in Kaarer, (2014) that is, for many researchers, scientists and grammarians, EI is an approach through which effective, meaningful, direct, structured, systematic, and conscious teaching can be reached. It is called explicit on the grounds that it incorporates unambiguous and guide way to deal with instructing. It is exceptionally vital to realize that explicit instructing includes directing students’ attention toward particular learning by separating the L2 into words and collocations, punctuation rules, phonemes, sound and stress designs, structures, ideas, or capacities, ... etc.

Another imperative reality is that ideas are separated into small parts and educated as a piece of the entire in a consistent order and coordinated by the teacher. Truth be told, EI includes clarification, demonstration and practice. Learners are given direction and organized
systems. The EI framework is adaptable and holds wide appropriateness for teachers according to a specific level (primary, middle and secondary), settings (whole group, small group, general education or special education), and specific contexts and situations.

Goeke (2008) clarifies EI in the table 2 below:

**Table 2**

*What is Explicit Instruction?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What Explicit Instruction is</th>
<th>What Explicit Instruction is not</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Instruction is skill based, but students are active participants in the learning process.</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not skill and drill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Instruction is holistic. For example, teachers can use Explicit Instruction to teach everything that is included in “literacy” (i.e., decoding, comprehension, spelling, and the writing process).</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not just used to teach isolated facts and procedures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Instruction integrates smaller learning units into meaningful wholes.</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction does not teach basic skills in isolation from meaningful contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Instruction is developmentally appropriate. Instruction is tailored specifically to students’ learning and intentional needs.</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not “one size fits all”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher constantly monitors understanding to make sure students are deriving meaning from instruction.</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not “one size fits all”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Instruction is used in diverse contexts and curricular areas</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not basic skills only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students like it because they are learning!</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not boring and alienating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students are cognitively engaged throughout the learning encounter. They have opportunities throughout the lesson to self-monitor and direct their own learning and participation.</td>
<td>Explicit Instruction is not all teacher directed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.2. Why Explicit Teaching

Shively (2010) proposed that the approach to be utilized relies upon the objective of the language teacher. At the point when the objective is recognized as creating conscious awareness of language patterns, Shively proposed that explicit instruction is the favored approach (p. 108). For instance, consider how youngsters learn communicative competence. Youngsters have typically been explicitly told the rules of pragmatics (Schmidt, 1993; Snow, Perlman, Gleason, and Houshyar, 1990; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

1.2.3. The Difference between Implicit and Explicit Teaching

Kasper & Rose, 2002 pointed that the difference between explicit and implicit instruction is that “explicit approaches involve direct explanation of target pragmatic features followed by practice, while implicit approaches withhold explanation but provide input and practice opportunities where learners can develop implicit understanding of pragmatic forms and their uses”.

As cited in Massoud & Asghar (2010), most of researches since the mid-1990s upheld that explicit formal instruction is valuable for SL advancement. (Dekeyser, 1995; Ellis, 1993; Robinson, 1996; Doughty & Williams, 1998). Late reviews on classroom second language learning have likewise had a tendency to demonstrate that centering student on form, primarily through instruction, is better than implicit learning (White, 1998). Schmidt (1993) contends if we need our students to accomplish fluency with the SL, then as per cognitive theory, we should empower them to participate in the act of utilizing that language, in the feeling of conveying something in that language.

As it is mentioned in Massoud and Asghar (2010). For Ruhi (2001) as it is cited in Massoud and Asghar (2010), argued formal instruction with in meaning-focused instruction, a distinction should be made between ESL and EFL classroom setting, on the one hand, and simple and complex, on the other. Implicit instruction in ESL setting might come up with promising results on simple rule, while some amount of indirect use and context-based presentation of grammar forms rather than overt. And teacher-led instruction is a matter of necessity in EFL classroom setting specially on complex rules. Explicit formal instruction in EFL classroom setting incorporated within meaning-focused instruction would force L2 learners to relinquish some of the cognitive effect placed on the learners, to notice the forms in focus in order to process them as intake.

![Diagram showing distinction between ESL and EFL instruction](image)

**Figure 2: Instructed second language acquisition**
By explicit instruction, we mean teaching where the instructor clearly outlines what the learning goals are for the student, and offers clear, unambiguous explanations of the skills and information structures they are presenting. Otherwise by implicit instruction, we refer to teaching where the instructor does not outline such goals or make such explanations overtly, but rather simply presents the information or problem to the student, and allows the student to make their own conclusions and create their own conceptual structures and assimilate the information in the way that makes the most sense to them.

Table 3: Implicit and explicit instruction (Housen & Pierrard, as cited in Ellis, 2009, p. 18).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implicit FFI</th>
<th>Explicit FFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attracts attention to target form.</td>
<td>Directs attention to target form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It delivered spontaneously (e.g. in an otherwise communication oriented).</td>
<td>It predetermined and planned (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning).</td>
<td>It obtrusive (interruption of communicative meaning).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presents target form in context.</td>
<td>Presents target forms in isolation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes no use of metalanguage.</td>
<td>Uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule explanation).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages free use of the target form.</td>
<td>Involves controlled practice of target form.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.4. The Role of Explicit Instruction in SLA Classroom

For a long time, scientists and L2 instructors have been investigating the part of formal and explicit information in SLA classrooms, similar to: Ellis (1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1995),
Long (1993). Their fundamental concentration has been the "contribution that explicit information provided in the process of language acquisition."

In addition to that the mainstream point of view in current cognitive psychology has stressed the role and necessity of awareness in learning the language. Skehan in support of the relationship between explicit instruction and a consciousness suggests “Learners benefit from some type of explicit instruction prior to the activity to help them activate their knowledge of TL structures and facilitate awareness of the forms they will encounter. (Skehan, 1996)”.

Ellis (1985) specifically puts stock in the significance of explicit instruction in SLA classrooms; he focuses that “to deny that instruction can help learners to acquire an L2 is not only counter-intuitive but contrary to the personal experience of countless teachers and students.” Regardless of the way that there are still a few specialists and teachers who don't accept that explicit instruction is basic to acquire an L2.

Many trials have researched the part of explicit instruction in SLA classroom. These reviews have demonstrated the power of explicit teaching; the accompanying is one among those reviews:

Ellis (1993) studied the impact of EI with rules and instances on acquiring English grammatical rules. He arbitrarily allowed 51 Welsh students to three groups: A Rule group, a Rule and Instances group, and a Random group. Language forms and rules were displayed explicitly to this group yet with no exemplification. The Rule and Instances group received explicit presentation of grammatical rules with cases of these rules exhibited inside sentences; The Random gathering; did not get anything, neither explicit grammar rules nor examples. All groups were made a request to make a translation of statements from Welsh to English. Consequently, the aftereffects of grammaticality judgment test demonstrated that EI can
encourage the acquisition of English grammar rules, and it works better when it is joined with instances of the target forms.
Chapter Two
Collocations

Introduction
EFL learners may face the problem of word associations, In order to overcome it, students need to be aware about collocations and its correct usage in order to achieve fluency and proficiency in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) generally and Foreign Language writing particularly.

This chapter is devoted to collocations, its definition and its different types are provided. With some characteristics of collocation along with differentiating it from other combinations. In addition to approaches to the study of collocation, and its importance in FL classroom, and explicit teaching of collocations with some selected activities for teaching it. Also, the concept of miss-collocations and its sources are included. Closing with the concept of collocational competence and a brief conclusion.

2.1.1 Definition of Collocation

The term collocation originates from the Latin word “collocare” which intends to set in order, or to arrange (Martynska, 2004). The concept of collocation is defined as the co-occurrence of lexical items, although definitions differ in various points of interest. The most well-known definition has been created by Firth (1957), the originator of the London School of linguistics and delegate of British contextualism. In his comprehension of the term collocation, Firth concentrates on the significance of "knowing a word by the company it keeps" (p. 183). Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified collocations from the part of discourse, they deviate in their definition by describing collocations as "semantically related lexical items" which are all the more regularly translated in regard to the semantic field relations, for example, "medicine – doctor- nurse" co-occurring within the same context.
Collocations are arbitrary in nature and they occur by chance and its components cooccur naturally. Based on what Baker says that “a collocation is a systematically arbitrary restriction which does not follow logically from the prepositional of a word” (Baker, 1992, p.47). It is also stated that:

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 made an estimate, (but not make estimation), commit treason (but not commit treachery). In English one says commit fraud and perpetrates fraud. However, only the collocation commit suicide is possible; one does not say perpetrate suicide. One says bake a cake, but make pancakes (not bake pancakes)

Benson and Ilson (1986a) p.258.

2.1.2. Types of Collocations

There are many types of collocations according to linguists. We have a model for collocations presented by Benson and Ilson (1986a) where collocations are divided into two main types, lexical and grammatical.

2.1.2.1. Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocations consist of adjectives, verbs and adverbs, for example acquire knowledge, arouse someone’s interest, and relieve pressure. They are patterns that help structure a sentence but do not carry so much specific meaning by themselves. There are seven types of lexical collocations which are presented in table (1) below:

Table 4: Lexical Collocations (Adopted from Benson et al., 1986a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Structures</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>Verb (donating creation or activation)</td>
<td>Compose music; make an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Verb (meaning eradication for nullification) + Noun</td>
<td>Revoke a license; Demolish a house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>Adjective + Noun</td>
<td>Strong tea; A rough estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>Noun + Verb</td>
<td>Bees buzz; Bombs explode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>Noun 1 of Noun 2</td>
<td>A pack of dogs; a herd of buffalo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>Adjective + adverb</td>
<td>Sound asleep; Hopelessly addicted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>Verb + adverb</td>
<td>Anchor firmly; Argue heatedly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hill (2000) states that collocations can consist of two or more words at the lexical category and are listed as follow:

1. **Adj + noun**: a huge profit.
2. **Noun + noun**: a pocket calculator.
3. **Verb + adj + noun**: learn a foreign language.
4. **Verb + adj**: live dangerously.
5. **Adv + verb**: half understand.
6. **Adv + adj**: completely soaked.
7. **Verb + preposition + noun**: speak through an interpreter.
2.1.2.2 Grammatical Collocations

Grammatical collocations are expressions containing a focal word, for example, noun, an adjective or an adverb and a preposition or a grammatical structure like an infinitive or condition. Benson et al. (1986a) stated that, grammatical collocations are eight types as displayed in table (2) below:

*Table 5: Grammatical Collocations (Adopted from Benson et al., 1986a).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>Noun + Prep</td>
<td>Apathy toward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>Noun + To Inf</td>
<td>He was a full to do it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>Noun + that clause</td>
<td>He took oath that he would do hisduty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>Prep + Noun</td>
<td>In advance; at ancho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>Adj + Prep</td>
<td>They are afraid of him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G6</td>
<td>Predicate adj + to Inf</td>
<td>It was a stupid for them to go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G7</td>
<td>Adj + that clause</td>
<td>She was afraid that she would fail the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G8</td>
<td>Svo o (or) Svo</td>
<td>He sent a book to his mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>He sent his mother a book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Svo for o (or) Svo</td>
<td>She bought a shirt for her husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>She bought her husband a shirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sv prep. O (or)</td>
<td>He came by train</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vso prep. o</td>
<td>We invited them to the meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sv to Inf.</td>
<td>They began to speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sv Inf</td>
<td>He had better go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Svv-ing</td>
<td>They enjoy watching television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Example</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svo to Inf.</td>
<td>She asks me to come</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svo Inf.</td>
<td>She heard them leave</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svov- ing</td>
<td>I caught them stealing apples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sv possessive v- ing</td>
<td>Please excuse me waking you so early</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sv (o) that - clause</td>
<td>They admitted that they were wrong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svo to be c</td>
<td>We consider her ten pounds</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svoc</td>
<td>She dyed her hair red</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svoo</td>
<td>We bet her ten pounds</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sv (o) a</td>
<td>He carried himself well</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sv (o) wh- word</td>
<td>He wants what I want</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S (it) vo to Inf. (or)</td>
<td>It surprised me to learn of her decision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S (it) vo that-clause</td>
<td>It surprised me that our offer was rejected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svc (adj or noun)</td>
<td>She was enthusiastic (a good girl)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it has been observed above, plainly in the primary table the ruling part is "prepositions" which specifies grammatical words while in the second table, there are no preposition words; only lexical words are incorporated. Along these lines, the preposition word makes a collocation grammatical.

### 2.1.3. Categorizations of Collocations

Collocations as an important issue needs to be investigated from different perspectives, and it is differently categorized by many scholars: these are some of the known categorizations.
2.1.3.1. Technical Vs Academic Collocations

Here, collocations types are drawn from the dimension of General/Specific English. Technical collocations are unique in relation to lexical and grammatical collocations in that the former are utilized as a special field within a special register. i.e. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) to help the learners obtain a particular language use and usage, whereas the latter are academic/General and could be utilized as a part of both General English and ESP. In addition, Technical collocations are "powerful indicators of register" (Partington. A, 1998). They are "pre-cooked expressions" which are required in numerous kinds of writing. Every kind has its special collocations, so, what is a typical collocation inside a particular type couldn't be considered so in another context.

Sinclair (as cited in Partington, 1998) puts examples about this case with the collocations "vigorous depressions" and "dull highlights" that are ordinary just in the register of meteorology and photography specifically. In this specific situation, Fuentes, Alejandro Curado (2001) declared that "The level of technicality in word behavior is closely related to the subject domain. The salient condition is that elements function uniquely in their corresponding field, describing the restricted setting" He shows his view with specific combinations of the noun network, for example, U-arrange, access network, local area network. Likewise, technical collocations help in expanding the learner' potential to command special languages. In any case, Fuentes (2001) comments that free collocations that show up in various registers are considered as "semi-technical” word combinations. He gives the case of information: system, information technology, digital information, and information about. According to Farell (as cited in Fuentes, 2001), semi-technical collocations are “formal, context independent words with a high frequency and/or wide range of occurrence across
scientific disciplines, not usually found in basic general English courses; words with high frequency across scientific disciplines.”

Henceforth, we can state that technical collocations are register-dependent while semi-technical ones are identified with scientific domains yet they might be found in academic language. Accordingly, all types are important in learning ESP, but academic collocations are helpful in General English particularly "common core collocations" which are collocations used as often as possible and henceforth normal.

2.1.3.2. Strong Vs Weak Collocations

Classifying collocations according to strength refers to the degree of words’ association. Some words co-occur so often that when a word appears, its collocate follows it most of the time. Here, it is qualified as a “strong collocation”. But when two words collocate rarely, the strength reduces and the collocation is not strong enough for the collocate to be predicted since the words are not always together.

Hill, Jimmie (as cited in Michael Lewis, 2000) classifies collocations according to strength into four categories: unique, strong, weak and Medium-strength collocations.

a-Unique collocations: As examples, Hill gives the two collocations “foot the bill” and “shrug your shoulders”. The two collocations are unique because the verbs “foot” and “shrug” are not used with any other nouns.

b-Strong collocations like “trenchant criticism” and “rancid butter”. These are not unique because there are other things that can be trenchant or rancid, but these collocations are very few.

c-Weak collocations: to illustrate, adjectives like long, short, cheap, expensive, good or bad could be combined with many things (nouns) for instance red car. These combinations are “more predictable” and easy to the majority of students.
**d-Medium-strength collocations;** for example, “holds a conversation” and “a major operation”. Hill thinks that students are concerned with this type which is neither strong nor weak.

### 2.1.3.3. Open Vs Restricted Collocations

Cowie and Howarth (1996) distinguish two types of collocations: ‘open’ and ‘restricted’. According to them, a collocation is restricted if its parts ‘keep their literal meaning’, for instance “vested interest”, whereas a collocation is considered as open when one or both parts has/have a ‘figurative meaning’ such as “white man” referring to “skin color”. Most lexical items are included in this type, for instance, white, short, long, red…, etc. In between the two extremes, there are “semi-restricted” collocations. Here, a specific word has a limited number of collocations.

Cowie and Howarth (1996) further claim that restricted collocations are “idiosyncratic and arbitrary” in contrast to “perfectly open collocations…formed by general principles of co-occurrence”. As a general comment, we can consider “open collocations” as “weak collocations” in Hill’s terms. But it is difficult to consider “restricted collocations” as weak or strong because this is related to the meaning rather than the frequency of co-occurrence. Additionally, we concur with Cowie and Howarth that collocations could be “arbitrary” paying little respect to their types. For what makes a word like "quick" assembles with "food" on the off chance that we can state fast or brisk nourishment. Indeed, it is just what we should state in order to make our discourse regular.

### 2.1.4. Characteristic of Collocations

Collocation is characterized by three main criteria as follow, Bowles.H (2007).

**Non-compositional:** that is, we cannot understand its meaning even if we understand the meaning of the individual words. A good example of non-compositionality is an idiom for
instance, ‘to have an itching palm’ meaning ‘to be greedy for money’ (Kirkpatrick, and Schwarz, 1993).

**Non-substitutional:** means that we cannot substitute the words that constitute a collocation for their synonym. For example, in the collocation: close the meeting, it’s wrong to say shut the meeting because “shut” and “meeting” do not go together, whereas one could say shut the door.

**Non-modifiable:** that is to say, it is impossible to modify them by adding extra words.

### 2.1.5. Collocations and other Word Combinations

In the BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, Benson et al., (1986a) classified lexical combinations into five groups according to their degree of cohesiveness, as shown in the following Table:

**Table 6: Types of Lexical Combinations. Benson et al., (1986b)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compounds</td>
<td>Completely frozen; no variations at all are possible.</td>
<td>1. aptitude test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. floppy disk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idioms</td>
<td>Relatively frozen expressions whose meanings do not reflect the meanings of their component parts.</td>
<td>1. to have one's back to the wall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. hammer and tongs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitional</td>
<td>More frozen and less variable than collocations; their meanings are close to those suggested by their component parts.</td>
<td>1. foot the bill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. to be in the tight spot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combinations</td>
<td>The meaning of the whole does reflect</td>
<td>1. pure chance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We can connect words from various perspectives to shape important groups if those words are not restricted. It is important to recognize collocations, idioms and other kinds of word combinations keeping in mind the end goal to accomplish a clearer comprehension of collocations (Bahns, 1993).

These combinations are quite similar to one another. Wood (1981) gives a clear distinction between an idiom and free combination saying that “an idiom is fully non-compositional and non-productive, while a free combination is fully compositional and productive” (p, 27).

Besides, phrasal verbs are phrases in which verbs are joined to articles, for instance "give up" where meaning is rarely guessed from the individual words.

So, collocations are often idiomatic. Jimmie Hill said “…in a sense, all collocations are idiomatic and all phrasal verbs and idioms are collocations or contain collocations” (cited in Lewis Michael. 2000). Since the learners are usually acquainted with phrasal verbs and idioms rather than other types of collocations, it is better to direct their attention to types mentioned by Michael Lewis and Mc Carthyand O'Dell.
2.1.6. Approaches to the Study of Collocations

Since the 1960's there have been three primary ways to deal with the investigation of collocations, concentrating on aspects of the phenomenon of collocation. In this review, these approaches are labeled the lexical composition approach, the semantic approach, and the structural approach.

2.1.6.1. The Lexical Composition Approach

It regards lexical analysis as independent from grammar and considers lexis an autonomous entity, choosing its own collocates which can be enumerated and classified in lexical sets.

2.1.6.2. The Semantic Approach

It tries to find semantic features based on the meaning of lexical units that would enable the prediction of their collocates. The structural approach tries to establish patterns of collocations that include grammatical and lexical words alike.

The semantic and the lexical composition approaches are restricted to the study of a small number of collocations (usually 'verb noun' and 'adjective noun' collocations); they exclude grammatical words from their scope, and eventually they achieved only limited results.

2.1.6.3. The Structural Approach

It examines more patterns of collocations, includes grammatical words in the study of collocations, and provides a framework for the study of collocations that is feasible and systematic.

2.1.7. The Importance of Collocations in Language Teaching

Lewis (2000) presumes that language knowledge is collocational knowledge; therefore, teaching collocations should be a top priority in every language course. Consequently, if EFL learners have a package of collocations, they will be able to talk about any subject fluently and
communicate effectively. Additionally, it is important to know which nouns are used with which verbs, which adjectives are used with which nouns improves one’s linguistic competence (Saricas, 2006).

Moreover, teaching collocations has long been neglected as an influential way to increase foreign language learners’ fluency. However, it is expected by Lewis, M that collocations will become the centre of teaching: “Collocation will become so central to everyday teaching that we will wonder whatever took up so much of our time before” (2000). If this can be realized, learners’ written productions would meet the qualities that could make them native-like. Teaching collocations as claimed by Cowie, and Howarth, (as cited in Blue, George and Mitchell, 1996) is the step towards fluent writing: “Another feature of mature writing is the linking of collocations into larger sequences, which can produce a highly-admired effect of fluency and confidence.” They farther comment that familiarization with collocations is the result of a gradually growing perception of their Idiosyncratic properties and specifically of the arbitrariness with which their components select each other. As collocations would influence students’ learning of any language, the aims of teaching collocations can be summarized in the following sequence written by Daniela Forquera (2006):

- To maximize the value of language.
- To identify the powerful partnerships in a text.
- To expand their mental lexicons.
- To make better use of language they already partly know.
- To process and produce language at a much faster rate.
- To improve their stress and intonation in larger phrases (pronunciation).

As a general comment, we observe from the purposes mentioned above that teaching collocations is beneficial for language learning as a whole not only for the writing skill.
2.1.8. Explicit Teaching of Collocations

Many researchers among them Benson (1985a) confirmed that L2 learners often have particular problems with word combinations, even at a relatively advanced level. Most advanced students would, for example, have no difficulty producing the word “diary” when the meaning they wished to express required it. They would, however, have considerable difficulty in trying to figure out whether they should say “maintain a diary”, conduct a diary, or even—could it be? Keep a diary.

The individuals who question the value of teaching collocations may contend that collocations require not be explicitly taught as learners will basically acquire them alongside the significant vocabulary (Mackin, 1978). Another issue begins from the way that collocations are not taught explicitly. Most students know a considerable amount of words; however, they cannot use them productively on the grounds that they do not recognize what words are found in the nearness of what words in discourse, or differently in light of the fact that their teachers don't concentrate their attention on collocations in the EFL classrooms. As indicated by the developing significance and importance credited to collocations in researches, a few calls to teach vocabulary/foreign language with focus on collocations have been made. Numerous researchers have suggested teaching collocations explicitly as a path forward in foreign language teaching (see among others Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, Strengers, & Demecheleer, 2006; Lewis, 1993, 1997, 2000; Martynska, 2004; Nattinger & DeCaricco, 1992).

Tending to EFL/ESL learners particularly, language specialists’ band teachers underlined that collocations are essential perspectives to learners and should have a predominant place than their position, as their power of this data can engage local like comprehension and
fluency. Furthermore, they propose that collocations be taught from the earliest starting point rather that put off to a later stage, where a lexical error may be noticeably fossilized.

2.1.9. Techniques and Activities for Teaching Collocations

Many linguists work hard to find out the different techniques and activities for teaching collocations.

2.1.9.1. Teaching Collocations through Consciousness-raising

In Krashen's ‘Monitor Model’ consciousness is combined with “learning” and unconsciousness with “acquisition” (Krashen, 1981) consciousness raising (C.R) is based mainly on providing the learner with an opportunity for sufficient exposure to a specific feature of the language. This fact is claimed by Ellis who says ‘Consciousness-raising refers to a deliberate attempt on the part of the teacher to make the learners' aware of specific features of the L2” (Ellis, 1993, p.108-09)

2.1.9.2. Teaching Collocations through Context:

It is remarked by Hoey (as cited in Lewis, 2000) that “learning items in context may be easier than learning them out of context”. Here, the teacher would coordinate the learners' attention towards the importance of word combinations in context, since it is not a simple task to figure out the meaning.

2.1.9.3. Teaching Collocations through Exercises

The teacher could introduce a variety of exercises in the classroom to develop students' collocational knowledge as it is clarified by Lewis, (2000) in the following quotation:

Although writing exercises can be very frustrating, it is one of the best ways you can yourself develop a cleaner understanding of collocation and in turn help your learners to notice, record and learn language from the texts they read in a way which builds their mental lexicons efficiently and systematically. Lewis, (2000)
2.1.10. Miss-collocation in EFL Writing

The way that students confront issues concerning word groupings is expected for the most part to their ignorance of collocations. This issue that Michael Lewis calls "miss-collocations" or wrong combination of words. In the end, foreign learners' written work has turned out to be not proficient and complicated by the issue of interference from Arabic as the mother tongue and French as the second language particularly on the grounds that there are such a large number of words that are spelled likewise in French and English, yet more often they don't have a similar meaning.

The learners tend to translate L1 collocations into the L2; and in this manner, their written work sounds unnatural. To have a solution to that issue, we need to make our learners aware of the English collocations by teaching them as much collocations as possible so that they realize the difference between the collocations of each language. Consequently, their writing in English would be more natural and accurate if they use collocations.

The majority of learners do not know even what collocations are. To overcome this problem, the teacher should attract his/her learners’ attention towards collocations because teaching grammar and individual words is not sufficient. Once the learners notice which words co-occur together, they start to guess the meaning of each word according to its ‘company’ so that they could use it when they are asked to write. Most of the learners don't know even what collocations are. To defeat this issue, the teacher ought to pull in his/her learners' attention towards collocations since teaching grammar and individual words is not adequate. Once the learners notice which words co-occur together, they begin to figure the meaning of each word as indicated by its "company" with the goal that they could use it when they are writing. Subsequently, learners discover troubles in recognizing collocations when they read a content.
Along these lines, they couldn't know which words go together from free reading. Thus, reading couldn't solve the issue unless it is coordinated by the teacher.

### 2.1.11. Sources of Collocational Errors

According to different studies the main sources of collocational errors are as follows:

1. **Overgeneralization:** Learners used overgeneralization when the item did not carry any obvious contrast to them. In other words, Overgeneralization is the creation of a deviant structure in place of two regular structures on the basis of students' experience of the target language. For example, the students would use the collocation “I am worry” about instead of “I am worried about”.

2. **Ignorance of rule restrictions:** Errors of ignorance of rule restrictions were the result of analogy and failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures (Richards, 1973). For instance, “ask you a favor” is a false analogy of the construction of verb+ object+ object.

3. **False concepts hypothesized:** False concepts hypothesized errors result from learners' faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. Such as “do something breakthrough” instead of “achieve a breakthrough”, “made me grown up mind” instead of cultivate my mind, “take more respect” instead of “pay more respect”, and “have a great grade” instead of “get a great grade”.

4. **The use of synonym:** The use of a synonym for a lexical item in a collocation is seen as a "straightforward application of the open choice principle" (Farghal & Obiedat, 1995). Students might use “broaden your eyesight” instead of “broaden your vision”.

5. **Interlingual transfer:** learners' first language influenced their production on collocations and was the common source of errors. For instance, “listen some classical music”, “compliment my pictures”, and “arrive school” are understandable in Chinese.
(6) **Word coinage:** Word coinage means that students make up a new word to communicate the desired concept. The examples were “see sun-up” instead of “see the sunrise”.

(7) **Approximation:** Approximation means that learners use an incorrect vocabulary item or structure, which "shares enough semantic features in common with the desire item to satisfy the speaker" Tarone (as cited in Liu, 1999b, p. 491). For instance, the word middle in “middle exam” was used to mean “mid-term” in “midterm exam”.

2.1.12. Collocational Competence

Collocational competence is “the ability to accurately combine chunks of language thus enabling production of fluent, accurate and stylistically appropriate speech.” (Heikkila, 2005). Collocational competence is very helpful for students while solving their problems concerning writing. One of these problems is grammatical mistakes as “students tend to create longer utterances because they do not know collocations which express precisely what they want to say” (Hill, as cited in Michael Lewis, 2000).

As a result, to overcome the problem of word associations, collocational competence needs to be developed in order to achieve fluency and proficiency in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) generally and Foreign Language writing particularly.

**Conclusion**

This chapter has tackled one of the main points of this study which is English collocations. Error Analysis has become one of the most important fields in SLA. Collocations play a crucial role in language learning process of every learner. In this respect, teachers should make their students aware of collocations and knowledgeable to increase accuracy as well as fluency in order to prevent students from making collocation errors and to know the nature and the source of these errors. Accumulating word combinations in such a collocations profile in the learners’ mind would help them develop their collocational competence and
avoid translating word combinations from the mother tongue to the foreign language. Consequently, they would be able to communicate effectively in their speeches and in writings.
Chapter Three: Fieldwork

Introduction

Investigating the effect of explicit teaching of collocation on students’ writing achievement is our interest. In order to examine the research hypothesis and to answer the stated questions, this chapter presents an experimental study which has been conducted at Hihi Lyamin Ain Beida secondary school, Oum El Bouaghi. This chapter consists of a detailed description of the experiment: it describes the choice of the method used, the population and sampling, research design, and procedures, along with a description of the analysis and an interpretation of the findings, and ending up with some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further researches.

3.1 Choice of the Method

Choosing the appropriate research method and the tools should not be done randomly, however, the nature of the research itself and the aim set out to be reached are some of the factors that necessitate the choice of a particular research method. Thus, the most suitable tool in our investigation is a quasi-experimental approach. The groups of students we have worked on were pre-determined by the administration of the secondary school; we therefore eliminate any possible researcher’s bias in the selection of the groups. We have then randomly chosen two groups among the whole population of third year students.

3.2 Population and Sampling

In this study, the targeted population is 161 third year students of Hihi Lyamin secondary school in the academic year 2016-2017. We have chosen this level because it is accessible to participate in the experiment, and they are supposed to have a minimum knowledge about collocations in English. Besides, they tend to be more serious since they have a baccalaureate exam at the end of the year. The study has involved a sample of 45 male and female
participants of two groups who are already divided by the administration of the secondary school. The sample has been randomly chosen.

Table 7: The Two Groups Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Research Design

The aim behind using an experimental design is to examine the relationship between the research variables: explicit teaching of collocations, and writing achievement. As it is assigned in the syllabus, all third-year students are taught written expression regularly. The two selected groups have been allocated randomly one to the experimental group and the other to the control group, both of them received the same courses of written expression. However, the experimental group has been taught collocations explicitly through different activities. In addition to testing the hypothesis given, this study attempts to answer the research questions which are as follows:

- Does explicit teaching of collocation affect learners’ writing production?
- Do English learners make use of collocations when writing?
- Do collocations lead to the enhancement of the students’ writing achievement?

Accordingly, we hypothesized that:
Explicit teaching of collocations would lead to the improvement of EFL learners’ writing achievement.

**Figure 3: Research Design.**

3.4 The Procedure

3.4.1 The Pre-test

First of all, both the experimental and the control groups received the pre-test which takes the form of a writing session where the students were given the instruction to write a paragraph in the form of a letter talking about a problem they have. Students were not restricted to a specific problem to write about, so that they feel responsible and independent at the same time. This test aims at determining their level, especially their awareness about the importance of using collocations and in their writing assignments.

3.4.2 The Treatment Period

Experimental Group Instruction

After conducting the pre-test, the experimental group received the treatment in four (4) sessions, one hour for each. The experiment includes a series of lessons gathered from various sources in regard to the content of the syllabus given by the administration of Hihi Lyamin
secondary school (see appendices). The training period started with an introductory session followed by the courses, ending with a concluding session.

a-The First Session: The Paragraph

This course is entitled “the paragraph”. Students already know the paragraph, but it is necessary to start from it in order to build up other concepts. The course aim is to remind the students what is meant by a paragraph, its different parts, and its form. In addition to exemplification with a sample of a paragraph with explanation of its parts and its form: the paragraph is extracted from the book “New Prospects”. The choice is purposeful that it contains some sorts of collocations in order to turn to it back when needed. First, students have read the paragraph silently to try to extract its general meaning though a discussion which was followed by the analysis of the structure (indentation, capitalization, etc.) and the different parts of the paragraph (topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence, etc.).

b- The Second Session: Collocations

The second course was built up upon the first one. We have presented the course of collocations in order to reach the objective to raise students’ awareness about the importance of collocations through making students familiar with their benefits. The collocation “well-designed” is picked up from the previous adapted paragraph “Anti-Corruption Education”, students were asked to guess the meaning of the mentioned collocation, then, its explanation is provided, then students checked it in “Oxford” dictionary. In order to facilitate the issue for them the well-known collocation “Ice cream” is given as an example of collocations, to familiarize students with the term collocations. Then students were asked to illustrate with other examples. After, we extracted the remaining collocations from the paragraph we had, with an immediate explanation of each collocation. Finally, students were required to write them in their note books.
c-The Third Session: Types of Collocations

This session is continuity to the previous session. First of all, we have introduced the seven types of collocations with examples of each, and then students were asked to give examples of each. After the course is finished, a matching exercise is given to students to complete, with respect to their level; this task is selected from “English Collocation in Use”, and we corrected it collectively. After making sure that students have grasped what collocations are with their types, a list of common collocations extracted from “Oxford Collocation Dictionary” is given to them.

d-The Fourth Session: Miss-collocation

This session aims at shedding some light on the notion of miss-collocation. First of all after students are supposed to have knowledge about how paragraph is written with a hint to the letter, and what are collocations, its types, and its benefits especially in writing. Second, they are asked to write a paragraph about their point of views about studying abroad, the topic is selected to make them feel free to express themselves, of course using collocations in their writings. Then, their paragraphs were corrected on the spot while reading them aloud, to signal any to miss-collocation. At the end of the session, a summary of what have been seen during the whole treatment period is done orally.

Control Group Instruction

Unlike the experimental group, the control group did not receive any teaching of collocations, rather, the control group students were taught in the ordinary way with the same order of courses as set in the syllabus without a hint to collocations. As for the experimental group, the control group received the lesson of paragraph writing, its parts, and structure. Then an application is done by extracting the different parts of the selected paragraph, after understanding its meaning. After the lesson is done, students were required to write a
paragraph giving their points of view about the issue of studying abroad. Then the correction is done on the spot while each one of them read his/her paragraph aloud.

3.4.3 The Post-test

The post-test was delivered after four (4) sessions of the treatment to both experimental and control groups; it was identical to the pre-test, but this time, the learners not only possess sufficient knowledge about collocations, but also are supposed to be aware of their importance in writing. The test serves to answer the following question: Has explicit teaching of collocations affected the learners’ writing production? And ultimately, to confirm the hypothesis that explicit teaching of collocations leads to the enhancement of students’ writing achievement.

3.5 Statistical Instrument

In order to analyze the data gathered from assessing students’ writing assignments the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is used, to give a statistical significant explanation to the results based on learners’ written drafts, which constitute of paragraphs in form of letters that may contain collocations.

3.6 Results

In this section, we are going to present and analyze all the data obtained from both groups in the pre-test and post-test through statistical procedures. Both experimental and control groups were pre-tested and post-tested. Students written drafts are corrected, the full mark was 5/5. The assessment was based on the paragraph itself, and the frequency of collocations used.

3.6.1 The Pre-test

The participants in both the experimental and the control group were asked to write a letter, in order to assess their proficiency in writing in consideration to collocations use.

3.6.1.1 The Experimental Group Results
a- The Collocation Results

With the help of SPSS, the participants’ collocational use scores are calculated. The results are summarized in the table 8 below.

*Table 8: Experimental Group Results on the Pre-test*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>0.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean score of the experimental group for collocations before the treatment was M=0.71 (SD=0.624). The minimum score was 0 and the maximum one was 2 with a range of 2.

b. The Paragraph Writing Results

With the help of SPSS, the participants’ paragraph writing achievement are calculated then transformed into standard scores by comparing them to the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the whole sample. Then, the descriptive statistics of the participants’ paragraph achievement are calculated. The results are summarized in the tables (9), (10) and (11).

*Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of the Participants’ Paragraph Scores on the Experimental Group Pre-Test*
Statistiques

Experimental group scores in the pre-test

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1,65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>0,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. The Pearson Correlation Test

Figure 4: Scatter Plot of the Correlation between Experimental Group’s Scores in the Paragraph Writing and Collocation Use in the Pre-test

The dots created a virtual straight line with a direction from the upper left to the lower right. We consider this to be a negative correlation. Negative relationship means that high
FLSA scores are associated with low EI scores, and vice versa. This is also clear in the Bars Graph below:

![Bar Graph]

**Figure 5: The Correlation between Collocation Use and Paragraph Writing Achievement of the Experimental Group Scores in the Pre-test**

**Table 10: The Correlation between Collocation Use and Paragraph Writing Achievement of the Experimental Group Scores in the Pre-test**
### Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>experimental group scores in the pre-test</th>
<th>Experimental group scores of collocations in the pre-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation de Pearson</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2 tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. The correlation is significant at the level 0.01 (2 tailed).

**Positive relationship:** The closer $r$ is to +1, the stronger the positive linear correlation between the two variables is. This means that as the values of the first variable increase, values of the second variable also increase, and vice versa. An $r$ value of exactly +1 indicates a perfect positive fit.

**Negative relationship:** The closer $r$ is to -1, the stronger the negative linear correlation between the two variables is. This means that as the values of the first variable increase, values of the second variables decrease, and vice versa. An $r$ value of exactly -1 indicates a perfect negative fit.
**No relationship:** The closer $r$ is to 0, the weaker the linear correlation between the two variables is. If $r$ is near to zero, this means that there is a random and a nonlinear relationship between the two variables.

In addition, if $P \leq 0.05$ the test is significant. This indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between the two research variables.

If $P \geq 0.05$ the test is not significant and therefore, there is no significant relationship between the two research variables.

From table 9 we have:

$r = 1.000 > -0.6$ We conclude that: There is a significant strong positive relationship

$P = 0.000 < 0.05$ between paragraph writing, and collocation use $r = 1.000, P < 0.001$

### 3.6.1.2 The Control Group Results

Participants in the control group received the same pre-test and we followed the same procedure in analysing it. More details about the control group pre-test.

**a- The Collocation Results**

Since we are investigating the relationship between two variables, the most appropriate test and the most used one is the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, sometimes called the Linear Correlation Coefficient $r$. It is a statistical technique that measures the strength and the direction of a linear relationship between two variables. First, we examined if we really have a linear relationship between the two research variables. We used SPSS to draw a Scatter Plot (figure 6) and a Bars Diagram (figure 7) to facilitate the observation.

**Table 11: Control Group Results on the Pre-test**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the control group, the overall mean=0.95. we observe that 8 students got the score 0, other 7 students got the score 1, while 5 students got the score 2, and 1 student got the score 3 concerning the frequency of using collocations in their writings. The students’ results in the pre-test vary between 0 and 6.

b. The Paragraph Writing Results

The following table shows a summary of the control group students’ scores in the pre-test.

Table 12: The Control Group Scores of Collocation Use in the Pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistiques</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missing</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std Deviation</td>
<td>.448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The overall mean score of the control group use of collocations before the treatment was $M=1.55$ (SD=0.448). The minimum score was 1 and the maximum one was 3 with a range of 2.

c. The Pearson Test

With the control group also, we examined if we really have a linear relationship between the two research variables. We used SPSS to draw a Scatter Plot and a Bars Diagram to facilitate the observation.

![Scatter Plot](image.png)

**Figure 6: Scatter Plot of the Correlation between Paragraph Writing Scores and Collocation Use Scores of the Control Group in the Pre-test.**

The dots created a virtual straight line with a direction from the lower left to upper right. We consider this as a strong positive correlation. This is also clear in the Bars Graph (Figure 7).
Figure 7: The Correlation between Paragraph Writing Scores and Collocation Use Scores of the Control Group in the Pre-test.

We used SPSS to calculate the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient.

Table 13: SPSS Results of the Pearson Test on the Control Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>control group scores in the pre-test</th>
<th>Control Group scores of collocations in the pre-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2 tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group scores of collocations in the pre-test</td>
<td>1,000**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2 tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The correlation is significant at the level 0.01 (2 tailed).

From table 13 we have:

\[ r = 1.000 > -0.6 \]

We conclude that: There is a significant strong positive relationship

\[ P = 0.000 < 0.05 \]

between writing achievement and collocation use scores, \( r = 1.000, P < 0.001 \).

### 3.6.1.4 Experimental Group Vs. Control Group Results on the Pre-Test

The EI mean score (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) of both groups are identical. As a result, their EI range does not differ much.

**Table 14: Experimental Group Vs. Control Group Results on the Pre-Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistiques</th>
<th>experimental group scores in the pre-test</th>
<th>control group scores in the pre-test</th>
<th>Experimental group scores of collocations in the pre-test</th>
<th>Control Group scores of collocations in the pre-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valide</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N Manquant</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1(^{a})</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1(^{a})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>,510</td>
<td>,448</td>
<td>,510</td>
<td>,448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to support our results with statistical givens, an Independent Samples T-Test is used to detect any significant difference between the means of the pre-tests of the experimental and the control groups. The t value can be calculated using the mathematical formula:

\[ t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{(N_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (N_2 - 1)s_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right)}}. \]

Where \( \bar{x} \) is the calculated mean, \( N \) is the number of individuals and \( S^2 \) is the sample variance, then compared to the correspondent \( t \) in the table of the critical values of \( t \) distribution (known as ‘Table D’). If the latter is greater than the calculated \( t \), then we can say that there is no significant difference between the experimental and the control groups and if it is less than the calculated \( t \), we deduce that there is a significant difference between the two groups.

The calculation is done using SPSS and the results are shown in table 19 below. The P-value (sig (2-tailed) divided into two) tells us if there is a difference between the two groups or not:

- \( P \leq 0.05 \) means: there is a significant difference between the two groups.
- \( P \geq 0.05 \) means: there is no significant difference between the two groups.

### 3.6.2 The Post-Test Results

The participants in both experimental and control groups participated in the post-test, which is identical the pre-test, students were asked to write a letter. Again, SPSS in the tool chosen to analyse the statistical results.

#### 3.6.2.1 The Experimental Group

a- The Collocation Results
Table 16: Experimental Group writing Paragraph in the Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>1.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the post-test, for the experimental group the overall mean = 2.58 (Std = 1.558), the scores ranged between 0 and 6.

b. The Paragraph Writing Results

Table 17: Experimental Group Scores in Paragraph Writing for the Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Mode | 2
| Std. Deviation | 0.998 |
| Minimum | 1 |
| Maximum | 5 |

The overall mean = 2.71, with a Std. deviation = 0.998. The scores ranged between 1 and 5.

3.6.2.2 The Control Group Results

a- The Collocation Results
Table 18: Control Group: Post-test

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1,05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>0,740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean score of the control group use of collocations on the post-test was $M=1.05$ (SD=0.740). The minimum score was 0 and the maximum one was 3 with a range of 3. We can notice that there is a small improvement in the students’ scores for the use of collocation.

b. The Paragraph Writing Results

Table 19: Control Group Scores in the Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistiques</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valide</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manquante</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The overall mean score of the control group use of collocations on the post-test was $M=1.60$ (Std=0.365). The minimum score was 1 and the maximum one was 3 with a range of 2. We can notice that there is a small improvement in the students’ scores for the use of collocation.

### 3.6.2.3 Experimental Group Vs. Control Group Results on the Post-Test

In the table, data of the experimental and the control groups on the post-test are compared. We can notice that:

- Unlike the pre-test where there was no great difference between the descriptive statistics of both groups on the paragraph writing scores, a noteworthy decrease in the experimental group post-test results was noticed.
- The mean score (M) of the control group=1.60. reflecting a high achievement in paragraph writing, whereas the mean score (M) of the experimental group =2.71.

### The Independent Samples T-Test

Given that Levene’s test indicates that the variances are not equal across the two groups (i.e., $p$-value is less than 0.05), which makes ideal sense since there is a considerable difference between the standard deviations of the control and experimental groups (Table 13), the t-test for equality of means shows evidence of the fact that there exists a significant difference between the results of the control and the experimental groups on the post-test by recording a level of significance that is less than 0.05.
Table 20: SPSS Results of the Independent Samples T-Test of the Post-Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>7.769</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.476</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We noticed that there is a difference between the two groups, but we need to determine if the difference is statistically significant. With the help of SPSS, we conducted the Independent
Samples T-test which detects the difference between the means of the post-tests of the experimental and the control groups.

The P-value tells us if there is a difference between the two groups or not:

\( P \leq 0.05 \) means: there is a significant difference between the two groups.

\( P \geq 0.05 \) means: there is no significant difference between the two groups.

As a result, we conclude that the significant difference between the experimental and the control groups after the treatment period is due to our explicit teaching of collocation and not by a chance.

3.6.3 Experimental Group’s Pre-Test and Post-Test Difference Scores

**Table 21: Experimental Group’s Pre-Test and Post-Test Difference Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>experimental group scores in the pre-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental group scores in the post-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valide</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erreur std. of the mean</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>0.998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the previous table, we notice that there is a significant difference in the scores for the
experimental group, the mean difference is (2.71-1.65) =1.06 which reflects a notable significant improvement, with Std =0.204 for the post-test, and =0.146 for the pre-test.

### Table 22: Paired Sample Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>-1.063</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>1.363</td>
<td>-7.312</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Scores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table: Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paire 1</th>
<th>experimental group scores in the pre-test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Sts. Deviation</th>
<th>Erreur standard mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,65</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,71</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Miller (2005) highlights the importance of conducting such statistical tests by affirming that it is very improbable to assume beyond sensible doubt that the only variable responsible for the variation is the independent one without carrying out a t-test (a paired sample t-test in this case). As shown in the table 22, the P-values of the experimental group’s scores in the post-test is less than 0.001. We conclude that: The participants’ scores on the experimental group post-test are statistically significantly higher than their EI raw scores on the pre-test, t (23)= -7.312, P=0.000<0.05 (one-tail).

3.6.4 Control Group’s Pre-Test and Post-Test Difference Scores

Table 23: Control Group’s Pre-Test and Post-Test Difference Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Statistiques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Std.Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>-0,5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>0,5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

control group scores in the post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Std.Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1,60</td>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std.Deviation</td>
<td>,365</td>
<td>Std.Deviation</td>
<td>,448</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above data, we observe a slight difference between the pre-and post-tests descriptive statistics of the control group on the writing achievement results. The writing paragraph mean score (M) of the control group on both the pre-and the post-tests ranges between [1.55;1.60] reflecting a small improvement in the students’ writing achievement.

### 3.6.4.1 The Paired Samples T-Test

In order to see the difference in the students’ scores in the pre-and post-test, we need to use SPSS

**Table 24: SPSS Results of the Paired Samples T-Test of the Control Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples Test</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CNTpreTest - CNTpostTest</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>-0.170</td>
<td>-0.075</td>
<td>-0.810</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We conclude from the table 24, that the participants’ scores of writing on the control group’s pre and post-tests are not statistically significantly different, t(20)= -0.810, P=.428> 0.05. The fact that they are different does not imply that there is a significant difference between them because the critical value (t= -0.810) is 16 times bigger than 0.05. This proves
that the difference between the control group writing scores on the pre-and post-tests are very insignificant.

3.7 General Discussion

The current study was an attempt to examine the efficiency of explicit teaching of collocations on improving students’ writing achievement. In an attempt to answer the research question, it was hypothesized that explicit teaching of collocations leads to the enhancement of students’ writing achievement. The analysis of the findings proved that the hypothesis was confirmed. The descriptive statistics also showed that the two groups before the treatment period scored different averages: \( \mu = 0.71 \) for the experimental group and \( \mu = 0.95 \) for the control group who performed better than the experimental group. In other words, both groups’ initial performance about the use of collocations before the experiment was approximately different. Unlike, after the treatment period both groups showed an improvement to the above level; \( \mu = 2.58 \) for the experimental group which is significantly higher than that of the control group \( \mu = 1.05 \). The responses revealed suggest that the only causative variable for students’ post-test progress is due to the explicit teaching of collocation technique. Explicit teaching appeared to be effective in developing students’ writing production.

Conclusion

This chapter shed light on the practical part of our research; we provided research design and methodology including population and setting, explanation of choice of the method and the selection of the corpus. We also explain the analytical procedures and techniques of data analysis. Closing with, providing the analysis of our data and the obtained results which confirmed the hypothesis.
3.8 Pedagogical Implications

It is better to include explicit teaching of collocations in English teaching in order to raise students’ attention about collocations. In addition, dictionaries are important tools in the processes of teaching and learning. Teachers ought to guide students in order to better their writing and encourage them to use collocations in their assignments. Writing should be taught separately and starting from the beginning.

In a *Communicative-Collocational Approach* to teaching writing, we advocate the following key features:

1- Teaching collocations is the major attempt to reach proficiency in writing.

2- Teaching individual words come in the second position, and it is useful only if these words are taught in context.

3- In vocabulary, lexical collocations represent the most important part. Then, we have grammatical collocations and phrasal verbs whereas individual words are ranked in the third position.

4- Collocations are included in the syllabus of writing. They are taught explicitly through highlighting, noticing, consciousness-raising.

5- Collocation is included in the criteria of evaluating compositions.

6- Feedback on miss-collocations is very important because it will raise learners’ collocational competence and consequently communicative competence.

7- Activities that enhance students’ knowledge and use of collocations are required.

8- Textbooks and other materials of collocations have to be referred to by both the teacher and the learner whenever needed.

9- Materials—either adapted, adopted or designed, are very useful in teaching collocations and fulfilling the objectives of teaching writing.
10- Autonomous learning is emphasized since the teacher cannot provide the students with everything.

11- A Lexical Notebook is very useful to store collocations that are recalled later.

14- Testing Collocations implies testing language generally and writing specially.

15- General Collocations are discriminated from technical ones. The latter are only used in ESP while the former is used in all the registers. Thus, general collocations should be included even in ESP courses.

These features mentioned above are guidelines for teaching writing through a communicative-collocational approach. In addition to what we found and after we conducted the research.

**General Conclusion**

English students usually have problems in writing, mis-collocations are far reaching in their composition, and their words are related improperly. Consequently, they have to use collocations to write more proficiently. Also, what the learners have to bear in mind is to consider these lexical chunks as a single word. Hence, teaching collocations would be beneficial to them. Teachers of written expression in particular should help the learners develop their communicative competence as well as their collocational competence so that they become fluent in English generally and writing specifically. This could be achieved through an explicit teaching of collocations that is based mainly on building students’ awareness of the most common collocates of a word.

**Limitations of the Study**

In our attempt to investigate the effect of explicit teaching of collocations on students writing achievement, we have encountered some limitations such as:
- The study had to be conducted in a limited period, so the training lasted only three weeks. Although some development has been observed, a three-week period is not enough for a language skill to develop, especially for writing, which is one of the most difficult skills.

- Several students skipped classes ever so often, and it was quite inconvenient to repeat the same activities more than once due to time constraints.

- Learners did not have sufficient collocation competence about either grammatical or lexical collocations on L2. For that, Hill suggested (2000) that English as Foreign Language teachers should make their students aware and more competent in using collocations with other words taking into consideration the difficulties.

- Variety is also important so that collocations cover all the subjects of real-life. This technique is followed in McCarthy and O’Dell textbook “English Collocations in Use” (2005) where there are different themes: crime, news, money, war…each theme is provided and followed by exercises.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

The use of collocations was proved to be crucial for the learning process, especially for writing achievement. Therefore, adopting such technique in EFL classrooms should be taken into account. Further researches can be conducted to examine the effect of explicit teaching of collocations on other aspects of language, especially on vocabulary. Also, might investigate other techniques and strategies to improve students’ learning skills.
List of References


Fuentes, A. C. (2001). Lexical behavior in academic and technical corpora. Implications for ESP development. 5(3). Available online from:  


## Appendix A: List of Common Collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have</th>
<th>Do</th>
<th>Make</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have a bath</td>
<td>Do business</td>
<td>Make a difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a drink</td>
<td>Do nothing</td>
<td>Make a mess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a good time</td>
<td>Do someone a favour</td>
<td>Make a mistake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a haircut</td>
<td>Do the cooking</td>
<td>Make a noise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a holiday</td>
<td>Do the housework</td>
<td>Make an effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a problem</td>
<td>Do the shopping</td>
<td>Make furniture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a relationship</td>
<td>Do the washing up</td>
<td>Make money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a rest</td>
<td>Do your best</td>
<td>Make progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have lunch</td>
<td>Do your hair</td>
<td>Make room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have sympathy</td>
<td>Do your homework</td>
<td>Make trouble</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Take</th>
<th>Break</th>
<th>Catch</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Take a break</td>
<td>Break a habit</td>
<td>Catch a ball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a chance</td>
<td>Break a leg</td>
<td>Catch a bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a look</td>
<td>Break a promise</td>
<td>Catch a chill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a rest</td>
<td>Break a record</td>
<td>Catch a cold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a seat</td>
<td>Break a window</td>
<td>Catch a thief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a taxi</td>
<td>Break someone's heart</td>
<td>Catch fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take an exam</td>
<td>Break the ice</td>
<td>Catch sight of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take notes</td>
<td>Break the law</td>
<td>Catch someone's attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take someone's place</td>
<td>Break the news to someone</td>
<td>Catch someone's eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take someone's temperature</td>
<td>Break the rules</td>
<td>Catch the flu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pay</th>
<th>Save</th>
<th>Keep</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay a fine</td>
<td>Save electricity</td>
<td>Keep a diary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay attention</td>
<td>Save energy</td>
<td>Keep a promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay by credit card</td>
<td>Save money</td>
<td>Keep a secret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay cash</td>
<td>Save one's strength</td>
<td>Keep an appointment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay interest</td>
<td>Save someone a seat</td>
<td>Keep calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay someone a compliment</td>
<td>Save someone's life</td>
<td>Keep control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay someone a visit</td>
<td>Save something to a disk</td>
<td>Keep in touch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay the bill</td>
<td>Save space</td>
<td>Keep quiet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay the price</td>
<td>Save time</td>
<td>Keep someone's place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay your respects</td>
<td>Save yourself the trouble</td>
<td>Keep the change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Come</th>
<th>Go</th>
<th>Get</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Come close</td>
<td>Go abroad</td>
<td>Get a job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come complete with</td>
<td>Go astray</td>
<td>Get a shock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come direct</td>
<td>Go bad</td>
<td>Get angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come early</td>
<td>Go bald</td>
<td>Get divorced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come first</td>
<td>Go bankrupt</td>
<td>Get drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come into view</td>
<td>Go blind</td>
<td>Get frightened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come last</td>
<td>Go crazy</td>
<td>Get home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come late</td>
<td>Go dark</td>
<td>Get lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come on time</td>
<td>Go deaf</td>
<td>Get married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come prepared</td>
<td>Go fishing</td>
<td>Get nowhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come right back</td>
<td>Go mad</td>
<td>Get permission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come second</td>
<td>Go missing</td>
<td>Get pregnant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to a compromise</td>
<td>Go on foot</td>
<td>Get ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to a decision</td>
<td>Go online</td>
<td>Get started</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to an agreement</td>
<td>Go out of business</td>
<td>Get the impression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to an end</td>
<td>Go overseas</td>
<td>Get the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to a standstill</td>
<td>Go quiet</td>
<td>Get the sack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to terms with</td>
<td>Go sailing</td>
<td>Get upset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to a total of</td>
<td>Go to war</td>
<td>Get wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come under attack</td>
<td>Go yellow</td>
<td>Get worried</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Exercise: Match the following verbs with its right collocates

Have     an effort
Take     a decision
Pay      an effort
Take     harm
Make     decision
Make     an accident
Do       attention
Have     a break
Appendix C

Paragraph writing

A paragraph is a group of sentences that develop one topic or idea. It has three main parts. The first part is the topic sentence. It is called the topic sentence because it states the topic or the subject of the paragraph. The second main part is the supporting sentences. The supporting sentences develop the topic. This means that they explain the topic sentence in detail. The last part is the concluding sentence. The concluding sentence summarizes the paragraph and/or adds a final comment. A clear academic paragraph requires all of these parts.

Example 1:

**Problems in Big Cities**

(1) All around the world living in big cities creates serious problems for people. (2a) The first problem is air pollution. For example, in Istanbul, many people have cars and cars are one reason why the air is polluted. (2b) Secondly, traffic is an important problem for the people living in big cities. Nowadays there are more and more cars on roads, and this causes traffic jams in many parts of the cities. For this reason, many inhabitants waste their time in traffic, and they are negatively affected by this situation. (3) To sum up, air pollution and traffic jams are two important problems that people living in big cities have.
Parts of the Paragraph

The topic

A topic is the general idea of a paragraph. It is what gives the answer to the question “What is the paragraph about?” For example, Biochemistry, Physiology and Anatomy are all examples of the topic Medical subjects.

The topic sentence

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of a paragraph. It contains the main idea which is developed in the rest of the paragraph. A topic sentence must be a complete sentence, a statement of intent, opinion or a mixture of both. It should be neither too broad (Football is very popular in the world) nor too narrow (Gold is very valuable). The topic tells us the subject (what the paragraph is about) and the controlling idea makes a specific comment about the topic (what the paragraph is going to say about the topic / the writer’s attitude or idea about the topic). In other words, the controlling idea shows the reader what the rest of the paragraph will say about the topic; it limits the topic to a specific area to be discussed in a single paragraph.

e.g. Students who are studying abroad may face many difficulties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Controlling Idea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e.g. There are two main advantages of working at home.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The controlling idea may be found:

- At the beginning of the topic sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>There are two main advantages of working at home.</th>
<th>Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
The two main advantages of working at home are its flexible hours and its comfort.

Working at home is advantageous because of its flexible hours and its comfort.

Supporting sentences

The supporting sentences in a paragraph explain or develop the topic sentence. The supporting part can be narratives, details, facts, examples, explanations or statistics. All of the supporting sentences relate to the main idea stated in the topic sentence and show why it is true.

The concluding sentence

The conclusion of a paragraph signals the end of the paragraph; summarizes the main points of the paragraph and relates them to the topic sentence; gives a final comment on the topic and leaves the reader with the most important ideas to think about; can make a suggestion or a prediction. A concluding sentence is not absolutely necessary, but it is very helpful to the reader since it signals the end of the paragraph and reminds the reader of the important points. The concluding sentence often closes the paragraph by returning the main idea of it. They do this by repeating a keyword or phrase from the topic sentence.

e.g.: Topic sentence: There are many good reasons for why people live in the country but not in cities.

Conclusion: In conclusion, living in the country is much better than living in the city.

Topic Sentence: Forests are important for life on earth.
Conclusion: To sum up, if there were no forests, there would be no life on this planet.

Topic Sentence: There are some important qualities of a good boss.

Conclusion: All in all, a qualified boss should be fair, should be a good leader and should act with consistency.

**Basic paragraph format**

- **TOPIC SENTENCE**
- SUPPORTING DETAIL 1 (+ Minor Detail 1)
- SUPPORTING DETAIL 2 (+ Minor Detail 2)
- SUPPORTING DETAIL 3 (+ Minor Detail 3)
- THE CONCLUDING SENTENCE
Appendix D: Collocations

What is a collocation?

A collocation is two or more words that often go together. These combinations just sound "right" to native English speakers, who use them all the time. On the other hand, other combinations may be unnatural and just sound "wrong". Look at these examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>natural English...</th>
<th>unnatural English...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the fast train</td>
<td>the quick train</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast food</td>
<td>quick food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a quick shower</td>
<td>a fast shower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a quick meal</td>
<td>a fast meal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why learn collocations?

- Your language will be more natural and more easily understood.
- You will have alternative and richer ways of expressing yourself.
- It is easier for our brains to remember and use language in chunks or blocks rather than as single words.

How to learn collocations

- Be aware of collocations, and try to recognize them when you see or hear them.
- Treat collocations as single blocks of language. Think of them as individual blocks or chunks, and learn strongly support, not strongly + support.
- When you learn a new word, write down other words that collocate with it (remember rightly, remember distinctly, remember vaguely, remember vividly).
• Read as much as possible. Reading is an excellent way to learn vocabulary and collocations in context and naturally.

• Revise what you learn regularly. Practise using new collocations in context as soon as possible after learning them.

• Learn collocations in groups that work for you. You could learn them by topic (time, number, weather, money, family) or by a particular word (take action, take a chance, take an exam).

• You can find information on collocations in any good learner's dictionary. And you can also find specialized dictionaries of collocations.

“Tell me who you go with and I'll tell you who you are Saying”

Types of collocation

There are several different types of collocation made from combinations of verb, noun, adjective etc. Some of the most common types are:

• **adverb + adjective**: completely satisfied (NOT downright satisfied)

• **adjective + noun**: excruciating pain (NOT excruciating joy)

• **noun + noun**: a surge of anger (NOT a rush of anger)

• **noun + verb**: lions roar (NOT lions shout)

• **verb + noun**: commit suicide (NOT undertake suicide)

• **verb + expression with preposition**: burst into tears (NOT blow up in tears)

• **verb + adverb**: wave frantically (NOT wave feverishly)
Sample Collocations

There are several different types of collocation. Collocations can be adjective + adverb, noun + noun, verb + noun and so on. Below you can see seven main types of collocation in sample sentences.

1. adverb + adjective

- Invading that country was an **utterly stupid** thing to do.
- We entered a **richly decorated** room.
- Are you **fully aware** of the implications of your action?

2. adjective + noun

- The doctor ordered him to take **regular exercise**.
- The Titanic sank on its **maiden voyage**.
- He was writhing on the ground in **excruciating pain**.

3. noun + noun

- Let's give Mr Jones a **round of applause**.
- The **ceasefire agreement** came into effect at 11am.
- I'd like to buy two **bars of soap** please.

4. noun + verb

- The **lion** started to **roar** when it heard the **dog barking**.
- **Snow was falling** as our **plane took off**.
- The **bomb went off** when he started the car engine.

5. verb + noun
• The prisoner was hanged for committing murder.

• I always try to do my homework in the morning, after making my bed.

• He has been asked to give a presentation about his work.

6. verb + expression with preposition

• We had to return home because we had run out of money.

• At first her eyes filled with horror, and then she burst into tears.

• Their behaviour was enough to drive anybody to crime.

7. verb + adverb

• She placed her keys gently on the table and sat down.

• Mary whispered softly in John’s ear.

• I vaguely remember that it was growing dark when we left.
Résumé

Le but de la présente étude est d'étudier le rôle de l'enseignement explicite des collocations dans l'acquisition de compétences en écriture de langue étrangère. Les étudiants en anglais comme langue étrangère sont confrontés à une variété de problèmes qui rendent leur écriture pas compétente. Un problème majeur est l'absence de vocabulaire approprié qui pourrait être lié à l'ignorance des collocations. Ainsi, nous supposons qu'il existe une corrélation entre l'enseignement explicite des collocations et la maîtrise de l'écriture. Pour prouver cette hypothèse, une étude expérimentale a été réalisée. Deux groupes ont constitué notre échantillon : un groupe expérimental et un témoin. Un pré-test a été administré pour examiner l'utilisation des collocations par les élèves par l'écriture de paragraphe sous forme de lettre. Les résultats du pré-test ont montré une connaissance limitée des collocations. Une expérience a été menée pour élever la compétence en écriture des élèves en développant leur compétence collocational principalement grâce à un enseignement explicite des collocations. Le test Pearson Corrélation Coefficient a été administré en évaluant l'écriture des élèves des premiers paragraphes de l'examen. Les résultats du post-test ont confirmé notre hypothèse selon laquelle une forte corrélation linéaire existe entre la maîtrise de l'écriture et les collocations d'enseignement. Ainsi, nous recommandons l'adaptation d'une approche communicative-collocational à l'enseignement de l'écriture, ce qui implique l'enseignement de l'écriture par une approche communicative en développant la compétence collocational des étudiants.
المنصوب

إن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو التحقق في دور مدى مساهمة تعليم ترابط وتركيب وتناسق الألفاظ لتناول معي محدد، وأهميته في رفع الكفاءة في كتابة اللغة الأجنبية. فطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية-كلغة أجنبية- يواجهون مجموعة مختلفة من المصاعب التي تجعل كتاباتهم غير مرتبطة: مشكلة رئيسية هي عدم وجود المفردات المركبة المناسبة التي يمكن أن تكون ذات صلة بجعل المقصد. وبالتالي، فإننا نفترض وجود علاقة مباشرة بين دلالة الكلمات وسياقها ومعناها وكفاءة الكتابة وللأمثلة هذه الفرضية، أجريت دراسة تجريبية. وقد شكلت مجموعتين عينيتين لدينا: مجموعة تجريبية وأخرى شاهدة. تم إجراء اختبار مسبق لفحص استخدام الطلاب للربط من خلال كتابة فقرة في شكل رسالة. وقد أظهرت نتائج الاختبار الأولي معرفة محدودة عن دلالة اللافتات التركبية ومدى أدائها للمعني. ثم أجريت تجربة لرفع كفاءة الطلاب في الكتابة من خلال تطوير كفاءتهم التجميعية أساساً من خلال تدريس هدف عن مدى استجابتهم لذلك. وقد اختبر معامل ارتباط بريسون من خلال تقييم كتابة الطلاب لفقرات الامتحان الأول. وقد أكدت نتائج الاختبار البعدى فرضيتها القائلة بأن هناك ارتباط وثيقاً وقوياً بين الكفاءة في الكتابة وتعليم اللغة. وبالتالي، فإننا نوصي بتكييف نهج التواصل-كولاكتيون لتعليم الكتابة التي تنطوي على تدريسها الكتابة من خلال نهج التواصل لتطوير الكفاءة الطلابية.